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Designing a Curriculum for a Distance Learning Class: An Example of a First-year Japanese Course

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Abstract—Although technology has been integrated widely in foreign language courses and has shown positive results for foreign language learners, it is challenging to teach critical languages that do not have commercially developed, online-based textbook packages for distance learning courses. The distance separating students sometimes hinders the provision of learning experiences focused on social and cultural contexts in distance learning courses. This article discusses how online learning communities play important roles as networks of social relationships in which engagement and interaction are critical to the distance-learning courses. In online learning communities, the instructor's scaffolding through the step-by-step process as well as collaboration with peers further helps enhance students' success. In the course discussed in this article, students enrolled in a first-year Japanese distance-learning course developed basic communicative skills and increased their awareness of cultural differences through the instructor's intervention and collaborative work with peers by using a combination of synchronous and asynchronous components of the course management system. The results of a nine-month investigation report students' attitudes toward distance learning classes based on their feedback from a course survey.

Index Terms—curriculum development, distance-learning, intercultural competence, learner autonomy, online learning community

I. INTRODUCTION

Technology has impacted educational environments significantly and continues to do so although potential disadvantages or limitations of online learning have been identified. Research has indicated drawbacks to online learning, including learner isolation (Brown, 1996); learner frustration, anxiety, confusion (Hara & Kling, 2000); and the need for more discipline, self-motivation, and time commitment to learning (Golladay, Prybutok, & Huff, 2000; Serwatka, 2003). The U.S. Department of Education (2009) reported that online learning offered an advantage over traditional classroom instruction. According to the findings of analysis conducted by the U.S. Department of Education, students who took all or part of their classes online performed better than those in traditional face-to-face instruction. Furthermore, students in blended (or hybrid) classes performed better than those in purely online courses. The investigator concluded that instruction using technology is more effective compared to purely traditional face-to-face instruction because increased time on task and learner reflection in online learning environments through interactions with media help students reach higher levels of achievement.

Nevertheless, effectively giving instructions related to critical languages (less commonly taught languages such as Japanese and Arabic) that do not have commercially developed, online-based textbook packages, including class schedules, materials, and assessment, is challenging in distance learning courses aimed at providing quality instruction equal to that of face-to-face classes. Currently, only a few instructors in the field of Japanese language education have developed curricula for teaching distance learning courses in the United States; therefore, one of the aims of this article is to show an example of the distance learning course developmental processes.

This article focuses on the methods to bridge the distance separating student from student as well as student from instructor to enhance the success of a diverse group of students in a virtual classroom. The first part discusses how a first-year Japanese distance learning course was planned. The second part describes how the distance learning course was managed to develop basic communicative skills and global views simultaneously using the synchronous and asynchronous online components of Blackboard. Finally, distance learning students' feedback from a course survey is reported.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

A. Online Learning Community

Both individual and social learning processes affect learning outcomes. According to Jonassen, Peck, and Wilson (1999), the five attributes of meaningful learning are "active, constructive, intentional, authentic, and cooperative" (p. 7). In particular, cognitive constructivism claims that individual construction of knowledge is discovered through

interaction in the environment (Bonk & Cunningham, 1998). From a social constructivist perspective, “Meaning making is a process of negotiation among the participants through dialogue or conversations” (Jonassen et al., 1999, p. 5). Thus, from the constructivist’s viewpoint, online learning communities in distance learning classes play important roles as networks of social relationships in which engagement and interaction are critical to the learning environment.

In practice, online learning communities not only reduce the potential for learner isolation, but also provide learners with social dimensions that enhance instructional effectiveness, increase dynamic interaction, encourage learning satisfaction, foster in-depth discussion, and facilitate collaborative learning (Lomicka & Lord, 2007). Technology can be a tool for exploring, representing, and articulating knowledge as well as a medium for conversing and collaborating. Using these advantages, online learning communities in which individualized attention by the instructor and collaboration among peers occur can enhance student success through a cyclical relationship using online components that emphasize social formation.

Online classes can be conducted using a combination of synchronous and asynchronous components. Both components offer advantages and disadvantages. Synchronous e-learning (e.g., teleconference, webcast, web conference) provide learners with live, depersonalized, concurrent, and collaborative learning opportunities similar to classroom settings; however, synchronous e-learning is normally scheduled, whereas asynchronous e-learning (e.g., email, discussion forum, podcasting, interactive multimedia content) is self-paced and available at any time. The flexibility of learning environments in asynchronous e-learning enables learners to increase time on task and learner reflection utilizing media.

Although computer-mediated communication (CMC) initially was not considered a personal communicative device (Baron, 1984; Kiesler, Siegel, & McGuire, 1984) due to its lack of paralinguistic elements, CMC is no longer viewed as “socially impaired” (Baym, 1995) from media-deterministic perspectives. Indeed, the results of many studies support the idea that CMC can create a socially rich environment (e.g., Michinov, Michinov, & Toczec-Capelle, 2004). CMC using asynchronous e-learning tools, such as discussion forums, is effective in building a socially rich environment for online learning communities. Asynchronous e-learning tools can bridge the distance separating student from student as well as student from instructor through interaction and as intermittently collaborative learning. These also can be useful devices for building group activities and teamwork, thereby providing opportunities that enable learners to understand by communicating with others.

However, based on the results from a questionnaire used to investigate the usability of online social networks for foreign-language learning purposes, Stevenson and Liu (2010) reported that 47% of users indicated that the “Discussion Board” section of their online class site was not helpful in meeting their goals as language learners. These results further demonstrate the concern expressed by some users regarding the social aspect of the website being inappropriate for the learning elements of the site. Others expressed frustration with the limited capabilities of the site to promote collaboration with and learning from other users. Therefore, well-planned curricula are necessary to make the Discussion Board more effective, so learners are provided opportunities to interact with classmates and exchange information, knowledge, and thoughts.

B. Development of Intercultural Abilities

Using online components that emphasize social formation, thereby enhancing global views and cross-cultural understanding, is necessary for distance learning students who are learning foreign languages as culture has been emphasized as the core of the foreign language curriculum in such publications as *Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century* (National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 1999). According to Byram’s (2000) definition (Byram, 1997; Byram & Zarate, 1997), intercultural competence (ICC) refers to the ability to perceive relationships between different cultures both internally and externally. “Intercultural” reflects the view that foreign-language students must gain insight into their native culture as well as the target culture to mediate and explain differences. In addition, these students need to become aware of the meeting of cultures that occurs in communication using the learned foreign language (Kramsch, 1993). Interculturally competent people should be able to mediate either for themselves or for other people by interpreting each in terms of the other. They can critically or analytically understand their own and other cultures through conscious processes based on their own perspectives.

In effectively developing ICC in distance learning courses, e-forum entries are useful tools that allow learners to exchange views with speakers of the target language. Some studies investigated the effectiveness of an online learning environment developed to foster the ICC of foreign language learners using an e-forum. For example, Liaw (2006) reported research results regarding data categorized and analyzed using four types of ICC that emerged in students’ e-forum entries based on Byram’s (1997) model, which proposed a general curriculum development process for ICC. The four types of ICC in Liaw’s study are (a) interest in knowing other people’s way of life and introducing one’s own culture to others, (b) ability to change perspective, (c) knowledge about one’s own culture and others’ culture for ICC, and (d) knowledge about ICC processes. The findings of Liaw’s study, based on qualitative data analysis, were: (a) Most entries fell under the category of “knowledge about one’s own and others’ culture for ICC.” (b) The second largest category was an “interest in knowing other people’s way of life and introducing one’s own culture to others.” (c) The smallest category was the “ability to change perspective.” These results indicated that the students in Liaw’s study tended not only to gain knowledge of the target culture, but also discovered and reflected when their understanding of the behaviors, beliefs, concepts, and methods of interacting in the native and target cultures was exchanged with other

students. These findings could be evidence that the students realized and learned important facts about the target culture. Additionally, they could successfully communicate with people of the target language about both target and native cultures and maintain communication for a long period of time.

III. REDESIGN OF COURSE CURRICULUM

Despite the fact that some remarkable software (e.g., Natural Language Processing techniques—parsing) can analyze whether students' answers are correct and can provide flexible feedback based on students' input, this capability tends to be limited to the sentence level. For students enrolled in the present distance learning course to further develop language skills beyond the sentence level, the curriculum of the distance learning course discussed in this article was developed carefully. This section describes how the syllabus of this distance learning course was developed using the same textbook, *An Integrated Course in Elementary Japanese: Genki I*, (Banno, Ohno, Sakane, & Shinagawa, 1999) and workbook as an in-class course but incorporating the considerations of how distance between the students and their instructor was bridged effectively to foster autonomous learning abilities.

A. Course Redesign

Learning autonomy is one of the key elements to success in distance learning and self-instruction. Autonomous learners transcend the barriers between learning and living, according to the definition of autonomous learning in the fields of educational psychology, educational theory, and curriculum development (e.g., Barners, 1976; Bruner, 1966; Illich, 1979; Rogers, 1983); namely, autonomous learners tend to integrate what they learn in the formal context of the classroom with what they already know through experiences in real-life situations (Little, 1995).

This distance learning course was designed based on the curricula of face-to-face courses with consideration for promoting autonomy because White (1995) discussed that distance learners who develop more metacognitive strategies and autonomous learning abilities learn in a similar manner as classroom learners. The year-long goal was determined referring to Novice-High proficiency level guidelines of the Oral Proficiency Interview of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 1999)¹. To achieve this goal at the end of the year, students should succeed in managing uncomplicated communicative tasks in straightforward social situations using cultural understanding and the skills to find information relating to these abilities as acquired in the course. The processes of course design were mainly (a) to set course goals, sub-goals, and activities in the graphic organizations of the syllabi; (b) to consider effective methods of developing ICC as well as basic communicative skills using synchronous and asynchronous components of Blackboard (the course management system) for distance learning courses; and (c) to develop assessment devices (such as tailored course evaluations).

Graphic organizations in syllabi

Concept maps in syllabi include cross-links that describe the relationships among the objectives and sub-objectives of activities and assessments. These graphical tools enhance organizing and representing knowledge, so students of a distance learning course who have little knowledge about a discipline can acquire a valid hierarchical schema for organizing disciplinary knowledge (Nilson, 2007) and more easily identify how the activities and assessment are associated. These kinds of maps effectively can present the objectives and the content of the course to the students, visually showing how elements such as the ability to write characters, use grammar, and search resources all reinforce one another. Since young people have been raised with television, video games, and the Internet, students better learn visually how all aspects of the language are associated and which activities help develop each language skill in distance learning environments. Although a syllabus was developed for each term², Figure 1 shows an example of graphic organizations in the first-term syllabus.

Figure 1 is a map that puts the year-long goal at the top while the objectives of the course are included in the big blue circle. Sub-objectives guide the actual skills being assessed in the colored circles on the outside. The goal of this course is for students to master basic communicative abilities in the Japanese language. In addition, they should develop a cultural understanding and the skills to find information relating to these abilities.

Promising syllabus

Promising syllabi make assurances rather than demands, providing students with intellectual, personal, and artistic options, including statements to encourage the students' motivation to study to foster deeper and more enthusiastic learning. Whereas a regular syllabus provides the goals and the objectives of the course determined by the curriculum designers or instructors and the standard information regarding course logistics, the promising syllabus provides students with opportunities to freely consider their learning plans and imagine their future based on the "promises" written from the students' viewpoints. Bain's (n.d.) model includes three elements in a promising syllabus. The first element consists of "The Promises," delivered in a story format, which tells the students how the course will help them. The first part of a promising syllabus enables students to understand what skills will be developed through learning processes of the course and what students will be able to do after graduating. The second element consists of the "Ways to Fulfill Those Promises," where the content of the course is described using student-centered language. The second part of a promising syllabus is similar to what is known as requirements and assignments in a regular syllabus; however, it avoids using "requirements" and "assignments;" instead, students' responsibilities and ways to enhance students'

learning are described. The last element describes how students can self-evaluate their own learning and thinking progress.

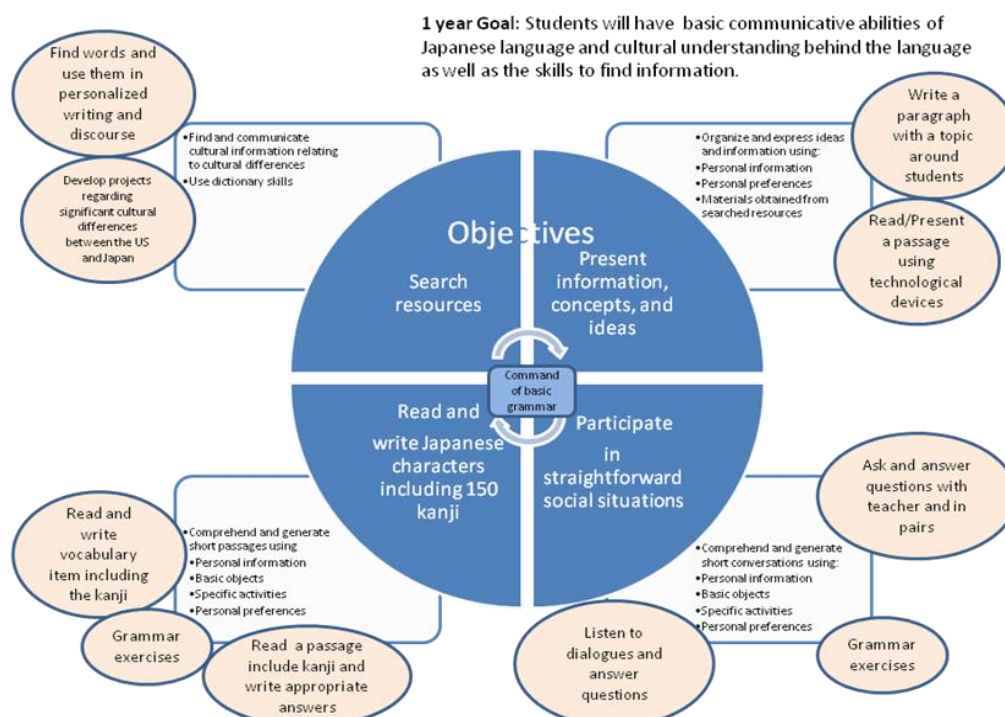


Figure 1. Example of graphic organizations, including a one-year goal, objectives, sub-objectives, activities, and assessment.

The last part of the syllabus for the present distance learning course contains “Promising Syllabus Paragraphs” that emphasize the importance of communication with people who speak the target language. It also stresses how study abroad could promise to bring success in foreign language learning to students (see Appendix 1). Because distance learning students have fewer opportunities to practice their language learning in face-to-face settings, participation in study abroad programs is encouraged, so students are exposed to target languages and cultures and can practice communication in real-life situations. In addition, the last part of the syllabus includes the instructor’s biography, so students can get to know and feel closer to their instructor even though they do not meet every day. These items are in different fonts to clearly separate them from the sections explaining course logistics. It is hoped that this stylistically unique part of the syllabus helps students become more dedicated to learning a language and its culture, using such knowledge in real-life settings, and continuing to expand such knowledge throughout life.

Development of activities/projects and assessment tools

As previously mentioned, distance learning students better understand the course goals and content if graphic organizations that visually show the associations of objectives, sub-objectives, activities/projects, and assessment are included in the syllabus. The one-year goal of this distance learning course is for students to obtain basic communicative skills and understand the target culture as well as to develop the ability to find information relating to these skills (see Figure 1). Hence, activities/projects that enable students to practice basic communicative skills and simultaneously enhance ICC were designed to provide students in a distance learning course practice with meaningful tasks. These activities/projects are helpful because students in distance learning courses need to work without physically meeting their instructors, who are from countries where the target languages are spoken or who are very familiar with target cultures.

To elicit students’ feedback about the entire course, the course survey, consisting of parts of the standardized course evaluation developed by the language departments and a tailored form course evaluation created by the course instructor, was conducted at the end of each term. Tailored form course evaluations are constructed for a specific course curriculum to gather not only the learners’ opinions with regard to course materials, activities, and learning strategies, but also their concerns about future courses whereas a traditional course evaluation is a means to produce feedback that can be useful in improving both the instructors’ quality of instruction and the structure of the course. Thus, tailored form course evaluations are better methods for receiving feedback from students with whom the instructor usually does not meet daily or alternate-day face-to-face settings. In addition to the six questions from the standardized course evaluation (instructor’s grading fairness, attention to the students’ progress, encouraging use of a target language, the most beneficial aspects of the course, suggestions to improve the course, and additional comments), the students were asked to evaluate how frequently they used course resources, how much they feel they have learned from the course materials and class activities, the benefits about the way in which the distance learning course was taught, effective

learning strategies they used and would like to share with their classmates, and the most memorable moment in the course (see Appendix 2).

B. Developing an Online Learning Community

This section describes how synchronous and asynchronous online components are utilized to develop learners' basic communicative skills and ICC simultaneously in the online learning community, where learners achieve shared learning objectives through computer-mediated communication.

Synchronous components

Synchronous online components such as a virtual class can provide learners with e-learning opportunities by enabling them to collaboratively interact with peers in a simulated regular classroom environment. Furthermore, multiple uses of recordings of synchronous components give learners the opportunity to study at their own pace until they are satisfied with their achievement. In the distance learning course discussed in this article, "Illuminate Live! (Illuminate, Inc. 2001-2010)," which is integrated into Blackboard, synchronous components were used to conduct a virtual class twice a week with the purposes of explaining new grammatical items, giving the students practice opportunities using the instructor's feedback in live sessions, and having question-and-answer sessions. Attendance at the virtual class was optional, but all sessions were recorded, so students who did not attend class because of a time conflict could watch it afterwards as many times as necessary. (Attendance at the virtual classes was optional, but students who attended each session received one extra credit point).

Asynchronous components

Attendance of virtual class was optional to accommodate a diverse group of students. To increase frequency of interaction so students could succeed in learning Japanese more effectively, asynchronous components were important elements of this distance learning course. In addition to the twice-weekly virtual class, instruction and assignments were delivered online on weekdays. Students completed paper workbook homework (which is regularly assigned in traditional face-to-face class sections)³ and were required to submit audio and video recordings that included grammar, vocabulary, and listening comprehension. For this course, an audio recording was assigned following a paragraph-length composition based on the topic of each lesson in the textbook, *An Integrated Course in Elementary Japanese: Genki I*, (Banno, Ohno, Sakane, & Shinagawa, 1999); from these assignments, students were assessed mainly on their grammatical and vocabulary abilities. After grading the composition focusing on accuracy, the instructor made a sound file of the student's composition and returned the corrected composition and the sound file to the student. While listening to the sound file, the students practiced correct pronunciation and intonation based on what they wrote in their compositions before making a sound file and submitting it. The instructor then assessed the students' intonation and pronunciation as well as the accuracy of grammar and vocabulary.

Furthermore, students were assigned cultural activity projects involving three elements—instructor's scaffolding⁴, collaboration among peers, and learner autonomy—aimed at developing the abilities to analyze, integrate, and internalize the knowledge as well as language skills. Therefore, one purpose of a project included in the course schedule of each term was to compensate for the lack of interaction and negotiation of meaning as well as to maximize the students' individual skills and abilities in the distance learning setting. Although the tendency exists to give small segments of assignments or activities to students in basic-level language classes, each project was designed within the framework where the instructor's scaffolding embraces collaboration among peers and individual learner autonomy. The project in the first term provided students with opportunities to learn about the Japanese culture and the method of exchanging business cards. In the second term of this course, the students produced videos introducing their family members following the same process of the project of the first term although the number of steps was fewer. In the third term, the students were given two track options. The first option was to produce a comic, so the students could use a variety of speech styles and integrate their knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, and Japanese culture within the stories. The second option for students who did not want to make a comic required students to create a dialogue and videotape themselves acting out the dialogue, extending it to a skit.

IV. STUDENTS' FEEDBACK FROM COURSE SURVEY

Students' feedback regarding (a) benefits about the way in which this distance learning course was taught, (b) effective learning strategies they used and would like to share with their classmates, and (c) the most memorable moment in the course were examined. These items were selected to determine (a) characteristics of students taking Japanese in distance learning settings, (b) activities distance learning students feel are beneficial, and (c) strategies students developed in individual learning environments.

In terms of logistics of distance language education, the responses indicated that students in the distance learning class liked the flexibility of the schedule most as indicated by the following comments: "There is no mandatory class time—I have a family and full time job and am very busy!"; "It allows for flexibility in one's schedule"; and "The whole course is so flexible for students that can't attend classes physically. It is also good for students that like to learn on their own time and pace. It's awesome." Distance learning courses must provide flexible learning opportunities for diverse students who have busy schedules; therefore, they must allow students to learn at an individual pace.

The students' responses regarding learning strategies and the most memorable moment in the distance learning class were analyzed and categorized into three different types of learning strategies based on White's (1995) study. White used metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective strategies because the scheme has a strong foundation in general learning theories in terms of the role of metacognition in learning, and the generic categories fit well with classroom and distance learning environments. Metacognitive strategies involve the awareness of learning processes and self-controlling abilities in the stages of planning, monitoring, and evaluating the learning activities. Compared with the metacognitive category, cognitive strategies are more directly related to individual learning tasks and involve the manipulation or transformation of the material to be learned. Socio-affective strategies influence social and affective processes of learning in the field of cognitive psychology. Social strategies involve interaction with others whereas affective strategies are concerned with the management skills of learners' own feelings about learning and language use. Table 1 shows the learning strategies revealed from the students' responses in the present distance learning courses.

TABLE 1.
LEARNING STRATEGIES USED BY DISTANCE LEARNING STUDENTS

Metacognitive strategies	Cognitive strategies	Socio-affective strategies
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monitoring listening comprehension • Self-monitoring • Increasing frequency of using a target language class • Study in shorter sessions as often as possible 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multiple-time access of recorded class session and materials • Simultaneous use of people from a target language country and learning materials • Making and using flashcards • Categorizing words on flashcards using different colors • Exposure of a target language • Memorization and rehearsing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interaction with people from a target language country • Interaction with the instructor at virtual and office hours • Sharing students' experience online with their classmates • Involvement of family members for study

In O'Malley, Chamot, and Küpper's (1989) scheme of metacognitive strategies, learning is controlled through planning, monitoring, and evaluating the learning activity. Due to the nature of the beginning level of Japanese language courses, the structure of the course was organized by the instructor, and students were not given many opportunities to control the selection of their learning materials and activities. Consequently, responses describing the learning processes were not found; however, planning and monitoring occurred to promote learning in distance learning settings in the present investigation. Some students were aware of effective methods of learning, such as increasing frequency of using a target language such as "Studying frequently and note cards."; "I studied frequently in shorter sessions, which I think is important for learning any foreign language." Some students monitored conversations of native-speakers of Japanese and Japanese movies to develop listening comprehension abilities. : (e.g., "Beginning to understand my Japanese friends about halfway through the course!"; "Listening to people [who are] speaking Japanese."; "Listening skills can be improved by watching Japanese movies.") Self-monitoring was also found (e.g., "Record myself speaking and listening. And correcting.")

Many responses were collected regarding cognitive strategies that involve the manipulation or transformation of the materials to be learned. Some students reported that they benefitted from multiple opportunities to access recorded sessions of the virtual class because the virtual classes covered an appropriate amount of detail and offered ample practice as long as they watched it. Some significant responses included: "Being able to go over new material multiple times due to recorded sessions [is helpful]."; "Having the classes recorded made questions on the homework very easy to answer yourself."; and "The written audio homework assignments are the most helpful." Based on these responses, it can be assumed that the recording of each session and students' compositions describing personal or autobiographical topics or subjects related to the immediate environment helped students develop speaking skills more effectively than in the traditional face-to-face class, where students have only a one-time chance to listen in class. Furthermore, some students found that simultaneously using people from the target language country and learning materials is useful, as mentioned: "Online flash cards and full use of my roommate (he is here from Japan studying English)." It was also found that making and using flashcards (even classifying words in different colors) was an effective strategy to memorize and rehearse learning words and sentences for distance learning students, as indicated by the following comments: "...always having flash cards on hand,...trying each time to write it out, reading aloud"; "Making flashcards in different colors!" "Flashcards and memorization. You MUST be prepared to dedicate a lot of time if you plan to learn another language." Finally, it was pointed out that maximizing exposure of a target language is important. Some responses included: "Expose yourself to as much Japanese as possible." "Watching anime to help to reinforce what has been learned in the classroom," and "Practice using the language often in your home and in everyday situations."

Socio-affective strategies are methods to compensate the absence of classroom instruction for distance learning students. In the present investigation, several types of socio-affective strategies could help bridge the distance between students as well as the distance between the students and the instructor. Some students recognized that interaction with people from a target language country (e.g., "Recording the introduction video [with Japanese people] was the most memorable moment in this course."), and interaction with the instructor (e.g., "The final [oral exams]—the interaction is nice.") were helpful. It was pointed out that involvement of family members for study was also helpful (e.g., "My

husband [and] I ...were able to practice with each other. This helped.”). In addition, events occurring in the virtual class and sharing the composition assignments posted on the Blackboard discussion board when conducting projects that involved collaboration were also listed (e.g., “I liked sharing my trip over winter break in one of the compositions.”).

Thus, these findings could be interpreted that the online learning community support for distance learning students plays an important role in encouraging learning satisfaction, leading students to use appropriate learning strategies and enhancing instructional effectiveness.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE PROSPECTS

This article discussed how a first-year Japanese distance learning course was structured with consideration to provide instructor’s scaffolding and collaboration among peers to accommodate a diverse group of students. The results from students’ feedback from the course survey revealed a positive attitude toward learning environments in distance settings and learning similarly as students in face-to-face classes. It is challenging to teach a critical language in a distance learning class, but it is possible to bridge or minimize the distance separating student from student as well as student from instructor and to enhance students’ success by effectively using asynchronous online components that emphasize social formation and a virtual class that synchronously combines support from the instructor and online learning communities.

Because the results of this investigation were obtained from beginning-level students, further studies are necessary to replicate and extend the study to involve students of different languages or levels. Furthermore, the means by which students developed autonomous learning abilities were not investigated during this nine-month period although students were asked to keep a written record of what they studied every day in a weekly study log when the author conducted a hybrid course prior to this study. Learning autonomy is required to succeed in distance learning courses; therefore, further research on the most effective ways to foster autonomous learning abilities for distance learning courses is needed.

NOTES

1. Although a final exam that evaluated students’ achievement was conducted in each term, the standardized oral proficiency interviews were not included in the present distance learning course curricula.

2. The university where the author of this article teaches offers Japanese language courses for three terms in one year. Each term lasts ten weeks and has a total of 50 contact hours (five credit hours each term).

3. Although all other assignments, such as audio and video recordings as well as compositions were turned in using the assignment component of Blackboard for grading, paper workbook homework was self-graded using the model answers uploaded onto Blackboard. The instructor, however, encouraged students to submit the parts where students wrote their own answers (the parts where answers vary).

4. Scaffolding is first defined by describing young children’s language acquisition and cognitive psychology. It represents helpful interactions between caretakers and children, enabling children to develop beyond the level where they are able to learn independently. It was applied to second language acquisition by Hatch (1978), and it refers to “the provision through conversation of linguistic structures that promote a learner’s recognition or production of those structures or associated forms” (Chaudron, 1988).

5. The cooperative education (co-op) program provides students with multiple alternating work experiences whereby students can transfer learning between the classroom and workplace to prepare for further career paths. Therefore, some students with co-op assignments need to move from a face-to-face section to a distance learning section from term to term.

APPENDIX 1. EXAMPLE OF PROMISING SYLLABUS

For distance-learning students in Basic Japanese Course

Learning a foreign language broadens a learner’s perspectives, visions, and worldview. An American college student had a chance to participate in a short-term study abroad program to go to Japan in a group led by professors for a summer in her sophomore year. Although she had effectively learned Japanese in a classroom, communicating in Japan was difficult for her. The following summer, she decided to go back to Japan to completely immerse herself in the Japanese culture and language. She decided to go alone and live with her host family for two months in order to speak Japanese all the time and understand Japanese culture more deeply. As a result, she not only achieved a higher level of language proficiency, but she also developed insights of understanding cultural differences through interacting with students from all over the world in a language school.

During the first quarter of this course, you will be able to read and write phonetic alphabets such as Hiragana and Katakana. While learning the phonetic alphabets, you will also learn the sound system. Following mastering phonetic alphabets and the sound system, you will learn basic Japanese grammar and fifteen Kanji characters. Along with learning a new language, you will find and communicate cultural information regarding cultural differences. The ultimate goals of this course are to be able to express personal meaning, to participate in straightforward social situations, and to grasp a deeper cultural understanding. Although the students learn only 150 Kanji in the first-year

Japanese course, there are thousands of characters in the Japanese language. Therefore, you will develop self-directed and life-long learning abilities as to search words and phrases you do not know.

APPENDIX 2. EXAMPLE OF COURSE SURVEY

This survey is anonymous. Your responses will help the instructor of the course to design future courses more effectively.

1. Please evaluate how frequently you used the following course resources.

	<u>Never</u>	<u>Infrequently</u>	<u>Frequently</u>	<u>Always</u>
Textbook	0	1	2	3
Workbook	0	1	2	3
Dictionaries	0	1	2	3
Voc. Practice (PPT)	0	1	2	3
Virtual Class	0	1	2	3
Blackboard Web Activities	0	1	2	3
Course Documents	0	1	2	3

2. Please evaluate how much you feel you have learned from the following course materials and class activities.

	<u>Nothing</u>	<u>Not very much</u>	<u>A Good Amount</u>	<u>A lot</u>
Composition	0	1	2	3
Audio-Recording	0	1	2	3
Comics	0	1	2	3
Homework	0	1	2	3
Textbook	0	1	2	3
Workbook	0	1	2	3
Dictionaries	0	1	2	3
Voc. Practice (PPT)	0	1	2	3
Virtual Class	0	1	2	3
Blackboard Web Activities	0	1	2	3
Course Documents	0	1	2	3
Discussion Board	0	1	2	3

3. Please list the effective learning strategies you used and would like to share with your classmates.

4. Please write about the most memorable moment in this course.

5. Instructor grades homework and tests fairly.

Strongly agree Agree Somewhat agree No opinion Do not agree

6. Instructor seems interested in the students and their progress.

Strongly agree Agree Somewhat agree No opinion Do not agree

7. Instructor encourages use of Japanese.

Strongly agree Agree Somewhat agree No opinion Do not agree

8. What is most beneficial aspect of the way this course is taught?

9. What suggestions would you make to improve this class?

10. Additional comments:

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Conceptual Change in Language Teaching and Learning: Why and How Lexical Concepts Drive Meaning Construction Differently across Languages

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Abstract—Teaching and learning based on conceptual change, henceforth TaLCC, have increasingly gained momentum in education. This development stems from recent findings that TaLCC facilitate learner's deep reasoning and profound understanding of complex problems. One explanation for this is TaLCC's scaffolding of self-regulated learning, which, as argued by Self-Determination Theory (e.g. Deci and Ryan 1985), facilitates learner motivation and learning performance. In this paper I adapt the basic assumptions of TaLCC to language teaching and learning. The focus of this paper is on word meaning and vocabulary learning. On the basis of Evans' (e.g. 2006) Lexical Concepts and Cognitive Models Theory I explicate word meaning via so-called cognitive model profiles. I outline a method for language learners to construct cognitive model profiles from a word's co-textual environment explicating and contrasting lexico-semantic regularities and idiosyncrasies of translation equivalents in the learner's L1 and the target language.

Index Terms—conceptual change, vocabulary learning, cognitive models, meaning construction, meaning-in-use, dialog, language teaching and learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Theories of conceptual change learning have drawn much attention in education in general and language learning in particular (e.g., Brophy 2010; Torres and de Cásia Veiga Marriott 2010; Fraser et al. 2011; Zimmerman and Schunk 2011). One of the basic assumptions of teaching and learning based on conceptual change, henceforth TaLCC, is that learners have their own views and ideas of things from the very beginning. In order to cope with the world learners naturally construct their own “theories” about how things are, long before teachers introduce them to scientific explanations.

This insight is not trivial. It presumes that teaching and learning take place on top of existing knowledge and not in an information vacuum. Learners are not blank slates where information is merely written on. In contrast, new knowledge builds up on what the learner already knows. This knowledge also includes everything the learner knows from and about the “real world” outside of the classroom. Within this context, learning is rather about replacing, revising, and extending existing knowledge than about filling a *tabula rasa* (cf., e.g., Haenen et al. 2003, p. 247; Meadows 2008, p. 181; Sinatra 2011).

Within this context, other findings in educational science gain plausibility. For example, studies have found positive effects of dialog and collaboration on learning (cf. Alexander 2004; Craig et al. 2000; Fisher 2007). Proof has accumulated over the past years that dialogic teaching and learning facilitate deep conceptual understanding, knowledge retention, the overcoming of misconceptions, and increase creativity in the learner. Classroom discussions or questioning and answer conversations help learners process information on a higher level of thinking and tackle problems in a much more comprehensive and inventive manner. The success of these teaching and learning strategies can be explained by conceptual change learning. Dialog gives teachers an opportunity to probe into the learner's existing knowledge. In this way, teachers can take existing learner knowledge into account when introducing a new topic, helping learners to build new knowledge on top of knowledge they already possess. Teachers get an opportunity to customize their teaching to the learner's needs by finding out about their knowledge states and conceptualizations of a problem including knowledge gaps, relevant conceptions as well as misconceptions.

The aim of this paper is to expand TaLCC to language teaching and learning. I will argue that TaLCC can and should be used in the language classroom. The focus of this paper is thereby on vocabulary learning. I argue that TaLCC facilitate vocabulary learning, proposing a view of vocabulary learning as conceptual change based on the translation equivalents in the L1 and the L2.

In section 2 I give an overview of the general idea behind conceptual change learning within the context of an example from science education. In section 3 I first introduce Evans' (2006; 2009) Lexical Concepts and Cognitive

Models Theory (LCCM), which I use to explicate word meaning via so-called cognitive model profiles. This lays the foundation for the conceptual change view of vocabulary learning that I propose here. I furthermore argue that words are meaningful only as words-in-context and that different ways-of-use of a word correlate to distinct meanings. These differences in meaning can be explained on the basis of what I call soft conceptual change. As I will illustrate, soft conceptual change results from variations of semantic affordances, i.e. associative meanings of an expression that are determined by the semantics of the co-text it appears in. I will argue that translation equivalents always appear in different co-texts with different semantics. Conceptual change is thus a strategy to translate from L1 to L2. Section 4 applies this framework to the learning of words of a second or foreign language. Based on the view of meaning-in-use, which I briefly discuss in section 4.1. and which I laid down in more detail elsewhere (Feller 2010), I show in section 4.2. that TaLCC scaffold the “correct” processing of translation equivalents. I furthermore argue that reflecting on the differences in how languages conceptualize the world in the translation process strengthens both the learner’s understanding of lexico-semantic characteristics in his L1 as well as in the target language. This helps the learner to avoid misinterpretations in the L2 caused by, for example, L1 transfer. In section 5 I discuss some of the practical implications for the language classroom, followed by my concluding remarks in Section 6.

II. WHAT IS CONCEPTUAL CHANGE

Conceptual change is based on the idea that new knowledge is built on top of existing knowledge. In other words, an individual who learns something new is not a blank slate. New knowledge is always created through changing existing knowledge in one way or another (cf., e.g., Hewson 1992; Thagard 1992). Knowledge is thereby defined as an individual’s existing conceptualizations about the world and the things therein.

Let me illustrate this point by the following example which is taken from a tutoring session about electricity (transcript online at <http://talkbank.org/browser/index.php?url=Tutoring/Circle/Electricity/25.cha>; last accessed on 10 Oct., 2012; line numbers and spelling mistakes from original):

- 8 *TUT: what is it that the lightbulb needs [= the one most important thing]
 9 in order to light up?
 10 *STU: heat.
 11 *TUT: hmm.
 12 *TUT: well, think about it this way, if you put a lightbulb in the oven,
 13 it would certainly be getting lots of heat, but would it be likely
 14 to light up?

In this part of the interaction the teacher wants to get to know the learner’s existing conceptualization of a simple electrical circuit around a light bulb. His initial question what the light bulb needs to light up (lines 8-9) makes the learner communicate his view of how things work out in the circuit. From the answer in line 10 we can assume that the learner entertains the following conceptualization: [heat] → [light bulb lights up]. The words in square brackets stand here for concepts, i.e. mental representations of things in the world. The arrow represents a causal relation between the concepts: x causes y. As for the given case, this means that the learner believes that heat causes the light bulb to light up.

This conceptualization does obviously not match the current standard scientific explanation. With a view to tackling the learner’s misconception, the teacher applies a hidden negative in question form in lines 12-14. The use of ‘but’ in line 13 thereby hints at the absurdity of the learner’s explanation. Within this context, the learner feels the need to revise his initial conceptualization. More precisely, the teacher creates a need for the learner to replace [heat] with a different concept as a cause. This need is thereby based on dissatisfaction (cf. also Hewson 1992, p. 9), i.e., the learner now sees that his initial conceptualization does not work and must be changed ultimately.

And indeed, in his next move the learner offers an alternative. He replaces [heat] with the new concept [wires] (see line 15). As this conceptualization is again off the mark, the teacher applies the same strategy as before, using a hidden negative in question form (lines 16-17).

- 15 *STU: wires.
 16 *TUT: wires help, but if you hook a wire to a light bulb and nothing else,
 17 will it light up?
 18 *STU: no, I guess it must be the voltage source.
 19 *TUT: right, there needs to be electricity.

The learner goes along, again changing his conceptualization. He replaces [wires] with [voltage source] (line 18), finally meeting the teacher’s approval (line 19).

To sum up: in the given example learning takes place via conceptual change. The teacher inquires about the learner’s existing conceptualization of the problem. Having detected existing misconceptions, he instigates a need in the learner to change these misconceptions.

It is important to note that conceptual change comes in different degrees. Generally speaking, conceptualizations might either be revised in the sense that they get either extended or truncated, get completely replaced or discarded altogether (cf. Hewson 1992, pp. 3ff.). While in the first two cases the existing conceptualization is modified while still remaining intact, in the latter two cases the existing conceptualization is tossed out from the learner’s knowledge base.

We will see that for vocabulary learning, it is mostly the first two types of conceptual change which play a prominent role.

III. CONCEPTS AND MEANING CONSTRUCTION: LCCM THEORY

In this chapter I will give a brief outline of Evans' (2006) Lexical Concepts and Cognitive Models Theory (LCCM) followed by a definition of meaning construction. This lays the basis for the discussion of what I call semantic affordances and soft conceptual change in section 4, which both lie at the heart of TaLCC as proposed in this paper.

A. Cognitive Representations of Word Meaning

LCCM Theory is based on the assumption that words give access to what Evans calls cognitive model profiles (2006, pp. 519ff.). Cognitive model profiles are conceptual maps which consist of so-called cognitive models. As an example, I have constructed the cognitive model profile for 'Obama' below:

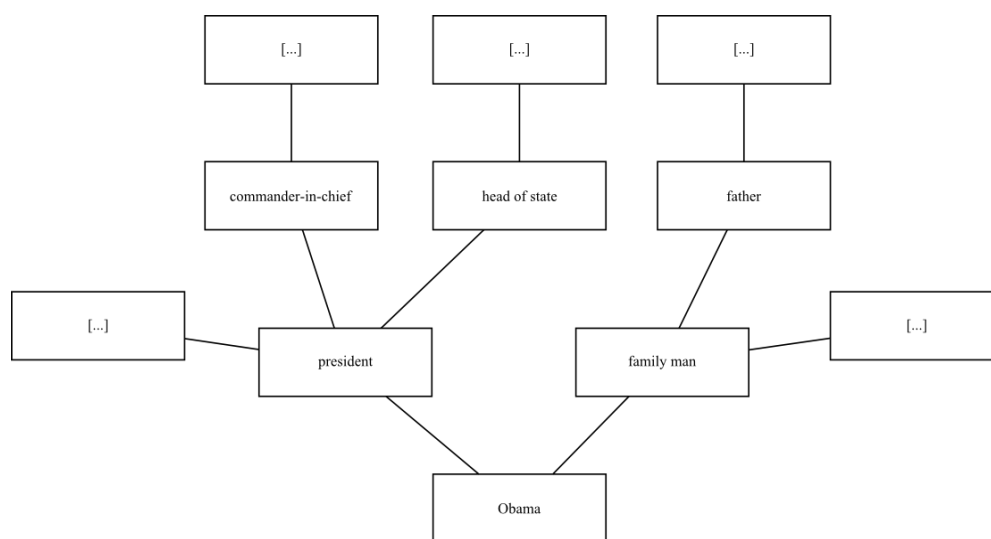


Figure 1: Cognitive model profile for 'Obama'

The boxes stand for cognitive models, i.e. chunks of encyclopedic information in an individual's knowledge base that relate to particular aspects of the world associated with the base cognitive model, which, in the present case, is [Obama]. The base model is connected to a further layer of cognitive models: so-called primary cognitive models. Primary cognitive models represent knowledge immediately associated with the base cognitive model. The primary models are connected to the secondary cognitive models located on the next layer, representing knowledge which is only indirectly connected to the base model. For example, as illustrated by Figure 1, [Obama] is connected to the primary cognitive models [president] and [family man], which are divided further into secondary cognitive models. [president], for instance, is connected to the secondary models [commander-in-chief] and [head of state].

As indicated by "[...]", this cognitive model profile is only a partial representation of the full potential knowledge associated with [Obama]. Other cognitive models can be added to the profile. The depth of detail of a profile thereby depends on the purpose of the representation. For example, a language learner might require a high level of detail in order to get acquainted with the subtleties of meaning of an expression. In the same vein, more technical purposes demand a close eye for detail which might not be required in everyday speech. Consequently, the depth of a profile is to be adjusted accordingly.

B. Meaning Construction

It is cognitive models in cognitive model profiles that are at the core of meaning construction. In language use cognitive models within given cognitive model profiles are selected through matching processes at the level of the utterance (cf., e.g., Evans 2010b, pp. 19ff.). In other words, meaning is constructed by matching specific cognitive models across profiles of different words within a relevant co-textual span. Consider the following examples from the Corpus of Contemporary American English, henceforth COCA (online at <http://corpus.byu.edu/coca>; last accessed on 13 Aug., 2012):

(1) Obama always intended to continue combating terrorism, but he did not embrace Bush's concept of a "global war on terror." (COCA)

(2) Against the backdrop of Disney's Cinderella castle, Obama announced initiatives aimed at making it easier for citizens of China and Brazil to visit the United States. (COCA)

The difference in meaning of 'Obama' in (1) and (2) becomes obvious against the backdrop of the selected cognitive models in the profile of [Obama]. In (1) 'Obama' is interpreted against the secondary cognitive model [commander-in-

chief], while (2) points to the secondary cognitive model [head of state]. But how does meaning construction in such cases work exactly? The following section provides a first answer.

C. Semantic Affordance and Soft Conceptual Change

There can be little doubt that (1) and (2) yield different interpretations of ‘Obama’. The question is why. The answer lies in the words that are in the co-text. Hereto consider the following:

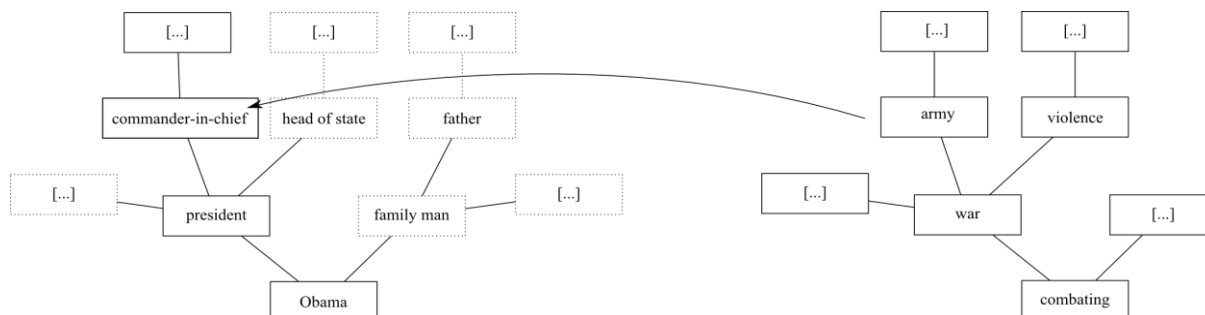


Figure 2: Matching cognitive models through semantic affordance for (1)

Figure 2 illustrates how meaning construction works in the given case. Semantic affordances associated with the relevant cognitive models from the cognitive model profiles of the words in the co-text of ‘Obama’ (i.e. the predicate here) select relevant cognitive models from the profile of ‘Obama’ (Evans 2010a, pp. 642ff.). By semantic affordances I mean inferences based on associative information connected to a particular cognitive model. As for (1), it is the gerund ‘combating’ which is important for the meaning construction. The secondary cognitive model [army] of [combating] connects with the secondary cognitive model [commander-in-chief] of [Obama] via inferences based on associative information around both models. For example, [army] is associated with “obeying orders”, “defending one’s country”, and “going to war”, amongst others. [commander-in-chief], on the other hand, incorporates associations like “giving orders”, “operational planning”, and “leadership”. Comparing these two sets of associations, a coherent conceptualization emerges. “obeying orders” is a reaction to the initial action “giving orders” just like “defending one’s country” as goal connects with “operational planning” as a means to reach this goal, and so forth.

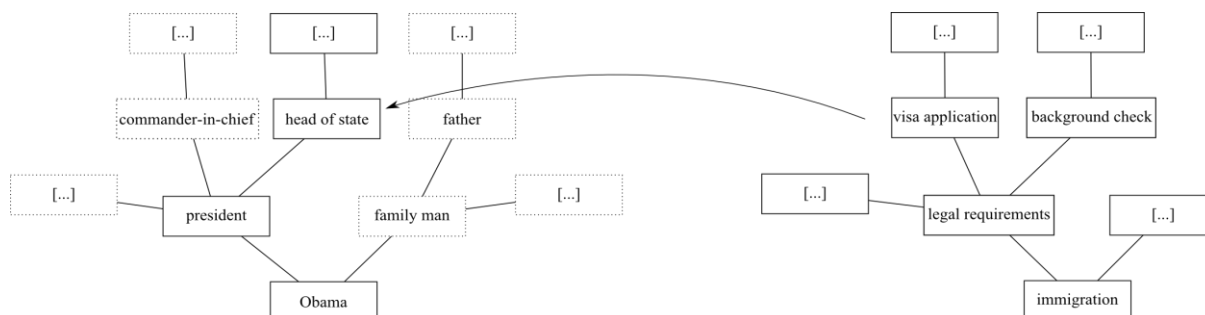


Figure 3: Matching cognitive models through semantic affordance for (2)

As we can see in Figure 3, the matching process works similarly for (2). Here a coherent construction emerges from [visa application] of [legal requirement], which combines with [head of state] of [Obama] (Note that to simplify the figure I represent ‘citizens of China and Brazil to visit the United States’ by [immigration]. A more detailed representation would need to take into account further specifications connected to ‘citizens of China’ and ‘citizens of Brazil’ and the specific visa regulations by US immigration for these particular national groups. This however lies beyond the purpose of this illustration.). Semantic affordances including associations like “signing immigration laws”, “protecting the nation”, “granting immigration and naturalization” and “directing the nation’s course of foreign affairs” of [head of state] as well as “entering the US on a temporary basis”, and “seeking permission to visit the US for business” or “seeking permission to visit the US for pleasure” of [visa application] all connect to a coherent picture of mutually related actions and reactions including people’s related interests and intentions in the construed conceptualization.

To sum up, the different interpretations of ‘Obama’ in (1) and (2) are selected by means of inferences evoked by the word’s co-textual environment. The interpretations result from the matching of cognitive models of the keyword (i.e., in the given case, ‘Obama’) and relevant words in the near co-text via semantic affordances.

The different meanings in (1) vs (2) are thereby instances of what I call soft conceptual change. Getting from the interpretation of ‘Obama’ in (1) to the one in (2) is not based on conceptual change in the radical sense by which a concept gets replaced with a new concept or discarded entirely. In the given example, the concept is not even extended or truncated. The change is rather a question of activating or accentuating different parts of the same cognitive model profile. That means that while for (1) the interpretation of ‘Obama’ focuses on [commander-in-chief] the other cognitive

models like [head of state] or [family man] are still intact but remain solely in the background of the conceptualization. This selection of models occurs for (2) accordingly.

This does not exclude more radical forms of conceptual change *per se*. For example, somebody who is not aware of the fact that the President of the United States is also commander-in-chief might extend his cognitive model profile of 'Obama' by [commander-in-chief] after encountering (1). A concept might also be fully replaced with a new concept. Imagine somebody thought that Obama was a famous physicist. On encountering (1) or (2), he would need to replace this conceptual model profile almost entirely. I am not looking into these more radical forms of conceptual change in this paper and leave this to future research. We should note, though, that this is needed for a more complete understanding of what is going on in the meaning constructing process.

The important point here is that single words are literally meaningless for meaning construction. It is first of all the larger co-textual environment of a word in use which selects relevant cognitive models within a given profile. This word-in-context view goes hand in hand with other theories of meaning, especially those that stand in the tradition of corpus linguistics like Sinclair (1991), and Stubbs (2001), as well as pragmatic theories of meaning like Weigand (2005), and Vanderveken (2009).

So far I have somewhat begged the question of which and how many words exactly in the co-text of a keyword are to be considered for meaning construction. The answer here is simple: those words and only those that make sense, i.e. that are useful and relevant for constructing a coherent picture of the state of affairs or part of the world being expressed.

Corpus linguists like Sinclair (1991; 1998) or Mason (2007) have given a systematic answer based on word statistics. They argue that a word span of about three to four words to the left and right might mostly be significant for a speaker's constructing meaning of a given keyword. The neighboring words within this span are largely stable and therefore seem to form larger units of meaning. However, this quantitative approach cannot really describe let alone explain how meaning construction actually works. For this one has to leave the level of the text and move on to the level of cognition. Frequent co-occurrence of words might signal some sort of semantic relations but it does not settle the issue *per se*.

My answer is that the solution lies in the conceptualization expressed by a speaker. Unless we arrive at a more detailed understanding of how the speaker conceptualizes the world and maps his conceptualizations to language we are confronted with a paradoxical situation: on the one hand, it is first of all the words that give rise to a conceptualization. At the same time, however, we are in need of a conceptualization to determine what words to include in meaning construction. The key to overcome this contradiction is thereby to understand the exact nature of the relationship between conceptualizations and meaning construction. Assuming, for example, that language maps to conceptualizations by convention and that these mappings are part of a speaker's linguistic competence, speakers would not have any trouble to identify relevant words in the co-text of a keyword for meaning construction. How this mapping might work exactly is however beyond the scope of this paper and must be dealt with elsewhere.

IV. SOFT CONCEPTUAL CHANGE AND LANGUAGE LEARNING

In this section, meaning construction based on soft conceptual change will be applied to translating between languages. The main question is how speakers interpret translation equivalents and what kind of differences in meaning occur, if any. For this purpose I will first of all introduce the concept of meaning-in-use which is based on the idea that speakers of different languages conceptualize the world differently. In the next step, I will discuss selected examples of translation equivalents illustrating this kind of meaning relativity and discuss the consequences that result from there for meaning construction across different languages.

A. *Meaning-in-use*

Over the last decade more evidence has accumulated showing that how people perceive and conceptualize the world is relative. And this relativity also shows in the language people use. Leaving aside the intricacies of this line of research, I will only give a brief overview of some selected findings in the reminder of this section.

Levinson (2009), amongst others, provides a number of examples including conceptualizations of location and time. While some speaker groups conceptualize location based on egocentric coordinates, other groups use geocentric information. And this difference in conceptualization shows in the respective languages. For example, while an egocentric speaker would say *The ball is on the left side of the tree*, a geocentric speaker, on the other hand, would express the same situation as *The ball is on the west side of the tree*.

Everett's (e.g., 2005) research on native tribes in Brazil supports this relativity claim. For example, the Pirahã language does not have a perfect tense. On the other hand, present and past tense are encoded in the language. For Pirahã speakers something either happened in the past or is happening right now. But they never think of an activity as beginning in the past and continuing up to the present.

It is this relativity of interpreting and conceptualizing the world which lies at the heart of what I (e.g., Feller 2010, p. 34) called elsewhere meaning-in-use. Speakers interpret linguistic expressions by integrating encyclopedic and linguistic knowledge at once. Encyclopedic knowledge is pooled in how speakers cognize about the world as illustrated by the previous examples of location and time. Linguistic knowledge, on the other hand, refers to the form of a language including syntactical and lexical structures, amongst other. For example, what word class or what part of speech a word belongs to, or how to inflect verbs for tense, aspect, and mood are questions that fall in this category.

This view of language has consequences for our understanding of meaning construction. As we have already discussed earlier and will see in more detail below, the traditional single-word perspective does not suffice to account for what is going on in meaning-in-use. It is not single words that map to speaker's conceptualizations but words-in-context. In addition, as we discussed earlier, meaning construction of different ways-of-use of a word is based on conceptual change. Taking cognitive relativity across speakers from different languages seriously, I hold that interpreting translation equivalents in an L1 and an L2 runs similarly along soft conceptual change. The next section looks into this in more detail.

B. Selected Examples of Soft Conceptual Change for Interpreting Translation Equivalents

As a first example, let us consider the following translation equivalents from English and Spanish.

(1) The thief ran out.

(2) El ladrón salió corriendo.

In (3), a satellite-framing construction, manner of the movement is encoded by the verb *to run* and [path] by the particle *out*. On the other hand, in (4), the Spanish equivalent, the verb *salir* encodes path, while manner is expressed through the participle *corriendo*, which is clearly a verb-framing representation of the action.

The important question here is whether this difference in how meaning is encoded across the predicate has actually consequences for how the sentences are interpreted as a whole. Representing the relevant cognitive model profiles will help shed some light on this question.

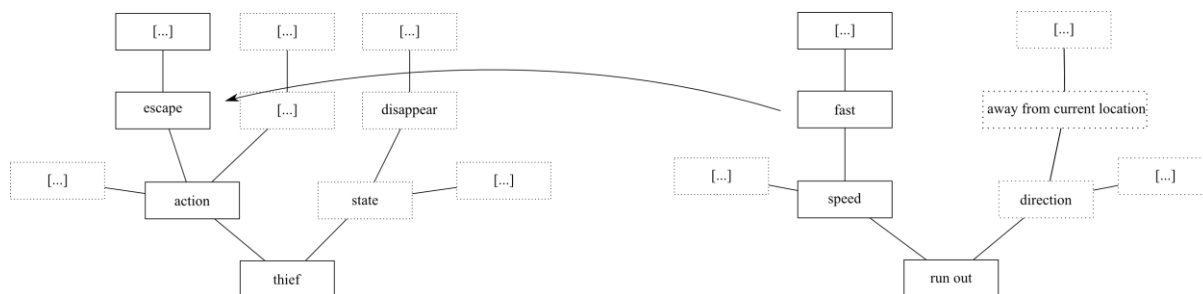


Figure 4: Matching cognitive models through semantic affordance for (3)

Figure 5 shows the matching of cognitive models for the Spanish translation equivalent.

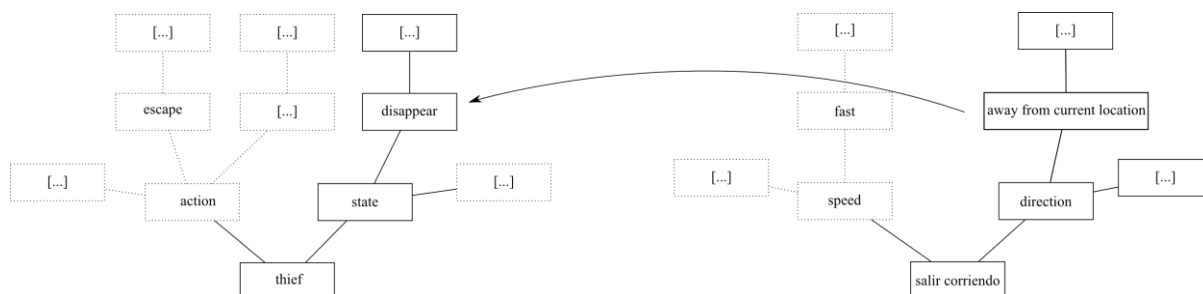


Figure 5: Matching cognitive models through semantic affordance for (4)

Comparing Figures 4 and 5 shows that the conceptualizations of the state of affair as expressed in English and Spanish differ. The cognitive models of [run out] and [salir corriendo] select different cognitive models in the cognitive model profile of [thief] (Note that in the figures both 'thief' and 'ladrón' are represented by [thief].)

In (3) the secondary cognitive model [fast] of [run out] connects to the secondary model [escape] of [thief]. [fast] selects [escape] via semantic affordances. A thief escapes by "moving faster" than his pursuer. What we are dealing with here is a sort of action reading of 'thief' which focuses on the referent's physical activation. The thief is running, i.e. he is physically in action. On the other hand, in (4), [direction] of [salir corriendo], which is connected to the secondary model [away from location], alludes to the referent's geographic state. The semantic affordances of [away from current location] like "getting out of sight" and "getting to a different place" point to the thief's disappearing from the crime scene. The physical action itself is here only of secondary concern. The central idea is that the thief will be gone. We are dealing here with a state reading rather than an action reading of 'thief'.

The broken stroke again marks off those cognitive models that are activated only in the background of the conceptualization. This means that in (3) there is still a vague association with [state] of [thief] instantiated through the particle 'out'. Similarly, 'corriendo' in (4) distantly alludes to [action], while the state reading is at the center of the conceptualization.

Summing up, it is obvious that the English translation equivalent promotes a stronger motion imagery than the Spanish translation (cf. also Pavlenko 2002, p. 77). While in the former the focus is clearly on speed and movement, the latter emphasizes the end state of being gone or out of sight. Translating from (3) to (4) thus requires the speaker to

engage in soft conceptual change. Only if he understands the semantic affordances of the respective cognitive models of ‘to run out’ and ‘salir corriendo’ will he be able to arrive at an adequate interpretation of ‘thief’ and ‘ladrón’ respectively. An English learner of Spanish, for example, would thus need to actively reflect on these conceptual differences in order to escape false interpretations such as transferring the action reading in English to the Spanish translation.

Let us take a look at a different example for German and English translation equivalents:

(1) Der Praesident trat sein Amt an.

(2) The president took office.

Again it is the distinct semantic affordances of the predicates that select specific cognitive models in the cognitive model profiles of the subjects, i.e. in the given cases, ‘der Praesident’ and ‘the president’ respectively. (Note that both ‘der Praesident’ and ‘the president’ are represented by the same cognitive model [the president]. Broken stroke is used once more for conceptual models that are activated as background knowledge.)

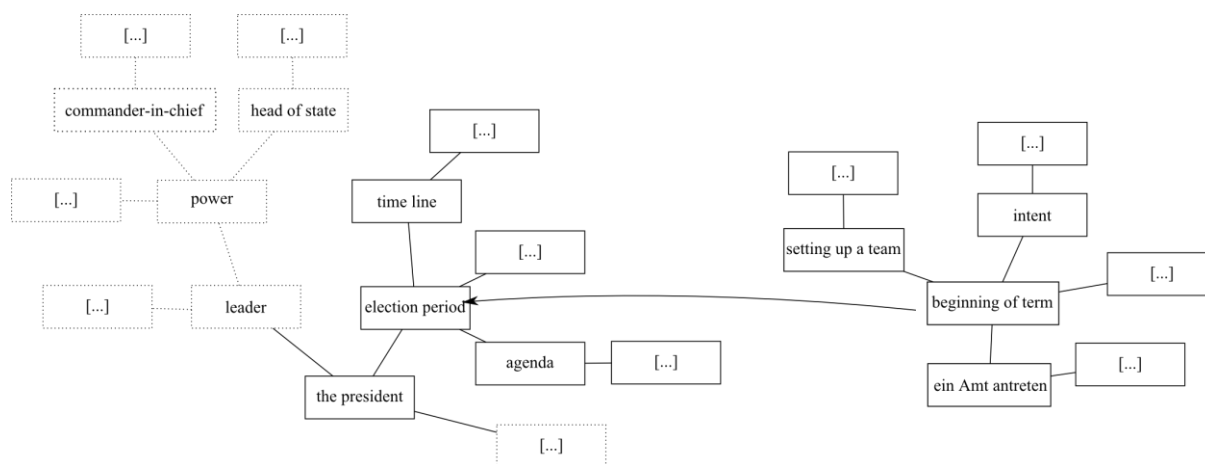


Figure 6: Matching cognitive models through semantic affordance for (5)

Figure 7 illustrates how the cognitive models are matched for (6).

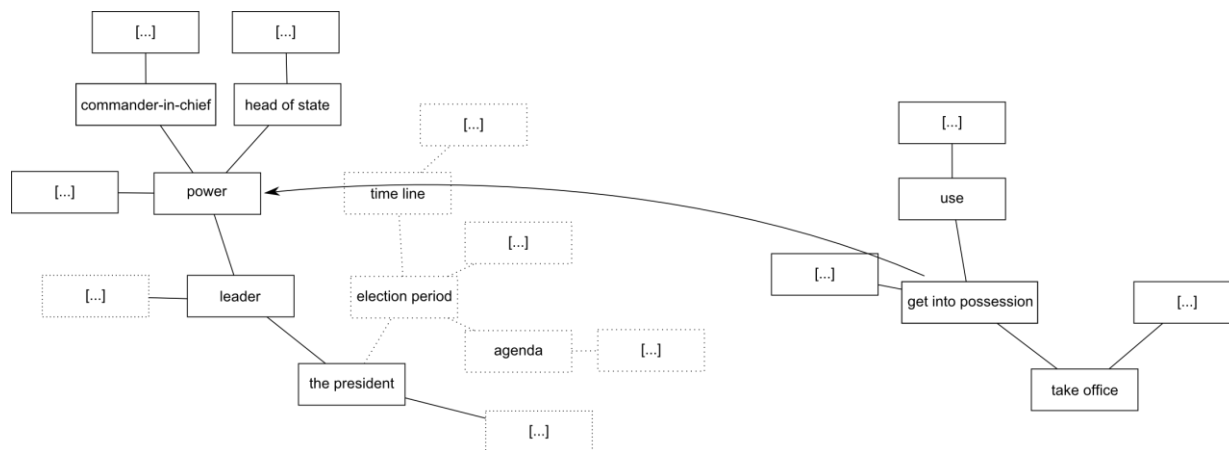


Figure 7: Matching cognitive models through semantic affordance for (6)

Comparing the cognitive model profiles of (5) and (6) shows that ‘ein Amt antreten’ and ‘to take office’ activate different cognitive models of [the president]. [ein Amt antreten] is associated with the primary cognitive model [beginning of term]. This primary model is connected to a number of different secondary models. Semantic affordances of these secondary models like, for example, “begin the political work” around [setting up a team] and “begin a new political phase” for [intent] associate with [the president]. Affordances like “enacting political plans” or “setting up political strategies” of the secondary cognitive model [agenda], which is connected to the primary model [election period] of [the president], denote means or implementations to “begin the political work” or to “begin a new political phase”. Similarly, “forming political goals” as semantic affordance for [intent] blends in with “enacting political plans” of [agenda]. The president first of all forms a political plan including specific political goals that he then strives to execute during his presidency.

On the other hand, Figure 7 shows that the cognitive model profile for the English translation equivalent ‘to take office’ is different. The primary cognitive model is here [get into possession]. This model connects to the secondary cognitive model [power] of [the president]. The semantic affordances of [get into possession] including “obtain”, and

“being able to lose” as well as of the secondary cognitive model [use] under [get into possession] including affordances like “take advantage of” and “intention” thereby combine with [commander-in-chief] and [head of state] under [power] of [the president]. It is semantic affordances like “giving orders”, “operational planning”, and “leadership of political staff”, as well as “legislative powers” of [commander-in-chief] and [head of state] which form a coherent state of affairs together with the affordances of [get into possession] and [use]. For example, the president can use his power to influence legislature by vetoing or promoting bills or deploy military troops in accord with his political motivations. Again we arrive at a coherent picture based on mutually related semantic affordances across distinct cognitive model profiles.

Summing up, it has become obvious that the German and English translation equivalents differ in their respective meanings. The predicates select distinct cognitive models in the cognitive model profiles of ‘der Praesident’ and ‘the president’ respectively via semantic affordances. While (5) largely promotes an agenda reading, (6) concentrates on power and influence.

Consequently, we see that translating from one language to another requires conceptual change. As discussed earlier, a speaker who translates from (3) to (4) or (5) to (6) and vice versa must construct the meanings of the words differently: the evoked conceptualizations vary. In the next section, I will discuss some of the implications for language teaching and learning.

V. IMPLICATIONS FOR LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

Understanding that switching between languages means switching between different conceptualizations of the world calls for a change of perspective in language teaching and learning. Taking this seriously, the following claims are a first guideline on how to enact the conceptual change view in the language classroom:

a) The minimal unit in vocabulary learning is the clause. Single words or other sub-clausal units do not suffice for coming to grips with semantic affordances and conceptual change. As illustrated by the examples discussed earlier, semantic affordances unfold first of all between different parts of speech in a clause.

This claim implies that traditional vocabulary learning along lists of single words should be abandoned once and for all. Vocabulary should be learned as words-in-context in order to illustrate conceptual change that emerges when interpreting translation equivalents. Teachers should direct learners towards conceptual change by having them explicate relevant cognitive model profiles and compare distinct semantic affordances within these profiles across languages. Only in this way can learners arrive at an adequate understanding of the target language, contrasting lexico-semantic regularities and idiosyncrasies of their native language and the target language.¹

A practical way to get learners explicate cognitive model profiles and semantic affordances lies in the analysis of the wider co-text of a given expression. Referring back to (5) and (6), the following examples, which are taken from WebCorp (available online at <http://www.webcorp.org.uk/live/>, last accessed on 10 Oct., 2012), could be used to help learners construct a cognitive models profile of [the president]. The italicized expressions provide the relevant information:

(1) Secretary Paul O'Neill has revealed that the President took office in January 2001 *fully intending to invade Iraq* (<http://www.twf.org/News/Y2004/0111-Before911.html>)

(2) *The first power* the Constitution confers upon the president *is the veto*.

(http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/President_of_the_United_States)

(3) [...] the president *commands and directs the military* [...]

(http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/President_of_the_United_States)

(4) the president *is responsible for the protection of Americans*

(http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/President_of_the_United_States)

(7), for instance, alludes to the president's role as commander-in-chief. (8), on the other hand, to his function as legislator. (9) refers again to [commander-in-chief], while (10) points to a moral obligation which could lead to a cognitive model in the form of [take care of citizens].

This works in a similar way for ‘to take office’:

(5) When a new president takes office, all the U.S. attorneys are asked to step down, so that the new president *can install the people he/she wants*. (COCA)

(6) [...] *the possibility that embryonic stem cell research*, a promising avenue of scientific inquiry that provokes moral objections because it involves the destruction of embryos, *may be restricted* once George W. Bush takes office as president. (COCA)

(7) Whoever takes office *will decide whether the nation commits to spending hundreds of billions of dollars on a motel on the moon, or invests in space projects of tangible benefit-space science, environmental studies of Earth, and readying the world for protection against a spaceobject strike*. (COCA)

¹ In section 4 I have begged the question as to how large the word span for interpreting a keyword should be. A clause seems to be the most reasonable answer to me, as this is the smallest grammatical unit that expresses a proposition. As illustrated by all the examples in this paper, it is propositions which lay at the heart of meaning construction. To say it with predicate logic, the minimal unit of meaning construction is the assigning of a property in terms of F(a), where ‘F’ stands for a property and ‘a’ for an individual. F(a) means then that the property F is assigned to the individual a.

(11)-(13) all allude to getting into possession of power. In (11) the president obtains the power to install new U.S. attorneys. (12) refers to the fact that the president is empowered to influence scientific conduct through the laws he passes or not. On the other hand, (13) points to the president's power over the national budget. These examples thus allude to a cognitive model profile with cognitive models like [get into possession] and [use] that we also included before in our analysis of (5) and (6).

On the other hand, German examples around 'ein Amt antreten' including

(8) George Bush trat sein Amt mit dem erklärten *Vorsatz an*, „Ehre und Würde“ im Weißen Haus wiederherzustellen. (<http://www.zeit.de/2003/30/WMD>, last accessed on 10 Sept., 2012)

(“George Bush took office with the declared intent to restore the honor and dignity of the White House.”)

(9) Schauprozess in Teheran, Vergewaltigungen in den Gefängnissen, ungeklärte Foltermorde von Häftlingen – der neue Justizchef des Iran tritt sein Amt an während der schwersten Krise der Islamischen Republik seit ihrer Gründung.

(“Show trial in Teheran, rapes in prisons, open cases of torture murders of prisoners – the new chief of justice takes office during the most severe crisis of the Islamic Republic since its foundation.”) (<http://www.tagesspiegel.de/meinung/kommentare/portraet-sadegh-laridschani-neuer-justizchef-im-iran-der-kulturellen-invasion-entgegentreten/1581320.html>, last accessed on 10 Sept., 2012)

Support the election period reading. The German noun 'Vorsatz' (“intent”) in (14) refers to a person's willful intent for a new phase of life. The situation is similar for (15). ‘Schauprozess in Teheran, Vergewaltigungen in den Gefängnissen, ungeklärte Foltermorde von Häftlingen’ (“show trial in Teheran, rapes in prisons, open cases of torture murders of prisoners”) are a moral stain for Iranian justice. It is thus considered the new chief of justice's duty to deescalate the situation, restoring law and order. His taking office is thereby depicted as a potentially new phase for the legal system. Although the chief's intent to fight the crisis is not explicitly mentioned, it can be presupposed on the basis of the nature of his office. Putting this information together, the learner can construct a cognitive model profile [ein Amt antreten] similar to the one in Figure 6.

To sum up: it is the wider co-text that provides language learners with the information necessary to construct cognitive model profiles and to understand the semantic affordances of expressions in a given language. This method is not restricted to making use of the co-textual environment alone. Cognitive models of a profile can also be found in a top down process of inquiry. Learners might just think of attributes and properties of a base model like [the president] and add them to the profile in terms of primary and secondary models.

Constructing cognitive model profile lays the basis for my second claim:

b) Language teachers should be aware that learning a second or foreign language is based on conceptualizations in one's L1. These lay the basis on top of which conceptualizations in a second or foreign language are built.

It is important to keep in mind that language learners are not blank slates. Learning a new language always means learning a new language on top of the languages that one already knows. For example, a native speaker of a satellite-framing language conceptualizes actions or activities via a much stronger motion imagery than a speaker of a verb-framing language. Teachers should integrate these cognitive predispositions into the learning process. For example, learners should draw cognitive maps like in Figures 3 and 4 or 5 and 6 for translation equivalents and analyze them with regard to similarities and differences. Actively identifying and reflecting on the distinct conceptualizations help learners detect and understand language specific regularities in their L1 as well as in the second or foreign language. They can thus better internalize meaning construction in the target language and become more aware of potential misinterpretations on the basis of L1 transfer.

My third claim is that

c) TaLCC support learner autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Within this context, learners are more motivated to learn than with other teaching and learning methods.

This claim is based on the main assumptions of Self-Determination Theory (SDT) (Deci and Ryan 1985). SDT assumes that people have three basic psychological needs: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. People want to decide about their course of action, be able to reach their goals and tackle problems by themselves as well as be accepted and respected by others. Learning environments supporting these needs have thereby a positive impact on learner motivation and performance (e.g., Benware and Deci 1984; Grolnick and Ryan 1987; Vansteenkiste et al. 2008). Within such an environment learners process information on a deeper level, which also results in better knowledge retention, creative thinking and in-depth understanding. TaLCC serve all three needs: learners build new knowledge through self-regulated learning. Constructing cognitive model profiles is an autonomous process by which learners actively interpret linguistic forms in accord with how they and others cognize about the world. They contrast these conceptualizations and identify similarities and differences, thus familiarizing themselves with the idiosyncrasies of the contrasted languages.

They thereby experience themselves as competent “linguists”. Learners are well experienced with the tools they use like interpreting words in context via semantic affordances, conceptualizing linguistic input, and contrastive analysis. Explicating these processes might initially require some guidance by the teacher. For example, learners might need some incentive as to how to structure conceptualizations via cognitive model profiles. But these are technicalities that, as soon as they have been addressed, will not take up much space in the learning process and will be put to use intuitively.

Relatedness stems from the fact that learners can fall back on their own way of doing things. Teaching and learning rely here primarily on the learner's current knowledge state. The teacher picks learners up at their conceptualizations in their L1 and guides them to finding out about how these conceptualizations change in another language. The teacher-learner interaction is here a mutual one that relies on strong dialogic ties where all participants exchange their viewpoints and interpretations.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper I have presented a view of language teaching and learning as TaLCC based on soft conceptual change. Similarly to science education, language learning in general and vocabulary learning in particular can and should be taught by making use of what learners already know from their L1. In other words, new knowledge is built on top of existing knowledge. I argued that learning word meanings in a foreign language should be done via contrastive analyses of cognitive model profiles which I borrowed from Evans' LCCM Theory. This scaffolds the learner's understanding and internalization of lexico-semantic regularities and idiosyncrasies in both his L1 and the second or foreign language.

Constructing cognitive model profiles might require instructional guidance at the beginning but relies by itself on competencies the learner already has within the context of his L1. In TaLCC the learner uses intuitive tools for meaning construction like making use of a word's co-text through semantic affordances, conceptualizing linguistic input, and contrasting between different conceptualizations. I discussed how learners can construct cognitive model profiles by theoretical inquiry and by making use of the co-textual environment.

In addition, I noted that TaLCC go hand in hand with Self-Determination Theory, supporting learner motivation and performance through facilitating autonomy, competence, and relatedness in the teacher-learner interaction.

Future research should investigate how TaLCC can be put into practice most efficiently in the language classroom. What kinds of means are there to make this sort of teaching and learning style practicable for both teachers and learners? What materials should be developed and how? Do TaLCC work for everyone similarly, or are there any differences, for example, with regard to different learning styles or motivational states of learners? In addition, can TaLCC be used in other areas of language teaching and learning such as grammar instruction? What about polyglot learners? How and, if so, to what extent, do one's L2, L3 etc. influence one's learning a new language? Answers to these and similar questions will help to make the language classroom a more effective and more enjoyable place for both teachers and learners alike.

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Multilingual Education: An Emerging Threat to Quality English Education in Eastern Ethiopia

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Abstract—In 1994, Ethiopian constitutions underwent an amendment in which each regional state was given a right to choose, use, and diffuse its language from both cultural and educational perspectives. This amendment marked the welcoming sign of multilingual education in Ethiopia, but the current pattern of multilingual education has caused more harm than good to the end users (students) in terms of learning and mastering English language to an optimal level. The paper hypothesizes that multilingual education is one of the determinants for impairing the quality of English education in Eastern Ethiopia. So this research took the shape of an ethnographic perception-study not only to explore the adverse impacts of multilingual education on the quality of English education but also to seek mass views on reversing the current trend of multilingual (trilingual) education from (Mother Tongue + Amharic + English) to (English + Amharic + Mother Tongue) as a remedy. In this pursuit, 150 participants comprising 50 students, 50 teachers, and 50 government employees were selected using convenience sampling. The data were collected through unstructured interview and participant observation; whereas, the analysis of the data was made through analytic induction and percentile. As a part of findings, the paper presents six adverse impacts of multilingual education on English Education; and the participants' varied degree of consent on reversing the current pattern of trilingual education. The paper finally forwards apposite recommendations to streamline English in mainstream education to enhance the quality of English education.

Index Terms—multilingual/trilingual education, ELT (English Language Teaching), reverse

I. INTRODUCTION

Needless to say that English has not only become a lingua franca for us globally, but more importantly it has become a language of progress or a key to success in every walk of life (Jha, 2013). By contrast, English is being used paradoxically as a foreign language rather than second language in Ethiopian context because average Ethiopians believe that English can never be a crutch to survive in Ethiopian society (ibid). Therefore, English is foreign to most, and is known and used only by a small minority of educated, economic, and/or political elite in Ethiopia (Bogale, 2009). Although Ethiopia's need for English language is more intensified as globalization is the agenda of the time, the 'depressing picture of English language teaching' never improved (Eshetie, 2010).

In 1994, a constitutional amendment was made in which regional languages were permitted to be used as the medium of instruction in Ethiopia (Seidel, 2009). As a result, almost all the states showed their affinity towards mother tongue education which resulted into a trilingual education consisting of mother tongue + Amharic + English (Bogale, 2009). This amendment marked the welcoming sign of multilingual education in Ethiopia, but the proliferation of mother-tongue education has caused more harm than good to the end users (students) because mother tongues took the driver's seat and English went on the backseat. Such a proclivity of mother tongues in education has deprived the learners of learning and mastering English to an optimal level (Jha, 2013). There is a grave concern among the EFL learners especially in the Eastern Ethiopia that they have been learning English for several years but they are not able to master it (ibid).

Though many linguistic and non-linguistic factors (e.g., flaws in syllabus design, curriculum, language policy, test validity, communicative and pedagogic competence of the teachers, class and classroom size, etc.) can be attributed to the poor quality of ELT in Eastern Ethiopia, the present study hypothesizes multilingual education (Mother Tongue + Amharic + English) detrimental to the degrading state of English in general and poor performance of the learners in particular. Hence, this study aims at disseminating a new realm of discussion on how multilingual education in the form of trilingual education, i.e. (Mother Tongue + Amharic + English) has been emerging as a potential threat or worry to the Quality of English Education in Eastern Ethiopia.

Viewing the growing demands of English worldwide, almost all the multilingual countries confront a common question: *Should the medium of instruction be a regional language, or national language, or international language (English)?* Ethiopia being a multilingual country - with at least 70 regional languages and several dialects according to Wagaw (1999) - has been confronting the same question. Ethno-linguistic conflict is a persistent problem in Africa and Ethiopia is no exception. The current language policy, which is a potential source of conflict in Ethiopia, has caused a furore among Ethiopian academicians and social science researchers over language use and language policy.

It is apt to quote here two contradictory research papers titled *Choosing a Working Language in Multiethnic Nations: Rethinking Ethiopia's Working Language Policy* by Fiseha Haftetsion Gebresilassie and *What Language Should Ethiopians Speak?* by Ghelawdewos Araia (2012). In my view, both of them are right on their stance with their

elucidation of the facts. On the one hand, Fiseha's paper discards Amharic and suggests adopting English as the sole official working language of the Federal Government with a slight difference of implementation in the area of education in the federal territories. Fiseha argues that the current language policy can harm Ethiopia by slowing down its global economic integration and fuel future conflicts that arise from disputes over language use. On the other hand, Araia (2012) strongly opposes Fiseha's proposal of discarding Amharic as working language and replacing it by English. According to Araia, Ethiopian officials, at this juncture, should not be tempted to accepting English in lieu of Amharic as a lingua franca of Ethiopia, for it would flagrantly contravene the Ethiopian interest and emasculate Ethiopian culture and identity.

II. FOCUS AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Under the purview of the aforementioned pair of conflicting views, the concern of this paper is slightly different in that it suggests introducing English rather than regional language(s) as a medium of instruction right from nursery (elementary) grade to higher level education. The study is mainly focused on disseminating the astonishing ongoing change in the perceptions of the ELT practitioners, students, and the intellectuals of the region as shown in Fig.3 below. The study is also significant in that there is a little research work on the current issue by the local researchers. So this study will serve as an eye-opener not only for the ELT practitioners but more importantly for the language policy makers to give a second thought on whether to retain the existing pattern of multilingual education, i.e. (Mother Tongue + Amharic + English) or to reverse the order as (English + Amharic + Mother Tongue) in the interest of the holistic growth of Ethiopia and the Ethiopians.

III. QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY

- 1) What are the major adverse impacts of multilingual education on the quality of English education?
- 2) What is the degree of consent on reversing the current trend of multilingual/trilingual education?

IV. METHODOLOGY

For this study, a mixed design (qualitative and quantitative) has been used as the first research question required gathering qualitative data; whereas the second research question required gathering quantitative data.

A. Participants

The total population of the participants was 150 comprising 50 ELT practitioners at both university and school levels, 50 university students of different linguistic background, and 50 employees from government organisations: *Dire Dawa Immigration Office, Harar Electricity Board*, and three *Commercial Banks of Ethiopia*. The sites of the study were Harar, Dire Dawa, and Ziziga zones. The participants were selected using convenience sampling technique. This technique builds a sample on the basis of finding convenient or available participants. Though, this technique lacks representativeness and generalization, it helped to observe and interview those who were close at hand.

B. Data Collection Method

Viewing the sensitivity of the topic, only two data gathering instruments: *participant observation* and *unstructured interview* could be employed to elicit the required data. Participant observation enables researchers to assess what their subjects actually do, rather than what they say they do (Bloor & Wood, 2006). Thus, the researcher used participant observation for gathering data as a part of answering the first research question by getting directly immersed with the participants in 8 EFL classrooms to assess progression of learning and mastering English along with proficiency level of the learners at university and secondary school level. In addition, the working staff of three nationalized banks and two government organizations: *Dire Dawa Immigration office* and *Harar electricity board* were also observed to know their levels of comprehension and expression in English. Unstructured interview was used to respond to the second research question because it allows the respondents to answer freely and the researcher to probe and explore the exact and related problem(s) as they crop up during the interview.

C. Data Analysis

The qualitative data gathered through participant observation were analyzed through *analytic induction* as it is a way to develop effects of a phenomenon to accurately present the reality of the situation being studied. Firstly, all the qualitative data were thematically categorized and interpreted in descending order of prominence, emphasis, and relativity of the adverse impacts of current trilingual education on the quality of English education. Secondly, the data gathered through unstructured interview were analyzed using percentile scale (see doughnut chart (Fig. 3) which shows the degree of consent on reversing the current trend of trilingual education.

V. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This section has been divided into two parts. First, it discusses the major adverse impacts of trilingual education on the quality of English education. Second, it presents the degree of consent on reversing the current trend of trilingual education.

1. Major Adverse Impacts of Trilingual Education

Here, it is imperative to give brief accounts of six major adverse impacts of trilingual education which were found as a result of participant observation.

A. English Is Learnt; Not Mastered

Viewing the raised concern of the EFL learners that they have been learning English for several years but they are not able to master it, it is imperative to clarify the dichotomy between *learning* and *mastering*. Learning is *understanding* the linguistic components of a language and mastering is the part of *using* them in a well structured way with perfection and ease (Jha, 2013). If learning is process, mastering is product; if learning is path, mastering is destination (ibid). Mastering is aimed at acquiring utmost perfection in speech fluency, writing accuracy, stylistic nuances, word choice, accent, etc. Despite acquiring linguistic competence, the learners find it difficult to make their competence functional in real life situation for lack of mastering the language as illustrated in Fig. 1.

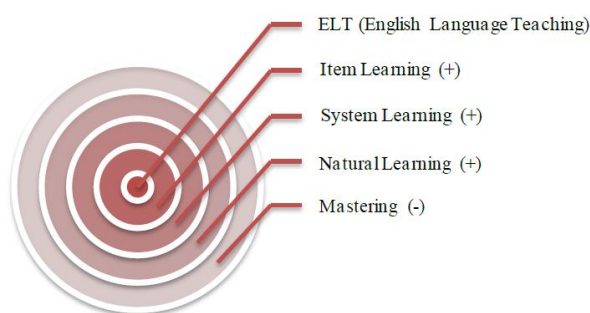


Figure 1: Learning vs. Mastering

Fig. 1 shows the diminishing diffusion of learning and mastering English denoted through fading colour of the respective orbits. ELT is in the core; the first orbit shows item learning that is learning a language at word level; the second orbit is of system learning that is learning a language at sentence level. The third orbit shows natural learning in which learner starts learning a language either inductively or deductively. Here it is noteworthy that item learning, system learning, and natural learning have been given positive value (+) which indicates that these levels of learning take place in Ethiopian classrooms; whereas, the fourth orbit of mastering phase shows (-) value which implies that mastering does not take place in the Ethiopian classrooms (Jha, 2013). By the time mastering phase begins, the course duration comes to an end (ibid).

B. Communicative and Pedagogic Incompetence of the Teachers

Here, communicative incompetence implies teachers' low proficiency in using the language. Average teachers lack particularly in areas like word stress, intonation, sentence formation, words choice, stylistic, and cultural nuances of English language (Jha, 2013). Moreover, the majority of teachers lack the essential pedagogic (subject matter) competence to teach the learners of all levels. Many postgraduate students with poor proficiency in English are often assigned to teach undergraduate English courses. Such a practice of teaching by novice instructors may form a chain of incompetent teachers in Ethiopia (ibid).

C. English: Taught as a Subject Rather Than a Language

In present scenario, English is used merely as a subject for few months in schools and colleges (Jha, 2013). In a short duration of the course loaded with a number of formative and summative assessments, the learners' only concern is to pass English paper somehow rather than learning or mastering English language innately (ibid).

D. English: A Medium of Obstruction Rather Than Instruction

English is ignored as a medium of instruction from grade 1 to 8. Normally, English becomes medium of instruction from grade 9 onwards (Jha, 2013). English is ignored again in diploma program especially in Oromia region. Students of this region complain of being dismissed from the university because of their incompetence in English. The students can express their subject-matter knowledge in L1 (mother tongue) but not in English (ibid). Not to say of active participation in classroom activities, students are often deprived of understanding what they hear from their teachers or read in their textbooks (Bogale, 2009). Moreover, study materials are not easily available in English. Thus, English proves more as a medium of obstruction rather than instruction (Stoddart, 1986).

E. Confinement of English within Four Walls of Classroom

There is hardly any opportunity of using English outside classroom. In the pursuit of establishing exclusive ethno-linguistic identity after the decentralization policy of mother tongue education introduced in 1994, the importance

of English was undermined which caused utter lack of English exposure outside classroom. During unstructured interview, a striking fact came to be known that average Ethiopians hold the belief that they can easily do away with English as English is not a crutch to survive in Ethiopian society. This kind of mindset has confined English only within the four walls of classroom.

F. Communication Chaos at Workplace

In recent years, Ethiopia has witnessed a huge influx of expatriate staff in many job sectors. To meet the communicative needs of the expatriates, the Ethiopian workforce are not well-equipped with communicative competence in English at work place. It was found that only 5 to 10% of the staff is considerably proficient in terms of comprehending and expressing English with the expatriate clients.

2. The Degree of Consent on Reversing the Present Trend of Trilingual Education

To meet the answer of the second research question, the participants of the study were involved only in unstructured interview as they expressed their unwillingness to respond through other instruments of data collection. The reason of their unwillingness was to avoid any untoward entanglement due to political and tribal tinge involved in the issue. The following Fig. 2 is the rendition of transition from current pattern of trilingual education to the proposed pattern of trilingual education.

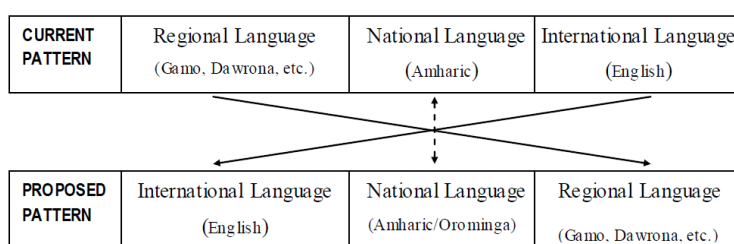


Figure 2: Proposed pattern of reversing the current trilingual education

Fig. 2 shows that regional language is at the first place as a medium of instruction in the current pattern of trilingual education; whereas, the proposed pattern suggests to shift it to the third place in terms of priority and bring in English (international language of wider communication) from the third place to the first place as a medium of instruction from nursery grade to higher education. As far as the place of Amharic as a national language is concerned, it has been retained at its place without any shuffling. Along with the national language Amharic, I have put Orominga for the reason that more than half of the participants were not ready to view Amharic as a national language. They contend that Orominga has larger number of speakers than those of Amharic. Some 33 percent of Ethiopians speak Amharic as their mother tongue and nearly 80 percent or more of the total population speak and use Amharic either as a first or second language; whereas, 40 to 50 percent speak a variant of Orominga without having its own alphabet (Wagaw, 1999). Comparatively, Amharic has an edge over Orominga not only because of its long literary tradition but more because of its geographical location in central Ethiopia which serves as a bridge between northern and southern Ethiopia. Thus the need is to broaden one's view towards Amharic and see it as a language or tool of communication and not as a tool of oppression (Araia, 2012). Notwithstanding, the debate on the language use remains open from sociolinguistic perspective.

As for the degree of consent on reversing the order of current pattern of multilingual (trilingual) education, Fig. 3 shows 78% of the participants gave astonishing consent 'yes' on reversing the current trend of trilingual education; whereas 16% of the participants said 'no' on reversing the current trend of trilingual education and 6% of the participants preferred to abstain from making any remark on this issue.

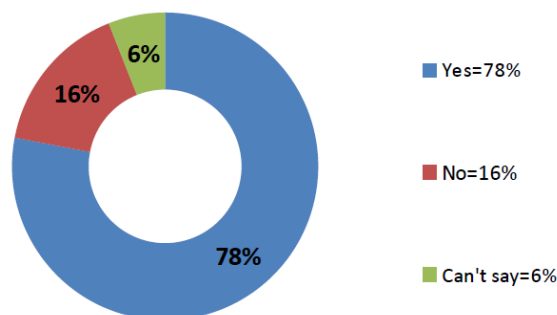


Figure 3: The degree of consent on reversing the order of trilingual education from MT+NL+IL to IL+NL+MT

N.B. Abbreviations: (MT=*Mother Tongue*, NL=*National Language*, IL=*International Language*.)

With respect to the results on exploring the degree of consent on reversing the trilingual education in Fig.3, it is imperative to mention here that almost all the participants agreed to this point that the necessity of reversing the current

pattern of trilingual education is indeed a virtual reality but they expressed three variants of 'yes' or three differing degrees of 'yes' to the proposed pattern as follows.

TABLE 1:
THREE VARIANTS OF 'YES'

Weak/Suppressed YES	Conditional YES	Strong YES
23%	35%	42%

Of the total participants who said 'yes', 23% participants gave a 'weak yes'. The connotation of 'weak yes' implies to the unenthusiastic reply of the informants who said half-hearted 'yes' in a sluggish manner. 35% participants gave 'conditional yes'. Under 'conditional yes', all the participants put a condition that English should become the medium of instruction provided that it is introduced right from nursery grade or play school rather than grade one. Their assumptions were well-justified in that a child should start learning a language as medium of instruction from the age of 2 or 3 (critical phase) and reach at least intermediate fluency by the age of six or seven- the age when children start their formal education from grade one. This fact is well-grounded and well-supported too in several hypotheses of second language acquisition such as those of Krashen & Terrell (1983), Steinberg (2001), and many others. It is noteworthy that 42% participants gave 'strong yes' as they were highly enthusiastic to reverse the current trend of trilingual education.

VI. CONCLUSION

In its endeavor to answer two research questions, the paper has firstly presented six major adverse impacts of trilingual education which demand serious attention of the ELT practitioners and the language policy makers of the country to look into the same and overcome them at the earliest. Secondly, the paper presents the degree of consent on reversing the current trend of trilingual education from (MT+NL+IL) to (IL+NL+MT) as a remedial step to pave the path of quality English education. It has been noticed that by the time English is introduced as the medium of instruction from grade 8th or 9th, the learners develop a sloppy competence in both spoken and written English. Late introduction of English is also a chief cause of mother tongue influence (MTI) on the learners' English. Moreover, the early introduction of English is crucial as one's memory and motor skills, i.e. 'the agility of speech organs to produce speech sounds of any second language diminish along with age (Steinberg, 2001).

It is apt to mention here that a country like India is already following the proposed pattern, i.e. English as the medium of instruction from nursery to higher education followed by national and state language. Perhaps, this trend can be attributed to Indians' academic and economic growth in global scenario. Though, some of the Ethiopian schools in Addis Ababa and neighboring areas have also introduced English from elementary Grade, but the average Ethiopians in Eastern zone are not ready to see any immediate change over language use. Hence, a solemn and sincere appeal is being made to the language policy makers of the country to make a need assessment survey to know whether the indigenous people want the proposed language as a medium of instruction or not. For instance, the absence of conscious language planning in case of introducing a blended language called **Wogagoda** (from **Wolayta**, **Gamo**, **Gofa** and **Dawro**) into the primary school education resulted in burning of textbooks worth 40 million birr, death of seven people, transfer of hundreds of teachers, and chaos that resulted in the demolition of infrastructures and even hotels (Daniel, 2001). The implementation of a multilingual policy without careful planning would result in a disaster as seen in the case of the introduction of the Wogagoda (Getachew & Derib, 2006). In this scenario, English seems to play a role of catalyst not only from ethno-linguistic but also socio-economic perspectives provided English is introduced as a medium of instruction right from nursery to higher education. Moreover, the Ethiopians need to treat English as their second language rather than foreign language in every sphere of life. In the light of the results of the consent on reversing the order of the current trilingual education, the paper finally concludes that replacing mother tongue by English (as a medium of instruction) will dramatically enhance the quality of English education in the eastern Ethiopia and harvest holistic growth of the country and its citizens.

VII. RECOMMENDATION

The paper forwards eleven apposite recommendations to pave the path of quality English education as follows.

A. No language should be imposed as a medium of instruction without proper need assessment of the indigenous people.

B. Let's view language as a medium of communication rather than a medium of social integration or disintegration. A language of wider communication should be given due respect in terms of its usage.

C. English should be viewed more as a language rather than as a subject. In this regard, emphasis on class-test should be minimized and emphasis on real communication (both written and spoken) should be maximized.

D. To measure the pace and outcome of learning and mastering, competence-based test should be replaced by continuous performance-based tests involving analytical and interactive exercises (Jha, 2013).

E. Viewing the dismal state of English in Eastern Ethiopia, the language policy makers of the country need to give a second thought on prioritizing English. As a part of remedy, the current pattern of trilingual Education, which

comprises ‘mother tongue+Amharic+English’, ought to be reversed, as ‘English+Amharic+mother tongue’ (Jha, 2013). The prime objective of reversing the present trend is to replace mother tongue by English so that English could become the medium of instruction right from nursery to higher education rather than grade 8th or 9th onwards.

F. In line with the above recommendation, Amharic and mother tongues should be taught as two compulsory papers in order to observe national & ethnic harmony and to preserve linguistic heritage of the country.

G. Inculcate the sense of communicative professionalism in the staff at workplace to avoid communication chaos.

H. The concerned teachers should have adequacy in terms of communicative and pedagogic competence before they undertake the task of ELT. A teacher without professional certification in Applied Linguistics, TEFL, TESOL, or ELT should not be assigned to teach English language (Jha, 2013). All the university departments of English need to conduct biannual TESOL international workshops for the existing and would-be English teachers in order to be informed of the latest happenings and developments in the field.

I. Do not confine English within the four walls of classroom. More learners are exposed to *comprehensible inputs* more they will master the language. Jha (2013) suggests some of the following comprehensible inputs which are really useful and globally-tested for all levels of learners to master the language.

- *Watching TV cartoon programs like Barney, Mickey Mouse Club House, Sesame Street, etc. as they are not only fun-packed but highly educational to learn English in visual forms,*

- *Watching English movies, TV serials, Talk Shows like “Larry King Live” on CNN, “Hard Talk” on BBC, documentary channels like Discovery, National Geographic, The History, etc.,*

- *Listening radio programs like BBC, Voice of America, podcasts, etc.,*

- *Reading English story books, newspapers, magazines, etc.,*

- *Talking to or chatting with natives on social media.*

J. To prioritize English, the Ethiopians need to use English as a second language rather than foreign language.

K. Since real quality education is transmitted to child right in the womb of the mother according to eugenics, women should be given the first priority of English education as educated mothers can most effectively diffuse the knowledge to their offspring (Jha, 2013).

In the light of the above discussion, it is imperative to say that the time is ripe for the Ethiopians to reverse the current trend of trilingual education and embrace English wholeheartedly as their second language in order to pave the path of socio-economic growth of the country and its citizens.

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Monolingual & Bilingual Dictionaries as Effective Tools of the Management of English Language Education

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Abstract—Language teaching is a complex job, where technical and professional skills are highly needed to master the use of modern teaching aids that facilitate effective presentation inside the classroom. A dictionary be – monolingual, bilingual or bilingualised- is an effective teaching tool, but it is often neglected, while it should always be consulted and included in every EFL syllabus or in any EFL teaching/learning situation. It should constantly be referred to by teachers to enhance their teaching strategies and learners should resort to it to develop linguistic skills. Thus a dictionary can be seen as a tool that can help in the management of language education. It can be effectively used to create a comprehensive pedagogical environment; not only targeting the look-up for the meaning of words, but also featuring other important aspects of language skills which a good dictionary can-simultaneously- provide to teachers and learners as well.

Index Terms—lexicography, monolingual, bilingualised dictionaries, pedagogical environment. Language management

I. OVERVIEW

Since their beginning in the 18th century, English dictionaries have been viewed as the ultimate authority on English language as in The Dictionary by Dr. Johnson (1747), The Webster Dictionary (1855) and Oxford English Dictionary (1933). This has been to such a degree that a dictionary is referred to as an equal stance with the Book (i.e. the Bible), thus suggesting an aura of reverence. The indication of sacredness has changed little with the appearance of pedagogical monolingual English dictionaries geared to the English language learner. From the modest beginning of these dictionaries in the slim volumes by West (1935) and Hornby (1948) and up to the latest corpus-based dictionaries, as Collins-COBUILD Dictionary in the 1990s, dictionaries have found their place and been included as an essential part of language learner's indispensable equipment. They are regarded by many as the repository of final linguistic authority (Wright, 2001) and a bank account of words to be drawn upon in time of need.

Today, English pedagogical lexicography has changed considerably. It is now a flourishing field that has gathered momentum in the last three decades for three reasons. First, there has been a renewed interest in the nature of the lexicon and vocabulary acquisition, features invariably linked to dictionaries (e.g. Lewis, 1993; 1997; Nation, 2001; Koya, 2005; Nesselhauf, 2003; Sessink, 2007). Second, simultaneously with the interest in vocabulary, there has been a huge advance in compilation and analysis of written and spoken corpora through the tools of computational linguistics which has eased the tools of traditional lexicographers and enabled them to produce dictionaries based on new insights (Sinclair, 1995). The result was an explosion in dictionary-making publishing industry, mainly of the British type. Thirdly, as has been convincingly demonstrated by Crystal (1997) and Graddol (2000), English has become a truly international language, and that in our interdependent, shrinking, global village there is no escaping English as being the lingua-franca of written and oral communication. Therefore, everyone with ambition is trying to learn English and, naturally, EFL dictionaries come in the picture, because they provide the most explicit description of the meaning and use of words of this language, a tool essential to the language process.

Indeed, a dictionary is the first thing an EFL student buys (Baxter, 1980) and learners carry dictionaries around, not grammar books as someone said. Hence, EFL students have a powerful tool at their disposal with which to gain further understanding of a range of a new language, leading eventually to accurate production and comprehension. Then, a dictionary serves as a means whose purpose is to provide information about language which can be applied to a variety of activities. A successful dictionary can show students the possibilities of language and is capable of providing a wealth of information. However, being able to use a dictionary is obviously not an end in itself; we use it, according to Stein (2002-11), to understand what someone has said, or what we are reading, or to be able to express what we want to say. In short, a dictionary is an aid to understanding.

That the dictionary is an essential learning tool is being increasingly acknowledged (Hartmann, 1999). However, other researchers such as Garcia (2005), notes that the spate of dictionary production has not been matched by an

adequate research into the type of users and language skills needed for the exploitation of dictionaries. In fact, Atkins (1998) points out that, out of the four EFL dictionary research areas, namely history, typology, criticism and users, the last has only begun to be addressed. Rundel (1996), adds that this has only come about as an off-shoot of the rise of learner-centred view of learning. The focus on users will reveal much about users and their dictionaries. This is essential if language learners are to reach their full potential, and if EFL monolingual dictionaries (which is the focus of this thesis) are to be tapped for the maximum benefit. However, this paper will shed light on the importance of dictionaries as authentic source of knowledge and effective tools of language education. A separate research on dictionary users will be tackled in another article, as this survey is intended to only cover some historical development of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries and their importance as language vital teaching devices.

Rationale

While monolingual English dictionaries have been the focus of a considerable body of research (e.g. Atkins, 1985; Bejoint, 1994; Stein, 1991, 1999, 2002; Hartmann, 1989, 1991, 2005, and Wright, 2001), limited efforts are exerted to remind with the impotence of the dictionary as a teaching tool. A sufficient interest and awareness should have been developed among language teachers and syllabus designers about the importance of this teaching aid. Dictionaries, however, do not only instruct and enlighten the students (Scholfield, 2001), despite the wealth of information they contain in terms of phonology, morphology, grammar and semantics, and so students think of them as just another book to help them look up words, while the under use of dictionary might be attributable to lack of instruction in the area of lexicography, its omission from the syllabus, and lack of conviction on the part of (old-fashioned) teachers to teach the myriad aspects of dictionaries. The consequences are observable – that student's oral and written production is often characterized by inappropriate word and phonological choice, lack of grammatical, lexical and semantic precision and social constraints on discourse. Hence, this survey will try to shed light on the historical features of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries in the field of language teaching, as a part of teachers' job to realize their impotence and use them as a part of routine work in their classrooms.

II. INTRODUCTION

This section will investigate the different theoretical and practical aspects of EFL monolingual dictionaries to introduce the theme of the study. First, it defines such dictionaries by contrasting them with other types. Then, relates EFL lexicography to pedagogical practices in classroom teaching, learning and syllabus design.

A. What Is a Dictionary?

In its etymology, the modern term 'dictionary' comes to us from Latin "dictionarium" through French "dictionnaires" which properly means "a book of sayings" (Hartmann, 1992, p. 5). However, in its modern usage, the word "dictionary" has become synonymous with that book containing lists of words with information about them. This belief is held by (Crystal (1987:108) who conceives of a dictionary as a reference book that lists words in alphabetical order. Crystal (ibid) also differentiates between the two senses of the word "dictionary": a reference book in a living room or on a library shelf, and an inbuilt dictionary which every native speaker of a language carries with him as part of his mental equipment.

A comprehensive definition of the dictionary is suggested by Zgusta (1971: 197) in his authoritative text on lexicography:

"A dictionary is a systematically arranged list of socialized linguistic forms compiled from the speech habits of a given speech community and commented upon in such a way that the qualified reader understands the meaning of each separate form, and is informed of the relevant facts concerning the function of that form in its community".

B. Types of Native English Monolingual Dictionaries

Monolingual English dictionaries began as a listing of "hard words", i.e. wordlists that explained in plain English the poorly Anglicized Greek and Latin vocabulary. Yet, gradually common words were also included and a goal was set to provide a comprehensive coverage of the English language. Early examples of these efforts were Dr. Johnson's (1747) "The Dictionary" and Webster's (1851) "The Dictionary of the American English". Gradually, a lexicographical tradition had built up made of the variety of native speakers' monolingual dictionaries to the extent that it is this general –purpose type of dictionary that most native speakers buy and conceive of as the dictionary, and it is this type of a dictionary in all its manifestations is the focus of this study. This sort of dictionary contains an alphabetical listing and includes a substantial body of the English vocabulary within the limits of their size. At the top of this type comes the Oxford English Dictionary (OED) composed over a period of fifty years (1880-1930) and including 20 volumes that trace the history and development of English words (Stein, 2002). Other kinds of monolingual native dictionaries have evolved and can be grouped according to Jackson (1988: 160) into four types. First, there are the very large library dictionaries like Webster's Third International Dictionary covering over 400,000 English words. Second, there are the desk dictionaries like Collins English Dictionary (about 1650 pages with 170,000 words) and the Longman Dictionary of English Language and Chambers' Twentieth Century Dictionary. Third, there are the "concise" dictionaries (about 1300 pages with 162,000 words) such as Oxford Concise Dictionary of Current English, the New Collins Concise

English Dictionary and the Longman Concise Dictionary. Finally, there is the "pocket" or "compact" dictionary (about 900 pages with 70,000 words) like Oxford Pocket English Dictionary and the Collins Pocket English Dictionary.

In addition to the above general reference works, more specialized dictionaries concerned with particular aspects of English have been compiled to meet the needs of native speakers. These areas include dialects, slangs, and historical, literary, technical, etc. varieties of English. Among the prominent examples of specialist dictionaries cited by Jackson (ibid) is Cassel's Spelling Dictionary. It lists root words alphabetically and under each root the inflectional and derived forms, on the grounds that most spelling problems are at the morpheme boundaries between root words and inflections. There is also Daniel John's famous "Everyman's English Pronunciation Dictionary" which contains roughly 60,000 words with their pronunciation given in International Phonetic Alphabet (IP A). The researcher can think of more recent examples such as Cowie's "The Cambridge Dictionary of Idioms" which is a comprehensive account of all types of English idioms that highlights an area that has become increasingly important in the last two decades.

C. *Native vs. Non-native Speakers' Monolingual English Dictionaries*

In the previous section a mention was made of the dictionaries specifically designed for the native speakers. However, with the spread of English as the lingua-franca since the beginning of the 20th century the above dictionaries have been modified to "meet the needs of millions of English speakers around the world. Though the prominent examples of EFL dictionaries are mainly for the advanced students (such as Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (OALD), the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE), Chambers Universal Dictionary (CULD) and (COBUILD) Contemporary English Dictionary (CEDEL), smaller dictionaries have been made for lower proficiency levels, by the three above leading EFL publishers. The premise of EFL lexicography is the fact that foreign language learners especially the advanced ones who are our interest in this thesis consult dictionaries for reasons different from those of the native speakers, and thus EFL dictionaries contain a specific type of information not found in the former. Cowie (1993) accurately pinpoints the expectations of the two types:

1- The EFL student is interested more in the treatment of common words. The L₁ student looks, however, for rare words with no compounds.

2- The EFL dictionary wordlist has a balance of neologisms and technicalities, whereas a general dictionary has various technicalities, neologisms, etc.

3- Native-speaker dictionaries are for decoding activities e.g. reading and spelling, whereas EFL dictionaries are more interested in encoding (e.g. writing) activities.

4- Since EFL students are still learning the language, the defining vocabulary of EFL dictionaries is kept relatively simple unlike the full-fledged definitions of native dictionaries.

5- EFL and native dictionaries may differ regarding pronunciation. In the latter, pronunciation is indicated either by a respelling or by symbols of the international phonetic system. EFL dictionaries use the latter only.

6- In order to help the EFL learners to strike the right stylistic level, EFL dictionaries contain more explicit reference to language use. This is done by means of usage labels and notes.

7- As a further help to learners, EFL dictionaries provide a considerable number of example phrases and sentences which show the item under consideration in actual use.

To put these differences in concrete forms, let us cite Jackson (1988: 176) who compares entries for the item of "inform" in a native English dictionary, the Longman Concise English Dictionary and an EFL dictionary, the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE). The learner's dictionary, unlike the native's, does not include etymology for the word because it is perceived to be of no relevance to the learner of the language. Also, the first sense of inform in LCED is not mentioned in LDOCE because it is the older sense of inform and is rare and so the learner is not expected to need it. The striking features of LDOCE entry is the wealth of information it pays to how the word is used in the language: there is detailed syntactic information given in codes 'T' of 'C' of, about, (obj) + (that) etc. and there is an example to illustrate each of the syntactic constructions and the meaning. Finally, the exemplification of the headword given and levels of usage included in LDOCE are lacking in LCED.

D. *Bilingual Dictionaries*

In Bilinguals, the student can use his/her language to understand the target language. The information in the source is provided through translational equivalents Atkins (1985), mentions other features like the formal or informal equivalents, etymology, synonyms, and pronunciation. An example can be seen on Al Ba'labaki English - Arabic Dictionary (2003).

E. *Monolingual and Bilingual Dictionaries: A Comparison*

One of the central issues in EFL lexicography is deciding which dictionary is better. Despite all that, it would be useful to review the arguments in favour and against both types. There is a fairly clear difference in the attitudes of students on one hand who prefer bilingual dictionaries (Baxter, 1980; Benoussin and Atkins, 1990), and teachers who encourage the use of monolingual dictionaries on the other (Yorkey, 1992; Stein, 2002). Bilinguals are better in that there are often n equivalents in the source language like in flora and fauna words (Landau, 1989), for many words are culture-bound like the social terms and plants. For example, Stein (2002) provides two examples of definitions, one for a plant and one for an animal.

If we now try to derive the headword from the explanation we will find they are inadequate to identify the headwords with certainty (in the above cases "carnation" and "mouse") but a bilingual will provide the exact equivalent in the student's native language. While writing an essay or letter in which case the monolingual offers little help as learners can access the material in the dictionary only by means of a foreign language headword. It might be just that word that they do not know, and if that is the reason for the difficulty, the situation becomes circular with no way out.

However, this ease of access which is the hallmark of bilinguals has its negative side. Bilinguals only provide translations; the students constantly switch from the mother tongue to the foreign language, thus furthering their beliefs that languages are simply nomenclatures and hiding meaning discriminations. Moreover, bilinguals create a translation barrier by concentrating on isolated words and internalizing L₂ items against the social and cultural L₁ items thus veiling the anamorphic nature of language (Zgusta, 1971).

If ease of access is the chief attraction of bilinguals, it is one of the main difficulties in using monolingual dictionaries. Hartmann (1992: 153), mentions that students less proficient in L₂ may not be able to benefit much from them. However, the rewards are correspondingly great: a monolingual with its reliance on target language and capacity for paraphrases of many meanings deliberately provides a wealth of semantic, grammatical and stylistic wealth of information that encourages production language activities. Also, Underhill (1984) believes that monolinguals help students think in the target language and get out of the translation rut, so promoting their confidence in dealing with another language and hence are led to formulate questions and look for answers on their own. Hartmann (1992) goes a step further and claims that the very fact of using a monolingual dictionary is a useful search experience that might yield more learning fruit than the student had originally intended.

We can draw a number of conclusions from the above discussion. First, the dichotomy in teachers' and students' preferences for one type or another is clearly irreconcilable. Also, to argue for strictly one type is a major misjudgment as both have their good sides, though it would seem that the natural progression is from a bilingual to a monolingual which is unquestionably more rich in information, but it is becoming increasingly clear that each kind helps students in performing certain activities at different stages in distinct ways and are not mutually exclusive. Hartmann (2002) emphasizes this point precisely by stating that the idea of "weaning away" students from bilingual dictionaries is unsound, and that by focusing on how the languages contrast semantically, syntactically, pragmatically and culturally, bilinguals may assist learners in ways that monolinguals cannot. One way out of the dilemma has been the suggestion of researchers like Atkins (1985) of writing dictionaries that combine the best features of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, which is the topic of our next section.

F. Bilingualised Dictionaries

From the previous section it is clear that neither the monolingual nor the bilingual dictionary is perfect in itself, and in many ways the good side of both is complementary. This fact led researchers such as Atkins (1985:22), to forward the view that the rigid dichotomy between monolingual and bilingual dictionaries should be overcome by using a hybrid type incorporating features of both: the bilingualised dictionary. The bilingualised dictionary has grown in popularity for the simple reason that it is a compromise between the monolingual and bilingual dictionary. It is a result of an adaptation of the unilingual English learner's dictionary which has all or part of its entries translated into the mother tongue (Hartmann, 1992:243). He (ibid) remarks that the bilingual dictionary falls in line with the double criticism on that, on one hand, monolingual learners' dictionaries are still too much like native speakers' dictionaries, and, on the other, straightforward bilingual dictionaries are too far removed from the target language to be of great use. Other writers like Stein (2002:17) substantiates the grounds for bilingualised dictionaries from our daily experiences: we use both types of dictionaries as teachers when we read an English newspaper or a novel as we look up unknown items in a bilingual or monolingual dictionary, and when we are writing a letter or an essay in English, we double-check the spelling equivalents offered by our bilingual dictionaries in the monolingual EFL dictionary.

The bilingualised dictionary is the supposedly happy marriage of the above-mentioned paradigms. It contains the L₂ definitions and examples of the monolingual dictionary and accessible L₁ equivalents of the bilingual dictionary. This dictionary is often based on existing EFL monolingual dictionaries. The earliest example dates back to 1966 for Chinese learners and was an adaptation of OALD (Hartmann, 1992:154). Other examples included: "The Oxford Students' Dictionary for Hebrew Speakers" (1990). Here definitions in English are followed by a Hebrew gloss in stylistically similar language. "The Oxford Intermediate Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary" (1988), and "The Oxford English - Greek Learner's Dictionary" (1989). The researcher can add more examples to the list from his study of a particular bilingualised dictionary available in local markets known with "The Oxford Word power English-Arabic-English Dictionary". It is a dictionary that gives translations into Arabic of the English entries (the key or main parts, according to Reif (1987). Unlike the purely bilingual dictionary, however, it gives very little translation of the meaning of each word, mostly one or two Arabic words per entry. The greater amount of information given in English, on the other hand, further helps the reader pinpoint the precise meaning and usage of the word once the translation has been understood. Thus, deep understanding is attained through the English part i.e. the definition, and the examples, whereas a quick and general understanding is obtained through the Arabic part. This will become evident in the Oxford English-Arabic-English Bilingualised Dictionary

But while acknowledging their advantages, critics have found difficulties with bilingualised dictionaries: additional space is required in entries in some works, and thus other material may have to be sacrificed. Some scholars complain

that the translation may be tempting to students who may only study the entry and its translation, but nothing else and thus obtaining even less information than that attained by the user of a strictly bilingual dictionary. A related drawback was pointed out as to do with the problematic notion of "key" word or translation; as it is simultaneously designed to be a competent translation of the headword but draws as little attention as possible to itself. The above argument may be emphasized that the readers may skip definitions and examples altogether and instead only pick up the translation offered. Our own reservation about bilingualised dictionaries is their unsuitability for EFL students of English who we believe should have their knowledge of English reinforced through use of English that is the use of EFL monolingual dictionary. However, this point should not eclipse the fact that bilingualised dictionaries have come to stay, and that they offer undeniable benefits especially for elementary and pre-intermediate students of English.

G. Electronic Dictionaries

Electronic dictionaries are a relatively new development as far as EFL dictionaries are concerned, but one which has already posed a threat to the more traditional types. Electronic dictionaries are seen as converted paper dictionaries, not the other way round, as all electronic dictionaries have the common feature that the data is stored on electronic computer files, and that a computer is needed to use these dictionaries. These dictionaries come in various formats such as hand-held monolingual pedagogical dictionaries - the dictionary is stored in a piece of hardware dedicated only to some specific tasks such as dictionary browsing, (e.g. Handheld Longman. Dictionary of Contemporary English (Docherty, 2000). Better known are dictionaries to be used in computers (either hand-alone or networked) similar as the other applications. The standard medium is now CD-ROM, or one of its modifications such as DVD dictionary. Dictionary files are typically kept on CDs; only the application and some indexes are written to the hard disk of the computer. Sharpe (2003) notes also the recent accessibility of traditional dictionaries via the internet.

Authors such as Chans (2004), view the CD-ROM format positively as the most convenient form. A CD can hold an enormous amount of information, and it can store not only the text of the dictionary but also multi-media such as pictures, sound or video. CDs are also fairly cheap to produce and do not take up much shelf room. An electronic dictionary clearly surpasses the printed original in the possibility of use potential. Also the electronic dictionary enjoys the capabilities of multi-media contents, i.e. the addition of sound and pictures, often moving videos to the body of the dictionary. Thus, traditional pictures are enhanced by the use of several sensory channels such as sound and slide, images and graphics from real life to illustrate a word or an expression.

On the other hand, there are clearly some disadvantages mentioned by Nesi (2001) in that the user views only the entry (and its translation) in addition to the part of speech label, but usually nothing else. This construction narrows down the learning process since the only thing one can learn in such a situation is that there are one or two equivalents or definitions given for the entry, unlike the printed dictionary where there is a whole page with other words from the same family as well as idioms and common phrases related to the same entry. Also, most electronic dictionaries give students much less information than printed dictionaries do. Very few of the current electronic dictionaries give more than merely spelling, part of speech, and one or two translations. For Zahner (1999) another criticism of the electronic dictionary is that it does not fully exploit the computer ability to process and display lexical information in a flexible way. It cannot be modified and offers only limited facilities, usually translations.

However, the current attitudes to the electronic dictionary may change with the invention of better ones that will offer the user far greater advantages than printed dictionaries. One idea for such an electronic dictionary is suggested by Zahner (2004). Comparing the mental and computer lexicon, the author suggests an electronic dictionary which will be able to provide a much more user-friendly interface with all huge megabytes of information spelled out and additional help information on the metalanguage provided where necessary. The user will be able to browse through different functions and explore a word's relationships with other words, its occurrence in set expressions of common idioms, and its place in multi-dimensional semantic network. The author suggests incorporating this dictionary in computer-assisted language learning (CALL) programmes to enable the user add more items at his or her own choice.

The electronic dictionary requires skills or habits different from those required by a printed dictionary. The requirements for the former resemble "computer skills" which do not take long to master. Among them is the habit of seeing information pop up after clicking some buttons without really having to scan, contrary to the "dictionary skills" which demand a lot of skimming and scanning as well as reading, especially in the monolingual, bilingual, and bilingualised dictionaries. Zahner (2004: 18) believes that technological progress is inexorable, and that in our world where convenience are rules at the expense of quality, it seems likely that printed dictionaries will be obsolete, and that their electronic counterparts will do their job more efficiently. As Sharpe (2000) puts it, the advantages of the electronic dictionary and the familiarity of today's young people with electronic devices, will eventually relegate the printed notion of "dictionary" to a secondary sense. However, until such time arrives, we will focus, as in the present research, on the more widely used traditional EFL dictionary.

H. Components of EFL Monolingual Dictionaries

Entries differ in content and organization from one EFL dictionary to another. Yet, certain standard components have been identified by Atkins (1985) as follows:

1. Lexemes.
2. Spelling.

3. Indication of pronunciation.
 4. Grammatical information (including parts of speech, morphological information and verb patterns).
 5. Definition.
 6. Illustrative examples.
 7. Idioms.
 8. Graphic illustrations.
 9. Cross-reference.
 10. Etymology.
 11. Stylistic variations.
- Some of the above features have been illustrated in the following diagram from Stein (2002:21) as follows:

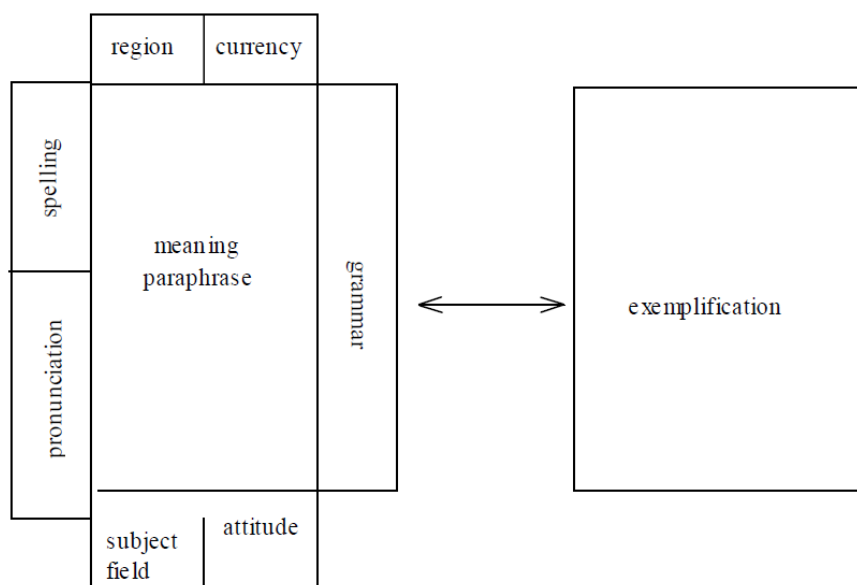


Fig. 2.4 Features of the EFL dictionary entry components

The above eleven components need to be considered in some details in a separate research, as they are the backbone of any entry in an EFL monolingual dictionary. Theoretical discussion of these components can be reinforced by constant reference to the four established British EFL monolingual dictionaries: OALD, LDOCE, CULD and CCELD.

1. A Model of Learners' Decoding and Encoding Dictionary Use Strategies

The increasing interest in recent years in EFL dictionary use has led researchers to investigate and conceptualize how students employ dictionaries for the two functions of decoding and encoding. The most well-known of these models is the one by Schofield (1982) which is concerned with the strategies users must follow while employing dictionary for decoding purposes. Schofield (1982: 186) suggests that the practice of looking-up and understanding information needed for comprehension can be broken down into seven steps:

- 1- Locate words and phrases you do not understand.
- 2- If the unknown form is inflected, remove the inflection to recover the form to look up (the canonical form).
- 3- Search for the unknown form in alphabetical list.
- 4- If you cannot find out at least one main entry for the unknown, try the following procedures:
- 5- If the unknown seems to be a set phrase, idiom or compound word, try looking up each main element.
- 6- If the unknown seems to have a suffix, try the entry for the stem.
- 7- If the unknown appears to be an irregular inflected form or a spelling variant, scan nearby entries:
- 8- If there is an addendum, search there.
- 9- If there are multiple senses, or homographic entries, reduce them by elimination.
- 10- Understand the definition and integrate it into the context where the unknown was encountered.
- 11- If none of the senses entered seems to fit, attempt to infer one that does from the senses you have. If more than one fits, seek further contextual clues in the source text to disambiguate.

For Schofield, teaching students these steps requires enthusiasm and energy, yet they need to be mastered so that users can find their way around a dictionary. Steps 1-4 deal with the macro-structure. With step (1), certain language learners must be taught the concept of Latin alphabetical order and will need to practise second and third letter ordering. But, an additional problem for Stein (2002) is that the dictionary may list entry words using slightly modified alphabetical systems. Idioms and various two-word formations are also arranged differently, depending on the dictionary. 'If there is doubt concerning where a lexical item is to be listed, users should list both entries if the cross-

reference appears (*ibid*). With step (2), figuring out the base or uninflected form of a word may also be difficult for students who are unaware of the meaning, so certain irregular inflectional forms should be given separate entries. A similar problem may also arise with step (4) (*ibid*). Determining whether the word in question is part of a collocation, a suffix, or an irregular inflectional form is not always easy for language learners. According to Schofield, in certain cases, if students know this information in the first place, they would not need to consult the dictionary. Finally, steps (5), (6) and (7) concern the microstructure and require of dictionary users to consider the context when making various decisions. Students must apply previous knowledge and the information at hand. While steps 1-4 are somewhat straightforward, the latter steps are not as easily taught according to Schofield (1982), because users must infer meaning and consider a variety of possibilities.

Schofield's model (1982) offers a good example for productive dictionary in decoding purposes. An adapted version was used to guide the training of dictionary use in writing which is the most important encoding activity and is the one which is the case in point here. In this case the teacher should prepare a series of target words for dictionary consultation. One option for collecting target words is students' own composition (Schofield 1996). In writing, for example, the teacher underlines lexical errors in the students' written work and the learner corrects them with the use of the dictionary. An alternative source of target words for dictionary search is to use segments of think-aloud protocols. Segments can be selected in such a way that they include different types of lexical problems.

A modified version based on Schofield's work and dealing with dictionary consultation for writing purposes was devised by Garcia (2005).

It includes the following:

- 1- Recovering the canonical from the inflected target words.
- 2- Selecting an appropriate reference work (be it a monolingual or bilingual dictionary)
- 3- Searching for target words in the alphabetical list. This step can even work in the case of the user experiencing a tip-of-the-pen state, since often the beginning of the word is retrieved (Garcia, 2005: 255).
- 4- Scanning all of the definitions or translations in the entry for the one closest to the meaning of the writer to be expressed before taking any decision.
- 5- Reading the examples, grammar code, collocation information and style labels and finding the ones that best fit the context in which the target word is to be used.
- 6- Cross-referencing, if the word was sought in a bilingual (L_1 to L_2) double-check the translation of the candidates in the L_2 to L_1 section or in the cases of a monolingual search, use a thesaurus for double-checking the candidate words.
- 7- Adding any inflections that were eliminated during original search to fit the linguistic context in which they will be used. The following schematic figure by Garcia (2005:251), better illustrates steps normally employed by students when using a dictionary for writing:

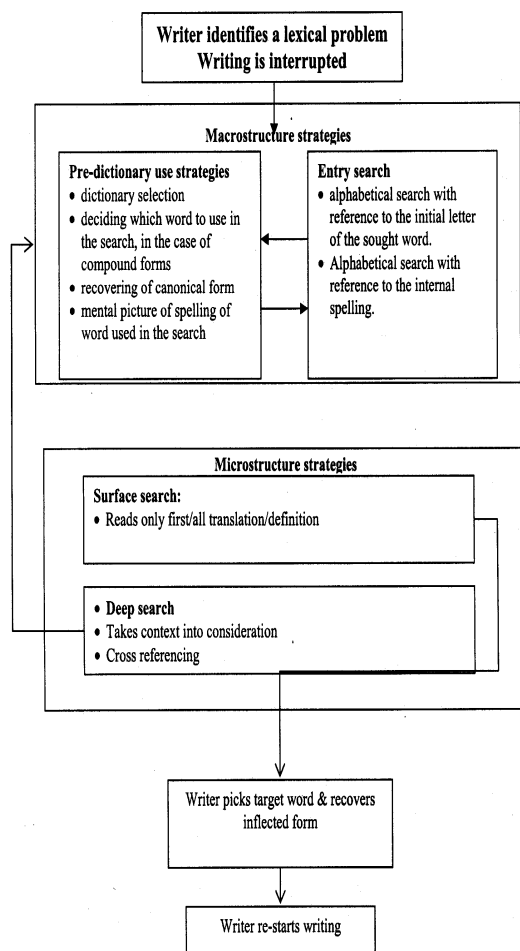


Fig. 2.11 Strategies Employed During Dictionary Search
Source: Garcia (2005), University of Essex.

J. Problems in EFL Dictionaries Use

A foreign language learner, who is confronted with a linguistic difficulty, be it in reception or production, may feel it is worthwhile consulting some type of dictionary. However, they may not be able to find a solution there. Schofield (1982: 185) draws an analogy between a mechanic and students attempting to fix their linguistic problems through dictionary.

"We may think of learners as opening the dictionary and being provided with words to fit the context. But it is not so simple. Like a mechanic they have to locate the faulty part first, extract it, and then seek replacement in the store, where it might or might not be in store".

We can extend the analogy further by supposing that in some cases the mechanic might not be able to solve his mechanical problem nor the student his language problem. Two main reasons can explain this. First there might be problems with the machinery used by the mechanic or the dictionary used, or the problem might be with the knowledge of the mechanic or the student. Returning to our topic, we will deal first with the types of problems in look-up caused by the nature of the dictionary used.

To start with, Nesi (2001) using error analysis methods; investigated how the EFL dictionaries -OALD, LDOCE and CULD - were responsible for many problems made by various groups of English language learners. She found that in many ways the dictionaries failed to supply the necessary information concerning registers, collocations and meaning. Nesi (ibid) concluded that one of the reasons for their shortcomings is that publishers continue to compile single works intended to assist students with all four skills areas. Also, dictionaries are still designed for users from all possible cultural and linguistic backgrounds. This criticism is even valid for the preeminent Hornby's OALD, as it is noticed that dictionary, with all its merits it has an essential demerit that it does not take into account the user's linguistic; a thing that made some scholars call for designing dictionaries including "contrastive core grammar" in the text and that an index could appear at the end of the dictionary to explain culturally- specific lexical items in the national language,

Arabic in our case. Equally, Rundell (1997) in another study of semantic, collocational and stylistic errors in a corpus, blamed the inaccurate or incomplete information in dictionary entries. He reports that lexical items including "reminisce", "debris", "new-fangled", commonly present problems to students while they are encoding. In most cases the dictionary fails to inform users that "reminisce" carries certain syntactic restrictions, such as the fact that it must be followed by the preposition "about", and that "debris" has the meaning of "mass destruction" and "new-fangled" does not have a positive connotation.

Researchers increasingly point out the necessity of ease of access of dictionaries. A dictionary should not only contain correct information but present it in ways that the target user can easily exploit it. This goes under the umbrella term of "user-friendliness" (e.g., guidewords, relief print, the use of limited defining vocabulary, cross-references, access from different look-up starting points, minimum use of grammatical codes, visual display on CD-ROM, pronunciation enhancement on computer, authentic examples arranging senses in order of commonness, etc.). Yet researches in EFL lexicography (e.g. Poulet, 1999, Stein, 2002) indicate that students often have difficulty locating and understanding the increasingly sophisticated EFL dictionary features which necessitate special training. Cowei (2002: 206) warns about this mismatch:

"There is a real danger of opening up a gap which is known to exist between the sophistication of some features of dictionary design and the users' often rudimentary reference skills".

At the same time, instructors have responsibility to teach students to use new features within dictionaries effectively.

Regarding the second main cause of look-up difficulties, namely students' knowledge, we shall account for some of these below. Stein (2002: 31) indicates that research into dictionary use over the last decade has shown that many dictionary users are unable to find and extract from the dictionary the information it holds for them. She suggests the following reasons:

- a) Total or partial lack of knowledge of what information the dictionary provides and how it is presented.
- b) Underdeveloped dictionary skills.
- c) Lack of awareness on the part of the users that the lower their command of the language, the more they have to double-check.
- d) Difficulties in identifying appropriate senses.
- e) Unfamiliarity with the grammatical system used. This may concern the grammar as such, or only specific distinctions or terminologies.

Alternatively, look-up problems may be caused by wrong habits of learners. Of course, the commonest one is haste in looking up a dictionary, regarding it as a last resort to be used mechanically. Research by Tono (1989:18) equally found that learners have no patience with consulting dictionaries and tend to focus on material appearing at the beginning of the entry. This antipathy towards dictionaries could be so great that students eschew using them where they are needed most. For example, there are the "faux aims" like the French "actions" in the sense of "share" and German "Aktion" which a student might confuse because of interlingual judgment. Also, many EFL students systematically misinterpret dictionary entries (Nesi and Meara, 1994). They (ibid: 14) mention two reasons:

"The dictionary users latch onto a part on the dictionary definition without really understanding how it relates to the word they are looking up. Also, the dictionary may be misleading from the user's point of view.

It is hoped that dictionary writers will improve dictionaries and that teachers will train their students to use their dictionaries effectively.

III. METHODS OF TEACHING DICTIONARY SKILLS

Teaching dictionary skills is an important yet often neglected activity area in pedagogy. Many instructors and students often view consulting the dictionary as a mechanical, somewhat passive task to be performed after all fails. Dictionary use, however, is a complex, multi-faceted activity which requires some specific preparation. Up to this point, considerable attention has been paid to examining EFL dictionary entries and making various recommendations as to how they can be improved to better serve language learners. Emphasis, however, must also, according to Nesi (1999:71), fall on teaching students how to use the work they already possess. Other researchers stress the same point. Tickoo (1989:60), for example, claims that guidance is necessary for the appropriate use of monolingual dictionaries. He stresses the fact that even the creation of better EFL dictionaries (e.g. electronic or bilingualised) has not reduced the need for individual judgment. More specifically, Walz (1990:34) gives several arguments as to why a dictionary should be taught. He says that first of all:

- 1- The dictionary is an essential source of information about the language,
- 2- It can be a tool for lifelong learning since learners will add to their vocabulary throughout their entire lives, and, therefore, it is worth learning the skills, and
- 3- It is not a dull, dry reference book~ and it can be used for more than just practising "safe lex".

Regarding methods of teaching this essential learning tool, the most obvious way is incorporating it in students' and teachers' syllabi. But as critics like Poulet (2002) believe, that up to the 1980s dictionary skills and the teaching of dictionary skills were largely ignored in the programs of instruction and training of future teachers. This can be easily explained by the fact that the majority of teachers considered dictionary use for beginning and intermediate students as hindrance rather than a helpful tool, even if some recognized learners' ability and positive attitude towards using the

dictionary. Syllabus designers allotted almost no space to lexicography in their ELT courses as we will see from examining the syllabi of the four Sudanese universities under study.

Skills and strategies for using dictionary should be taught in every classroom in the form of explicit teaching, for then students are not learning about dictionaries but about language and such instruction can extend over courses and modules and should continue throughout the students' academic career, rather than being relegated to a class period or two at the beginning of the term. But as Bejoint (1994:210) points out that dictionary consultation skills are complex and not readily acquired through active format, and he compares learning such skills to reading as both activities are learned through continuous practice. A related point concerns establishing valid and reliable standards for assessing dictionary skills component. This can now be done using Tono's (1988) or Nesi's (1999) checklists. Moreover, educators now increasingly allow non-electronic dictionaries, in reading and writing exams, making the test more like a real-life task.

A second method is the use of dictionary monographs. Indeed several useful pamphlets have been published to assist students in using EFL dictionaries. There is Whitcut's (1995) "Working with LDOCE"; Kirkpatrick's (1985): "Chambers Universal Learners' Workbook" and Barridge and Adams (1991): "Using Oxford Learner's Dictionaries in the Classroom". The advantage of such guides is that exercises are commonly included along with the description of the dictionary. Rather than merely reading what type of information the dictionary offers and how such material is organized, users are given opportunities to work step-by-step with dictionary entries. Guides which are to be of value, writes Lamy (1985:31), should go beyond description and show students how to find needed information not reconstruct how the lexicographers have come to design the dictionary. Also, users must be given specific assistance in employing the dictionary for both decoding and encoding. Moreover, guides alone cannot prepare students to use their dictionaries optimally. Instructors have to become involved. One more particular drawback to some of the guides is that they advertise features of their dictionary (e.g. best seller, hugest language corpus, electronically enhanced, user-friendly-oriented, etc) than they deal with the steps students must follow to locate and use various types of information (Stark, 1996). Hence teachers must understand the skills required of dictionary users and be prepared to engage students actively in using the dictionary.

Alternatively, EFL dictionaries may include the instruction material in the introductory section. The 1995 edition of LDOCE, for instance, illustrates dictionary entries in hart form and guidance concerning "how to choose the Right word and use it in the Right way" In CCELD less information concerning dictionary use is provided in the front matter or appendices. The authors have elected to explain certain grammatical codes within the A---Z text. Such a practice, however, may make it more difficult to locate guidance about the dictionary. The CULD, while providing a satisfactory explanatory material for understanding grammatical codes, status and usage labels and definitions, lacks extensive guidance for employing them in the dictionary.

IV. CONCLUSION

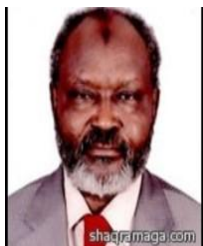
We are here to say that there is an increasing focus on lexicography and the aspects of monolingual dictionaries related to the developments in linguistics including phonology, syntactic theory, the lexical approach, and corpus linguistics. All of these developments have slowly found their way into EFL lexicography that is currently casting away tradition and utilizing the new insights into their entries. So we can assert that lexicographers have carried out their task in professional manner to produce different types of dictionaries. However, Syllabus designers as well as English language teachers have to incorporate these dictionaries in their work, so that dictionaries can be seen as effective and integrative educational tools in language education. The dictionary should be consulted not for looking up the meaning only – as this is the general belief about dictionaries – but it would rather be seen as an authoritative source of language, as it can almost tell the user with every detail about other language aspects in addition to the meaning. Dictionaries shall be seen as the first pedagogical aid which the teacher should keep company in his teaching routine, as well as it should be a good resort for the learner as an authenticated learning source of linguistic knowledge.

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A Comparative Description of Affixation Processes in English and Yoruba for ESL Pedagogy

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Abstract—This study describes the affixation processes involved in English and Yoruba word formation systems with the aim of identifying areas of differences and similarities for pedagogic implications. All languages have their systems of arranging words (morphology) to form sentences which are ultimately used to express and communicate information. The study is premised on the contrastive analysis hypothesis which postulates that similarities between the two languages will cause no difficulties ('positive transfer'), but differences will, due to 'negative transfer' (or 'interference'). Analyses of English and Yoruba derivational and inflectional processes of affixation reveal that the English language offers itself to both prefixation and suffixation morphological processes but the Yoruba language lends itself to morphemic prefixation only in its word formation. This is significant in second language learning as it implies that ESL teachers could use these areas of contrasts and similarities as effective teaching devices to teach and correct interference errors among learners.

Index Terms—affixation, prefixation, suffixation, inflection, morphology

I. INTRODUCTION

The comparison between English and Yoruba affixation processes is presented based on the understanding that both languages are socio-culturally linked. According to Gast (2012), "two languages can be said to be socio-culturally linked when (i) they are used by a considerable number of bi- or multilingual speakers, and/or (ii) a substantial amount of 'linguistic output' (text, discourse) is translated from one language into the other". Hence, English and Yoruba are comparatively described in this study to highlight point of differences and similarities for the purpose of teaching English effectively. The idea of contrasting two socio-culturally linked languages was first instigated by Fries (1945) who opined that "the most effective materials in foreign language teaching are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned (L2), carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner (L1)".

However, this school of thought soon met with strong criticisms as some short comings are identified. For instance, Kortmann (1998) and a host of other linguists are of the view that:

Contrasting a pair of languages turned out to be too optimistic. It was too undifferentiated in many respects and neglected important parameters of second language acquisition (e.g. natural vs. mediated, sequential vs. simultaneous, second vs. third language, etc.). Moreover, the contrastive programme lacked a solid foundation in learning psychology and was never even put on a reasonable empirical basis, insofar as the intention of producing comprehensive comparisons of language pairs was never convincingly realized.

The initiative of improving foreign or second language teaching on the basis of comparing two languages was therefore abandoned before long, even though a certain plausibility of at least some of the basic assumptions made by early contrastive linguistics can hardly be denied. To this end, Lado (1957) provides a comparative description of English and Spanish based on the assumption that foreign or second language teaching can be enhanced by comparing the learner's native language (mother tongue) with the language to be learned (target or second language) and this transpires to "Contrastive Hypothesis". König & Gast (2008) summarize the concept of contrastive analysis as follows:

1. There is a fundamental difference in first language acquisition and foreign language learning especially in situations where the foreign language is learnt later than a mother tongue and on the basis of the full mastery of that mother tongue.

2. All languages have their distinct or specific structures. Similarities between the two languages will cause no difficulties ('positive transfer'), but differences will, due to 'negative transfer' (or 'interference'). This suggests that learners' learning task revolves around the differences at linguistic levels between the two languages.

3. As a result, the systematic comparison between mother tongue and foreign language to be learnt will reveal both similarities and contrasts.

4. Such a comparison makes it possible to predict or even rank learning difficulties and to develop strategies (teaching materials, teaching techniques, etc.) for making foreign language teaching more efficient.

In Second Language Acquisition, the mastery of non-native grammars is imperative because learners' variability manifests in the degree of non-native grammar mastery where some achieve a near-native command and others fail. Apparently, failure or error would easily occur in situations where the grammar of the mother tongue is transferred into the target language to express or communicate ideas. This emanates as a result of the peculiarities embedded in the word arrangement systems of different languages.

Words arrangements

The word is the basis of all human communication as well as all language learning and teaching efforts. Arrangements of words lead to syntax and other linguistic levels that bring about intelligible and effective communications. However, languages differ in their word arrangement processes which implies that a language's morphological system needs to be uniquely identified and established from the other in a second language acquisition class to avoid interlanguage and language transfer errors (Weinreich, 1955).

A word is made up of morphemes which are described by Bloomfield (1933) as linguistic forms that bear no partial phonetic or semantic resemblance to any other form. Nida (1949) sees morphology as the study of morphemes and their arrangements in the formation of words. Thus, the process where new words are formed by attaching morphemes to new words is referred to as affixation. Such morphemes could be added at the initial position (prefix) or final position (suffix) of the words; still, some morphemes could be added in the middle (infix) but this process is not common in both English and Yoruba. Thus, prefixes, suffixes and infixes constitute affixation in any language; however, the three processes may not occur at once in a particular language.

For the purpose of this study, the descriptions of affixation processes in English and Yoruba is limited to verbs, nouns and pronouns because these word classes best illustrate inflectional and derivational processes in the two languages.

Affixation processes in English (Prefixes and Suffixes)

A process where new words are formed through the addition of morphemes is referred to as affixation. These morphemes could be added at the beginning (before) or end (after) of the root word. When a morpheme is added at the beginning, is called a prefix and when it is added at the end, it is called a suffix. It should be noted however that some words have both prefixing and suffixing of their root forms. When morphemes are added before root morphemes (prefix) for instance in English, it denotes a sense of negation thus changing polarity from positive to negative but suffixes denote inflections which could change the form of the root morpheme totally after it has been added or retain the form. In other words, suffixes could be inflectional or derivational. Tomori (1977) defines inflectional suffix as a morpheme that performs a grammatical function in a word without changing the word class of the particular word. On the other hand, derivational morphemes are added to derive entirely new words from the original morphemes.

In English, both prefixing and suffixing processes are employed to form words. For instance, prefixing is derivational while suffixing could be both derivational and inflectional and since inflectional suffixes always come at the end of a word, it is therefore regarded as terminal.

The following tables present some English words which are formed by prefixation and suffixation processes.

TABLE 1:
ENGLISH WORDS FORMED BY DERIVATIONAL PREFIXES

Morphemes (Prefixes)	Root morphemes	Derived words	Word class
im-	im + possible	Impossible	Adjective
un-	un + common	uncommon	
mis-	mis + fit	misfit	
il-	il + legal	illegal	
dis-	dis + regard	disregard	
em-	em + ploy	employ	
re-	re + cap	recap	
pre-	pre + tax	pre-tax	
ex-	ex + convict	ex-convict	
sub-	sub + way	sub-way	
in-	in + different	indifferent	
pro-	pro + chancellor	pro-chancellor	

Inflectional suffixes in English are best presented through the English verbs where inflection is considered highly productive. English verbs are basically categorized into the **base form** or to- infinitive e.g. to *jump*, the **-s form** e.g. *jump* + *s* = *jumps*, the **-ing form** e.g. *jump* + *ing* = *jumping*, the **-ed form** e.g. *jump* + *ed* = *jumped*, and the **-en form** e.g. *jump* + *en* = *jumped*. It should be noted that these suffixes indicate tenses such as simple present tense, present continuous tense, simple past tense and past participle tense respectively.

TABLE 2:
ENGLISH WORDS FORMED BY SUFFIXATION (INFLECTIONAL)

Morphemes (Suffixes)	Root morphemes	Derived words	Word class
-s	jump + s	Jumps	simple present tense
-ed	jump + ed	jumped	simple past tense
-ing	jump + ing	jumping	present continuous
-en	jump + en	jumped	past participle

Inflectional suffixes are also prominent in English nouns to reflect number as in singular and plural forms. This is indicated by such suffixes as **-s**, **-es**, **-ies**, **-en**. It should be noted however that plural morpheme **-s** and the possessive marker **-s** has phonologically conditioned allomorphs which are /s/, /z/, and /ɪz/. Hence, the **-s** allomorph follows unvoiced consonants such as cats, bats, taps; the **-z** allomorph follows vowels and voiced consonants such as John's and cows; and **-iz** come after affricates and fricatives such as churches, judges (affricates) and pieces, roses and bushes (fricatives). In addition, there is the zero allomorph (no morphemic difference between the singular and plural forms) in such words as sheep and deer.

English pronouns are also inflected and they are categorized into three groups: personal, relative and demonstrative pronouns. While personal and relative pronouns are classified according to their position or function in a sentence, demonstrative pronouns are inflected for number only. Positions occupied in sentences by personal or relative pronouns are subject/object position or they indicate an epithetic possessive/predicative possessive case. For instance, the table below explains these categorizations according to functions:

TABLE 3:
INFLECTIONS IN ENGLISH PERSONAL AND RELATIVE PRONOUNS

Subjective	Objective	Epithetic possessive	Predicative possessive
I	Me	My	Mine
We	Us	Our	Ours
You	You	Your	Yours
He	Him	His	His
She	Her	Her	Hers
It	It	Its	Its
They	Them	Their	Theirs
Who	Whom	Whose	Whose
Which	Which		
That	That		
This	This		
Those	Those		
These	These		

Culled from Tinuoye (1991)

Affixation Processes in Yoruba (Prefixation)

The Yoruba language is a Kwa language of Western Nigeria. One of the morphological processes it employs for its word formation is the affixation process which is identified as the key operation for the formation of most words in the language. In other words, Yoruba words are formed by certain morphological principles which define the internal structure of such words. By the application of such principles, words get their syntactic as well as semantic features which precede phonological rules of adjustment.

The Yoruba language is seldom inflected neither does it exhibit suffixation (Tinuoye, 1991). The first peculiarity of the Yoruba language is the complete and regular system of prefixes by which words are formed. This is a prominent feature in the language, and it is prone to an indefinite extent. The original idea contained in the simple verb, for instance, may be modified in a variety of ways, and carried through numerous relations, without complexity, by the mere addition of prefixes, in such a regular system that it is almost impossible to mistake the meaning of the compound product. For instance, the Yoruba word 'alaigbagbo' (unbeliever) has the root word 'gbagbo' (believe) and two morphemes 'al' (agentive) and 'ai' (negator) are prefixed to derive the negative word 'alaigbagbo'.

For instance, root words (e.g. verbs) expressing the simple idea of acting e.g. se, (do); fe, (love); mo, (know); lo, (go) can abstractedly state the action denoted by the verb, by taking the prefix 'i' thus, changing the word class from verb to noun: ise, (the action or act of doing=work) ife, (the act of loving=love) imo, (the act of knowing= knowledge) ilo, (the act of going).

The different prefixation processes Yoruba employs to derive changes in polarity (positive to negative) contrasts English which is inflection by suffixation. Yoruba lends itself therefore to derivational prefixation in which a complete and regular system of prefixes occurs to form new words. The primary functions of prefixes when used with monosyllabic verbs in Yoruba are to:

(1) derive concrete nouns denoting the actor or agent in a sentence are derived by the combination of an agentive nominal and a verb (doing word) e.g.

a) the prefix a + pa (kill) eja (fish) means (kill a fish) = "apeja" (a fisherman); a+ ko + (verb) orin (song) means (sing a song) = akorin (a singer).

b) the word adé (personal name)/'crown' - prefix 'a' + 'dé' (cover) = a + dé = adé.

(2) to denote the receiver e.g. the prefix a + verb mu (to drink) = amu (water pot); the prefix o + fi (to swing) = ofi (loom) and

(3) the action or state of being e.g. verbs expressing the simple idea of acting e.g. se, (do); fe, (love); can abstractedly state the action denoted by the verb, by taking the prefix 'i' + se = ise, (the action or act of doing=work) i + fe = ife, (the act of loving=love) (Crowther, 1852).

Affixation produces Yoruba nouns by prefixing Yoruba verbs with any of the six out of the seven Yoruba vowels (a, e, ẹ, i, o, ọ) and by in-flect.

TABLE 4:
FORMATION OF YORUBA NOUNS BY PREFIXING VOWELS TO VERBS

Vowels	Yoruba Verbs	Verb Meaning	Nouns
E	Wa	Come	E + wa = ewa (boiled beans/ Beauty)
I	Ş ẹ	Cut	I + Ş ẹ = ise (poverty, work)
E	Wu	Swollen	E + wu = ewu (danger, gray hair, large nocturnal rodent)
E	wọ	Enter	È + wọ = ewo (forbidden, abomination)
I	Ju	Throw	I + ju = iju (wilderness, false conception, disease which prevents pregnancy in women)
Q	Ba	overtake, ambush, perch	Q + ba = oba (king in Yoruba)
E	Jo	to dance	E + jo = ejo (snake)
E	Yin	To praise	E + yin = eyin (egg/palm tree nut)
A	Dun	Sweet	A + dun = adun (prefix to form name Adunola, sweet)
I	Ru	Carry	I + ru = iru (locust bean, tse-tse fly)
O	Wo	Collapse, break, fall	O + wo = owo (money)

Also, nouns of possession are formed by prefixing a vowel to this verb, which varies according to a determinate rule. Where the form 'ni' is retained, the prefixed vowel 'o' is needed : in the other cases it is the same as the initial vowel of the noun which denotes the thing possessed ; thus, onidajo, " one who judges ;" alaimo, " one who is ignorant;" elese, " one who has sin ;" olowo, "one who possesses money;" olorun, "one who possesses, or is in, heaven." The following list of derivatives from 'se' will throw more light on the above-described formation of nouns.

se "sin," the original idea of the verb (the act of sinning)

e + se = ese "sin," the noun, an irregular formation.

le + se = lese " to have sin," verb of possession.

ele + se/ oni+ ese = elese " one who has sin," noun of possession.

a + il +ese = ailese "not having sin."

la + il + ese = lailese " to possess freedom from having sin."

a + la + il + ese = alailese " one who possesses freedom from having sin."

Regardless of how it is formed, Yoruba nouns start with a vowel like (a + bayomi = Abayomi), consonant (b + ankole = Bankole) or diphthong such as (gb + ọlahan = Gbolahan, Gbolagunte, Gbolade, Gbolaga). Unlike, some English nouns with one syllable, Yoruba nouns are bi, tri or multi-syllable.

Formations of Yoruba Pronouns

Yoruba is strictly SVO, and the 3rd person singular object simply copies the vowel of the preceding verb, an iconic representation of the extension or completion of the verbal activity, as in (1).

(1) O fà á 'He pulled it.'

O s í 'He opened it.'

The other persons have distinct subject and object pronouns, used only with verbs. There is also a set of emphatic pronouns whose usage is not restricted.

TABLE 5:
YORUBA PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Subject	Object	Emphatic
1 st Person singl <i>mo</i>	1 st Person singl <i>mi</i>	1 st Person singl <i>emi</i>
2 nd Person singl <i>o</i>	2 nd Person singl <i>o/e</i>	2 nd Person singl <i>owo</i>
3 rd Person singl <i>o</i>	3 rd Person singl <i>repetition of the last vowel of the verb</i>	3 rd Person singl <i>oun</i>
1 st Person plural <i>a</i>	1 st Person plural <i>wa</i>	1 st Person plural <i>awa</i>
2 nd Person plural <i>e</i>	2 nd Person plural <i>nyin</i>	2 nd Person plural <i>ənyin</i>
3 rd Person plural <i>nwon</i>	3 rd Person plural <i>won</i>	3 rd Person plural <i>awon</i>

There are obvious differences between the realizations of pronouns in English and Yoruba as seen from the two tables. The tendency is that ESL learners may transfer the features of the dominant language (Yoruba) to the target language (English) at the phonological, lexical, grammatical and discourse levels. Hence, ESL teachers need to identify

and bring learners' attention to the areas of differences and teach accordingly (Ikeddeh, 1986). The table below compares the two languages' formations and functions of pronouns.

II. METHODOLOGY

It is established that some aspects in grammar exist in both languages as specified above, for example, both English and Yoruba have personal pronouns. Both are then compared and contrasted to indicate similarities and differences for pedagogic implications.

TABLE 6:
A COMPARISON OF YORUBA AND ENGLISH PERSONAL PRONOUNS

	Singular		Possessive		Objective		Plural	
Personal Pronoun	English	Yoruba	English	Yoruba	English	Yoruba	English	Yoruba
1 ST Person	I	Emi, Mi	Mine, My	Mi, T'emi, Ti'wa	Me, Us	Mi, 'Wa	We	Awa, A
2 nd Person	You	Iwọ	Our, Our's	Ti'ẹ Ti yin,	You	Ti'ẹ Fun yin	You' Your	Awa
3 rd Person (Male)	He	Oun, O	His	Ti'ẹ Tirẹ	Him	Re, E	-	-
3 rd Person (Femal)	She	Oun, O	Her, Hers	Ti'ẹ Tirẹ	Her	Re, E	-	-
3 rd Person Plural	-	-	Their Theirs	Ti wọn Ti' wọn	Them	Wọn	They	Ti wọn, Wọn, Awọn
3 rd Person Neuters	It	O	Its	Ti' ẹ	Its	Ti'ẹ	-	-
3 rd Person Neuters	One	Eleyi (This One)	One's	Eleyi	One	Eleyi	-	-
	Who	Tani	Whom	Ti' ẹ	One	Eleyi	-	-

Comparing functions of English and Yoruba Pronouns

The Yoruba language is basically described as a humanistic language and language of respect. The language, - consistent with the ethics of an African Yoruba philosophy-humanizes persons and social beings in situations of discourse. The language pays close attention to official/situations of respect and informal/ situations of familiarity of users. For example, *You /Iwọ* is 2nd person singular (emphatic subject pronoun). *You/Ẹyin* is also 2nd person singular (emphatic subject pronoun). But *Ẹyin/yin* functions as plural form and respect/official form. For example,

Ẹyin/You

Ẹyin ti jẹun (*You* (plural-more than one person) have eaten).

Ẹyin ti jẹun (*You* (singular (respect/official situation) have eaten).

Jẹ is to eat (when used you include type of food.)

Jẹun is to eat food (when used you do not include the type of food)

Jẹ ounjẹ is to eat food.

Jẹ fufu (eat fufu)

Mo jẹun (*I ate or I ate food*)).

Mo jẹ fufu (*I ate fufu*)

Ounjẹ means food.

Yin/You (object pronoun)

Mo (subject) *fun yin* (object). (*I give/gave you*) *Mo* (*I*) *fun* (give/gave) *yin* (*you*).

Yin/you in the sentence is the object of the verb *fun/give/gave*. And *Yin* functions as *You* plural and *You* in a respect/official situation.

Awon/They (subject pronoun) in an emphatic form.

Awon (subject pronoun in emphatic form) *ti jẹun*. / *They* (plural) have eaten.

Won (subject pronoun in non-emphatic form) *ti jẹun*. / *They* (plural) have eaten.

Won ti jeun. *She/He* has eaten. *He/She* in a respect/official situation.

Won/Them (object pronoun in respect/plural form)

Mo (subject) fun *won* (object) / *I* gave/give *you*.

Won /*you* in a plural situation. Also *won/you* in a respect/official /formal situation.

O/Oun/You

The Pronoun *O/Oun* is gender neutral. So it stands for *He/She/It*

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Based on the comparisons made in the functions of pronouns in English and Yoruba languages, implications of similarities and differences for pedagogy are therefore presented as follows.

Pedagogic Implications

Interference is a psycho-linguistic concept which is a reality in language learning. Errors in second language learning are partly attributable to interference. Theorists of interference believe that acquisition of the first language usually affects performance in subsequent language acquired. Interference as a linguistic problem is common in communities where second languages (usually the lingua franca) must be learnt. In other words, interference is a term which refers to a situation whereby two different languages overlap. For instance, English verbs are inflected (suffixation) for past with the use of ‘-ed’ as in ‘danced’, ‘jumped’, “He danced beautifully”. “Yesterday, she jumped over the fence”. However, a Yoruba learning English may say *”Yesterday she jump over the fence” because Yoruba does not mark the past tense with suffix morphemes rather the past tense is prefixed with adverbs. “L’ana omobirin naa fo iganna”. Also, learners tend to overgeneralize some grammatical rules in the use of English verbs because they do not understand the grammatical principle guiding the target language. This necessitates teachers’ efforts at presenting the two grammars to the learners for the purpose of clarification and identification in usage. The table below presents some errors committed by Yoruba learners of English as recorded by Adebileje (2013):

TABLE 7:
MISUSE OF VERBAL FORMS

No	Examples of error	Types of error	Correct structures
	1. She wanted to <i>sewed</i> a new dress.	Inflecting infinitive <i>to sew</i> for past tense.	1. She wanted to <i>sew</i> a new dress.
	2. The boy <i>has laid</i> there for many days.	Use of past <i>-ed</i> for <i>-en</i> .	2. The boy <i>has lain</i> there for many days.
	3. You have <i>bursted</i> the secret.	Inflecting irregular verb for past.	3. You have <i>burst</i> the secret.
	4. The terrorist has been <i>hung</i> .	Overgeneralization of <i>-en</i> participle.	4. The terrorist has been <i>hanged</i> .
	5. The students <i>seeked</i> new directives.	Overgeneralization of <i>-ed</i> in regular verbs.	5. The students <i>sought</i> new directives.
	6. The lady would have <i>grinded</i> the beans.	„	6. The lady would have <i>ground</i> the beans.
	7. She has <i>sang</i> a new song.	Using simple <i>-ed</i> for <i>-en</i> .	7. She has <i>sung</i> a new song.
	8. The water <i>freetzed</i> quickly.	Overgeneralization.	8. The water <i>froze</i> quickly.
	9. The rain started when the boys <i>have</i> slept.	Auxiliary still in the present while main verb is <i>-ed</i> .	9. The rain started when the boys <i>had</i> slept.
	10. She has <i>flied</i> abroad.	Using simple <i>-ed</i> for <i>-en</i> .	10. She has <i>flown</i> abroad.

Students' linguistic background therefore, needs to be identified by English teachers in order to forestall the problem of interference (Igbonusi, 2000). This study has exposed teachers to the syntax of English and Yoruba languages' problem areas at the word formations levels (morphological processes) as well as differences in the functions of words such as nouns, pronouns (personal and relative pronouns). In a study carried out by Adebileje (2013), learners' errors (that is, Yoruba learners of English) in the use of English pronouns can be avoided when teachers contrast word formation processes between the two languages systematically taking note of the fact that Yoruba pronouns' formation process and usage are quite different from English. Such errors in the use of English pronouns are presented in tabular form thus:

TABLE 8:
MISUSE OF PRONOUNS

No	Type of error	Examples of error	Correct structures
	1. The man <i>which</i> came here yesterday danced.	Misuse of <i>which</i> (inanimate) for <i>who</i> (animate) relative pronouns.	1. The man <i>who</i> came here yesterday danced.
	2. There is no difference between Niyi and <i>I</i> .	Subjective case (I) instead of objective case (me).	2. There is no difference between Niyi and <i>me</i> .
	3. The couple love <i>themselves</i> .	Confusing reciprocal with reflexive pronouns.	3. The couple loves <i>each other</i> .
	4. It seems to be <i>them</i> that did the project.	Misuse of objective for subjective case.	4. It seems to be <i>they</i> that did the project.
	5. Clean homes are essential to <i>we</i> mothers.	Misuse of subjective for objective case.	5. Clean homes are essential to <i>us</i> mothers.
	6. It was <i>she</i> that took the camera.	Misuse of objective case for subjective case.	6. It was <i>her</i> that took the camera.
	7. Sade is taller than <i>me</i> .	”	7. Sade is taller than <i>I</i> .
	8. The bull ran after Faith and <i>I</i> .	”	8. The bull ran after Faith and <i>me</i> .
	9. The nurse <i>which</i> child returned has come.	Misuse of relative (<i>which</i>) for possessive (<i>whose</i>).	9. The nurse <i>whose</i> child returned has come.
	10. The group members love <i>each other</i> .	Confusing <i>each other</i> with <i>one another</i> .	10. The group members love <i>one another</i> .

These errors according to Adebileje (2013) “are indications that students are not well grounded in their foundational grammar classes, hence, the confusion exhibited. Therefore, lecturers should endeavor to elicit specific classification and usages and if need be do some drillings to ensure tangible understanding in learners”.

IV. CONCLUSION

Teachers must always be guided by the fact that mother tongue affects learners’ understanding of grammatical rules of target language because the two are of different models. Systematic modules of forms and usages peculiar to each language must be painstakingly taken care of by second language teachers hence, the need for this kind of comparison. In corroboration, Corder (1981) advises that learners need to be re-taught and re-drilled in the differences and similarities between their L1 and the target language with special emphasis on areas that are different.

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Identity Formation of TEFL Graduate Students through Oral Discourse Socialization

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Abstract—This paper reports on academic discourse socialization of several EFL teachers in a TEFL graduate program in Iran through oral discourse practices over the first year of the program. It explores how the professional identity of the in-service teachers is affected by the socialization process, their prior histories and contextual factors. It concludes that dialogical interactions through oral discourse practices are likely to result in re-consideration of their prior professional identity. The paper is likely to make a contribution to our understanding of professional identity construction of EFL teachers in graduate programs as far as academic oral discourse practices are concerned.

Index Terms—academic discourse socialization, EFL teachers, professional identity

I. INTRODUCTION

As indicated by Lave & Wenger (1991), identity, knowing and community enculturation are accompaniments to each other and the extent of disciplinary participation can influence the development of disciplinary identity. Development of teacher identity in second language teacher education is a new research area (Choi, 2007; Mantero, 2007; Peirce, 1995; Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005). Teachers' professional identity has been considered as a component of professional development by several researchers (e.g., Freeman & Johnson, 2005; Palmer & Christison, 2007; Tarone & Allwright, 2005). The construction of teachers' professional identity and its development, teachers' views toward their professional roles, and the connection between their views of their professional roles and their self-image have also attracted the attention of a number of researchers (e.g., Beijgaard, Meijer, & Verloop, 2004; Woods & Jeffrey, 2002).

While the professional identity of teachers has attracted a lot of researchers during the last decade, the formation of a professional teacher identity in a TEFL graduate program through engagement in discourse practices has largely remained unnoticed. Investigating the professional identity construction of student teachers, especially in EFL settings has remained neglected. Professional Identity construction of NNES student teachers in their own settings is an area of research which needs more investigation. Despite the importance of this issue in studies on discourse communities, few studies have investigated it among non-native English-speaking teachers in their professional discourse communities (e.g., Tsui, 2007). Since these teachers may experience unique challenges due to their "dual identities" of being both L2 learners and teachers as Lim (2011) argues, it is probable that their identity construction should gain more significance in L2 teaching research. Most studies deal with NNES student teachers who are educated in English speaking countries and there are few studies addressing their professional identity formation in a second language context (e.g., Shin, 2008).

II. METHODOLOGY

The study is to investigate how student teachers' engagement through discourse socialization practices in their graduate TEFL program influence their professional identity and how much student teacher's prior sense of professional identity undergoes change and transition. The participants of this study were five first-year TEFL graduate students who were also English teachers in their local area. The in-service student teachers registered for Teaching Methodology and Teaching English Skills Courses in a public university in Iran. Data for the study were collected over two academic semesters, fall semester and spring semester 2012. The two courses were taught by the same NNEST university lecturer and the practicum was supervised by another instructor in the second semester. Data was collected by the researcher, during the fall and winter semesters for about eight months. The two courses focused mostly on oral discourse practices including small group discussions, and less attention was paid to written discourse practices. Apart from the group discussions, the oral presentations and microteachings were followed by interactions. The classroom procedures and practices in the courses of Methodology of TESOL and Teaching English Skills were similar as both courses were

taught by the same instructor. The student teachers gave oral presentations, engaged in whole-class discussions after oral presentations, did task-based small group discussions and wrote reflection papers on the assigned reading materials.

The data sources for this study included classroom field-noted observations, audio-recorded individual interviews with student teachers and their instructors as well as small-group discussions and micro-teachings followed by questions and answers. The real spoken discourse and perspective of the participants during group discussion and the debates after micro-teaching were used as the main source of academic discourse socialization (Duff, 2002; Morita, 2002). The participants' learning and teaching experiences reflected in their emic viewpoints expressed in small-group discussions and microteaching follow-up discussions all provided a rather comprehensive image of their academic discourse socialization. After audio-recording the interviews and transcribing them, a constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Jones, Torres, & Arminio, 2006) was used to analyze the data.

The present study aims at examining the influence of participants' engagement in discourse socialization practices during their first-year of graduate TEFL program on their professional identity construction and transition. Since teachers' belief is likely to influence their teaching practices (Richards & Lockhart, 1994), uncovering their own view towards professional identity and its place in their academic discourse communities can be of more significance. The study focuses specifically on Iranian students as studies have shown that cultural difference may affect willingness to participate and collaborate in class activities including oral discourse practices (Amirkhiz et al. 2013, Hofstede, 1986).

III. RESULTS & ANALYSIS

Negotiating identity through dialogical interactions

The epistemic stance of the student teachers in their preliminary interviews as well as in their small-group discussions showed how they lived up to the self-images as EFL teachers they created mainly based on their personal histories. The following epistemic markers in the excerpts from their group discussions and their individual interviews can clearly show how they positioned themselves as legitimate discourse community members:

- *My personal experiences show that*
- *According to my knowledge about high school students, I can say that....*
- *We are English teachers and it is obvious that*
- *As an English teacher, I know how to....*

Through engagement in classroom group discussions, the student teachers had the chance to voice their professional self, which was a mixture of their prior learning and teaching experiences. They were in-service teachers, who assumed a professional role for themselves in their local professional community as it was reflected in their group discussions. Since the students contributed their ideas on some pedagogical issues raised in the group discussions, they made use of their foreign language teaching and learning experiences. This could help them form their professional identities as relative theorizers, decision-makers and experts in their local discourse community, which could confirm the situated nature of their identity formation in discourse communities. Engagement in group discussions had a very significant influence on the identity construction of the participants. The participants assumed more professional identity over time due to engagement in new discourse and practices. The following excerpts from their second semester discussions shows how they positioned themselves as more professional members of their community after their first year of their graduate program. The student teachers' perceptions of their professional identity varied as their self-images as an EFL teacher differed over the period:

- *I think we have been discussing a lot of things during this time. I myself have learned many things. I have more confidence now and with no doubt I have become a better teacher, not just because of the texts I have read but I have learned many things from my classmates.*
- *The discussions helped me a lot. I learned many things. As an English teacher, I must say, I have become more qualified and more knowledgeable.*

The group discussions during the period helped them to reconsider their understanding of their new professional identity shift. This confirms Cooper and Olson's (1996) findings that teacher's identity is a continuous process of being informed, formed, and reformed which develops over time mostly through having interactions with other members of their discourse community and also through reflection over teaching practices. Also, the findings of the study showed that the notions like self-perception and professional identity are dynamic and are subject to change over time due to situational factors (Tsui, 2008; Varghese et al., 2005) as it was specifically seen in cases of high school teachers who started teaching in English institutes to feel their professional role.

The findings showed their engagement in group discussions let them voice their professional identity more freely, which helped them feel a sense of community while they were engaged in group discussions. Signs of identity transitions could be seen in their discussions and also in their reports and reflection papers. Over time, they argued, claimed and recommended like relative experts as the following epistemic markers such as "I personally think", "As an English teacher", "As far as I know" can show their epistemic stance signaling their identity negotiation and positionalities. This sense of professional identity, although present in some of the group discussions from the beginning, became stronger over time. Morita (2004) has suggested that the way students in discourse communities

negotiate their roles and identities is part of their academic socialization. The concept of community of practice sees identities as co-constructed through the ongoing collective negotiation of competence and practice in the process of learning and becoming (Eckert & Wenger, 2005; Wenger, 1998).

Negotiating their positions in the discourse community through interactions with experienced members of their community and the disciplinary texts, the student teachers went through the process of identity formation as a legitimate member of their discourse community (Lave & Wenger, 1991). After the first year, they could identify themselves as legitimate members of their EFL discourse community who could make a difference although this sense of community was not seen so evidently at the beginning. The participants experienced the professional transition and shift as all of them saw themselves as individuals who could be more contributing to their local EFL community and by voicing their professional self in the professional small group discussions, they could create a space for their active participation in their EFL discourse community as the following excerpts from the interviews can show, by developing their professional self and asserting membership, they could even suggest ways to form professional gatherings to discuss their issues:

- *Holding such group discussions in English institutes can help very much because it is an opportunity for discussing the challenges and also an opportunity to improve our speaking skill and teaching knowledge.*

- *We need an association of English teachers who work at English institutes which can make us come together. It can organize many activities for EFL teachers and help us become more up-to-date. There should be a place where we can come together and talk about problems and solutions.*

The student teachers' participation in dialogical interactions with their peers facilitated their reflection towards their own professional beliefs and practices and resulted in a pedagogical self (Bakhtin, 1981) from which they could negotiate their identity increasingly and assert themselves as legitimate members (Wenger, 1998) in the graduate program. According to social theory of identity formation proposed by Wenger (1998), dialogical interaction between the members of a discourse community plays a pivotal role in forming and shifting the identities of community members. Based on sociocultural perspective towards teacher education, the process of learning to teach is more concerned with identity construction and transition rather than a process in which knowledge is accumulated by student teacher (Varghese et al., 2005). Therefore, the reconstruction of student teachers' identity in teacher education program can be seen as a major purpose in these programs (Singh & Richards, 2006).

The participants were in-service teachers in a local Iranian EFL setting. This context was isolated in regard to lack of any supportive in-service training based on what both the student teachers and their instructors stated, the oral discourse socialization practices over the two semesters could make them feel like they improved their professional self through having interactions with their colleagues in the same context. They found it as the only way to associate with their colleagues and share a sense of identity.

- *Whenever I am here and I discuss the teaching problems with my friends, I feel more I am a teacher and I should find ways to help my students improve their English. I feel all teachers should have chances like this to talk and discuss. It helps a lot. This is the time you really realize you are a teacher.*

Identity formation through apprenticeship of observation

The interviews with the participants also showed that teachers' professional identity construction was influenced more by the personal histories and prior beliefs concerning teaching and learning a foreign language than accumulating pedagogical and theoretical knowledge in pre-service teacher education courses or through traditional professional development programs (Richardson, 2003),

I remember how I learned to pronounce the words correctly. For learning the phonetic symbols, I first tried to learn the phonetic symbols using an Oxford Advanced English Dictionary and then I wrote the phonetic symbols under each word and then tried to pronounce them according to the symbols.

The way I teach grammar may be different from my colleagues because I try to make my students make sentences with the new grammar structures instead of focusing on the exercises in the book.

Prior educational experiences they had gained through 'apprenticeship of observation' were another determining factor influencing their professional identity formation. The findings obtained from the first interview at the beginning of the program showed that the personal history and beliefs of the student teachers affected by their learning and teaching experiences played a great role in forming their professional identity before they take their courses. Previous learning and educational experiences of the students played a major role in shaping such an image. Their teaching experiences also had shaped the image they maintained.

The personal practical knowledge the student teachers, who were also in-service English teachers, gained through teaching in various educational settings also signaled their idiosyncratic understanding of learning and teaching theories and practices. Their solutions for the pedagogical challenges during in-class discussions showed how their understanding of learning and teaching issues could influence their professional identity formation,

- *Learning English is like other skills. Practice is very important. My experience tells me when you stop practicing, you may forget many things. Even when they are at home, they should listen and read. They should have input when they are at home, in their car or at work. Input helps the language stay on standby.*

- *When I was learning English, I used to underline the expressions and then I tried to use them in new sentences and then I imagined I was talking to someone in English and it was very good because there was no one I could speak to*

most of the time but it helped me to feel am really using them . Now I sometimes tell my students to try this when they go home.

The findings are aligned with the results obtained from the previous studies on student teacher's identity formation showing the impact of their conceptions of their professional role as a teacher (Golombek, 1998; Tsui, 2007, among others). Individual teachers' conceptions of their professional identity were uncovered more during the debates and small group discussions, especially when they made inter-contextual connections between their own prior practical knowledge and pedagogical issues. This is in line with the suggestion made by Coldron and Smith (1999) on knowing teachers' identity through a holistic view obtained from interactions between individual selves of the student teachers and their wider socio-political settings.

The role of contextual factors in seeing professional self

Contextual factors were seen as hindering factors preventing the student teachers from adopting and embracing pedagogical practices in harmony with their conceptual images of modern ways of learning and teaching a foreign language. These studies show how contextual factors including administrative and institutional ones influence their decision-making processes. As the excerpts show, the way the participants positioned themselves in their local society, however, was undermined by their sociopolitical context. Since the policies set in the public schools marginalized the way the student teachers positioned themselves in their local EFL discourse community, the recommendations towards the challenges they faced in such settings were scarce or more conservative compared to the ones they handled in private centers.

The traces of contextual factors and the micropolitics (Van den Berg, 2002) of the settings where they were engaged in teaching could be detected when it came to their recommendations regarding their challenges in their EFL settings. As stated by Hargreaves (1988), teachers' practices can be associated with their contextual factors in which they participate,

Teachers do not just decide to deploy particular skills because of their recognized professional worth and value, or because of their own confidence and competence in operating them. Rather they make judgments about the fit between particular skills, constraints, demands, and opportunities of the material environment of the classroom; about the appropriateness of particular styles or techniques for present circumstances (p. 219).

The following excerpts from the writings of two high school teachers show how the institutional policies can impact the way they could see their positions in their community and their agency towards participating in its practices.

- *Using supplementary materials to make up for the weak points in the books is practically impossible because there is no time to work on the materials and on the other hand, because some of the students go to English institutes and some don't, there are many levels of English in the same class, so it is not easy to do on the same material in a high school English class. Also, few high school classes are equipped with computers for listening to supplementary materials. You can only follow the book and try to make the students familiar with new vocabularies and structures as much as possible.*

- *Some of the students are very reluctant and are not interested in English in my classes. They just want to pass the courses by memorizing the vocabularies and grammar of the lessons. That's why I think it might be difficult to implement such strategies in real classes. The first thing to be done about it is to motivate the learners. I think it is very difficult because the books are boring and no one is thinking of any change.*

The role of institutions and their expectations also affected their practical experiences and consequently how they could see their professional self. The reflective writing of the student teachers helped them reconstruct their professional identity as a major part of professional development (Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005). They sounded more like relative experts, especially when recommending innovative solutions to pedagogical issues in their local EFL setting. The following excerpts can indicate how they prescribed ways to deal with the challenges in their educational context,

- *There are many controversies about the role of grammar in EFL classes, but as far as I am concerned English teachers should pay enough attention to grammar because it is the skeleton of speech and writing.*

- *The teachers must want the students to read story books which are suitable for their level. The teacher can make them read a story book each week until they get used to reading much. I personally know this is true for my students. A teacher sometimes should put pressure to form a habit. Then, you just continue with the habit very smoothly and constantly.*

The roles promoted by the education office as well as by private English centers also affected the way the student teachers saw their professional self. The conflicting perspectives between the views of administrators and those of the English teachers towards learning and teaching foreign languages had a substantial role in their image of EFL teachers' professional identity in their local context. The sociocultural setting can have an overwhelming influence of their socialization and even their professional identity formation of EFL teachers based on the expectations of the educational milieu (Beijaard et al., 2004; Golombek, 1998; Tsui, 2007) as the following excerpt from an interview with one of the participants can show:

- *It is better at institutes, at least they sometimes accept your words or they convince you why they do something, but in high schools they don't know about the purposes of teaching a language and they just insist on following the book and making the students ready for the final exams. They think if they want to learn speaking they should go to institutes*

and not in high schools. They have become hopeless about public schools for teaching speaking and listening. They say it is the duty of institutes.

Their conception of their professional identity was mainly limited to their EFL context at the beginning and their development in understanding TESOL issues through disciplinary texts slightly modified their understanding of their position in the wider community of TESOL.

- *I think this can be very useful for all English learners and more research can be done on teaching collocations and its effect on writing at upper-intermediate and advanced levels.*

- *I think follow-up communicative activities for reading passages have not been given enough attention because most of them don't seem to be very communicative. There should be more communicative activities and the ESL or EFL researchers must find more interactive and even more motivating practices for post reading tasks.*

Over the time, their small-group discussions as well as their debates demonstrated they gradually developed critical reflection towards their own professional identity and how they could see their own positions in their own local EFL community. However, they had little sense of a wider community of TESOL and saw no necessity to engage in practices beyond their local community as there was no motive in their EFL educational setting which could probably encourage them to assert a wider TESOL community membership. Lack of writing support centers and writing tutors discouraged the in-service student teachers from participating in the practices of international TESOL discourse community through writing for publication.

IV. CONCLUSIONS & IMPLICATIONS

The findings made it evident that the process of in-service teachers' identity formation was a non-stop reciprocal interaction between factors including prior learning and teaching experiences, knowledge obtained from academic discourse practices and their real fieldwork experiences. According to Markee (2004), "second language classrooms are not just learning places; they are, just as importantly, social places" (p. 593). Encouraging dialogical interactions in TEFL graduate classes as sociocultural contexts can play a significant role in professional development of EFL teachers and their formation of pedagogical self (Bakhtin, 1981).

The absence of motives for graduate students to take part in the international TESOL community practices such as presenting papers in national or international conferences, writing for publication or applying for membership in TESOL-related associations or organizations were among the shortcomings which may be found in other EFL communities as well. Providing support centers can help EFL graduate learners assert their legitimate peripheral participation in the practices of the TESOL discourse community worldwide.

Enough opportunities should be provided for in-service teachers in graduate programs to be more in contact with their colleagues, more experienced members of their local EFL community and even more established insiders in TESOL community. These opportunities can help strengthen social networking among less experienced community members and its old-goers for the final purpose of facilitating the development of professional identity among pre-service or in-service teachers. Such opportunities can be provided through encouraging non-formal group meetings between EFL teachers to create a stress-free setting where professional knowledge and fieldwork experiences can be shared smoothly. A non-affiliated club of EFL teachers which accepts members through subscription and managed by elected members can lower the anxiety of many inexperienced teachers dealing with professional issues.

Future research can focus on narrative case study so that it can uncover the personal history of the teachers more in detail. The findings would probably help understand the influence of economic, political, social and educational factors on professional development of both pre-service and in-service teachers based on socio-cultural theories of learning and a longer study which can track the long-term changes and professional development of graduate students throughout the program and even the following years after the program can illuminate how professional beliefs, knowledge and identity of second language teachers can be subject to change due to more participation in the practices of TESOL discourse community.

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Techniques Used by Teachers in Correcting Students' Oral Errors in an Omani Boys School

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Abstract—This study aimed to elicit the types of oral corrective feedback that was used by teachers and mostly preferred by students in both cycles of the Basic educational System in Oman. The paper discussed the results of data collected by using three instruments: a teacher's preferences elicitation instrument, a student's preferences elicitation instrument, and a classroom observation checklist. Then the results were processed to test these hypotheses that: Teachers of English at C2 & PB levels of boys Educational System in Oman use different types of oral correction techniques. It was also hypothesized that there would be a significant difference between these teachers' attitudes about oral corrective feedback and their actual practice. In addition to that, students at C2 and PB would expect specific oral corrective feedback approaches from their teachers. The data was processed and all hypotheses were proved to be positive. We made some recommendations, with suggestions for further investigations on the same topic.

Index Terms—corrective feedback, error analysis, oral communicative competence

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Statement of the Problem

The idea behind this survey stems from the fact that, as experienced teachers of English in the field, we have noticed that some teachers have poor teaching performance due to lack of teaching techniques or due to lack of judging *timely* interference to modify learners' oral error during classes. Having this in mind, we have decided to share our experience with these teachers to provide them with some suggestions that might improve their interfering techniques, to improve oral performance and attain successful communication.

B. Research Hypotheses:

We aim to examine these hypotheses that:

1. Teachers of English at C2& PB levels of boys Educational System in Oman use different types of oral correction techniques.
2. There is a significant difference between these teachers' attitudes towards oral corrective feedback and their actual practice.
3. Students at C2 and PB of the Boys Educational System in Oman expect specific oral corrective feedback approaches from their teachers.

C. Objective of the Study:

English Language teachers can use the techniques of oral correction to boost students learning. Therefore, in conducting this study we are trying to:

1. To find out if the male English Language teachers in Oman use different types of oral correction techniques at C2 and PB levels.
2. To compare the English teachers' attitudes towards corrective feedback with their actual performance in their classes.
3. To realize the types of oral corrective feedback techniques that students prefer more, to be used by their teachers to support their learning at each educational level at the Post-Basic (PB) in the Omani education context.

D. The Significance of the Study:

This study is intended to investigate error correction techniques used by EFL teachers, so it is mainly targeting English language teachers in the field. We hope to provide our fellow teachers with some ideas from our own experience in the field. The findings of the survey will also be of great use to course and textbook designers, as it will give some insight to embed some ideas in their work. This will benefit both EFL teachers and learners.

II. RELATED STUDIES

Oral corrective feedback plays a significant role in the learning process. Relevant literature reveals that there is "... a growing consensus among the majority of researchers concerning the significance of the role played by negative evidence (corrective feedback) in the process of SLA". El Tatawy (2002), Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen (2001), Loewen (2004) and Lyster & Ranta (1997) are with the idea that the role played by oral corrective feedback in the English classroom cannot be ignored. There are a number of previous studies that dealt with the oral corrective feedback, its types, the relationship between teachers' attitudes and practices, and the preferences of students.

One of the earliest international studies in this field was conducted by Chaudron (1977). In his study, Chaudron examined the effect of corrective feedback on oral production of students. He investigated the effect of different types of oral corrective feedback provided to French immersion students by their teachers. Chaudron observed that "repetition with emphasis" was more effective than the other types of oral corrective feedback, as it led to more immediate reformulation on the part of students (Russell & Spada, 2006).

A number of studies then examined the use of different types of oral corrective feedback. For example, Doughty (1994) in his observation of different types of oral corrective feedback used by different teachers, found that "clarification requests", "repetition" and "recasts" were the most frequently used types (Russell & Spada, 2006).

One of the important studies in this area was the one conducted by Lyster and Ranta in (1997). In their study, they investigated the use of oral corrective feedback by teachers in grades 4 and 5 French immersion classrooms. They identified six feedback types of oral corrective feedback used by teachers: explicit correction, recast, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition. They found that recasts were the most common type of corrective feedback used by the teachers.

From that time onwards, a number of researchers, like this research, used Lyster and Ranta's (1997) model of oral corrective feedback for analyzing the types of oral corrective feedback used by teachers in different parts of the world. For example, Lin (2009), investigated the types of oral corrective feedback that ESL teachers used in low, intermediate, and advanced level speaking classrooms using Lyster and Ranta's (1997) model. He involved participants from ESL program at a Southern California State University. The results showed that lower level students were corrected by their teachers more than the higher level students and that recasts were the most frequent used types.

Panova and Lyster (2002) also conducted an observational study in which they involved some early-intermediate adult ESL classrooms in Quebec. They also found that recasts were the most frequent type of oral corrective feedback used by the teachers.

At the regional level, Tabatabaei and Banitalebi (2011) investigated the most frequent type of oral corrective feedback techniques used by L2 Iranian teachers in L2 reading comprehension classes in an Iranian language institute. They focused on explicit correction, recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition. They found that explicit correction was the most frequent feedback technique used by teachers and elicitation was the second one (49% & 19%, respectively). They applied a Chi-square test and the results showed that there was a significant difference among the frequencies of the feedback types in favour of explicit correction.

To the best knowledge of the researchers' knowledge, no one has investigated the teachers' attitudes and their actual practice about oral corrective feedback in the Arab region. The closest study to this area was conducted by Kartchava (2006) in which the researcher investigated novice ESL teachers' beliefs about oral corrective feedback and their practice. The results indicated both consistency and inconsistency in the relationship. The 99 teachers-in-training were consistent in the type of oral corrective feedback they chose to use in the classrooms, but they corrected fewer errors in their classrooms than they said they would.

Finally, and as stated previously, there are some studies that dealt with the issue of students' preferences regarding oral corrective feedback types. Ancker (2000) in his survey examined teachers' and students' expectations of error correction. The results of his study go, line by line, with Nunan (1993) one in which he examines the relationship between the attitudes of students and teachers to a range of activities.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Population and Sample*

The population of this study is 326 male teachers in Muscat Governorate who teach at boys schools, from whom the oral corrective feedback was provided as (30) English language teachers were investigated. The population is divided into two stratum, (200) expatriate teachers and (126) Omani teachers. Stratified random selection was made to select (15) teachers from C2, (6 Omani & 9 expatriates) and (15) teachers from PB schools, (6 Omani & 9 expatriates). Six classes from two states were involved in this study including a class from each of Grades 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12. From each class (25) students are selected to represent the students population which makes total of (150) students.

B. *Instruments*

These three instruments were developed based on the related literature and they are of the qualitative type.

C. *The Observation Checklist*

The term 'observation' is used as a research tool that offers researchers an opportunity to gather 'live' data from "naturally occurring situations" where the researcher can actually look directly at what is happening in situation rather than depending on second-hand data source, (Cohen et al 2007). Based on that, the researchers designed the observation checklist to record down oral corrective feedback types used by the target teachers at the two levels of the boys schooling - C2 and PB.

D. The Teacher's Preference Elicitation Questionnaire

The Teacher's Preference Elicitation Questionnaire was adapted from Michael (2007) to elicit the types of oral corrective feedback that teachers prefer to use to correct their students' errors (see appendix A).

E. The Student's Preference Elicitation Questionnaire

The students' Preference Elicitation Questionnaire was adapted from Michael (2007), to elicit the types of oral corrective feedback techniques that students preferred their teachers to use. Similarly like the Teachers' Preference Elicitation Instrument, Students' preference elicitation questionnaire elicits the students' preferences through the use of a description of a teaching situation followed by several teacher responses.

F. Validity and Reliability of the Classroom Observation Checklist

After the classroom observation checklist had been developed, it was given to a group of senior English Language teachers and ESL lecturers at Nizwa University jury panel to establish its validity. The jury members were asked to judge whether the included items were clear and relevant to the topic under investigation or not. They were also requested to propose any modifications or changes to the instrument. Some of them suggested that the statements which represent the definitions of the types of oral corrective feedback should be shortened by omitting some unnecessary words (see appendix A). The instrument had a general internal consistency of 0.902 which is excellent according to Cronbach's alpha description.

G. Validity and Reliability of the Ts' P.E.Q.

To determine the reliability of the questionnaire, it was piloted by (30) teachers from Muscat Governorate. The results showed that the teachers' preference elicitation questionnaire had an internal consistency of (0.891) which represented a good degree of consistency according to the description of Cronbach's alpha. Overall, the piloting results revealed that the instrument was clear, valid and relevant to the topic.

H. Validity and Reliability of the Ss' P.E.Q.

The reliability of the questionnaire was piloted by (105) male students. Of them, (50) were students from grades nine, (20) students were from grade ten, (20) students were from grade (11) and (15) were from grade (12). The results showed that the students' preference elicitation questionnaire had an internal consistency of (0.75) which represented an acceptable degree of consistency according to Cronbach's alpha. Usually a reliability coefficient of (0.70) and above is acceptable (Nunnally, 1978). As for the previous instruments, the piloting results revealed that this instrument was clear, valid and relevant to the topic.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Introduction

Now we discuss the results of data from the three instruments: the teacher's preferences elicitation instrument, the student's preferences elicitation instrument, and the classroom observation checklist. The results are discussed in the same order according to the research hypotheses that:

1. Teachers of English at C2& PB levels of boys Educational System in Oman use different types of oral correction techniques.
2. There is a significant difference between these teachers' attitudes about oral corrective feedback and their actual practice.
3. Students at C2 and PB of the Boys Educational System in Oman expect specific oral corrective feedback approaches from their teachers.

B. Oral Corrective Feedback Types Used by C2 and PB English Teachers

To check the first hypothesis, which seek find the types of oral corrective feedback used by English teachers in C2 and PB schools, the means and standard deviations of the number of times the different types of oral corrective feedback used by the 15 teachers in each cycle were calculated. For the purpose of data analysis of mean values, we used the following norms:

Mean values (4.5 or more) = (Highly used/ highest usage/ most frequently used/ the most used/ most commonly used)
 Mean values (3- 4.49) = (Moderately used/ of a moderate use)
 Mean values (2.99 or less) = (Low frequency of use/ of very low usage/ lowest use)

First of all, Table (1) summarizes the grand mean number of times of usage and the standard deviations for all types of oral corrective feedback the 15 teachers in each cycle used to correct their students' spoken errors.

TABLE (1)
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (MEANS NUMBER OF TIMES & STANDARD DEVIATIONS) FOR THE TWO CYCLES OF THE BASIC EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Cycle	Grand Mean Number of Times	Std. Deviation
Cycle 2	38.64	2.135
Post Basic	34.74	2.789
Average	36.69	2.46

Table (1) shows that the least users of different types of oral corrective feedback among the two groups of teachers were the PB teachers with a mean number of (34.74) and standard deviation of (2.8). On the other hand, the table shows that C2 teachers use different types of corrective feedback with mean number of (38.64) and a standard deviation of (2.14). Finally, the table shows that the average use of different types of oral corrective feedback among the teachers of the two cycles was (36.7).

Tables (2 and 3) present the mean number of times and standard deviations for different types of oral corrective feedback used by C2 and PB teachers to correct their students' spoken errors.

TABLE (2)
MEAN NUMBER OF TIMES AND STANDARD DEVIATION FOR THE TYPES OF ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK USED BY C2 TEACHERS TO CORRECT THEIR STUDENTS' SPOKEN ERRORS

OCF Technique	N	Total Number of Times Each Type Used	Means	Std. Deviation
Recast	15	134	8.93	2.086
Elicitation	15	77	5.13	1.995
Questioning (Peer Correction)	15	69	4.60	2.444
Repetition	15	56	3.73	1.870
Metalinguistic Feedback	15	53	3.53	1.727
Clarification Request	15	50	3.33	1.718
Questioning (Self Correction)	15	47	3.13	2.295
Explicit Correction	15	47	3.13	1.407
Denial	15	35	2.33	1.718
Ignorance	15	12	.80	.414
Average	-	-	3.864	1.767

Table (2) shows that, Cycle 2 teachers used all types of oral corrective feedback with a grand mean of (3.86) and a standard deviation of (1.77). It also shows that recast, elicitation, and questioning (Peer-correction) were reported to be the most frequently used types of oral corrective feedback in C2. Recast had the highest usage as it had a mean of (8.93) and a standard deviation of (2.09). Elicitation and questioning (Peer-correction) can also be considered as types that were highly used as they had means of (5.13) & (4.60) and standard deviations of (2.00) & (2.44), respectively. Cycle 2 teachers might use these techniques more to increase the level of participation among students as well as to encourage cooperative learning without explicitly correcting their students' errors. However, there is a big gap between the use of recast and other types of oral corrective feedback types. This could clearly indicate the preference of one type over other types.

Table (2) also shows that repetition, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, questioning (self-correction) and explicit correction were the five moderately used types of oral corrective feedback by C2 teachers as they had means between 3 and 4.49 and standard deviations of (1.870), (1.727), (1.718), 2.295) & (1.407) respectively. The use of these types might indicate that C2 teachers started to feel that their students were more capable at this stage to cope with such techniques which need a certain level of language proficiency. These findings are inconsistent with previous research. In their studies, Lyster & Ranta (1997), Panova & Lyster (2002), and Sheen (2004) all found that metalinguistic feedback, repetition, and clarification request were not often used by teachers.

Finally, Table (2) reveals that Denial and ignorance were of a very low usage as they had a mean of (2.33) & (.80) and a standard deviation of (1.72) & (.41) respectively. This is in line with the studies of Lyster & Ranta (1997) and Panova and Lyster (2002). These researchers found that denial and ignorance were rarely used by teachers. This might indicate that teachers were trying to use other forms of oral corrective feedback to create a form of interaction in the classroom.

TABLE (3)
MEAN NUMBER OF TIMES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE TYPES OF ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK USED BY PB TEACHERS TO CORRECT THEIR STUDENTS' SPOKEN ERRORS

OCF Technique Type	N	Total Number of Times Each Type Used	Means	Std. Deviation
Recast	15	153	10.20	2.145
Elicitation	15	85	5.67	1.952
Questioning (Peer Correction)	15	69	4.60	1.502
Denial	15	49	3.27	.884
Clarification Request	15	43	2.87	.834
Questioning (Self Correction)	15	33	2.20	.862
Repetition	15	27	1.80	.676
Metalinguistic Feedback	15	26	1.73	.704
Ignorance	15	25	1.67	.617
Explicit Correction	15	11	.73	.458
Average	-	-	3.474	1.0634

As Table (3) reveals, PB teachers used all types of oral corrective feedback with a grand mean of (3.50) and a standard deviation of (1.06). Recast, elicitation and questioning (Peer-correction) were reported to be the most used types of oral corrective feedback in PB. As in C2, Recast had the highest usage as it had a mean of (10.20) and a standard deviation of (2.16). Again, we can notice the big gap between the use of recast and other techniques.

The highest usage of recast by PB teachers might be attributed to their desire to save time and at the same time encourage slow learners to continue speaking without explicitly correcting their errors. This finding is similar to the study of Lyster and Ranta (1997) who found that the teachers in their study provided corrective feedback using recasts over half of the time (55%).

The findings of Pica and Long (1986) also support this finding as they reported that recasts were used over other types of oral corrective feedback.

Elicitation and questioning (Peer-correction) were highly used as they had means of (5.67) & (4.60) and standard deviations of (1.952) & (1.502), respectively. This could be attributed to PB teachers' desire to increase students' participation by using elicitation and questioning (peer-correction). The table showed that denial is used moderately by PB teachers. This could be attributed to the teachers' desire to give more chances for their students to negotiate meaning by using the previous two types.

Table (3) also shows that clarification request, questioning (self-correction), repetition, metalinguistic feedback, ignorance and explicit correction were the six least used types of oral corrective feedback as they had means of (2.87), (2.20), (1.80) (1.73), (1.67)& (.73) and standard deviations of (0.83), (0.86), (0.68), (0.70), (0.62)& (.46), respectively. As the table shows, explicit correction has the lowest usage in this category. The low usage of explicit correction could be attributed to PB teachers' desire not to spoon-feed their students, especially at this stage of learning where teachers are supposed to encourage their students to be more independent learners.

Overall, Tables (2) and (3) give indications that English teachers in C2 and PB levels use all types of oral corrective feedback in varying degrees. Many previous studies support this finding. Studies like those of Pica and Long (1986) and Lyster and Ranta (1997), all reported the use of recasts, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, repetition and explicit correction to some degree.

The tables also show that there were least cases in C2 where the students committed errors and their teachers did not provide them with any type of oral corrective feedback compared to (PB). While there were least cases in PB where the students committed errors and their teachers did not provide them with any explicit correction.

In addition to that, Tables (2) and (3) also indicate that all teachers in the two cycles of the Basic Education moderately used repetition and reported to have a very low usage of explicit correction, denial and ignorance with varying degrees.

The teachers who participated in this study provided the researcher with some comments about this result. One teacher said: "Not all teachers believe that repetition is the best way for oral correction, they keep adjusting their techniques according to the effect they see on their students' performance." Surprisingly, one teacher disagreed with him as he stated that: "Repetition is a good technique because it helps students notice their errors not like explicit correction which gives them the correct version on a plate."

On the other hand, Tables (2) and (3) also show that C2 and PB teachers may use oral corrective feedback for a number of reasons such as being less sensitive about students' feelings because they are dealing more with grown-ups.

Another reason could be having students who have reached a level of language proficiency that allows them to be more independent in self-correction even with little hints.

In addition, denial was reported to be of the moderate use type of oral corrective feedback in PB, whereas it was reported to be of a very low use in C2. The teachers who participated in this study provided the researcher with the following interesting comments about this result.

One teacher said: "Maybe in the stage of PB, teachers believe that students have the readiness to discover or search their own errors and that denial will stimulate students to find answers which results in good knowledge obtained by such strategy."

Another teacher said: "Students in PB have more awareness and can accept this form of error-correction."

A third teacher who agreed with the previous two added: "Unlike C2, PB students are capable enough to be able to identify their errors using their prior knowledge. Possibly, students at this level are more autonomous, i.e. they are used to find things for themselves."

One of the teachers mentioned that: "Students are more mature in PB and they are used to denial as a way of giving oral correction, especially when they study Science and Math." Finally, one teacher added an interesting point. He said: "I guess in C2 the errors committed by the students are obviously more and teachers do not want to frustrate them. On the other hand, in PB the mistakes generally are less and teachers state it directly."

Finally, the two tables give indications that clarification request and metalinguistic feedback were moderately used by PB teachers and of low use by C2. The teachers who participated in this study made some comments about this result.

One teacher said: "These two strategies require high thinking abilities and a kind of analysis which is compatible with students in PB compared to C2."

Another teacher added: "This indicates their moderate level of language proficiency. In addition, the type of questions asked could be referential where the answer is not necessarily known by the teacher."

Finally, an interesting comment was stated by one of the teachers. He said: "Clarification request is used in C2 and PB because in these stages students need to give longer answers. In case the students are not competent enough, teachers sometimes ask for clarification or are forced to give metalinguistic feedback."

Overall, the previous results give us indications that English teachers in C2 use oral corrective feedback more than PB teachers. This could be attributed to a number of factors like: (1) the very heavy curriculum that C2 teachers use which forces them to speed up without paying the necessary attention to many important issues such as focused oral corrective feedback, and

(2) C2 and PB teachers might be more able to use a wider range of different types and amounts of oral feedback techniques as they deal with students who have better language abilities.

The teachers who participated in this study provided the researcher with some interesting comments about this result. One teacher said: "This is really surprising. It should be the opposite. However, this may show that that they are very much concerned with time; they want to save time."

Another teacher said: "This maybe because C2 and PB students have more awareness about error-correction."

A third teacher stated: "Because students in C2 and PB are grown-ups and can communicate more with the teacher."

Finally, an interesting comment was added by a teacher. He said: "I think teachers in C2 and PB use these strategies because their students have reached to such level that they can use high analytical skills to correct their own errors or to be given such little hints to reach the correct answer."

C. The Relationship between Teachers' Attitudes towards Oral Corrective Feedback and their Actual Practice

To response to question two, which seeks to find the relationship between the attitudes of the teachers and their actual practice, the correlation between the two variables was calculated using Pearson's correlation coefficient.

Table (4) shows the detailed calculation for correlation of the number of times each oral correction technique used in the classroom and the total number of times each of these techniques elicited from the target teachers.

TABLE 4
CORRELATION COEFFICIENT OF TEACHERS' ATTITUDE AND PRACTICE TOWARDS ORAL CORRECTION TECHNIQUES USED IN C2 AND PB LEVELS OF BASIC EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

KEY	Result Details & Calculation
X: X VALUES	$\sum(X - Mx)^2 = SSx = 39664.9$
Y: Y VALUES	$\sum(Y - My)^2 = SSy = 24901.6$
Mx: Mean of X Values	X and Y Combined
My: Mean of Y values	N = 10
X - Mx & Y - My: Deviation scores	$\sum(X - Mx)(Y - My) = -8022.2$
$(X - Mx)^2$ & $(Y - My)^2$ Deviation Squared	R Calculation
$(X - Mx)(Y - My)$: Product of Deviation Scores	$r = \frac{\sum((X - My)(Y - Mx))}{\sqrt{(SSx)(SSy)}}$
	$r = -8022.2 / \sqrt{(39664.9)(24901.6)} = -0.26$
	Meta Numerics (cross-check)
	$r = -0.26$

The results showed that there was no statistical significant correlation between teachers' attitudes about oral corrective feedback and their actual practice [$r = \text{minus } 0.26$]. This means that there was no relationship between English language teachers' attitudes about oral corrective feedback and their actual practices.

Teachers usually plan their lessons in advance but faced with many factors that hinder proper implementation of this plan. These factors could be attributed to the followings: time constraints under which the teachers work, heavy curriculum which force teachers to work under pressure, and complicated tasks which are far above the actual level of the majority of the students.

According to The English Language Curriculum Framework (2011), which was produced by the Ministry of Education in the Sultanate of Oman, English teachers need to cover a number of lessons in each semester which usually consists of four months. The number of lessons that should be taught in each semester range between (60-75 lessons) for C2 and (72-96 lessons) for PB level.

The teachers who participated in this study provided us with some comments about this result. One teacher stated the following comment: "It is the case for most teachers not to have enough time to apply proper techniques."

Another teacher said: "Time constraints, heavy curriculum, and complicated tasks all are factors that can force the teacher to work against his attitudes and beliefs."

Another teacher added: "This might due to the huge number of things that teachers need to control in their classrooms. So sometimes the circumstances do not let some teachers to apply what they think appropriate."

Another teacher complained that: "Many teachers are not satisfied with the current curriculum which directs them to behave differently from what they really think." Finally, a very interesting point was added by one of the teachers who criticized: "This means they are not reflective teacher. Otherwise they would have questioned their practice and would have modified it accordingly. They teach according to their tacit beliefs."

This finding is consistent with many previous studies which show mismatches between teachers' views and practices (Cathcart & Olsen, 1976; Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Katayama, 2006; McCargar, 1993; Nunan, 1988; Oladejo, 1993; Schulz, 1996, 2001).

D. C2 and PB Students Preferred Types of Oral Corrective Feedback

To answer question three, about the types of oral corrective feedback preferred by students in C2, and PB, the means and standard deviations of the number of usage of the types of oral corrective feedback preferred by C2 and PB students are calculated. The results are presented in Tables (5 & 6). The students, in the preferences elicitation instrument (See Appendix A), were requested to rate how well they think each of the listed teacher response helps them understand that they have made an error and would help them improve their English using the following scale: 3= very helpful, 2= helpful, 1= not helpful, and 0= not helpful at all. For the purpose of data analysis of mean values, the researcher decided to use the following norms:

Mean values (2.0- 3.0) = 3 (Very helpful)
Mean values (1.5- 1.9) = 2 (Helpful)
Mean values (0.5- 1.4) = 1 (Not helpful)
Mean values (0- 0.4) = 0 (Not helpful at all).

TABLE (5)
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (MEANS & STANDARD DEVIATIONS) OF THE TYPES OF ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK PREFERRED BY C2 STUDENTS

OCF Technique	N	Total Number of Time Each Type Used	Mean	Std. Deviation
Metalinguistic Feedback	100	227	2.27	.908
Explicit Correction	100	219	2.19	.775
Recast	100	191	1.91	.767
Denial	100	166	1.66	.924
Questioning (Peer Correction)	100	165	1.65	.978
Questioning (Self Correction)	100	156	1.56	1.104
Elicitation	100	154	1.54	.968
Repetition	100	151	1.51	1.115
Clarification Request	100	135	1.35	1.029
Ignorance	100	92	.92	1.070
Average	-	-	1.66	1.17

Table (5) reveals that metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction were "very helpful" types by C2 students. The table also shows that recast, denial, questioning (peer correction), questioning (self correction), elicitation and repetition were all considered "helpful" types of oral corrective feedback by C2 students as their mean value range between (1.5) and (1.9). Metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction were reported to be the types of oral feedback most preferred by C2 students with mean values of (2.27) and (2.19) and standard deviation of (0.91) & (0.78), respectively.

This finding is similar to a study conducted by Smith (2010). In his study, which involves 76 adult ESL students who were members of adults ESL programmes, he investigated the preference of these learners in error correction. He found that metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction were the most preferred types of feedback.

On the other hand, the table shows that clarification request and ignorance were considered as the only types of oral corrective feedback that are "not helpful" with a mean value of (1.35) & (0.92) and a standard deviation of (1.03) & (1.07) respectively. This finding is inconsistent with (Smith's 2010) study in which clarification request was the third most preferred type of oral corrective feedback after metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction. Table (6) presents the types of oral corrective feedback that are preferred by PB students.

TABLE (6)
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (MEANS & STANDARD DEVIATIONS) OF THE TYPES OF ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK PREFERRED BY PB STUDENTS

OCF Technique	N	Total Number of Times Each Type Used	Mean	Std. Deviation
Repetition	50	132	2.64	.631
Metalinguistic Feedback	50	130	2.60	.728
Denial	50	110	2.20	.833
Explicit Correction	50	100	2.00	1.178
Elicitation	50	79	1.58	1.144
Clarification Request	50	72	1.44	1.110
Questioning (Peer Correction)	50	70	1.40	1.143
Questioning (Self Correction)	50	68	1.36	1.174
Recast	50	67	1.34	.872
Ignorance	50	35	.70	1.015
Average	-	-	1.53	.983

Table (6) reveals that PB students considered repetition, metalinguistic feedback, denial and explicit correction as the types of oral corrective feedback that are “very helpful” as they had mean values of (2.64), (2.60), (2.20) & (2.00) and standard deviation of (0.63), (0.73), (.83) & (1.18) respectively.

The table also shows that elicitation alone was seen as “helpful” type of oral corrective feedback by PB students with a mean value of (1.58). On the other hand, the table shows that clarification request, questioning (peer and self correction), and recast were considered as types of oral corrective feedback that are “not helpful” with mean values of (1.44), (1.40), (1.36) & (1.34) and standard deviation of (1.11), (1.14), (1.17) & (0.87) respectively.

Moreover, the table shows that ignorance was considered as “not helpful at all” with a mean value of (0.70) and standard deviation of (1.02). This is supported by the study conducted by Sengupta (1998) in which the students of the study expressed their preferences to be told the correct version by the teacher.

One of the students in (Sengupta's:1998) study stated; “The teacher must tell me” indicating his preference of receiving types of oral corrective feedback like explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, repetition, and denial. Roskams (1999) also reports a similar finding and suggests that “teachers should probably supplement peer feedback with some kind of teacher feedback” (p, 83). A possible reason why PB students did not perceive these types as helpful types of oral corrective feedback could be, as Ellis (2009) writes, because “students typically prefer the teacher to do the correction for them” (p,7).

V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Summary of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine the types of oral corrective feedback that English teachers use at Cycle2 and Post Basic levels of boys schooling in Oman. It also aimed to compare those English teachers’ attitudes towards oral corrective feedback and their actual performance in their classrooms. Finally, it aimed to survey the types of oral corrective feedback techniques that C2 and PB students prefer to be used by their teachers to support their learning. More specifically the study aimed at checking the following hypotheses:

1. Teachers of English at C2& PB levels of boys Educational System in Oman use different types of oral correction techniques.
2. There is a significant difference between these teachers’ attitudes about oral corrective feedback and their actual practice.
3. Students at C2 and PB of the Boys Educational System in Oman expect specific oral corrective feedback approaches from their teachers.

B. Summary of Findings

The findings of the study can be summarized as follows:

1. English teachers in C2 and PB of the boys’ educational system in Oman use all known types of oral corrective feedback in varying degrees. Recast, elicitation, and questioning (Peer-correction) were the most frequently used types of oral corrective feedback in C2 and PB. Recast had the highest usage in C2 and PB.
2. There are some similarities as well as some differences between teachers regarding their usage of different types of oral corrective feedback, in the two cycles of the Basic Educational System.
3. Teachers in C2 moderately used repetition, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, questioning (self-correction) and explicit correction and reported to have a very low usage of these in PB.
4. Denial was reported to be of moderate use types of oral corrective feedback in PB, whereas it was reported to be very moderately used in C2.
5. Like metalinguistic feedback, clarification request was reported of moderate use in C2 and of a very low frequency in PB.
6. There is no significant relationship between English teachers’ attitudes towards oral corrective feedback and their actual practice.

7. There is no significant relationship between English language teachers' attitudes towards oral corrective feedback and their actual practices.

8. English teachers mostly use recast, elicitation, and questioning (Peer-correction) in the two cycles of the Basic Educational System, whereas C2 students prefer metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction, recast, denial, questioning (peer & self-correction), elicitation and repetition. While PB students preferred types of oral corrective feedback were repetition, metalinguistic feedback, denial, explicit correction and elicitation. Among them repetition and metalinguistic feedback were the most preferred types.

9. By comparing the two results, it can be seen that C2 teachers use recast, elicitation and questioning (peer-correction) in accordance to their students' expectation. However, elicitation is the only common item between the two when we come to PB teachers.

C. Recommendations

Based on the results of this study, we can recommend the following:

1. As this study revealed that recast had the highest usage by C2 and PB teachers among other types of oral corrective feedback, it is suggested that C2 & PB teachers make more use of other types of oral corrective feedback. Lyster (1998a) and Panova & Lyster (2002) stress that because recast is an implicit type of oral corrective technique, it might pass unnoticed especially by less advanced students. Lyster and Ranta (1997) add that using elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, and repetition encourage students more actively to draw on what they already know.

2. This study revealed that there is no significant relationship between English teachers' attitudes about oral corrective feedback and their actual practice. Schulz (2001) discusses the importance of teacher education programs and their impact on forming teachers' perceptions of effective error correction. He suggests that there is a need for research on what information is being disseminated to students in teacher education programs about corrective feedback.

D. Suggestions for Further Research

According to Lyster & Ranta (1997, 49), student's uptake is "a student utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspects of the student's initial utterance". Such a study will, hopefully, let us learn more about how students respond to their teachers' oral corrective feedback and will uncover the types of oral corrective feedback which are more effective in helping students improve their English Language. This study can be replicated in other similar environments in the Arab region by using the same tools to see the degree of agreements of the teachers' and students' attitudes towards corrective feedback strategy in ELT.

APPENDIX (A). CLASSROOM OBSERVATION CHECKLIST FOR ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK TYPES

Types of Oral Corrective Feedback Preferences Elicitation Instrument (Teachers)

Types of Oral Corrective Feedback Preferences Elicitation Instrument (Students)

Follow-up Questionnaire (Teachers)

Classroom Observation Checklist for Oral Corrective Feedback TypesSchool----- Teacher -----Grade/Class-----
Language focus of the lesson: -----Date & Session No:(.....)

No	OCF Type	Definition	Example	Number of Times Used by Teacher	Comment
01	Recast	The teacher repeats what the learner has said replacing the error.	S: <i>Were you surprising by anything in the article?</i> (error-grammatical) T: <i>Were you surprised by anything in the article?</i>		
02	Explicit Correction	The teacher explicitly provides the learners with the correct form.	"That is not right, You should say ..."		
03	Repetition of Error	The teacher repeats the learner's error in isolation, in most cases, teachers adjust their intonation so as to highlight the error.	S: <i>I going to visit my parents next week.</i> T: <i>I going to...</i> (emphasis) S: <i>I'm going to...</i>		
04	Elicitation	Teachers provide a sentence and strategically pause to allow students to "fill in the blank".	S: <i>Androcles and the lion become good friends.</i> T: <i>become?</i> (emphasis) S: <i>became</i>		
05	Metalinguistic Feedback	The teacher provides, information, or questions related to an error the student has made without explicitly providing the correct form.	Students create a story with some pictures. S: <i>When Androcles saw the lion he was...</i> T: <i>surprise, surprised, surprising.</i> S: <i>surprised</i>		
06	Clarification Request	The teacher asks for repetition or reformulation of what the learner has said.	T: <i>What's your surname?</i> S: <i>Lucy</i> T: <i>"pardon me"? What's your surname?</i> S: <i>López</i> T: <i>Excellent!</i>		
07	Denial	The teacher tells the learner that his/her response was incorrect and asks him/her to say the sentence without the mistake.	"That's not correct, Could you try again".		
08	Questioning (Peer Correction)	Learners correct to each other in face-to-face interaction in a safe environment	Learners work in pairs and read to each other a tongue twister. A student reads the line: <i>A flea and a fly flew up in a flue.</i> She mispronounces the word flew up . Her partner corrects her: <i>A flea and a fly [flu:] up in a flue.</i>		
09	Questioning (Self Correction)	Learners are aware of mistakes they make and repair them.	A Student answering to the question. <i>What did you do yesterday? "I go ... went to the movies ..."</i>		
10	Ignoring	The student makes an error and the teacher does nothing.	-----		

APPENDIX (B). TYPES OF ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK PREFERENCES ELICITATION INSTRUMENT (TEACHERS)

Dear colleague,

This questionnaire should take around 10 minutes to complete. Please answer ALL questions.

Thank you,

Part One: Personal Information:

Please tick (✓) as appropriate:

Name:

School:

Grades you teach: ☐ 5- 8 ☐ 9-10 ☐ 11-12

Part Two: Oral Corrective Feedback Techniques:

The following is a short dialogue between a teacher and a student followed by several teacher responses. Imagine that one of your students had made the same mistake as the student in the following example. Rate how well you think each teacher response (1-10) helps the student understand that the teacher is trying to correct him.

4 = very helpful 3 = helpful 2 = moderately helpful 1 = not helpful 0 = not helpful at all

Example: Teacher: "Where have you been yesterday?"
Student: "I has been to Muscat."

No	Oral Corrective Feedback Type	Definition	Teacher Response	4	3	2	1	0
01	Recast	The teacher repeats what the learner has said replacing the error.	"You have been to Muscat"					
02	Explicit Correction	The teacher explicitly provides the learners with the correct form.	You should say 'have' not 'has'					
03	Repetition of Error	The teacher repeats the learner's error in isolation, in most cases, teachers adjust their intonation so as to highlight the error.	"I has been to Muscat" stressing 'has'					
04	Elicitation	Teachers provide a sentence and strategically pause to allow students to "fill in the blank".	"I..."					
05	Metalinguistic Feedback	The teacher provides, information, or questions related to an error the student has made without explicitly providing the correct form.	"You can't say 'has'. We use 'have' with the pronoun I"					
06	Clarification Request	The teacher asks for repetition or reformulation of what the learner has said.	"Do you mean...?"					
07	Denial	The teacher tells the learner that his/her response was incorrect and asks him/her to say the sentence without the mistake.	"That's not correct, could you try again"					
08	Questioning (Peer Correction)	Learners correct to each other in face-to-face interaction in a safe environment	"Is that correct?"					
09	Questioning (Self Correction)	Learners are aware of mistakes they make and repair them.	"Is that correct, Ahmed?"					
10	Ignorance	The student makes an error and the teacher does nothing.	-----					

Teacher's comment

Thank you very much for your time and dedication.

APPENDIX (C). (12 – 7) إستبانة لطلبة الصفوف

عزيزي الطالب:

إن الهدف من هذه الاستبانة هي التعرف على الأساليب التي تفضل أن يستخدمها المعلم لتصحيح الأخطاء التي قد تقع فيها خلال الحوار معه في الغرفة الصفية. أرجو منك الإجابة بكل دقة عن جميع الأسئلة. ملحوظة: هذه البيانات ستبقى سرية لغرض البحث فقط

أولاً: بيانات الطالب:

أرجو وضع علامة (✓) على المربع الذي ينطبق عليك

الصف: 7 ☐ 8 ☐ 9 ☐ 10 ☐ 11 ☐ 12 ☐

الإسم:

ثانياً: الأساليب المستخدمة في تصحيح الأخطاء:

فيما يلي حوار قصير بين معلم وطالب متبوعاً بعدة طرق تصحيحية من طرف المعلم. تخيل أنك قد وقعت في هذا الخطأ في المثال التالي. قم بتقييم إلى أي مدى تساعدك الأساليب المختلفة التي يستخدمها المعلم في تصحيح هذا الخطأ. لكل إجابة من إجابات المعلم اختر المربع الذي يشير إلى مدى فائدة كل أسلوب بالنسبة لك. (3) إذا كان أسلوب المعلم مفيداً جداً، (2) إذا كان مفيداً، (1) إذا كنت ترى أن أسلوب المعلم غير مفيد، (0) إذا كنت ترى أن أسلوب المعلم غير مفيد على الإطلاق، وإذا لم تفهم الإجابة ضع علامة (✓) على "لم أفهم الإجابة".

3 = أسلوب المعلم مفيد جداً 2 = أسلوب المعلم مفيد 1 = أسلوب المعلم ليس مفيداً 0 = أسلوب المعلم ليس مفيداً على الإطلاق

Example: What did you do yesterday?

I *readed* English.

No	Teacher's Response	إجابة المعلم	3	2	1	0	لم أفهم الإجابة
01	English"- stressing "readed" "I readed"	يكرر المعلم ما قلته حرفياً مع التشديد على مكان الخطأ					
02	You read English"	يكرر المعلم ما قلته مع تصحيح الخطأ					
03	You should say 'read' no 'readed'	يصحح المعلم مكان الخطأ تحديداً					
04	يبدأ المعلم الجملة منتظراً منك إكمالها مصححاً الخطأ	بنفسك "I....."					
05	"What?"	يسألك المعلم "ماذا؟"					
06	You can't say 'readed', 'read /ri:d/' is an irregular verb, 'read /red/' is the past tense of 'read'	الفعل غير منتظم وتصريفه هو كذا					
07	That is not correct, could you try again?	هذا غير صحيح. فضلاً أعد المحاولة					
08	"Is that correct?"	هل هذا صحيح؟					
09	"Is that correct Ali?" Asking you.	المعلم، هل هذا صحيح يا علي؟					
10	The teacher ignore your mistake	يتجاهل المعلم الإجابة الخاطئة					

APPENDIX (D). FOLLOW- UP INSTRUMENT (TEACHERS)

Dear colleague,

Hereby, we present you some of the results of our study and we would be very grateful if you could provide us with your comments about the possible reasons behind these results as well as any other remarks that you think will be useful for the study.

Thank you

Part One: Personal Information

Please tick (✓) as appropriate:

Name (optional):

School (optional):

Grades you teach: ☐ 5-10 ☐ 11-12.

Part Two: Results of the Study

I. Recast, elicitation, and questioning (Peer-correction) were the most three used types of oral corrective feedback in C2 and PB.

Comments:

Teachers in C2 moderately used repetition, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, questioning (self-correction) and explicit correction and reported to have a very low usage of these in PB.

Comments:

Denial was reported to be of moderate use types of oral corrective feedback in PB, whereas it was reported to be very moderately used in C2.

Comments:

Teachers like metalinguistic feedback, clarification request was reported of moderate use in C2 and of a very low frequency in PB.

Comments:

There is no significant relationship between English teachers' attitudes about oral corrective feedback and their actual practice.

Comments:

There were least cases in C2 where the students committed errors and their teachers did not provide them with any type of oral corrective feedback compared to (PB).

Comments: -----

Additional Notes: -----

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An ATTITUDE Study on the Conflict between Mother and Her Daughter-in-law in the Novel *Double-Sided Adhesive* from Appraisal Theory Perspective

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Abstract—Appraisal Theory is promising and applicable in many fields, but its interpretation in the field of conflict discourse is still in the exploratory stage. This article, aims to analyze the attitudinal meanings of conflict discourse between Mother-in-law and Daughter-in-law in the Chinese novel *Double-Sides Adhesive*, so as to testify the feasibility of Appraisal Theory.

Index Terms—appraisal theory, ATTITUDE system, conflict discourse

I. INTRODUCTION

Since its inception in the early 20th century, Appraisal Theory has been promising and applicable in many aspects. In recent years, many Chinese scholars have conducted effective researches. Some focuses on theoretical level, intending to perfect the system (Li, 2004; Wang & Lu, 2010; Li, 2006) while some applied the theory into translation studies (Su, 2008), Foreign Language Teaching (Liao Chuanfeng, 2008) and discourse analysis, involving novel interpretation, book reviews, stylistic analysis of news, editorial and academic discourse and other different types of discourse (Liu & Han, 2004; Lan, 2011; Chen, 2007). However, there are few scholars utilizing Appraisal Theory to analyze conflict discourse. This paper, based on Appraisal Theory, intends to examine the attitudinal meanings in conflict discourse between mother and daughter-in-law in the Chinese novel *Double-Sides Adhesive*, so as to testify the explanatory power of Appraisal Theory.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Appraisal Theory, proposed by J.R.James, has expanded the study of interpersonal meaning into a new stage, from lexical-grammatical oriented to semantic oriented. Scholars of Appraisal Theory are interested in exploring what resources or choices writers or speakers have adopted to take stance towards certain people, things or phenomena, to construct textual authorities in different types of discourse, to express and negotiate positioning and attitude and to manage interpersonal relationship either align or disalign with others. In terms of the types of resources, Appraisal Theory can be divided into three subsystems: Attitude, Engagement, and Graduation (Martin & White, 2005). Attitude is the core of appraisal, which will be given detailed explanation later. Engagement refers to the source of Attitude, revealing the relationship between the writer/speaker and text/utterance and Graduation demonstrates the strength of Attitude, which is a graded system concerned with force or focus. All the three systems can be further subdivided into more sophisticated categories.

Attitude involves the resources by which writers/speakers use to express emotional responses towards participants, phenomena and processes, to judge human behavior, or to appreciate objects. As indicated by its definition, it includes three categories: Affect, Judgment and Appreciation. Affect, the core of the Attitude system, being either negative or positive, reflects the emotional responses and evaluation. Judgment explains the value that indicates how the appraiser, by reference to certain social norms and conventions or system of values, constructs judgment toward human behavior or activities. However, it should be noticed that Judgment towards the same behavior may differ as context of culture and ideological value changes (Martin & White, 2005). Accordingly, the judging reference used in this paper will be examined under Chinese cultural background. Additionally, Judgment is very sensitive to the writer/speaker's institutional position (Martin, 2000). Lastly, being different from the previous systems, Appreciation is thing-oriented, involving the resources adopted to assess objects, processes and natural phenomena especially in aesthetic level.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. *Conflict Discourse between Mother and Daughter-in-law*

Folger (2001) believes conflict is a kind of interaction between interdependent individual who may perceive incompatible goals, which leads to interference in achieving those purposes while Ran (2010) states that conflict equals to the contradiction or disputes between individuals or groups resulting from different opinions, interests, principles or purposes. As indicated in its name, conflict discourse refers to conflict in verbal communication. Zhao (2004) summarizes that when different communication parties hold different views towards words and deeds or behaviors, verbal discourse will emerge. In summary, the author tends to consider conflict discourse as the verbal conflict of individuals whose perceptions differ.

Previous scholars have explored conflict in many fields. Some focused on cross-cultural communication (Heath, 1983; Emihovich, 1986). Some examined the issue within cultural group (Edstrom, 2004; Ruzickova, 2007). Some conducted the study in cross-gender fields (Goodwin, 1990; Tanen, 1990; Kakava, 1994; Farris, 2000). Some studied under a family background (Boxer, 2002). Although many studies concerning conflict discourse have been conducted, the study on conflict discourse between mother and daughter-in-law (hereinafter referred to as CDMD) is rare.

Mother and daughter-in-law are not connected by the ties of blood but are relatives by law. They come from different families with different lifestyle or even different social status. Consequently, they hold different values and opinions; when brought into live in one family, the differences will definitely cause disagreement and conflict, making the relationship between mother and daughter-in-law much more subtle and complicated than any communications between other family members.

B. *Methodology*

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative approaches are involved. Firstly, based on the definition of conflict discourse, the corresponding materials concerning CDMD in the novel are identified. Secondly, Annotool is used to tag all the Attitude resources and AntConc is utilized to collect the statistical data of the appraisal values, including the frequency of each subtype resources in Judgment and Appreciation system and the distribution of negative and positive Affect in Affect system. Lastly, data tables for each system are drawn out. After all the quantitative work, qualitative analyses will be adopted to explore how mother and daughter-in-law take stances or express feeling and how they try to align themselves with each other.

C. *Analyses of Attitude Resources*

The Attitude resources in CDMD reflect both parties' emotional reactions, judgments and evaluations. And the Attitude usages will be explained and analyzed successively.

TABLE 1:
DISTRIBUTIONS OF AFFECT, JUDGMENT AND APPRECIATION IN THE SAMPLE TEXT

	Affect	Judgment	Appreciation	Total
Frequency	74	70	31	175
Percentage	42.29%	40.00%	17.71%	100.00%

As is shown in Table 1, compared with Appreciation, Affect and Judgment are used more frequently, which indicates that people care more about expressing emotions and judging human performances rather than appreciating objects. This can be firstly interpreted from the nature of conflict discourse: since conflict discourse is a concentrated way for speakers to demonstrate their attitude and feelings, it seems natural that there are abundant Affect resources in CDMD. As for the substantial use of Judgment resources, we can refer to the binary power fight in CDMD. In CDMD, mothers and daughter-in-laws are struggling for the ruling power in house (Chen, 2011). As a way to show their authority, they will evaluate or criticize the other party's behaviors or thoughts. Sometimes they may even try to change the opponents' ideas by making evaluations that they believed to be truthful, reliable and insightful hoping that an alignment will be reached in the end. Lastly, for Appreciation resources, since CDMD mainly occurs in daily occasions where trivialities in life are often put into discussion, there has little expressions concerning aesthetics appreciation, which makes Appreciation the least used resource in CDMD's Attitude system.

1) *Affect Analyses*

According to the present study, we find that Affect is of the highest percentage among all attitudinal resources and the frequency of positive and negative Affect is shown in the following table:

TABLE 2:
DISTRIBUTIONS OF POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE AFFECT IN THE SAMPLE TEXT

	Positive	Negative	Total
Frequency	3	71	74
Percentage	4.05%	95.95%	100.00%

From table 2, we can see that negative Affect dominates in CDMD while positive Affect only takes a small part of it. The large amount of negative Affect directly reflects the negative feelings caused by the conflict between mother and daughter-in-law. These negative Affect is not only a reflection of a powerful emotional outpouring, but also a strategy for both parties to establish a psychological alliance. Meanwhile, it is necessary since both mother and daughter-in-law

want to declare their authority in the house. This can be elaborated by the following example (Affect is in bold, positive Affect is token as [+] while negative one as [-], similarly hereinafter)

Li Juan (the wife) trooped down stairs and slapped Yaping (the husband) just in front of Yaping's mother. The mother-in-law shouted immediately: "How dare you?! **Based on what** (ping shen me) [-]? Can't you cool down and have a talk?" Contemptuously, Lijuan lazily replied: "It is I spoke with my husband and it is I educate my husband. It's my husband. Ok? It's **none of your business** (guan ni pi shi)?" [-]

In the above case, the mother-in-law expresses her dissatisfaction to the daughter-in-law by questioning "**based on what** (ping shen me)", and the daughter-in-law shows her dissatisfaction and despise by saying "**none of your business** (guan ni pi shi)". Both parties have directly shown their dislikes. Dislike and hatred of both parties have been highlighted to accentuate the intensity of conflict and the fierceness of emotional clash.

Moreover, the usage of Affect can foreground feelings, making the listener easier to identify with the speaker, thus achieving the effect of "touching someone by emotions". Consider the following examples.

1. "(mortgage) makes people feel **uncomfortable** (bu shu tan) [-] ... If I were you, I would even turn into **sleepless** (shi mian) [-] at night."

2. "You see, we've suffered so much misfortunes, as a mother I feel terribly **sorry** (dui bu qi) [-]. I own your family an **apology** (dao qian). [-]...Making your mother end up in the hospital, I was also **having a hard time** (bu hao shou)[-] myself..." Sitting on the couch, Yaping's mother bowed deeply to Lijuan as showing sincere apology.

In case 1, the Mother-in-law makes her assessment for the mortgage. She applies the negative Affect resource "uncomfortable (bu shu tan)" to force the daughter-in-law to agree with her and to make the listener establish an emotional association between mortgage, unhappiness and insecurity. She tries to pressure the other party emotionally, thus teaching the daughter-in-law to be an economical housekeeper in the future. In case 2, she wants to resolve the conflict between two families and be forgiven by Lijuan. Therefore, she expresses her guilty, sadness and other negative Affect resources, not only demonstrating her genuine apology but also creating a sincere atmosphere to gain emotional recognition so that she can be forgiven by her daughter-in-law.

Lastly, it is worth noticing that the conflict discourse between mother and daughter-in-law are usually for them to stress their authorities: the mother-in-law emphasizes her identity of being the mother of the male master in the house while the daughter-in-law often highlights her identity as the female master of the house. Therefore, during verbal conflicts, they often highlight their rights by questioning, warning, commanding and other types of speech, which contain a lot of negative Affect resources. More examples will be provided to illustrate the point:

3. Lijuan answered with a lazy voice: "If you want to live in my house, you must get along with my rules. My rules or **go out** (gun) [-], you choose, because I've **ran out of patience kissing your ass** (bu ai ci hou)[-]."

4. Li Juan looked contemptuously at her mother-in-law and said: "**It's none of your business** (guan ni pi shi) just **get out of my way** (shan kai)! [-]Shape up or **get out** (gun dan)! [-] ... As I told you, this is my house, my home, and it is my family who paid for the money... and if you dare to **ruffle** (bu shuang kuai)[-] me, I could **kick you all out** (yi kuai gun)[-], even with this man here!" Yelling at the mother-in-law, Lijuan angrily gave Yaping another slap in the face.

In case 3, Lijuan declares her power against the mother-in-law as the female master in the house. The usage of "**get out** (gun)" and "**I ran out of patience kissing your ass** (bu ai ci hou)" completely denounces her mother-in-law, which has highlighted her dominance in the family over the mother-in-law; while in case 4, Lijuan scolds her mother-in-law with the expression of "**none of your business** (guan ni pi shi)" so as to weaken the mother-son relationship between her mother-in-law and her husband, thus underlining her control over her husband. Meanwhile, in order to further cement her identity of being the female master in the house, she warns the other party not to "**ruffle** (bu shuang kuai)" her, otherwise she could "**kick you all out** (yi kuai gun)". In all, Lijuan tries to apply these Negative Affect to claim her status of being the wife and the female master to win the binary fight for power between herself and her mother-in-law.

2) Judgment Analyses

The system of Judgment can be subdivided into Social Esteem and Social Sanction. Social Esteem concerns the evaluation of people's behaviors based on the conventions of a community, indicating whether the esteem or status of the appraised is enhanced or degraded (Liu & Han, 2004). But Social Sanction often concerns the judgment of being right or wrong, involving legal implications as well as moral principles. As mentioned above, standards of Judgment can be sensitive to individual's ideology, that is, what can be viewed as appropriate and favorable by one individual may turn out to be weird and dissatisfactory for another individual. Whether the listener can accept and recognize the value the speaker advocates is essential for winning over a conflict discourse.

TABLE 3:
DISTRIBUTIONS OF JUDGMENT IN THE SAMPLE TEXT

	Positive Judgment	Negative Judgment	Social Sanction	Social Esteem	Total
Frequency	18	52	58	12	70
Percentage	25.71%	74.29%	82.86%	17.14%	100.00%

From table 3 we can see that the Negative Judgment dominates over Positive Judgment and in terms of subtypes of Judgment, most are Social Sanction, especially concerning the "appropriateness" of behaviors (In all 47 examples we collected in the sample text, negative ones contributing 36), which demonstrates appraiser's disapproval of the behavior or thoughts of the appraised. This can be traced back to the causes of CDMD: for example, the generation gap,

differences in value systems, education background or other aspects the two parties perceive differently, thus making Negative Judgment on the other party and may even try to overthrow the other party's visions and concepts and establishes a set of new value for each other (Chen, 2011). This can be demonstrated in the following example (The Judgment resources are all Social Sanction resources tagged in bold. Therefore, they are not marked one by one. Positive Social Sanction is token as [+] while negative one as [-], similarly hereinafter):

1. Yaping's mother was not happy. When having dinner, she constantly refilled Lijuan's bowl and coldly said: "For God's sake, eat, ok? You are slim enough. There's no need for you to lose weight. You can resist hunger, but not your child! I thought that mothers care their own child more than everything, as long as the child is healthy, little fat would not be harm, I didn't expect that someone could be so **cruel** (can ren)[-]to her own child." Upon hearing this, Li Juan got angry: "I was talking to my mom to comfort her. **Who would know that some could hold her ears that high** (shui zhi dao you ren er duo zhe me chang)[-] ... and only enjoyed **setting people at loggerheads** (tiao bo zhao cha)[-]? ..."

In the above example, mother-in-law ironically criticizes Lijuan because Lijuan is not willing to eat. Mother-in-law does not approve of that since Lijuan is pregnant and should eat for the child's sake. Upon hearing mother-in-law's criticism, Lijuan gets angry so she uses rhetorical questions and Negative Judgment resources to strongly declare her opposition against her mother-in-law: the question of "**Who would know that some could hold her ears that high** (shui zhi dao you ren er duo zhe me chang)" is to denounce the shameful behavior of the mother-in-law's eavesdropping while the usage of "**setting people at loggerheads** (tiao bo zhao cha)" is to criticize the behavior of setting the couple apart purposely.

Besides, due to the reason that Judgment can help the speaker to build up attitude and define the cultural ideology and values, the application of Judgment resources can achieve the goal of persuasion and values-sharing. Please refer to the examples quoted below:

2. "It's not about the money, we can't afford to **waste** (lang fei)[-]! You haven't experienced the tough times yet so you can never imagine what life goes on back in the 60s. **Even one penny can be accumulated into one hundred, if you start to save** (sheng yi fen shi yi fen bu shi)[+]."

3. "Mama, if all the people were like you, there would be no social progress and all the factories would be closed down. No wonder you plant has been closed. It is the people like you that have **hindered our country's development** (tuo she hui zhu yi hou tui)[-]. You **should establish the concept of consumption** (yao shu li xiao fei guan nian)[-], make more and spend more...things changes so greatly every day, you **should keep up with the times** (yao gen shang shi dai)[-]!"

In the example above, mother-in-law, surviving from the hard times, knows well the difficulties and hardship in life. She believes in frugality and thrift as observed in the traditional families. Therefore, she is against wasting but advocates saving. She wants the daughter-in-law to share the consuming value of being thrift and frugal with her. Contrarily, the daughter-in-law, being educated by modern value, advocates realizing individual consuming potential, therefore, she believes that frugality is "**hindering** (tuo hou tui)" the progress of society and is improper. She uses two "**should** (yao)", indicating that the mother-in-law should accept the modern consumption value.

1) Appreciation Analyses

Appreciation deals with "resources for construing the value of things, including natural phenomena and semiosis (as either product or process)" (Martin & White, 2005, p.36). It can be subdivided into 3 categories: Reaction, Composition and Valuation. Reaction reflects the degree to which the text/process attracts us, and the degree to which its emotional impact has on us. Composition deals with people's perceptions of proportionality and complexity. Valuation demonstrates our assessment of the social or aesthetic significance of the appraised.

TABLE 4:
DISTRIBUTIONS OF APPRECIATION IN THE SAMPLE TEXT

	Reaction	Composition	Valuation	Total
Frequency	7	3	21	31
Percentage	22.58%	9.68%	67.74%	100.00%

From Table 4, we can find that Valuation takes a large proportion in the Appreciation system in CDMD. This indicates that most Appreciation is related with the values of the appraised, either on aesthetic level or on social level. These evaluations, when concerning aesthetically, can reflect different aesthetic orientations of both parties; when construing social values, different value systems can be adopted. This reveals that the cultural and group differences reflected by aesthetics and social values are one of the important reasons for CDMD. This can be seen in the following example (Appreciation resources are in bold, with positive one tagged as [+] and negative one as [-]):

1. "Mom, isn't it a **nice** (hao kan) [Reaction +] shirt?" Lijuan asked her mother-in-law. "There is one in his closet **just like this one** (cha bu duo) [Valuation -], that is blue, **no difference to this one, just the color** (hao xiang jiu yan se bu yi yang) [Valuation -]." "They are absolutely **different** (bu yi yang)! [Valuation +] that one is **last year' trend** (qu nian de kuan shi) [Valuation -] and has a small lapel. But this year people favors collarless shirts just like this one, a imitation from Richard Gere's movie, and also this one is white, it really looks **good** (shuai)[Reaction +]on your son! "

"It's **just a lapel!** (bu jiu shi ge ling zi ma)[Valuation -] clothes are just to keep us warm, you'll never catch up with the trendy styles. Look at my sweater. I bought it ten years ago. It is still **as good as a new one** (yi dian bu luo hou)! [Valuation, +]."

As shown in the above example, mother-in-law and daughter-in-law express different views on Lijuan's newly bought clothes. Lijuan likes wearing trendy clothes and believes the latest styles are better-looking; while the mother-in-law views that there is no difference between new styles and outdated styles, only durability counts, so there is no need to spend too much money on buying new clothes. The Appreciation resources applied by both parties not only reflect different aesthetics but also different consumption values, revealing the origin of disapprovals.

IV. CONCLUSION

Based on the Chinese novel *the Double-Sided Adhesive*, it is discovered that in CDMD, the attitudinal meanings are more frequently reflected by the use of Affect and Judgment. This shows that the speakers concern more about the affective domain and the evaluation of human behavior in the material world. In Affect system, negative resources overweight positive ones, which not only indicates an emotional outpouring but also facilitates the establishment of psychological alliance, as well as the declaration of authority. In Judgment system, the negative assessment, especially the Judgment in terms of Social Sanction contributes a majority, which is closely related to the causes of CDMD. Due to both cultural and ideological differences, when a mother and a daughter-in-law live together, conflicts occur, leading to negative evaluations on each other's behaviors and thoughts. This demonstrates the common purpose of both, that is to try to change the other party culturally or ideologically, thus more Judgment resources are adopted in order to achieve evaluative purpose and persuasion. In Appreciation system, the proportion of Valuation resources is quite large, serving as an indication that the different thoughts on aesthetics and social values are also one of the reasons for CDMD.

In summary, this study helps deepen the understanding of CDMD and validate the feasibility of Appraisal Theory in this field, expanding its scope of application. But it should be noted that Appraisal Theory is not fully applicable to the Chinese discourse, especially the evaluation criteria for Judgment system. Systematized and standardized explorations concerning with the improvement of Appraisal Theory in a Chinese Context are urgently needed.

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Critico-analytic Study of ESP Final Exam Tests for Students of Accounting in Iranian Universities

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Abstract—Assessing learners has constantly played a considerable role in teaching and learning process. This significance is obviously observed in teaching foreign languages in general and teaching English for specific purposes (ESP) in particular. Since in the global community, English language is considered as the major medium in techno- scientific communications and interactions, the demand for academic considerations for teaching and developing ESP as a central interdisciplinary course is increasingly growing. This growing tendency has created opportunities for designing and developing various technical and special course materials around the globe. In Iran, as well as the other countries, this movement has been with the main objective of promoting the quality of teaching reading comprehension skills along with translation techniques into the native language and developing relevant technical terminologies in every major. However, still a sort of inconsistency among teaching ESP, publishing ESP materials, and developing final exam ESP tests exists. This inconsistency emerged as the role of ELT specialists in each of the above mentioned activities disqualified the educational values of teaching and learning ESP. Although the administrators and authorities have allocated great amount of budget to designing, developing and holding courses, as well as ESP instructors' payments, still the quality and the efficiency is not as high as expected. Thus, considering the existing gap, the researchers in the present study have attempted to critically study and analyze the final exam tests of ESP for students of accounting in Islamic Azad University, Shahr-e- Rey branch, in Tehran in order to highlight the current problems and propose practical solutions in this regard.

Index Terms—ESP (English for Specific Purposes), testing, ELT, learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Since early 60s research in ESP has considerably drawn the attention of scholars in the field so that it has emerged among the most prominent areas in TEFL. In fact, in line with the emergence of ESP, heavy demands for testing specific groups of learners have been observed. Therefore, reviewing the demand and growth in ESP testing point out a rather slow but definite trend over the past decade.

Tracing the available literature reviews relevant to ESP testing, one can come across the following three folded classifications.

The first classification refers to a segregated approach toward ESP testing which considers it as a distinctive component of a rather general movement of ELT (English Language Testing). In other words, it concentrates on measuring particular uses of English Language among specified target groups of people in different fields such as nursing, medicine, sciences, accounting, law, etc.

The second category reflects on ESP testing in broader context within teaching and learning process. Followers of this approach as Dudley-Evans and St. John (2005) content that assessment is not an individual and independent process. In fact, they believe that assessment entails a crucial position in ESP process through preparing ample information on pedagogical efficacy and quality. Figure 1 depicts the interaction between needs analysis and assessment and the reliance of assessment on syllabus design.

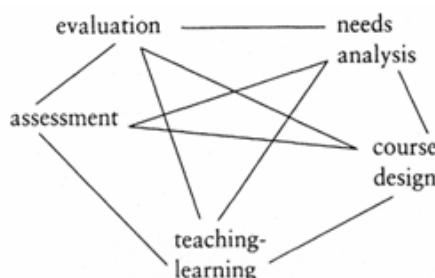


Figure 1: Stages in the ESP process (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 2005, p. 121)

Finally, the third classification focuses on the capability of ESP testing as a learning facilitator and device. In fact, an ESP test is "an aid to learning" (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 2005, p. 212). In addition, assessment can evaluate the advantageous outcome of learning to transfer a sense of triumph and accomplishment to the learners. In other words, they will feel satisfied while they perceive the fact that the instructor's evaluation matches their learned skills and knowledge during the course of study. Thus, at this point, assessment can be defined as an "observed" judgment of pedagogical efficacy (Richards & Renandya 2002) or as it is stated by Dudley-Evans and St. John (2005) assessment "encompasses benefits such as reinforcement, confidence building, involvement and building on strengths" (p.210).

Characteristics of ESP tests

ESP testing chiefly entails a facilitative feature to enhance learners' communicative performance (while accomplishing communicative tasks); a critical feature to reflect on the learning process and outcome to confirm the learnt material, highlight the deficiencies; a stimulator to encourage learning and supervise the learners' progress.

Since linguistic performance is context bound and differs from one individual to the other, thus a test taker's success in ESP tests largely depends on the interaction between his/her language knowledge (linguistic competence) and the target ESP content knowledge. In other words, contrary to General English Tests, ESP tests are more likely to be applied for adults or secondary school learners at intermediate and advanced level, or learners who have already acquired and developed basic linguistic competence. According to Douglas (2000) ESP test are "contrived language use events" in which, ideally, the test taker's specific purpose linguistic competence and performance in particular specialized fields are measured (p.10). Thus, the main concern will be whether the target ESP learners can successfully communicate in the target ESP context, employ ESP to reach their objectives, to comprehend and be understood in order to get their message across in English.

ESP tests are language specific. In addition, they are contextually and thematically associated with a particular discipline. The specificity of the lexical semantic and syntactic characteristics ESP language, along with its communicative function enable learners in a particular academic, professional or vocational field to transfer their message more specifically. Therefore, in ESP testing, tests are developed based on a detailed analysis of contextual and task-based characteristics in target ESP context. So, the target profile for assessing particular ESP learners need to comprise samples of communication activities, communication purposes, linguistic features, functions, descriptions of content areas, language skills, etc. For example, to devise an ESP test for students of nursing, it is essential to describe a range of typical situation in which nurses work, typical uses and characteristics of English language they most often find themselves in. The aforementioned sort of typical authentic communicative events would initially lead to development of appropriate test tasks, secondly, facilitate the development of a more integrated and thematically associated basement which would endure the reliability and validity of such assessment (Douglas 2000; Hutchinson & Waters 1987; Munby 1978).

ESP tests in general are more concerned with presenting four main language skills in order to evaluate the learners' competence and performance in this regard. In fact, priority and vitality of spoken components to assess learners' competent and performance level in target language is undeniable. However, the key to assessing ESP is to present learners with authentic tasks in connection with the sort of activities they may have to do with the language in real life situations.

In view of what has been discussed, obviously, in an ESP test the purpose, the test content and the methods are narrowly specified. Take an ESP test developed for Architectural Engineers or MBA students to evaluate their occupational language competence. Then, according to Trantik (2008), accepting the characteristics of ESP tests as discussed before probes the number of available ESP tests. In fact, specific purposes can be wide or narrow, vocational or academic, entailing anything from English for Airport Controllers, Chemists or Hoteliers to Legal English and beyond. The observed diversity poses the questions whether ESP testing is really possible between widely differing fields or whether each field of human activity has an ESP test of its own. In general, all human activities and all the specific purposes can face inevitable overlaps (Trantik, 2008). Thus, there is no clear borderline between the beginning of an ESP test and the end of the other one. Tests developed and devised for different fields regardless of diversity in context will definitely share features. This unique characteristic of ESP tests is appealing since the vast repertoire of specific tests developed is also underpinned by a common structure of testing principles and techniques. In this sense, then, ESP testing offers a framework relevant across different disciplines.

Assuring the quality of ESP tests

When devising an ESP test valid and reliable measures of language ability are required to be developed as well. These measures are expected to be as authentic as possible, provide accurate and reliable measures of language ability, have beneficial impacts, and be practical and cost effective in terms of administration, time, money and personnel. These factors have been identified as quintessential ones which affect the quality of the test positively or negatively (Alderson et al. 1995; Bachman and Palmer 1996; Douglas 2000; Dudley-Evans and St. John 2005).

Taking "authenticity" into account, a qualified devised ESP test should engage the test takers in accomplishing various genuine tasks through which their general English knowledge (linguistic competence) can interact with their ESP content knowledge in a real life and authentic context. Such an interaction is integral to the whole ESP testing process. Here, authentic language and material refer to the language used in non-test or non-pedagogic context which is

merely based on the readers' needs and language use in natural and real life situations. Thus, authenticity of the tasks refers to the similarity of the task content to the specific and specialized target language situation.

The second important factor which qualifies an ESP test is backwash or washback effect. According to Hughes (1989), the notion explores the relationship between test use and the ESP context within which the test is devised. Simply, it is the impact of testing on classroom instruction on "what is taught and how it is taught" (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 2005, p. 214).

Important tests may generate positive or negative backwash for the test takers. According to a research carried out by Karim (2002), the relationship between testing and teaching is very sophisticated. He believes that "it is misleading to claim that good tests will automatically have beneficial effects on classroom instruction".

Other factors such as teacher competence, motivation and innovation, the climate of the school, socioeconomic status of learners and instructors join to exert an equally vital impact on what occurs in an ESP classroom.

II. METHOD

A. Participants

In the present study, different groups of participants took part in the qualitative phase. At the first stage of the qualitative phase, 9 ESP instructors of accounting were randomly selected to attend the preliminary interview section to collect their ideas concerning the current condition of the ESP course material, their impact on the learning process, and their final evaluation of teaching ESP to students of accounting at their university. At the second stage of the qualitative phase, a questionnaire was developed and distributed among 30 accounting ESP instructors to collect their attitudes and beliefs regarding the quality of the content of ESP course they are teaching, and the consistency of the course contents with the final exam test content.

B. Instruments

The data collection instruments in the present study include interview questions, a questionnaire and a checklist to study the level of the consistency between accounting ESP course book content, and final exam ESP tests.

C. Procedure

The design employed to carry out the present investigation is called —Mixed Method which is a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods. A mixed-methods study encompasses the collection or analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study with some attempts to integrate two approaches at one or more stages of the research process. In other words, mixed —methods research design involves the mixing of quantitative and qualitative research methods or paradigm characteristics (Johnson & Christensen 2004).

According to Sandelowski (2003), there are two main and somewhat conflicting purposes for combining methods: (a) to achieve a fuller understanding of a target phenomenon and (b) to verify one set of findings against the other. To this end, in the 1970s, scholars who conduct mixed methods research desired to combine qualitative and quantitative research methods through introduction of a new concept called —Triangulation. The term —Triangulation became synonymous with combining data sources through multiple methods. This method maximizes both the internal and external validity of research and helps reduce the inherent weaknesses of individual methods (Dornyei, 2007).

Qualitative phase

In the present study, at the very first qualitative stage, a field study was conducted with the following purposes;

1. To study the course materials of accounting ESP classes in Islamic Azad University Shahr-e- Rey branch in Tehran.
2. To collect and study the accounting ESP final exam tests.

Secondly, an interview session was arranged with 9 accounting ESP instructors to explore their conceptualizations toward ESP tests and the consistency with the ESP course syllabus. Then, through the process of content analysis the responses of the instructors were transcribed and coded to develop a checklist in line with the standard checklist presented by Dudley-Evans. T. & St. John M.J.(2005). Finally, a questionnaire was devised based on the result of the checklist analysis to collect the other accounting ESP instructors' conceptualizations for further generalizations.

Quantitative phase

The researchers at the second phase, attempted to analyze reliability and validity of accounting ESP final exam tests.

III. RESULTS

A. Qualitative Phase

Stage I: Field Study Report

At this stage, after interviewing the head of the Accounting department at Islamic Azad University, Shahr-e-Rey the researchers could have access to the required information concerning the employed course materials for accounting ESP classes there. Then, with the support and permission of the dean of the Accounting and Management College, copies of

the recently administered final exam questions of accounting ESP tests were collected. Finally, via the Central Organization of Islamic Azad University's portal, the researchers could learn that there are no officially announced syllabi for ESP courses in Iranian universities.

Stage II: Interview

At this stage, 9 university instructors teaching ESP to students of accounting were selected to take part in the interview (Figure2) to explore their conceptualizations regarding teaching and testing ESP in general and the level of the consistency between the officially defined syllabi and the course content in line with final exam tests. After transcribing, coding, and content analysis of a checklist was designed based on standard checklist adopted from Dudley-Evans. T. & St. John M.J.(2005).

TABLE 2
SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1.	How do you select the ESP course materials?
2.	Explain your classroom assessment techniques.
3.	How do you allocate scores in every semester (final exam and midterm)?
4.	What are your criteria for assessing and scoring?
5.	How free do you act in selecting your assessment techniques?
6.	What types of questions are appropriate for final exam assessment?
7.	What do you think of developing translation questions to assess ESP at the final exam?
8.	What do you think of terminology translation questions to assess ESP at the final exam?
9.	What do you think of using reading comprehension questions to assess ESP at the final exam?
10.	What do you think of using multiple choice questions to assess ESP at the final exam?

Stage III: Checklist Report

In order to prepare a checklist with the purpose of studying the accounting ESP final exam tests, the following principles have been considered according to the book entitled "Testing Language Skills from Theory to Practice";

- 1- Determining the test content
- 2- Determining the types of the questions in harmony with the content
- 3- Determining the number of the questions in every test

Table 3 presents a checklist report of 4 sample accounting ESP final exam test analysis, administered in Accounting Department of Islamic Azad University Shar-e- Rey branch.

TABLE 3
FINAL EXAM TEST EVALUATIONS FOR STUDENTS OF ACCOUNTING

	Test A	Test B	Test C	Test D
Educational goals of the test content	Limited focus on morphology and structure / ESP text translation skills/ improving ESP reading texts comprehension skills/improving knowledge of ESP terminology	ESP text translation skills from English to L1 and vice versa/limited focus on improving ESP reading texts comprehension skills/ improving knowledge of ESP terminology	ESP text translation skills from English to L1 and vice versa/improving knowledge of ESP terminology	ESP text translation skills from English to L1 and vice versa/ on improving ESP reading texts comprehension skills
Types of Questions	Limited Focus on definition of English structure / Translation of a text into L1/ using the same text with 9 multiple choice items to check reading comprehension /translation of technical terminology of accounting into English	Questions to define technical terms of accounting in English/ Translation of a technical text into L1/Multiple choice questions to check comprehension/cloze test/ translation of technical terminology of accounting into L1	Translation of a technical text into L1/ translation of technical terminology of accounting into L1	Translation of a technical text into L1/ answering to technical accounting questions in English/ Error correction in English through technical English sentences
Number of questions	Translation techniques (morphology 1 question/ structure 1 question/ 1 translation text/ the same text with 9 multiple choice items for comprehension check/12 technical terminologies for translation	1 question to be defined/ translation of 4 technical texts/ 4 multiple choice questions/ cloze tests with 8gaps / 50 technical terminologies for translation	1 question including translation of 4 text out of 5 presented technical texts in to L1/30 technical terminologies for translation	1 question including 4 technical texts to be translated into L1/ answering to technical accounting questions in English7 questions/ one question entailing technical accounting sentences for error correction

According to the detailed report of the aforementioned checklist, a clear inconsistency among four selected final exam tests can be observed. This has been mainly due to lack of established syllabi for accounting ESP course at this university.

Moreover, the main focus of all the tests have been on translation skills, segregated context free morphological knowledge, and a few structures.

B. Quantitative Phase

Stage I: Reliability Estimation Report

At this stage, the reliability of the 4 accounting ESP tests have been measured via KR-21 which has been the most accurate and applicable method as mentioned by Hatch, E., & Farhady, H. (1981). As it is illustrated in Table 3, the results indicate relatively low reliability estimation for all the tests.

TABLE 3
RELIABILITY ESTIMATION REPORT

Variables	Percent
Test A	60%
Test B	65%
Test C	70%
Test D	68%

Stage II: Validity Estimation Report

Validity is arguably the most important criteria for the quality of a test. The term validity refers to whether or not the test measures what it claims to measure. On a test with high validity the items will be closely linked to the test's intended focus. In general, estimating the validity of the tests is measured according to an already standard validated test. However, as there was no standard validated test available to measure in Iran the estimation of the validity was impossible for the present study. In fact this could proof the serious deficiency observed in testing ESP.

IV. CONCLUSION

In recent decades, teaching ESP in Iran regardless of the deployment of great ESP projects by professionals and pioneers like Dr. Hossein Farhady and his expert team is still in a critical condition. In fact, in the last two decades studying the content of ESP course books from one side and the gap between teaching general English and teaching ESP from another side has led to designing independent and individualized tests (based on every instructor's personal taste) that generally has overlooked the underlying purpose of teaching ESP. In other words, the pioneer Asian countries have attempted to make use of the supportive consultation of ELT experts in designing syllabi, selecting the course syllabi, and designing the university tests through the application of real ESP students' needs analysis procedure. In this regard, in some countries like Japan, South Korea and China the main focus of the designed ESP course books are mainly on the development of four language skills in ESP classes. This product has been the outcome of constructive consultations between ELT experts and ESP professionals. As a result, in the aforementioned countries, the per capita of scientific research, accredited publications, success in developing international academic and science-centered interactions have grown considerable.

In this research project, the principal focus has been concentrated on studying Accounting ESP final exam tests in Islamic Azad University, Shahr-e-Rey branch. Consequently, none of the 4 selected tests were standard nor designed in accordance with a validated standard criterion. In other words, they were merely developed independently and based on individual test developer's (instructor's) personal tastes which reflects on and proves the inconsistency of the syllabi applied in the classes in this department. The results of the present investigation indicate the demand for practical resolutions. Firstly, defining the syllabi and course content for accounting ESP program which are practical, standard, up-to-date, and according to the needs of the target ESP students. The next proposal would be building up a test designer team consisting of both ELT and ESP expert instructors in order to design and develop standard tests which have acceptable reliability and validity for the specific region and students. Finally, building up an audit team to periodically evaluate the administered tests to update and upgrade them to ensure the educational quality of the tests. In conclusion, it is merely through these practical actions that the tests would be so qualified that can guarantee the efficiency of the ESP education at universities.

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Concepts of Heroism in Salman Rushdie's *The Moor's Last Sigh*

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Abstract—Constructing heroism is an intriguing function of the postmodernist novel. It images the power consciousness that defines the abrasive relations between the “centre” and the “periphery”. This has led to the ideologizing of its imaginative construct to confront the supremacist ego of the master narrative. In effect, postcolonial writers like Salman Rushdie try to vitiate the unitary hold of Western bourgeois culture over the fictive paradigm, especially through its homogenizing mentality when, realistically speaking, heterogeneity-consciousness is the heart of inter-cultural harmony. To this end, Rushdie deploys heroic interdiscussivity to counter the conventionality of mono-heroic fiction. Inter-character relevance, therefore, dominates heroic appreciation in his idealistic spectrum. The present essay aims at revealing the extent of this postcolonial manipulation of characterization to revise conventional norms of heroism in the author's *The Moor's Last Sigh*. The combination of the notions of asymmetry and symmetry in building character relationships, coupled with structuralist tenets, is used to conceptualize heroic eminence towards highlighting how heroism may sometimes transcend character prominence. Heroism is, at the end of the analysis, discovered to, in some cases, be a combination of the good, the bad and the ugly in the construction of characters, depending on the creative susceptibilities of a writer.

Index Terms—Heroism, hermeneutics, dialogism, polyphony, binarism

I. INTRODUCTION

Investing characters with heroic potentials has always been an interesting aspect of the novel genre. It is indeed part of the political substructure of the postmodern novel. The postmodernist, nay, postcolonial writer, who longs to disestablish the master perspective so as to spite notions of colonial preponderancy, is deeply cocooned in the burrows of ambivalence. Having become a matter of exigency for the writer to demonstrate a smug release from colonial hegemony, heroism has to be subjected to protean sensibilities. Some of Salman Rushdie's novels are a vintage reflection of this imaginative proclivity. *The Moor's Last Sigh* is not an exception.

As part of character development, Salman Rushdie significantly strikes a near-discordant tune from the orthodoxy that characterizes appreciation of heroic excellence. He explores hermeneutics, a theory of interpretation, to confute traditional concepts of heroic virtue, laying stress on the one hand on the polyphonic function of Bakhtinian dialogism and on the other hand not unappreciative of the essence and prominence of his narrators and other major characters. Essentially, fluidity of critical perception consequently explains how heroism is conceived of in his novel, especially when the ideals of regeneration constitute the thrust of postcolonial cultural feelings. Rushdie's heroic unorthodoxy may be a product of the paradoxical reading of the colonial experience not, as Sanga (2001) puts it “as an adversarial and antagonistic encounter” (p. 79) but that which is conceived “in a considerably more reciprocal arena” (p. 79) whose impact is understood “through a less embattled and perhaps more productive register” (p. 79). Banerjee (2002) opines that this reciprocity stems from “Rushdie's understanding of historiography as a struggle for representation” (p. 9) which manifests in “representations of the cultural difference epitomized by the chutney” (p. 9). Identity contentions, as gleaned from the “chutneyfication” metaphor, take the centre stage in the idealization of heroic sentiments by Salman Rushdie. Booker (1994) ideally argues that Rushdie's fiction consistently embraces contradiction, privileging the plural over the singular, the polyphonic over the monologic. One of the clearest ways in which it does so is through the construction of dual oppositions [...] only to deconstruct those oppositions by demonstrating that the apparent polar opposites are in fact interchangeable and mutually interdependent. (p. 238)

These interchangeability and mutual interdependence invigorate Rushdie's use of paired characters in many instances and obviously give a foretaste of the incertitude that hovers over identifying a heroic “potentate”, possibly mirroring “Stevenson's classic tale of the duality of human nature [in *Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde*], a strong literary paradigm of dualisms” (Booker, 238). For Rushdie, heroic identities image what Booker (1994) describes as “the conflicting selves jostling and joggling” (p. 241) towards an “eternal opposition of inside and outside” (p. 241). It is apparent that dualist perspectives continue to inundate the literary space, particularly to disestablish notions of rigid hierarchical thoughts. Booker (1994) seems to contend that dualist theorising dates back from “from Nietzsche's transvaluation of values through the dialogics of Bakhtin to the deconstructive project of Jacques Derrida” (p. 250). Despite the pliant trope being in the ascendancy, Booker (1994) makes it clear that “one term in a pair is privileged over the other, so that what is “good” becomes defined by its difference from what is “bad”” (p. 250), in which case structuralist dialectics are

engaged ultimately to define character importance. Rushdie, in some of his works, as is evident in this critique, though tries to be slithery in character conspicuousness, makes some characters behave like tritons in the midst of minnows, especially in his pursuit of clear doctrinal convictions.

II. METHODOLOGY

Basically, qualitative methods were deployed to consummate the study as it had no bearing with statistical analysis, textual evaluation being the core of the research concerns. In effect, detailed description and explanation of behavioural proclivities were made in order to provide a vivid explication of the heroic contentions that were at issue. Furthermore, the combination of notions of asymmetry and symmetry in constructing character nexus to theorize heroic eminence was explored. Against the backdrop of these two antipodal notions, binarist signification in structuralist poetics was deployed so as to explode the centre of personality-relevance. This binarism was used to bring to the fore the signifier-signified cleavage with a view to clarifying the asymmetric and symmetric relationships between the characters in their longing for heroic significance.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A. Unconsciously-assisted Heroism in Rushdie's Fiction

Besides *The Moor's Last Sigh*, Rushdie also treads the slippery surface as to who the heroic arrowhead is in *The Satanic Verses* and *Midnight's Children*. In the former, he deploys what can be termed unconsciously-assisted heroism to validate the importance of other characters like Chamcha apart from Gibreel, the hero-apparent. Gibreel Farishta's domineering and heroic actualities may have been made to reflect a straightforward exegesis: connotative admixture of primary and secondary heroics, the main-and-helper heroic genre answering the author's pursuance of the transcendentalist culture. Gibreel, the substantive hero, is not the immediate owner of the magic instinct that saves him from crash-landing after the *Bostan* tragedy. His falling colleague or, maybe psychological other, Chamcha, is the first recipient of the spiritual saviour before it moves out of him into Gibreel. Rushdie (1988) is also at his wit's end when he asks: "Chamcha willed it and Farishta did what was willed. Which was the miracle worker?" (p. 10) He should even have asked "who was the hero?" Chamcha at that juncture 'was' before relinquishing his status to Gibreel due to his 'realistic' incredulity. Chamcha is believably Gibreel's psychological other because the author, Rushdie, (1988) once referred to the two as "the two men, Gibreelsaladin Farishtachamcha" (p. 5), when in real sense it is Gibreel Farishta and Saladin Chamcha. Not putting the word "and" between them, merging the first names with the surnames, and always mentioning "Chamcha", Saladin's surname, but calling "Gibreel", Farishta's first name, say much about the sameness of the two characters. This ambiguous character build valorizes the ambivalent postcolonial identity of South Asian migrants. Needham (1994) countenances that ambivalence for "as a formerly colonised people, most of them already are familiar with and have existed in two cultures simultaneously" (p. 145). Salman Rushdie uses this play on sameness and difference to intensify evangelistically his belief in existential multiplicity.

This unconscious heroic reciprocity could also be found in Ben Okri's *Astonishing the Gods*, where heroic virtues, though innately extant in the ignorant traveler, who is incognizant of them, are the innate cognition-property of the "invisibles", who deem it important to conscientise and instill in their uninformed and unapprised guest the extraordinary qualities that inhere in invisibility. Owing to their proprietary ownership of invisibility erudition, without the transmission of which the prime heroic entity would have remained vacuous, the candidacy of the collectivity of the "invisibles" is ideal for heroic considerations.

The consciously-assisted heroic variety, the exact reverse of the unconsciously-assisted model, is obtainable in Okri's *The Famished Road* and *Songs of Enchantment*. In these two novels, the preternatural prowess in Azaro has to contend with the heroic, nay, anti-heroic contentions of Madam Koto who, Azaro admits, represents "a colossus in our dreams" (Okri, 1994, p. 36), her damnable and horrifying ability to transfer deaths (part of her hero-reductive agency) notwithstanding. "The chutney's 'disruptive spatiality'" (Banerjee, 2002, p. 9) actually avails her. She helps in furthering the author's enchanting literary extraordinariness with her monstrosly beneficent feminist propaganda, she being "the new Mother of Images" (Okri, p. 143) and helping Azaro out of some difficult situations. In the same vein, the social, moral and political crusades of Black Tyger and Jeremiah the photographer, albeit a support for Azaro on his quest route, say much on their polyphonic input into visions of heroism in these Okri's works. The heroic haziness in *Midnight's Children* is partially an intertextual appropriation of the biblical Joshua-Esau metaphor, in which case heroic grandeur is bestowed on Saleem Sinai through a *faux pas* (Mary Pereira's changeling action) that confines Shiva to the world of poverty in which Vanita and husband Wee Willie Winkie (the genuine parents of Saleem) live. It is appropriate one sees in the Saleem-Shiva issue a paired rivalry as is conceived in *The Moor's Last Sigh* but of a diminished essence due to the wide heroic distance between the two.

B. Structuralist Binarism as Template for Heroic Considerations in *The Moor's Last Sigh*

Underlying heroic acclivities and declivities in a novel is the structural configuration of idiosyncrasies which are perceived through the play on a signifying chain of actions and events that are comprehended with reference to what Culler (1981) puts forward as "signifiers and signifieds [which] are purely relational entities" (p. 45) that are built up

“in a complex network of differences” (p. 45). Importantly, characters with probable heroic propensities are idealized upon (Culler, 1981) “a deconstructive moment” in which each pole of an opposition can be used to show that the other is in error but in which the undecidable dialectic gives rise to no synthesis” (p. 44). Though there may not be a “synthesis” of emotions, structuralist procedures, however, require that there is decidedness in the error-finding dialectic as far as argumentative superiority is concerned. Binarism as a structuralist signifying scheme – the trope in that conclusiveness – is important in appreciating heroism in *The Moor's Last Sigh*.

As a strong character, Aurora Zogoiby's heroic struggles as a signifier are placed beside the “antagonistic” signifying campaigns of Uma Sarasvati, Abraham Zogoiby, Vasco Miranda Moraes Zogoiby and Rahman Fielding. All five characters, except Moraes, consciously and narcissistically long for heroic preeminence, for Girard (1983) submits

people [...] love primarily themselves, and they seek themselves in the objects of their desire. They endow the desired object with a mystery and beauty that really flows from themselves. The superior self radiates enough energy to transfigure commonplace reality into its own image [...] Only when the genuine *otherness* of outside reality breaks through to us does disenchantment occur. (p. 364).

The conflict between one's “private projections” and the “reality” of a disagreeing other underpins the binarist construction of heroism in *The Moor's Last Sigh*.

C. Binarist Connotations in the Aurora-Uma Conflict

“If Menippean satire and the grotesque are associated with a participatory, *ambivalent laughter that enables both affirmation and critique*” (Ball, 2003, p. 119), the Aurora figure in *The Moor's Last Sigh* ideally captures Rushdie's construction of heroism. She represents “the multiple ambivalences and overlappings [sic] among these broadly opposed formulations of satire and the grotesque” (p. 123) which intermingle in Rushdie's novels. With little equivocation, Aurora principally embodies the intermingling as her actions and inactions are centrally contributory to the naturalist and dominantly unnaturalist structuring of the work. This combination of the natural and the unnatural has always inspired postmodernist theorists to conclude that myth and art-as-fantasy are creative coevals, especially in respect of an artist who is slanted in some respects towards (Auden, 1983) “an introverted disposition and has not far to go to become neurotic [...] who is urged on by instinctive needs which are too clamorous; [who] longs to attain to honour, power riches, fame [...]” (p. 120). This has its full figuration in Aurora's psychic contest with the tragic reality, which the da Gama-Zogoiby dynasty represents.

Gender-wise, her revulsion against the phallic subject's culture-supported domineering ego she glowingly paints on walls, announcing “the rage of women, the tormented weakness and compromise in the faces of men, and sexual ambivalences of children”. (Rushdie, 1994, p. 124) Complementing her gender feelings, Aurora celebrates on canvas in tragic dimension the loss of Belle her mother within the holistic context of motherhood. Strategically, she locates Queen Isabella, her mother, as the only mother-goddess in the centre of the ceiling, at the point where all the “horn-of-plenty” (p. 61) lines converged, with mother India bearing the face of Belle – a signification of productivity and virility that are traditionally associated with motherliness.

So numinous is her literary orientation that ruminations on fearful creatures and prognoses of tragedies – creatures of her fancy, “like hybrids, half-woman half-tiger, half-man half-snake, sea monsters and mountain ghouls, portraits of the dead, the living and the unborn – which form part of her awe-inspiring universe – populate her artistic world” (Rushdie, 1994, Pp. 59-60). The modernist fatalist experimentation that subsists in her bizarre tragedy-inspired realism is emphasized in the following pseudo-poetic premonitions of dread (Rushdie, 1994):

Bad times are coming, darlings, don't think they won't, and then all ghosts will go to Hell, the night will blot out shadows [...] poor kids are such a bundle, seems like they are deemed to tumble (p. 172).

Viraginous in stature, strength and courage, she encapsulates the absolute individuality of the (Rushdie, 1994) “I am who I am” (p. 88) personality in Abraham's “I am that I am” crime-infested philosophy, as she merges individuality and obduracy with abstruse supernaturalism, with her drawing and paintings throwing up “[...] witches, fire, apocalypse” (p. 115). Aurora, from this discussion, is, beyond doubting, a genius loci of the Cochin, Mumbai and Benengeli environs.

Since (Frye, 1957) “tragic heroes are so much the highest points in their human landscape” (p. 207), the mystery art of Aurora Zogoiby appears to be the most palpable thematic medium, albeit there are others, through which the metaphysical idioms of Rushdie's fiction are apprehended. This mystery art does rub off on Abraham Zogoiby “*who found comfort for the loss of what he had touched, through her love, of the transcendent, the transformational, the immense*” (Rushdie, 1994, p. 318) (Emphasis not mine). Moor, her narrator-son, in like manner, also enthuses (Rushdie, 1994): “[...] she was the light of our lives, the excitement of our imaginations, the beloved of our dreams. We loved her even as she destroyed us” (p. 172) – describing in effervescent morphology the irresistible allure of her creativity, which she even attests to in her self-conviction that in spite of her doomsday prophecies, “I would survive on account [...] of my art” (172), with its out-of-this-world connotations, obliquely a justification for Salman Rushdie's magic realist fervor that is heavily loaded with “pessoptimism” (Ball, 115, p. 2003), a rough reference to the good and the bad in Aurora.

Aurora acts out an innate gruesomeness and artistic duplicity that is bequeathed on to her, manifesting Frye's second phase of the tragic concept, one (Frye, 1957) “which corresponds to the youth of the romantic hero [...], the tragedy of innocence in the sense of inexperience” (p. 220), an “inexperience” which is partly an off-shoot of her negative application of Jacques Lacan's (Wright, 1998) “the mirror stage” (p. 102) psychoanalytic postulate. Complementing her

“inexperience” is the fated tragic process of the “violation of *moral law*” (p. 210), she being (Rushdie, 1994) “the most sharp-tongued woman of her generation” (p. 5) and diabolically inclined at the age of thirteen to “wandering barefoot around her grandparents large odorous house” (p. 7). She is also a restless person, the consequence of which is “her nightly affliction” of “bouts of sleeplessness” (p. 7). It is, therefore, not unexpected that a notoriety issues from such insomnia as narrated by Moraes: (Rushdie, 1994) “[...] on these nightly odysseys she would invariably throw open all the windows – first the inner screen-windows whose fine-meshed netting protected the house from midges mosquitoes flies [...]” (p. 7). The accursedness that runs through the plot is partly rooted in this malfeasance.

In her tragic “inexperience”, she rejoices at “the sounds of her hated grandmother’s fury (oaths, breaking china, the impotent slaps of the swatter, the scornful buzzing of insects)” (Rushdie, 1994, p. 7), the result of her (Aurora’s) wicked nights. Her action is a genetic visualisation of the perfect granddaughter “[...] though it never occurred to her to notice that in her broodings there was more than a little of Epifania’s ruthlessness” (p. 8). Aurora is so unfeeling in seeking Epifania’s death that she takes patience to be a virtue in that regard, saying “I’ll just bide-o my time” (p. 8). Because of this, Moraes is doubly sure of the feminine grip on the work’s heroic vision. At a juncture, he acquaints readers at a very early part of the plot that “the women are now moving to the centre of my little stage. Epifania, Carmen, Belle, and the newly arrived Aurora – they, not the men, were the true protagonists in the struggle.” (Rushdie, 1994, p.33) The struggle he adverts to is the catastrophic conflict that the da Gama family plunges into, very tragically concluded in “the battle of the in-laws” (p. 33). Of the women mentioned, Aurora is the most durable as far as the plot is concerned, and, of course, the most commanding and hegemonic. Her artistic life gives that image of commanding prowess while the hegemonic in her is explicable in her willingness to have a totalitarian control of her immediate vicinity, particularly reducing Abraham to a hen-pecked husband on some occasions (Abraham though teaches her a lesson in deviousness). The farrago of Aurora’s brilliance in art and her feelings of prepotency provides the ironic “admixture of heroism” (Frye, 1957, p. 210). This gives her personality a desired tragic “splendor and exhilaration” (p. 210). Against this Aurora’s magnificence, Rushdie establishes the clout of those four characters earlier mentioned, simply to give Aurora a good run for her presumptuousness. Three of these characters succeed in unraveling her fallibility.

The binary placement of Aurora and Uma on antagonistic visceral platforms evinces how each pole in the signifying chain attempts to uproot the other in the heroic dialectic. From the two characters’ self-vitiating and attritive contest, evidence of the differential manipulation of the heroic construct, one is apprised of the “differential diagnosis” that comes into play to valorize the differentials in their anti-social similitude. The fullness of both characters’ moral negativity is exploded through the differentials in their antithetic character design. Between the two human “signifieds” exists a relational friction of idiosyncratic signifiers. They are conjoined existentially in some signifying respects. One, they are both visual artists; two, they excel in their artistry; three, they are both ambitious, in a bid to outshine each other in their chosen vocation; four, their marital lives are questionable; lastly, they want to outhrow each other. Clearly, in the signifying conduit, the author establishes the two in a like and antipodal signification system to institute a tension that will make the heroic struggle interestingly explosive. The last three signifiers intrinsically contain differences that undermine the significating affinities in the first two signifiers. The transgressive presence of contradicting signifiers in a set of similar signifiers the author exploits to create a structural hierarchy and heroic nebulousness between the two characters. Of course, a “synthesis” does not manifest in the author’s hierarchical conclusion as it defies the open-ended *différance* of Derrida. Signification analyses of the work’s denouement reveal the tragic superiority of Aurora’s art.

The anti-humanistic face of structuralism is eminently fructified in the binary articulation of these two female figures. At a juncture in their dog-fight, in different contexts, they use almost the same wording to express their acerbic disgust of each other. Uma says to Moraes that his mother “is currently having not one, not two, but three different love affairs [...]” (Rushdie, 1994, p. 256). Aurora, in like manner, tells Moraes that his Uma is “currently fooling around with not one, not two, but three lovers” (p. 265). Definitely, this phraseology predates its expression by the human duo, after all the two characters emerge from the same moral ambience, and so, manifesting Culler’s postulate (1981), “the idea of [their] personal identity emerges through the discourse of a culture; the “I” is not something given but comes to exist as that which is addressed by and relates to others” (p. 37). By extension, the two characters’ conflict continues to reflect Culler’s (1981) structuralist anti-humanist assumption that “the self is dissolved as its various functions are ascribed to impersonal systems which operate through it” (p. 37). The thinking being is, invariably, held in thrall to “a deeply rooted set of cultural norms and conventions which operate subconsciously” (Culler, 1981, p. 36) below the façade of the human entity. Hence, the semiotic principle “becomes an act of demystification, of exposure” (p. 36). The signification contrarities that are immanent in the feud between Aurora and Uma demystify and expose the failings behind their pontifical posturing.

Essentially, between Uma and Aurora, in line with the suggestion of Hassumani (2002), “heroic binaries are exposed as being inherently hierarchical and therefore violent and they are exploded” (p. 14), done to show how “hierarchies are leveled (or at least an attempt is made) and we end up with relative “truths”” (p. 14). In her artistic conflict with Aurora, Uma’s immediate ego-priority is to revise the heroic hierarchy in her favour, explicating in the process the view of Hassumani (2002) that “the notion of the individual as a centered subject, [as] an “I” is deconstructed, and we end up with a decentered subject, or a subject who is simply a network of desires (which may be conflicting), or a postmodern subject who is defined as a series of subjective positions” (p. 14). These dualist (centered and decentered) realities are foundational to understanding the importance of Uma in the almost-cloudy heroic air of *The Moor’s Last Sigh*.

Uma Sarasvati is clad in heroic contradictions. The contradictions are enabled by a farrago of the good, the bad and the ugly that she is a composite picture of. A stealthy and subterranean performer, she violates the confidence of the Zogoibys and breaches whatever remains of their shredded unity. By the time her incursion gets to a head, Moor is forced to own up to the fact that her ingress is “a defeat for the pluralist philosophy on which we had all been raised” (Rushdie, 1994, p. 272). Enamoured of “her multiple selves, her highly inventive commitment to the infinite malleability of the real, her modernistically provisional sense of truth” (Rushdie, 1994, p. 272), she burrows deep into the psychic and analytical consciousness of the Zogoibys.

What issues thereon is a subtle personality, inspired by self-cultivated zeal to be atop the world of deceit. She presents a pliable perception of herself to her hosts. Minnie is taken in by what she (Minnie) sees erroneously in her (Uma) as the depth and height of spiritual purity, supernal beauty and moral quintessence. To her, “Uma was a woman from whom spirituality seemed to flow like a river, she was abstinent and disciplined, a great soul who saw through to the final unity of all religion, whose differences she was convinced would dissolve under the blessed brilliance of divine light” (Rushdie, 1994, p. 243). It is obvious that Minnie’s new nunship status – she is now Sister Floreas – plays a part in her judgment. An activist with the resolute will to disestablish a criminal order, a secularist with Marxian and feminist convictions, Mynah (Philominah) believes Uma is “hard as nails” (p. 243). Business and financial considerations dictate Abraham’s analysis of Uma’s behaviour. What he divines is Rushdie’s proposition (1994) that her “razor-sharp financial brain, and her mastery of the very latest in modern deal-making and takeover theory” (p. 243). Still under the spell of dead Ina’s musical effulgence, Jamshed Cashondeliveri’s opinion is that Uma is “the living reincarnation of gorgeous departed Ina. [...] she is like Ina with a singing voice, and also brains” (Rushdie, 1994, p. 243). Uma, in an unseemly manner, is a confirmation of the philosophical belief of Engblom (1994) that such a personality “resists ideological synthesis or closure” (p. 298), defying “any finalized ‘truth’” (p. 298). She, against that awareness, demonstrates heroic pretension in poststructuralist presumptuousness.

This concurrence of diverse views, conclusions from vocational and emotive hues, encourages the fluvial disposition of Uma to temporarily prevail over the Zogoiby’s. Equally self-assuming like Aurora, she tells Moraes (Rushdie, 1994): “[...] I am the goddess who knows your secret heart and I will surely give you everything you want, and more. [...] *And then until death I will be your mirror, your self’s other self, your equal, your empress and your slave*” (p. 248). (Emphasis not mine). She identifies in him a lack of solution, if psychological, to the puzzle that is his medical defect, and sees in herself, of course, a companionship for him. The narrator’s mother warns him: “That girl of yours is the most ambitious person I ever met” (Rushdie, 1994, p. 262). The evil genius in Uma does not waste time in discovering that Aurora has thrown down the gauntlet. Picking it up, Uma silently tells Moor metaphorically: “so, if this is a racecourse then I want to race” (Rushdie, 1994, p. 244). They were in a racecourse when those exchanges took place. The coast becomes clear for accusations, counter-accusations and dark revelations. Aurora unearths scandals about her, positing that the only light side of the stories is her artistic gift, (Rushdie, 1994) “a talent for acting that [even] had been pushed to the point of insanity and beyond” (p. 266). Hers is perhaps a case of genius being coeval with madness. As the accusations and responses grow in number, the relationship between Aurora and Uma becomes messier. Being rhetoricized into believing Uma’s stories about Aurora’s omnivorous sexual life, Moraes is pensive at her mother’s “complex secret life” (Rushdie, 1994, p. 257) for “she had started to be a little paranoid, to worry about being followed” (p. 257). This is a peep into her “self-alienated consciousness [that is nurtured toward] authenticity of identification” (Barret, 1983, p. 87). Through these disclosures, the layers of selves in Aurora are uncurtained. Her son appears not to be confused about this, concluding that “her work looked rather like a distraction from the harsh realities of her character; like a gallant coat laid over the filthy mud-puddle of her soul” (Rushdie, 1994, p. 257).

With a blossoming artistic image, Uma is made a guest at many fora on art. A depressed Aurora has no choice but to acknowledge her rival’s dexterity. At one of the soirees, she contends that “To genius [...] everything must be given” (Rushdie, 1994, p. 253). However, beneath this plaudit, the rivalry is seething, spilling scandals over scandals. Aurora warns her son about Uma’s deceptive “powers of attraction, and the persuasiveness of her performances” [...] (p. 267). She counsels him, albeit selfishly: “You must break her magic spell [...] or you are done for [...]” (Rushdie, 1994, p. 267). Despite all these, the charm of Uma over Moraes is so strong that the latter finds himself in a quandary as to what to believe – Uma’s stories about Aurora’s crudities or the reverse –, bearing in mind that he could lose his mother forever if he glued himself to Uma. He, at the same time, feels that he could be unhappy forever if his only hope of being happy – a partner – is dismissed, taking into account his fear of brevity of life. Happening almost at the same time is the coming down from glory of Aurora’s art. Some of her works on exhibition at a gala “would come close to being destroyed” as newspaper reviews see her as “a ‘society artist’, out of tune with, and even ‘deleterious’ to the temper of the age” (Rushdie, 1994, p. 261). Conversely, the authorial voice of Rushdie (1994) appreciates Uma’s sculpted work on display elsewhere, entitled *Alterations/Reclamations of the Essence of Motherhood in the Post-Secularist Epoch*, a hit in Germany a year before, as one that captivates art critics, to the extent that those who have chastised Aurora see “Uma as Indian art’s new star” (p. 262). Aurora is visibly sad. Uma’s world of deceit crashes with her death, a contrived misadventure into suicide, one founded on a phoney declaration of her love for the narrator – a subterranean pursuit of glory that is announced through invidiousness.

D. Aurora’s Overt Heroic Pretensions Contrasted with Abraham’s Covert Heroic Machinations

Between Aurora and Abraham, phallic, feminist and economic signifiers seem to generate the “binarist” conflict. Aurora’s overbearing presence in the life of Abraham suggestively makes the latter uncomfortable in the marital union but, due to his ideal of invisibility, he does not show it; he secretly plans to take her out of circulation. The wealthy background of Aurora, which makes Abraham, coupled with an inborn feminist sensibility, is the signifier of power that speaks for her belligerent signified in the feud. Abraham, though behaves like a hen-pecked husband, is silently furious at Aurora’s overpowering feminist braggadocio. This silent fury – a counter-signifier to Aurora’s econo-feminist edge – he nurtures, packed in which is vendetta with deadly venom. He succeeds through his ideology of concealment in eliminating her.

Unlike Aurora, however, his legacy is more revolting than laudatory. Farhad Idris sees Abraham Zogoiby as being representative of a Fanonian conception of the travesty of the European bourgeoisie. Idris (1999) asserts that

Unlike the European bourgeoisie, however, [he argues] the new postcolonial bourgeoisie class comes to power not through a long process of economic, political and cultural revolution but through a process of mimicry and replacement in which the Indian bourgeoisie have been carefully prepared to step into the shoes of their colonial predecessors. (p. 155)

In other words, Abraham, probably aware of the heroic values of the European bourgeois revolution, attempts to be a hero in the Indian bourgeois context, but he is oblivious of “Fanon’s assertion that ‘In underdeveloped countries, ... no true bourgeoisie exists; there is only a sort of little greedy caste, avid and voracious, with the mind of a huckster [the European bourgeoisie may also be reprehensible in this light]’” (Idris, 1999, p. 156). His behaviour parallels Fanon’s postulate as he resides on the fringes of heroism, though he looms large in the general heroic conception of the novel. He salutarily leads the way verbally to Vasco Miranda’s residence for Moraes to invade. His lawlessness, however, magnifies a contradictory confirmation of his obsession with heroic standpoints. His criminal life – especially his deep involvement in the murder of his wife, Aurora, and daughters, Mynah and Minnie – confines him interpretatively to the edges and margin of heroic fame. His notoriety as “the biggest dada of them all” (Rushdie, 1994, p. 331) illuminates his infamy as “a natural commander, a born negotiator, the deal-maker of deal-makers [who] gambled for the highest stakes; had even been willing, as a young man, to wager his unborn son” (p. 331). All these enable him to establish the Khazana Bank International, a huge business monstrosity. Rushdie (1994) intimates readers that “nine-tenths of [the business] was submerged below the surface of things” (p. 341). A clever manipulator of men, Abraham outlasts Raman Fielding or Mainduck – another big fraudster, whose serpentine machination confuses his “religious-nationalist agenda” (p.337) with his “Bombay-for-the-Mahrattas” (p. 337) political war – in the battle of rogue-wits. The seven letters in Abraham’s name is actually a crude realization of its salutary manifestation in the biblical Abraham. He is eliminated in a “Samsonian”, apocalyptic attack on Bombay – putatively a heroic demonstration, the Abraham Zogoiby model.

E. Vasco’s Envy-filled Campaign against Aurora’s Grand Image

Unlike her relationship with Uma and Abraham, Aurora does not deliberately confront Vasco Miranda. In fact, it is the other way round; and the conflict is laced with contradictions as inspired by Vasco’s ambivalent intrusion into the Zogoibys. Aurora and Vasco are symbolic representatives of high art. Vasco, indeed, ironically improves Aurora’s artistry by advising her to abandon mimetic, mundane drawing. From the art collaboration grows their differences. Goaded by being humiliated out of the home of the Zogoibys, and, unknown to Aurora, locked up in a superiority contest with her, Vasco builds up a signification discourse in amplifying how the politics of heroism is played out in the novel.

Unlike Vasco, Aurora’s genius is a natural combining of the child prodigy with a passion for the preternatural, as “even as a child she never drew childishly; that her figures and landscapes were adult from the first. This was a myth she did nothing to discourage; indeed she may have even fostered it, by backdating certain drawings and destroying other pieces of juvenalia (Rushdie, 1994, p. 45). She thus has the gift to recreate the realism landscape with “that inward eye which is the bliss of solitude” (Roget, 1817, p. 405) with which in her surreal cocoon, she nurtures a deadly but visionary image of art as an instrument of self-fulfillment. She is armed with “an obscure but profound impulse to revolt against the conventions established in [her] own day, in order to rediscover convention on a deeper level” (Frye, 1981, p.132). Through metaphors which define the “ways in which we develop our prejudices and biases”, (Sanga, 2001, p. 2) she sustains her reality. She has indeed learnt “how to whirl-up a whirlwind, how to hurry-up a hurricane [...] How to dance up a storm” (Rushdie, 1994, p. 125). She is an articulation of Frye’s discovery in fiction of “two main tendencies, a “comic” tendency to integrate the hero with his society, and a “tragic” tendency to isolate him” (Frye, 1971, P. 54). Evidencing this is her fractious unpredictability, which reveals how “she crosses several important boundaries having to do with religion, class and even social mores [...]” (Hassumani, 2002, p. 118).

The acme of her illustrious but damning art career – the uncompleted *The Moor’s Last Sigh* – catches the fancy of her supernatural rival, Vasco Miranda, so much that he replicates its theme, but with inward concern that he has not discovered the secret of Aurora’s genius. It is an apprehension he nurses till he dies after he kills Aoi, whose dying is conceived of in this gripping imagery, actuated by a Miranda-inspired “Aurora-phobia” (Rushdie, 1994): “A hole appeared in the canvas, over Aurora’s heart; but it was Aoi Ue’s breast that had been pierced [...] her blood pumped through the wound in my living mother’s chest” (p. 431). This description is an animist construction of Miranda’s psychological contentment in avenging his ejection from *Elephanta* and more notably the envy-filled destruction of an art work he reasons is nonpareil in articulation. She remains legendary to the existence of Abraham and Vasco Miranda,

who in the aftermath of her death “became recluses, Abraham in his high tower and Vasco in his [...]” (p. 328) but both residing in the lower depths of her artistic conceptualisation.

Against this artistic acclaim of Aurora, Vasco’s heroic pretensions are constructed. The exponent of “an Epico-mythica-Tragic-Comico-Super-Sexy-High-Masala-Art” (Rushdie, 1994, Pp. 148&149), Vasco Miranda contributes to the anti-mimetic build of the novel. He upturns the rules of the English language – aided by structuralist conventionality argument –, and argues that “if the opposed answer-and-question pairs *there/where*, *then/when*, *that/what*, *thither/whither*, *thence/whence* all existed, then, [...] every *this* must also have its *whis*, every *these* its *whese*, every *those* its *whoase*” (P. 151) (Emphasis not mine). Being a painter of enigmatic proportions like Aurora, he makes Moor learn how a super-hero yearns for normality from the walls and gives one a precognition of the death-like consequences of Aurora’s characterization and holds self-same anti-Christian views like her. With the mergence of “a presence and an absence [...] A fullness and an emptiness” (Rushdie, 1994, p. 158), Vasco aligns himself with poststructuralist open-endedness and gives a picture of the theoretical thought on contradictions and existential struggle in mythic literature. The height of his artistic collaboration with Aurora is the fabulous disclosure of the person responsible for the death of the latter. He tells Moraes (Rushdie, 1994): “If she was killed, she said, she wanted the murderer brought to book. So she had concealed his portrait under her work in progress. Get the picture X-rayed, she said to me, and you will see my killer’s face” (p. 416). With these theoretical manifestations and revelation, Vasco Miranda could also lay claim to evincing some aspects of heroism.

However, he breaches the frontiers of heroic positivity through the unenviable task he is made to perform in the tragic flow of events. He is haunted by the ignominy and his artistic incapacity to obliterate his “inadequacy, his failure to approach Aurora’s heights” (Rushdie, 1994, p. 430). Because of this, psychopathic desires develop in him. He makes infertile attempts to equal Aurora’s mental beauty in *The Moor’s Last Sigh*. His mad urge for greatness at all costs goads him to make Aurora the nodular point of his art in his painting, which he calls *Last Sultan of Granada, seen Departing from the Alhambra or The Moor’s Last Sigh*. He builds a maze of horror around himself, which is activated to mesmerise an already spell-bound victim through a menacing music that is awesomely exceptional in its “ululations of indeterminate gender, computer-generated whines and bangs” (Rushdie, 1994, Pp. 409&410). Definedly explained by Rushdie (1994) as “the vilest of dins”, it is “an unearthly, tortured or rather torturing-noise, sadistic, dispassionate, aloof” (p. 413) – all the qualifiers being an eerie ushering of Miranda into his wonder world of awe. His extinction is not a deviation from the tragedy in which his life is immersed, and he is choked to death by the mythic “needle” that lodges in his entrails (he has a premonition of this), after he has shot Aoi Ue to death.

F. Aurora’s Maternal Cloud over Moraes’ Unenthusiastic Heroism

Of all Aurora’s binary others, only his son, Moraes, does not constitute an antagonistic pole in the structuralist understanding of their heroic relationship. He is not, unlike others, a narcissistic symbol of Girard’s (1983) conceptualisation as “blissful autonomy” or “self-sufficiency” (p. 365). Therefore, he does not present a minatory counter-position to Aurora’s self-aggrandizement. His heroic preeminence lies in his first person narratorial sinews, which impulse empowers him to have pre-eminence over the movement of the plot; second, the unearthly conceptualisation of his physique is an added impetus to the magic strength of the work; third and most importantly, he is instrumental in unknitting the riddles behind the person that killed his mother, the whereabouts of some of Aurora’s stolen paintings and the discovery of Aurora’s unfinished masterpiece painting, “The Moor’s Last Sigh”, “the best part of what remained” (Rushdie, 1994, p. 415) of her; all these coming to light because Moraes is able to breach Vasco Miranda’s Benengeli fort to make the reader come to terms with the startling, suspense-filled denouement that explains the da Gama-Zogoiby tragedy.

Moor’s unconscious will to be prominent and Aurora’s desire to artistically play with his deformity so as to lighten its psychological weight, coupled with her sadistic urge to wreak vengeance on him for the sins of Uma, notably pit them against each other in the heroic ring. In this heroic context, a manic-depressed Aurora, assisted by the inconstancy in bipolar disorder, turns his child into an object-signifier of repression, deriving from their filial relationship, which is an offshoot of her troubled marital union with Abraham.

The convergence of psychological moments of depression and mania is Aurora’s signifying route towards putting Moor under her control. Under the grip of these oscillating psychological impairments, Aurora makes her art a redemptive promise and the tragic *aide memoir* of Moor’s life; she finds cathartic sustenance in her *Moor* series. Moraes, from Rushdie’s (1994) creative reasoning, discerns Aurora’s “profound and selfless passion”, “*self-aggrandisement* [sic]”, “determination to transcend and redeem [...] imperfections through art” and “tragedy disguised as fantasy” in the mythomaniac gem she calls “*A Light to Lighten the Darkness*” (p. 220). Etymologically based on the misbegotten birth of Moraes Zogoiby, her son, Aurora embarks on this project as a psychic redress for an assumed penal measure on her. The Moor comments that it “was a sign of love [...] she painted me into immortality, giving me the gift of being a part of what would persist of her” (Rushdie, 1994, p. 221).

Aurora, to kill the monstrous image of Moor’s life, leans on the function of art as psychotherapy. Her drawing, *Courtship*, she uses to represent a renewed Moraes, whose “hand was transformed into a series of miracles” (Rushdie, 1994, p. 224) – an Aurora wish after the reality of a deformed personality, a fancy she implants in *Moor and Tussy*, (p. 224), a lovers’ fiction in which the tragic paradigm of Moraes’ ageing misnomer is left to dwell in the realm of euphemism. The fictive ambivalence is rekindled in *To Die Upon a Kiss*, (p. 224) a replicated Shakespearean tragic

error of a murdered Desdemona, now Aurora, and a stabbed Othello (Moor). Aurora's obsession with the Moor symbol gradually wears a more surreal imagining with the prophetic vanquishing of Vasco Miranda's Alhambra invincibility myth, with Moraes as the conqueror. Like a conjuror, a fluvial picture, "the dividing line between two worlds" (Rushdie, 1994, p. 226) and its fluid boundary-less features, where water creatures intermingle with land characters, a "place where worlds collide, flow in and out of one another" (p. 226), inhabit her foreboding.

Unfortunately, her ironic masterdom over the tragic trajectory creates a fine line between love and hate. She goes beyond human limits to exact vengeance from his son for falling in love with Uma. Moraes expounds how the artistic cudgel of his mother's capricious and erratic individuality is unsparing of his misadventure with Uma through Rushdie's (1994) revelation:

And the Moor-figure: alone now, motherless, [...] sank into immorality, and was shown as a creature of shadows, degraded in tableaux of debauchery and crime [losing], in these last pictures, his previous metaphorical rôle as a unifier of opposites, a standard-bearer of pluralism, ceasing to stand as a symbol [...] of the new nation, and being transformed, instead, into a semi-allegorical figure of decay. (p. 303)

Moor describes the degradation his mother subjected him to through the prison authorities at "Bombay Central": I was becoming nobody, nothing; [...] I was scum (Rushdie, 1994, p. 288). He is too sure of Aurora's profound complicity in his "bitter turmoil" (p. 288):

[...] and mostly I blamed my mother, to whom my father never could say no – For what kind of mother would set out on such flimsy provocation, to destroy her child, her only son? (p. 288).

The same Aurora has earlier fended off an attack against the unborn Moor from Flory, Abraham's mother, when Abraham traded off his unborn Moor over a debt he owed his mother, for which the only payment was his first boy-child. Aurora, on being informed by Flory Zogoiby of this "deal", comes up against Abraham with this affront: "Tell your mother, [...] that there will be no children born in this house while I am still alive [...] You do your work and I'll do mine [...] But the work Flory is waiting for, that she will never see" (Rushdie, 1994, p. 115).

To have unleashed such turpitude on a child she has been very much possessive of, even in pre-conception, is indicative of a woman with wavy emotions. Moor's animal depiction of his mother's loathsome hostility to him is a haunting projection of a personality with extreme faces of the two affective dispositions of love and hate, comparing his mother's wickedness to "an age of monsters" (Rushdie, 1994, p. 288), wishing she had pulverized him as a baby.

Aurora's pliant consciousness, however, gives birth to a change in her attitude to Moraes. The painting found on her easel after her passing, *The Moor's Last Sigh*, her last work, indicates it much. In it, she restores his (Moor's) humanity. As evidence of the change,

there was no abstract harlequine, no junkyard collage. It was a portrait of her son, lost in limbo like a wandering shade; a portrait of a soul in Hell. And behind him his mother, no longer in a separate panel, but re-united with the tormented Sultan. (Rushdie, 1994, p. 315)

Rushdie (1994) sheds light on her son's exasperation at Aurora's belated intention to right a maternal wrong. To her son, "it was an apology that came too late, an act of forgiveness from which I could no longer profit. I had lost her, and the picture only intensified the pain of her loss" (Pp. 315&316).

G. Fielding's Triumphalist-control-of-Mumbai Disdain for Aurora

Rahman Fielding's abrasive duel with Aurora, though lean in the heroic horizon of the novel, magnifies the power underpinnings that announce the contest for superiority in the Mumbai face of the plot. Like Vasco Miranda, Fielding is the fount of the friction. He is pained not only by the boldness in her femininity but also by her growing artistic fame. Exploiting the negative muscularity of his Bombay "lordship", he entwines himself to Aurora's popularity for self-preservation and with the ultimate purpose to prove his masculinity over her. Mainduck's passion is to deploy politics as a Machiavellian weapon to render Aurora insignificant in the eyes of Bombayites; it is a matter of envying a feminine irrepressible and confident pursuit of identity. Moraes is not unconvinced about Mainduck's bravado in respect of pruning his mother: "[...] powerful women scare men off, and there were few Bombay males who would have dared to woo her. That explained Mainduck. Coarse, physically strong, ruthless, he was one of the few men in the city for whom Aurora would hold no terrors" (Rushdie, 1994, p. 257). As a reminder, Aurora has to have recourse to human spirits to stave off a planned attack by Mainduck's Mumbai's Axis on Kekoo Mody's gallery during the saga of Aurora's "The kissing of Abbas Alli Baig" (Rushdie, 1994, p. 233) painting showdown with Fielding. She negotiates a bribe with him for that purpose. Despite Aurora's grip on the plot, those two incidents explain Mainduck's self-conviction that the Aurora supremacist figure is not without blemish. However, these excremental qualifiers: "that MA bastard Mainduck" (p. 256) and "this gutter-creature of real potency, this savage, this walking slum" (p. 257), descriptions of Fielding's overly crude moral, religionist and political life, take him off the author's ideological exhortation. Despite doing so much to invalidate Aurora's growing preponderance, Fielding errs in seeing in women weak vessels who should submit to the phallic ego. His comeuppance: Aurora is one of the two women who are indirectly responsible for his death.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS



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2. Owoeye, D. (2012). Norms of ambivalence in setting, plot and point-of-view in the anti- realist world of Salman Rushdie and Ben Okri. *International Journal of Linguistics and English Literature*. (IJALEL). 1.6, 210-221.

3. Owoeye, D. (2012). Eclectic considerations in the communication ideology of Salman Rushdie. *World Journal of English Language* (WJEL). 2.4, 76-86.

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The Integration of Information Technology into Language Teaching

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Abstract—the construction of college English classroom is one of the orientations of current college English teaching reform. This thesis discusses the integration of information technology into college English curriculum from the ecological perspective so as to offer some advice for the practice of college English reform.

Index Terms—information technology, college English curriculum, ecologicalize, integration, college English teaching reform

I. INTRODUCTION

Any technology may cause huge changes in a certain field if any technology was introduced to it. And it was proved that the web-based information technology brought great changes in the field of education. After information technology was introduced into the language teaching, the traditional information delivery channel, the teaching contents, the forms of integration and even the teaching process have changed dramatically. In order to facilitate the college English teaching reform and meet the needs of qualified personnel of the country and the society, the Higher Education Department of the Ministry of Education promulgated the revised *College English Curriculum Requirements* (hereinafter referred to as *Requirements*) in 2007 on the basis of college English teaching practice and the objectives of college English reform. The *Requirements* (Ministry of Education, 2007) indicates that each college and university is supposed to take good advantage of modern information technology and introduce the computer-and-classroom-based English teaching mode to improve the traditional teacher-based one. The new mode is to be supported by modern information technology, especially the web to make for the orientation of individualization and autonomy free from the restriction of time and place.

In allusion to the *Requirements* (Ministry of Education, 2007) Professor Jianlin Chen and Gu (2008) gave the following interpretation: “the teaching concept is supposed to be internationalized the multimedia-based teaching normalized and the teaching environment ecologicalized”(p.44). Meanwhile, he put forward that “the reform of ecological college English curriculum system is the vital part of college English teaching reform and also the orientation of college English classroom teaching reform” (p.47). The foreign languages teaching changed dramatically and the traditional foreign languages were impacted greatly after the information technology was introduced into foreign languages curriculum. In this process a good many maladjustment and imbalance appeared. It is how to make it back to balance and how to integrate information technology into foreign languages really and truly that is the critical issue which should be resolved. It is pressing to study these issues under such circumstances.

II. ECOLOGY AND COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING

A. Ecology and Education

The Germany ecologist Haeckel put forward the concept of “Ecology” on the basis of Darwin’s evolutionism in 1866. Then the British ecologist Tansley advanced “Ecological System”. Till 1966, the American educationist Ashby brought forward “Higher Educational Ecology” in his book and firstly studied higher education from the perspective of ecology. Later the American Lawrence Cremin put forward “Ecology of Education” in *Public Education* in 1976 and studied the educational phenomenon with the basic ecological principles and methods; a new study field was formed accordingly. However, the study of ecological education is at the beginning stage in China (Ma, 2010).

From this perspective, the college class is a micro-ecological system which can be called classroom ecosystem. It is composed of the environment of the classroom which includes physical, social and other compound ecological factors and the niches of the class; they interact with each other and formed the basic system. The physical classroom environment mainly consists of the facilities, decorations, lights, smell, noise and comfort; the social environment consists of the arrangements of seats, the percentage of genders, the quantity of class, the relationship between teachers and students and the campus language factors and so on. As the main niches, the teachers and students interact with these environments and formed the relatively stable ecological system. After the integration of information technology, this balance is destroyed to some degree; great efforts should be made to make it back to balance again.

B. Ecology and College English Teaching

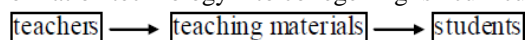
From the perspective of ecology, the niche (teaching factors) can achieve harmony with the environment when it finds a right place in the ecology system after it possess a position in space which is most suitable for survival. That's to say, the system can achieve dynamic balance when all the niches find the right dynamic places.

At present the ecology system of college English teaching inevitably emerge imbalance because of the integration of information technology into the college English curriculum which leads to disharmony and rejection. The questions that the college English teachers in the twenty-first century are supposed to answer are how to overcome the system imbalance and negative influence under the integrated conditions and how to make the ecological system of college English teaching achieve the dynamic ecological harmony again (Chen, 2004).

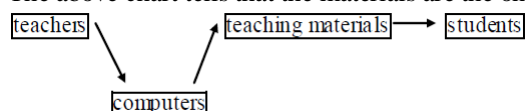
III. THE STRATEGIES OF INTEGRATION

The teaching factors of the traditional college English curriculum have found the most suitable place in the teaching ecological system after a long-term teaching practice and inspection and formed a relatively balanced and stable ecological system of college English curriculum. Some elementary teaching factors are bound to be replaced by the new ones after the integration of information technology into college English curriculum which inevitably lead to the changes of the ecological system of college English curriculum and the influence to the balance of the original ecological system (Zhao, 2009).

After the integration of college English teaching into information technology, the teaching objectives focus on the cultivation of students' ability of language application, especially that of listening and speaking but not the cultivation of reading ability, the input and acquisition of knowledge; the teaching method is multi-dimensional and individualized but not the traditional grammar-translation, intensive reading of the texts and imitation, more attention is paid to the integration of classroom teaching into the information technology, the active students-centered classrooms, outside class knowledge constructions and so on; the teaching method is computer-centered learning environment and individualized foreign languages learning but not the textbooks, blackboard and chalk; the teaching concept shifted to students-centered from teachers-centered that teachers control the classroom all the time; the textbooks are multi-dimensional but not the plane paper ones, the teaching contents are multimedia-centered; the teacher's role is to facilitate and help students actively construct knowledge but not only an interpreter or instructor; the teaching environment is not restricted to the classroom which lack the real language learning surroundings but create the web-based powerful one to learn and practice; the assessment is formative assessment but not the summative assessment which focus on the results of examinations. The following charts can best illustrate the changes from the traditional teaching mode to the integration of information technology into college English curriculum (An, 2008).

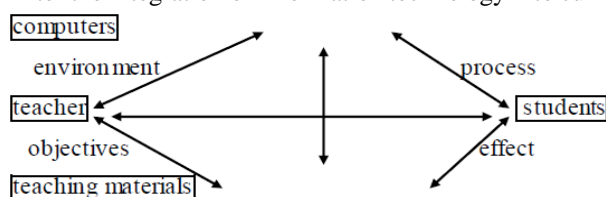


The above chart tells that the materials are the only resources of knowledge to the students.



Although the employment of computers reinforces the effect of teaching, the resources of knowledge are still mainly from the teaching materials.

After the integration of information technology into curriculum, the traditional structure of teaching has been broken.



As far as the teaching materials are concerned, the relationships between teacher, students, and computer and teaching materials are not one-way but interactive ones.

The above changes inevitably damage the balance of the traditional ecological system of college English curriculum. The ecological theories bring us reflections and inspiration which concern how to take good advantage of the information technology and how to make the ecological system of college English curriculum back to balance. The following part will discuss the mode, development of teaching materials, teaching environment, teachers' role, assessment and mutual competitions of college English curriculum (Chen, 2005).

A. Mode of the Curriculum

Curriculum is the core of educational reform because any advanced educational concepts eventually influence the curriculum and the students. After information technology integrates into the college English curriculum, the curriculum itself should play an important role and interact with other factors (niches) to achieve the dynamic balance of the ecological system of the college English curriculum.

The traditional curriculum was composed of theories, methods and teaching materials, while after integrating into information technology it is composed of theories, methods, technology and teaching materials, resources bank and net-based resources and so on. On the whole, the ecological mode of college English curriculum should center on the platform of college English curriculum and transfer the preparation of teachers, assignments of students, exams, question-and-answers to the campus network platform. Therefore, both the traditional teaching factors and the modern one coexist in harmony which can make them find the appropriate place in the ecological system of college English curriculum. Among which, the teaching materials, resources bank and the network resources change and update constantly which both the teachers and the students can upload resources. The students' initiation, practical ability and creativity can all be fully cultivated and brought into play (Wang, 2011).

The teaching mode based on computer and classroom involves the integration of classroom teaching and autonomous learning. The classroom teaching still is administrated by teachers and assisted by multimedia courseware; the students' autonomous learning is supported by network when teachers' role is organization and assistance. The subject status of students can be achieved and the leading role of teachers is not neglected. The main factors of teaching include students, teachers, administrators, resources and technology and so on. The teachers' leading role involves organizing the class efficiently and inspiring the students' motivation and initiation. Because of the intervention of the administrators, resources and technology, the chances are that the classroom teaching arise imbalance and rejection which involve the teachers are able to diagnose the reasons of imbalance and adjust accordingly. At this moment, the improvement of teachers' teaching techniques is indispensable.

B. Development of Teaching Materials

The teaching materials play a critical role which determines whether the integration of information technology into college English curriculum is successful or not because the teaching materials are the concrete embodiment of the integration. Meanwhile, it is also the important part for the achievement of curriculum objectives. However, the materials at hand cannot make the function of information technology be achieved fully and there is still some room to achieve the goal of *Requirements*. The mode of teacher-dominated has not changed; the multimedia courseware and network curriculum are just the extension of the plane paper textbooks.

At present, the reform of college English curriculum mainly involves the advanced teaching concepts, multi-dimensional teaching materials and modern teaching methods. In order to make the newly-appeared niche find the appropriate place in the ecological system of college English curriculum, the personnel of teaching material development and teachers are supposed to adjust the concept timely; the information technology has not been the assisted instrument but the important teaching factor which should integrate into the teaching materials. And the teaching materials are supposed to embody the characteristics of individualization and hypertext.

Besides, the development of teaching materials should integrate with both the syllabus and course objectives; take the learners' needs into consideration to facilitate the process of learning; various teaching methods should be employed to cultivate the students' comprehensive ability of language learning to avoid the imbalance of language ability and create the real language conditions for the students.

C. Teaching Environment

The ecological teaching environment of college English curriculum includes the software and hardware environment. The hardware environment is composed of electronic language lab and the construction of the public learning environment, while the software includes the staff, the web-based English learning environment, the humanistic learning environment, the creation and construction of the individualized teaching mode of college English curriculum which is based on computers.

The *Requirements* put forward that the new teaching mode is supposed to be supported by modern information technology, especially the network to make the teaching and learning of English cannot be restricted by time and place and make for the direction of individualization and autonomous learning... it contributes to stimulate both the teachers and students, especially embody the dominate position of the students and the leading role of teachers in the process of teaching. The classroom teaching can be extended by the English teaching based on computer and classroom after the integration of information technology into college English curriculum; there are suitable environment and condition for the autonomous learning and the development of individual, which contributes to the balance of the ecological system of college English curriculum. Student stands in the center of the ecological system of college English curriculum and all the design and application concerning teaching activities revolve around the development of students. The teachers should manage to create the peaceful and harmony relationship between them besides the comfortable and autonomous learning environment and the students-dominated teaching concept. The famous psychologist Rogers brought forward that the successful teaching depends on harmony and comfortable atmosphere of classroom. The harmony atmosphere of class is the important psychological condition which embodies the students' creation, the relationship between teacher and students is bound to influence directly the practice and effect of teaching.

In addition, the interaction between teacher and students is one of the often neglected factors after the integration. The traditional relationship between them is replaced by the interaction between human and computers which should be paid more attention by the teachers.

D. Teachers' Role

The traditional role of teachers cannot interact positively with other niches in the ecological system of college English curriculum after the information technology integrated into the college English curriculum. It cannot accommodate the students' expectation to the teachers and the new teaching mode. The profession of teacher has long been regarded as one of the most authoritative ones; it is more expected with the development of teaching theories and methods. The information technology has outgrown the assistance in the college English curriculum and stepped forward to the foreground which requires the teachers' change accordingly with the teaching environment.

Under the circumstances of integration, the students expect teachers to create more active learning environment in class and offer equal opportunities for each one to make the students' knowledge and skill be fully brought into play which involves the teachers adjust on time.

As one of the most important niches in the ecological system of college English curriculum, teachers are supposed to be the organizers and assistants of classroom activities but not the keynote speakers; the researchers of classroom teaching but not the executors; the designers of future lives but not the instructors of knowledge acquisition; the constructors of knowledge system but not the transmitters of cultures (Wang, 2010).

One thing that is not supposed to be neglected is that the teachers need cultivate the accomplishment of information-teaching. Firstly, teachers should possess the ability of appropriately employ the multi-dimensional teaching materials, teaching design and the development of teaching materials. Secondly, teachers are required to select the suitable resources and optimize combination when facing massive resources. Before class, teachers are the designers and developers of the curriculum; in the class, they are the lecturers, organizers, trainers and evaluators; after class, they are the assistants and the providers of resources.

E. Assessments

Although the summative assessment can inspect the students' performance to some degree, this assessment method which gives priority to the formation of language is not scientific and comprehensive. For some occasional factors, a test paper cannot fully embody the comprehensive performance of the students. This kind of single and fixed assessment method is a shackle not only to the traditional teaching mode but also to the integrated one. It is bound to influence the balance of the ecological system of the college English curriculum.

The curriculum concept of the college English deems that the development of students is moldable, it is necessary to provide the basic knowledge, skills and methods of life-long development to meet the ever-changing social needs. On the basis of the above reasons, college English should employ both the formative and summative assessments. Teachers can analyze the students from the micro-ecology perspective; pay more attention to the uniqueness of each student to make different niches obtain balanced attention so as to the distribution of resources make for a reasonable direction. The recommended forms of formative assessment include records of extra-class activities, learning performance in class and web-based autonomous learning which can be used to observe, monitor and assess the process of students to facilitate the students' learning (Li, 2011).

The teachers can also take advantage of the network to organize the students to make self-assessment which contributes to the teachers' monitoring and administrating to the whole process of learning. Aiming at certain software, the teachers can solve the problems by techniques to remove the "tumor" in the system.

F. Mutual Competition

The ecology holds that when a new species enters into the ecological system, the new species is bound to interact with one or more original species and the whole environment. The new species will compete for the survival resources with other species; therefore, all of them evolve on the long term. There exist competitions among and between the ecological systems of education. The competition is classified into positive competition and the negative one. (Ding, 2011). The positive competition refers to the study and stimulation based on the single objective and common interests by the means of endeavors, through which both can achieve accomplishment and improvement. However, the negative competition is on the opposite which is mostly destructive. After the information technology integrates into the college English curriculum, the forms of competition are competition in scientific research, competition among technologies and competition between teachers.

Among which, the competitions among technologies is supposed to be paid more attention. After the entering of information technology as a new species, it inevitably competes with the present species (the traditional teaching factors). In the class, the new technology and the traditional ones compete for the resources, it may cause that more attention is paid to the technologies by teachers and the class and influence the attention to the teaching contents. The negative effects are bound to emerge under the unsuitable competition between information technology in class and the traditional teaching methods. If the information technologies can cooperate and improve the teaching effect when competing, it may bring positive effects to the class.

Teachers are the main body of the application of the technologies, therefore, teacher plays a critical role and determines whether the applications of information technologies are suitable or not. The essence of technology competition determines how the teachers select technologies appropriately. The presentation of different information technologies compete, for example, the traditional multimedia teaching and other technologies compete with each other. They are in the same place in the ecological system, in order to be employed at their most there are bound to be

competitions between them. The newly-introduced technology are bound to be neglected due to the teachers are unfamiliar with it when it is first introduced into the class. With more and more teachers begin to use this technology; the advantages of the new technology will appear gradually and bring the teachers' attention to it. The results of competition may lead to the survival of the fittest. Whether the new technology can stay or not is determined by the features of the technology and its adaptation to the surrounding environment. After the competition, the technologies which can meet the needs of the teaching can survive, while the others will fade gradually.

IV. PROBLEMS NEEDING ATTENTIONS

Teachers are required to pay more attention to the following questions in order to practice students-centered teaching mode and avoid the misunderstanding of that.

A. *Teacher-student Relationships*

In the traditional teacher-centered teaching mode, teachers are the controllers of the teaching process, designers and implementers of teaching activities. This traditional teaching mode has been common in China. However, more attention has been paid to the full play of the students' role nowadays. That is, under the new teaching circumstances, more efforts should be paid to the return of students' subject position. But in the practical teaching some teachers change the classroom of subject position return into the drift of class which weakens the teachers' role greatly. This trend of extremes is ubiquitous among the teachers who know little about information technologies or the structures of the new mode. Therefore, in the process of teaching some teachers let the students go as they want in the network-based autonomous learning but not monitor (Wang, 2010). Under such circumstances, the advantages of information technology cannot be fully brought into play and the fulfillment of the teaching activities in the traditional teaching. The necessary interaction between teachers and students and the personal charisma of teachers tend to be influenced to some degree. Teachers should pay more attention to the harmony of student-centered classroom and overcome the tendency of the over-emphasis to the autonomous learning. Undoubtedly, the emphasis of the subject position facilitates the creation of autonomous learning but cannot be overemphasized because college students haven't changed the modes of learning in middle school. Therefore, when more attention has been paid to the subject position of the students, teachers are supposed to bring the leading roles into play so as to the teaching structure of leading and subject develops in harmony.

B. *Ways of Knowledge Transmission*

Teachers are required to understand the ways of knowledge transmission in information age because the students receive information, remarks and solve problems in an untraditional way. The correct thinking mode of digital learning plays a vital role in their future development while the information is enormous and complicated, and some are even misleading which requires the teachers make efforts to cultivate the students' abilities of creation in the process of teaching and encourage the students to view things from the objective perspective associating with their original knowledge (Huang, 2009). It is impossible to bring the advantages of information technology into full play and create the environment of autonomous construction of knowledge if the teachers just input the knowledge all the time.

C. *Correct Understanding of Changes*

After the information technology integrated into the college English curriculum, the new teaching mode changed the simple and passive input of knowledge into the active construction of that.

The first change lies in the cultivation of objectives, which can be embodied by the shifts from knowledge-based education to the ability-based one. The multimedia-based education mode has great impact on the teaching materials of college English curriculum: the simple input of knowledge is replaced by the one which focus on the inter-association and combination of real life; the students can build the ability of problem solving and creative thinking by active exploration. The second one is about the changes in the ways of knowledge acquisition. In the traditional teaching mode, the students acquire knowledge by the passive and accepted way; the one-way input of teachers limit the creative thinking and the active construction of knowledge (Tan, 2009). The multimedia-based teaching mode change the traditional teaching concepts and methods, the students can accomplish all kinds of autonomous and cooperative learning and break through the restrictions of time and space so that the students can achieve success of learning by creating students-based learning environment and providing massive information resources. The last one is the shifts of learning mode, which refers to the students' autonomy but not the abstract learning strategies and methods. The basic feature is the organic combination of the involvement of students' behaviors, emotions, cognition and socialization. But pure behavior cannot facilitate the development of students' thinking ability; the active emotion experience and involvement of cognition are the essence of active learning modes. Therefore, the new learning mode changed the way of learning greatly; the students' learning does not merely depend on the instruction of teachers based on teaching materials but interactive learning based on information resources and cooperation between students and teachers.

V. DISCUSSION

The integration of the information technology into the college English curriculum inevitably lead to the great changes in the information delivery, teaching contents, design of teaching activities and the form of integration of the traditional

college English teaching. (Zhang, 2011). These changes are bound to make the relatively stable ecological system of college English curriculum change accordingly. In order to make the ecological system of college English curriculum back to balance after the integration of information technology and college English curriculum again, it is pressing and necessary to study the forms, methods and modes of integration.

On the whole, the practices of ecological teaching in college English classroom tend to have positive impact on the traditional college English teaching. Certainly, there are still many questions to be explored further, for example, how to improve the teachers' information accomplishment, how to improve the teaching management and coordination to the integration of teachers, etc. These questions to be resolved offer a clear orientation for the future study (Chen, 2010).

In addition, when taking good advantage of the information technology, teachers should inherit the goodness of the traditional teaching mode and bring the advantages of traditional college English teaching into full play at first.

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The Impact of Scaffolded Writing on Activating Passive Vocabularies of Iranian Upper-intermediate EFL Learners

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Abstract—This case study explores the implementation of scaffolded writing in activating passive vocabularies in Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners. PET and Vocabulary Size Test are utilized to select 64 participants among 95 EFL learners. Then according to their correspondingly similar vocabulary scores, the participants are divided into Experimental and Control groups. Scaffolded writing was an add-on component which was given as a treatment to the experimental group. To measure the vocabulary used in the compositions of Iranian students, the RANGE software is used. Results indicated that after scaffolded writing there was a higher usage of advanced vocabulary use in paragraph writing with a proportion of 5.4% in the reservoir of passive vocabulary into active vocabulary. The research implies that since the students get involved in cooperative activities and they share their ideas, there is a possibility for activating less frequent words. The positive effect of scaffolded writing boosts active vocabulary development. Both EFF/ESL teachers and students can benefit from the findings of this study.

Index Terms—Scaffolded writing, passive vocabularies, Iranian EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

The concept of scaffolding is linked to the work of the Russian social psychologist Lev Vygotsky. He coined the term Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) to make a difference between the actual developmental level by individual problem-solving and the level of potential development enhanced by problem-solving with more capable peers.

According to Hartman (2002), scaffolding theory was first introduced in the late 1950s by Bruner. It was used to describe oral language acquisition of learners assisted by their parents when learning to speak. Cazden (1983, p.6) defined a scaffold as a impermanent framework for construction in progress. Parents may know how to help and scaffold their children while negotiating meaning. Scaffold may occur when child may not be able to articulate or search learning by himself.

In terms of vocabulary, researchers agree, based on Hatch and Brown (1995) that vocabulary learning is of high importance when learning a language. The more words we try to learn, the more ability we will have to deal with what we hear and read; the better we will be able to express ourselves. We first choose the words and then we have to determine how we are going to learn them. These vocabularies are divided into two groups; passive and active vocabulary.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. Scaffolding

Lev Vygotsky's sociocultural theory and his concept of ZPD is the originator of scaffolding strategy. The zone of proximal development is the distance between what children can do by themselves and the next learning that they can be helped to achieve with competent assistance (Raymond, 2000, p.176). The scaffolding strategy, as Chang, Sung and Chen (2002) assert allows for individualized cooperation and the activities provided in scaffolding instruction, according to Olson and Platt (2000), are a little beyond the level of learner's individual capability. Therefore, in order to help learners through the ZPD, as Bransford, Brown, and Cocking (2000) assert, the more capable others provide the scaffolds so that the learners can accomplish the tasks they could otherwise not complete.

B. Scaffolded Writing

Teachers at all levels in recent years of instruction have become very much interested in knowing how they can back up their students in learning and using different forms of written language. Scaffolding is one useful metaphor for this support. Scaffolded Writing is a actually originated from the work of Elkonin and Galperin, who were two of

Vygotsky's students and colleagues. Elkonin and Galperin developed this technique in 1994 (cited in Bodrova & Leong, 1996). It sure needs the use of Vygotskian three strategies: materialization, private speech and shared activity.

To Vygotsky, based on Bodrova and Leong (1996), an effective intervention needs support for children within their Zone of Proximal Development. Several studies have used private speech and materialization to scaffold learning in Russia (Venger 1986). For example, Elkonin (1971) applied the two strategies in the well-known study of phonemic awareness. The preschool and kindergarten children who took part in his program learned to read faster than the control group and gained better marks in measures of metalinguistic awareness. Teachers must help learners develop strategies if scaffolding is to be successful.

C. Vocabulary

For sure, learning vocabulary is the necessary condition of learning a second language; however in this process a learner never completes vocabulary acquisition. The acquisition of new vocabulary is a continued process in both one's native language or a second language. According to Nation (2003), vocabulary is commonly delineated as all the words known and used by a single person. However, this definition may not take into account a range of issues involved in knowing a word.

According to Hatch and Brown (1995), some methods can assist learners to acquire new vocabularies including following steps:

1. Facing new words
2. Getting the form of the word
3. Getting the meaning of the word
4. Consolidating word form and meaning in memory
5. Using the word (passive/active vocabulary)

The source of vocabulary for a person is the set of familiar words within a language. The repertoire of vocabulary generally develops with age, and is a useful key tool for communication and acquiring any sort of knowledge. Based on Lieb (2006), one of the biggest challenges in learning a second language is acquiring a comprehensive vocabulary.

D. Statement of the Problem

Most of upper-intermediate EFL learners are not able to use the vocabularies that have been learned; though, they have high knowledge of vocabularies, they only use simple words in their speaking; and many of their vocabularies are passive. In learning English language, all four skills should be taken into account, but speaking has crucial role in terms of acceptable communication, so learners can improve their speaking ability through using various vocabularies. But unfortunately, instructors do not encourage EFL learners to use different vocabularies in their speaking; therefore, learners just use simple and common words and do not bother themselves to activate passive words. It is hoped that this study helps Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners use passive words in their speaking through scaffolded writing.

E. Research Question

Does scaffolded writing have a positive impact on activating passive vocabularies of Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners?

F. Research Null Hypothesis

H0: Scaffolded writing does not have a positive impact on activating passive vocabularies of Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

First, 95 students were chosen from Goldis Institute in Tehran, ranging from 18 to 28 at upper - intermediate level. According to the results of the homogeneity test, 82 students were selected. The vocabulary size test (Nation & Beglar, 2007) was administered to all the participants at the beginning of the course in order to determine students' proficiency level in terms of receptive/passive/recognition vocabulary knowledge. Finally, a total of 64 students were chosen.

B. Instruments

In this research, following instruments were provided:

- Dictionary: The students were provided with bilingual dictionary in order to remove their problems.
- Cross-word puzzle: to introduce the term cooperative,
- Information gap activities: Participants in the experimental group were provided with some activities including blanks in order to fill the gaps cooperatively. Students in control group did information gap activities individually.
- Nation test: The Vocabulary Size Test used for measuring controlled active and passive vocabulary size
- Lexical Frequency Profile (LFP): Used for showing the relationship between learners' vocabulary size and the richness of vocabulary in the production of language.

C. Procedures

The Vocabulary Size Test was given to 82 students at the beginning of the course in order to determine students' proficiency level considering active/passive vocabulary knowledge. The test was developed originally by Nation and Beglar (2007).

After this test, the students' compositions were grouped based on their correspondingly similar vocabulary scores across two groups. As an example, if four students had test scores 3500 (=35 out of 140 test items being correct * 100) they were grouped into two groups including experimental and control group. Each group consists of two students and one of the students was discarded from the research. In this case, both groups could remain intact and comparisons would be done more easily. Any difference growing from the explanatory variable would be more easily observed. In the end, a total of 32 pairs of students from two groups were selected.

In the first two sessions, the researcher presented some writing methods in both control and experimental groups. The class was divided into four rhetorical styles of paragraphs: comparison, contrast, description, and narration and also cause-and-effect. In the first 2-hour session for a writing theme, the lectures of the content in the textbook proceeded in order to present and discuss methods, patterns of organizations and various rhetorical styles such as sequential order in narrative paragraph writing, point-by-point or block method in comparison & contrast, focus-on-causes and focus-on-effects methods. Tasks and exercises of the class for each writing unit concentrated on developing supporting ideas, formulating a topic sentence, building better sentences and bringing the paragraph to a logical conclusion. In the next session for a writing unit, the researcher tried to make students aware of cohesion, coherence and keeping their writing focused.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 below shows the means of vocabulary size test and the standard deviations for all 32 pairs of upper-intermediate students chosen based on their similar scores on the Vocabulary Size Test (32 students from the scaffolded writing classes and 32 from the non-scaffolded writing classes).

The students' vocabulary scores were further classified into three levels: the vocabulary size above 5000 words, of 3500-5000 words and below 3500 words. The number of the correct test items ($n=140$ vocabulary items) multiplied by 100 equals the vocabulary size.

TABLE 1:
UPPER INTERMEDIATE LEARNERS' PASSIVE VOCABULARY SIZE MEASURED BY THE VOCABULARY SIZE TEST

Vocabulary size	No. of Students	Mean	SD
above 5100	12	5642 Min=5100;max=6800	529.44
3600-5000	32	4156 Min=3600;max=4900	409.51
below 3500	20	3185 Min=2900;max=3500	203.33
	N=64		

The vocabulary size for 32 out of 64 was at the range of 3500-5000 words with the mean of 4156 and SD of 409.51. As to the 20 low-proficiency students' vocabulary scores, nothing was found to be below 2000 words. Nation (1990) asserts that the 2000-word level includes the very high-frequency words that is necessary for students when reading texts. In this regard, these students had gained the beginning for the minimum vocabulary requirement.

B. Analyzing the Research Question

Research Question: Does scaffolded writing have a positive impact on activating passive vocabularies in Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners?

To activate students' passive vocabulary in experimental group, scaffolded writing served as an explanatory variable. The researcher chose 4 topics (Food, marriage, education, and transportation) and asked the students to write on those topics during 20 sessions. As it was mentioned, in experimental group, the researcher used scaffolded writing activities, whereas the students in control group were not provided by any scaffolded activities.

At the end of each 5 sessions that one topic was covered, in both groups, each student was asked to write one writing about that topic individually. the researcher followed this procedure for 4 topics. The level of used vocabularies in students' paragraph writings was analyzed by RANGE program. Two kinds of LFP were modified into a more condensed version, consisting of the percentage of the basic 2000 words and the percentage of vocabulary use beyond 2000 due to the limited vocabulary of EFL students named LFP ratio. Then the researcher compared the level of vocabularies (LFP ratio) in two groups to determine activating passive vocabularies. Using more advanced vocabularies (beyond 2000) in students' paragraph writing indicated more active vocabularies.

The following is one example for one paragraph writing on the topic entitled "*The disadvantages of fast food*" from a student in the non-Scaffolded writing class, whose vocabulary size was 4100 words. His LFP ratio ($92.6\% - 7.4\%$) = (% below 2000—% above 2000 in word families) indicates a low percentage of higher-level vocabulary use.

Nowadays there is a growing demand for fast food due to several reasons. What may cross every individual's mind is what pros of fast food are.

One of the most important aspects of having fast food is its quickness in preparation. Sometimes it's of more importance for the consumers to just have a quick meal and fast food is the best option for this need, another upside of fast food which can be noted is its popular taste among young people.

Despite its pros there are some to it. First and foremost it has got a lot of amount of high fat, which will be converted to fat after its entrance and will not do a lot of goods to body.

Furthermore, it does not contain any essential vitamins for body.

To sum up, despite its quickness for preparation, fast food could not be considered a healthy for intake body and it's better to have other foods as the main meals.

TABLE 2:
THE VOCABULARY LEVELS OF THE COMPOSITION ENTITLED 'THE DISADVANTAGES OF FAST FOOD' IN NON-SCAFFOLDED WRITING CLASS

BNC	Tokens/ %	Types/ %	# of word families	Headword	LFP ratio
1st—2nd 1000	157/95.71	88/92.63	75		92.6%—7.4% (% below 2000—% above 2000 in word families)
3rd 1000	1/ 0.61	1/ 1.05	1	CONVERTED	
4th 1000	3/ 1.84	3/ 3.16	3	FOREMOST, IMPORTANCE, VITAMINS	
5th 1000	1/ 0.61	1/ 1.05	1	FURTHERMORE	
6th 1000	1/ 0.61	1/ 1.05	1	INTAKE	
Total	163/ 100%	94/100%	81		

Table 2 above shows the vocabulary levels of the related paragraph with the scale of the BNC 14,000 high-frequency word lists. Participants' 163-word composition included using 81 word families. One of them was near the 6th 1000 word frequency level, another in the 5th 1000 level, three in the 4th 1000 (foremost, importance and vitamins), and one in the 3th (converted). The high 2000 words with the BNC scale were considered frequent vocabulary while the words above 2000 were seen as less frequent vocabulary. The student's lexical frequency profile (LFP) in a modified version was 92.6%—7.4%. That is, 92.6% of the entire word families in their paragraph writing belonged to the basic 2000 word families. (92.6% equaled to 75 word families in the first and second 1000 frequent words divided by the total 82 word families.), versus 7.4 % for the use of vocabulary beyond the 2000 frequent words. Comparing their receptive/passive vocabulary size, i.e. 4100 words, the LFP ratios clearly show that participant's productive proficiency had not come to a standstill regarding advanced/less frequent vocabulary use.

Contrary to this, here is an example from a student who took part in the scaffolded writing with a vocabulary of 4100 words on the Vocabulary Size Test (Same topic: The disadvantages of fast food).

In our time life has become very busy that sometimes we even don't have enough time to concentrate what we are eating. many people eat in fast food restaurants the food is delicious bad it has bad effects on our body because the oil in the restaurants maybe be fried for several times and make cancer. Another disadvantage is using sausage and some other meats that last long and these kinds of meats can cause disease for stomach. Another thing is vegetables sometimes fast foods don't wash them very well and can make us ill. Fast food can addict you to eat these kinds of things like pizza hamburger and... And it can waste our money too. In some cases the meat is raw because of many customers and its really dangerous .Going to fast food regularly can cause heart problem because of greasy food. The quality of materials that restaurants use is usually not good and they are cheap. Like donkey meat. The common drink in fast foods is coca that is very bad for teeth and it has a lot of sugar instead of it it's better to use mineral water. Fast food can make allergic worse. At all it's better to use healthy and home food but if rarely use fast food it is not too bad!

TABLE 3:
THE VOCABULARY LEVELS OF THE COMPOSITION ENTITLED "THE DISADVANTAGES OF FAST FOOD" AFTER PARTICIPATING IN SCAFFOLDED WRITING CLASS

BNC	Tokens/ %	Types/ %	# of word families	Headword	LFP ratio
1st—2nd 1000	207/92.41	106/87.61	89		85.6% — 14.4% (% below 2000 — % above 2000 in word families)
3rd 1000	9/ 4.02	7/ 5.79	7	ADDICT, CANCER, FRIED, RAW, RESTAURANTS, SAUSAGE, STOMACH	
4th 1000	2/ 0.89	2/ 1.65	2	ALLERGIC, MINERAL	
5th 1000	4/ 1.79	4/ 3.31	4	COCA, DONKEY, GREASY, HAMBURGER	
6th 1000	2/ 0.89	2/ 1.65	2	DELICIOUS, PIZZA	
Total	224	121	104		

After participating in scaffolded writing class, the student with a 4100-word vocabulary indeed performed better in using more sophisticated vocabulary (see Table 3, altogether fifteen words being sporadically between the 3rd—6th word levels; the percentage of advanced vocabulary use=14.4%), compared with the student of equal proficiency from the other class without scaffolded writing (altogether six words being sporadically between the 3rd—6th word levels; the usage rate of advanced vocabulary=7.4 %).

The mean of LFP ratio is analyzed according to table 4 (appendix A) and table 5 (appendix B) for all of students in two groups. In the analysis, an independent *t*-test was used to compare the values of the means for two samples and check to see if it was likely that the samples were from populations with different mean values. The samples are independent of each other in that they are separate samples with different sets of individual subjects. Table 6 shows the group statistics and independent t-test for the LFP.

TABLE6.
GROUP STATISTICS

Scaffolded writing	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
LFP NSW	32	9.1859	2.38932	.42238
SW	32	14.5875	2.21589	.39172

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
LFP	Equal variances assumed	.467	.497	-9.377	62	.000	-5.40156	.57606	-6.55309	-4.25004
	Equal variances not assumed			-9.377	61.651	.000	-5.40156	.57606	-6.55322	-4.24991

Table 8 below shows the LFP ratios for the two classes with and without the treatment of scaffolded writing on the given topics. The results showed a clear difference in the percentage of more frequent and less frequent vocabulary use for the two classes (mean LFP ratio for class without scaffolded writing =90.8% – 9.2% versus mean LFP ratio for class with scaffolded writing =85.4% – 14.6%). The inferiority of the non- scaffolded writing class to the scaffolded writing class in producing more advanced words was statistically obvious (mean=9.2% for class without scaffolded writing versus mean=14.6% for the scaffolded writing class; $t=9.373$, $\text{sig.}=0.000<0.01$). This verified that scaffolded writing can activate passive vocabularies in Iranian EFL learners.

TABLE 8.
TWO CLASSES' MEAN LFP RATIOS FOR THE FOUR COMPOSITIONS AS A WHOLE

	Class without scaffolded writing (n=32)	Class with scaffolded writing (n=32)
Mean LFP ratios (% of the word families used below the 2000-word level—% above 2000)	mean=90.8%—9.2% SD=2.4% 97.6%—2.4% min. 81.1%—18.9% max.	mean=85.4%—14.6% SD=2.2% 94.8%—5.2% min. 76.9%—23.1% max.
Independent-samples t test	$t(df\ 62)=9.377$, $\text{Sig. (2-tailed)}=0.000<0.01$	

C. Discussions

In reply to research question, does scaffolded writing have a positive impact on activating passive vocabularies of Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners? A direct deduction of 9.2% from 14.6% was carried out. The result showed an increased productivity of recognition vocabulary, tantamount to an increase of 5.4% in turning higher-level vocabulary in the source of passive vocabulary and turning it into active vocabulary. One may expand his/her normal range of active vocabulary by voluntary attempts to use higher-level vocabulary and through multiple scaffolded methods to English. These efforts to use higher-level vocabulary showed higher usage of vocabulary in writing. Also, as a result of richer advanced vocabulary, it may contribute to overall improvement in writing ability.

In data analysis considering the variables studied in this research, the following results have been gained. A substantial difference was observed between the arithmetic means of the groups' LFP ratio proving the strength of the experimental group. With 95 % degree of confidence ($p<0.05$) there is important difference between the two groups. It has been observed that the *p*-value in two independent t-test was higher than 0, 05. Consequently, the hypothesis of the research, that activating passive vocabularies of Iranian upper intermediate EFL learners through scaffolded writing is a very effective technique, has been supported with the results.

Scaffolding instruction as a teaching strategy can remove some teaching problems (Vygotsky, 1976). According to similar international studies the previous findings showed scaffolded activities can have effect on writing (Larkin, 2002),

phonemic awareness (Elkonin, 1971), self regulation (McCarthy, 1992) and PBL (Problem Based Learning). However, in this thesis the impact on activating passive vocabularies had been confirmed.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

In this study the researcher tried to find answer to the following research question: Does scaffolded writing have a positive impact on activating passive vocabularies of Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners?

The positive outcome showed an enhanced productivity of recognition vocabulary in changing state of higher-level vocabulary in the source of passive vocabulary into active vocabulary. Learners may enlarge their common load of active vocabulary by trying to use higher-level vocabulary through multiple scaffolded methods in learning English language. The increased attempts on the part of participants in using higher-level vocabulary could be a signal for higher awareness of vocabulary use in writing contributing to general improvement in writing quality as an effect of richer advanced vocabulary. A meaningful difference was found between the arithmetic means in LFP ratio of the experimental group, confirming that there existed substantial difference between the two groups.

As stated by Vygotsky (1976), scaffolding instruction as a teaching strategy can remove some teaching problems, which in this case the writing was under consideration. Findings of practitioners of TEFL also support the researcher's claim that scaffolded activities can have positive effect on improving students writing (Larkin, 2002; Hyland, 2003).

Another researcher's purpose for conducting this research was to motivate herself to use other techniques of teaching vocabularies to students for further researches. On the one hand, being aware of many hours spent on using different techniques in the process of vocabulary teaching and adding or modifying existing techniques may demotivate the researchers from further work in this area. On the other hand, the surprising results of the research within the experimental group, as well as many positive remarks given by them (participants), do encourage the researcher to further develop and modify the application.

APPENDIX A

TABLE 4.
LFP RATIO IN NON- SCAFFOLDED WRITING CLASS

Non Scaffolded writing class											
No	V.S.T score	LFP Ratio Topic 1		LFP Ratio Topic 2		LFP Ratio Topic 3		LFP Ratio Topic 4		Mean of LFP Ratio	
		below 2000	above 2000	below 2000	above 2000	below 2000	above 2000	below 2000	above 2000	below 2000	above 2000
1	2900	92.7	7.3	97.6	2.4	90.5	9.5	94	6	93.7	6.3
2	3500	88.3	11.7	92.2	7.8	94	6	93.9	6.1	92.1	7.9
3	3000	97	3	92.3	7.7	90.3	9.7	93.6	6.4	93.3	6.7
4	3300	90.4	9.6	92.3	7.7	89.6	10.4	90.9	9.1	90.8	9.2
5	3000	94	6	92.6	7.4	91	9	91.5	8.5	92.3	7.725
6	3300	92.4	7.6	92.7	7.3	92.6	7.4	91.2	8.8	92.2	7.775
7	3000	94	6	90.5	9.5	97	3	93.5	6.5	93.8	6.25
8	3200	89.6	10.4	94.9	5.1	93.4	6.6	95.9	4.1	93.5	6.55
9	3100	89.8	10.2	95.8	4.2	94.3	5.7	91.5	8.5	92.9	7.15
10	3400	95.2	4.8	92	8	92.7	7.3	92.2	7.8	93.0	6.975
11	4100	92.6	7.4	91	9	94	6	89.2	10.8	91.7	8.3
12	4200	92.6	7.4	93.6	6.4	90.2	9.8	88.6	11.4	91.3	8.75
13	3900	92.2	7.8	92.4	7.6	92	8	88.8	11.2	91.4	8.65
14	3700	93.6	6.4	91.3	8.7	91.6	8.4	93.3	6.7	92.5	7.55
15	3800	88.4	11.6	89.3	10.7	91.9	8.1	93.2	6.8	90.7	9.3
16	4600	88.8	11.2	86.8	13.2	91.7	8.3	89.5	10.5	89.2	10.8
17	3800	90.4	9.6	93.9	6.1	90.3	9.7	92.4	7.6	91.8	8.25
18	4600	93.8	6.2	87	13	88.4	11.6	90.7	9.3	90.0	10.03
19	3600	88.8	11.2	95.7	4.3	95.7	4.3	92.9	7.1	93.3	6.725
20	3700	93.6	6.4	94.8	5.2	92.2	7.8	92.5	7.5	93.3	6.725
21	4900	90.2	9.8	86.5	13.5	88.8	11.2	89.9	10.1	88.9	11.15
22	4500	90	10	92.2	7.8	88	12	93.3	6.7	90.9	9.125
23	4300	93.4	6.6	93.7	6.3	92.4	7.6	94.1	5.9	93.4	6.6
24	4000	91	9	91.9	8.1	89.5	10.5	88.7	11.3	90.3	9.725
25	4800	86.4	13.6	86.6	13.4	87.5	12.5	91.3	8.7	88.0	12.05
26	4000	92	8	88.6	11.4	88.3	11.7	88.9	11.1	89.5	10.55
27	6800	85.4	14.6	84.5	15.5	88.4	11.6	84.7	15.3	85.8	14.25
28	5100	89.8	10.2	81.3	18.7	86.1	13.9	86.9	13.1	86.0	13.98
29	5100	87.8	12.2	91.5	8.5	89.7	10.3	87.6	12.4	89.2	10.85
30	5600	91.8	8.2	86.5	13.5	87.3	12.7	84.8	15.2	87.6	12.4
31	5500	90	10	86.5	13.5	91.2	8.8	85.5	14.5	88.3	11.7
32	5900	81.1	18.9	88.5	11.5	90.1	9.9	88.4	11.6	87.0	12.98
Ave		90.8	9.2	90.8	9.2	91.0	9.0	90.7	9.3	90.8	9.2
SD		3.1	3.1	3.7	3.7	2.5	2.5	2.9	2.9	2.3	2.3
Min		81.1	3.0	81.3	2.4	86.1	3.0	84.7	4.1	81.1	2.4
Max		97.0	18.9	97.6	18.7	97.0	13.9	95.9	15.3	97.6	18.9

APPENDIX B

TABLE 5.
LFP RATIO IN SCAFFOLDED WRITING CLASS

Scaffolded writing class											
No	V.S.T score	LFP Ratio Topic 1		LFP Ratio Topic 2		LFP Ratio Topic 3		LFP Ratio Topic 4		Mean of LFP Ratio	
		below 2000	above 2000	below 2000	above 2000	below 2000	above 2000	below 2000	above 2000	below 2000	above 2000
1	3300	88.2	11.8	82.4	17.6	86.1	13.9	85.1	14.9	85.5	14.6
2	3500	83.3	16.7	89	11	90	10	85.5	14.5	87.0	13.1
3	3000	90.2	9.8	81.5	18.5	89.9	10.1	92.2	7.8	88.5	11.6
4	3200	92.1	7.9	91.7	8.3	86	14	91.5	8.5	90.3	9.7
5	3000	93.4	6.6	83.4	16.6	89.5	10.5	86.4	13.6	88.2	11.8
6	3300	83.2	16.8	93.6	6.4	86.1	13.9	86.1	13.9	87.3	12.8
7	3400	88.4	11.6	82.7	17.3	85.1	14.9	89.4	10.6	86.4	13.6
8	3100	81.3	18.7	87.7	12.3	83	17	92.3	7.7	86.1	13.9
9	3000	82.7	17.3	81.2	18.8	87.5	12.5	91.6	8.4	85.8	14.3
10	3000	85.6	14.4	83.9	16.1	94.8	5.2	94.4	5.6	89.7	10.3
11	3700	89.5	10.5	86	14	90.9	9.1	86.6	13.4	88.3	11.8
12	4900	88.3	11.7	82.5	17.5	79.7	20.3	78	22	82.1	17.9
13	4600	82.6	17.4	84.1	15.9	79.8	20.2	90.2	9.8	84.2	15.8
14	4000	81.4	18.6	82.1	17.9	90.5	9.5	91.1	8.9	86.3	13.7
15	4600	85.9	14.1	85.9	14.1	84.8	15.2	87.5	12.5	86.0	14.0
16	4300	83.5	16.5	82.4	17.6	84.6	15.4	86.6	13.4	84.3	15.7
17	3800	86.6	13.4	83.6	16.4	88.8	11.2	81.7	18.3	85.2	14.8
18	4100	85.6	14.4	79.2	20.8	83.4	16.6	87.9	12.1	84.0	16.0
19	3800	80.3	19.7	82.5	17.5	91.9	8.1	88.2	11.8	85.7	14.3
20	3900	87.9	12.1	89.1	10.9	86.1	13.9	79.7	20.3	85.7	14.3
21	4800	80.3	19.7	80.9	19.1	83.8	16.2	85.6	14.4	82.7	17.4
22	3600	82.4	17.6	82.9	17.1	89.1	10.9	82.2	17.8	84.2	15.9
23	4000	81.2	18.8	88.9	11.1	80.4	19.6	90	10	85.1	14.9
24	4200	88.9	11.1	87.9	12.1	79.4	20.6	86.2	13.8	85.6	14.4
25	4500	81.5	18.5	89.2	10.8	80	20	84.5	15.5	83.8	16.2
26	3700	83.8	16.2	81.2	18.8	88.4	11.6	83.4	16.6	84.2	15.8
27	5200	77.7	22.3	83	17	85.2	14.8	89.4	10.6	83.8	16.2
28	5500	86.7	13.3	77.6	22.4	83.6	16.4	89.7	10.3	84.4	15.6
29	5600	77.7	22.3	80.3	19.7	86	14	84.1	15.9	82.0	18.0
30	5100	83.6	16.4	90.7	9.3	86.7	13.3	90.7	9.3	87.9	12.1
31	6300	87.7	12.3	79.8	20.2	76.9	23.1	85.7	14.3	82.5	17.5
32	6000	81.9	18.1	83.3	16.7	81.7	18.3	78.1	21.9	81.3	18.8
Ave		84.8	15.2	84.4	15.6	85.6	14.4	86.9	13.1	85.4	14.6
SD		3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	4.2	4.2	4.1	4.1	2.2	2.2
Min		77.7	6.6	77.6	6.4	76.9	5.2	78.0	5.6	76.9	5.2
Max		93.4	22.3	93.6	22.4	94.8	23.1	94.4	22.0	94.8	23.1

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Selection and Presentation of Phrasal Verbs in ESL Textbooks

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Abstract—The emergence of the lexical syllabus and the recognition of the key function of phrasal verbs in language acquisition and fluency gave way to the inclusion of these notoriously challenging structures in the ESL/EFL curriculum. Of main pedagogic concern, therefore, is, with the sheer number of phrasal verbs in the English language and the limited volume of course books, whether the selection and presentation of these forms is informed by research findings. Findings from the current corpus-based study revealed that that selection of these forms in the Malaysian ESL textbooks were more intuitively than empirically-based.

Index Terms—adverb particles, corpus linguistics, content analysis, ESL materials, phrasal verbs, textbook analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

During the past few decades, with many researchers and educators shifting attention from syntax to vocabulary in second language education (Folse, 2004; Laufer, 1997), there has appeared a growing interest in multiword vocabulary items, including phrasal verbs. The English phrasal verb combinations are one of the most notoriously challenging aspects of English language instruction (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999; Gardner & Davies, 2007; Siyanova & Schmitt, 2007) or in Mullany and Stockwell's (2010, p. 201) words "the scourge of the learner" as they present a host of inherent difficulties. Despite their rather complicated structure and unpredictable meaning of some combination types, phrasal verbs are of high relevance for ESL/EFL learners because a grasp of them "can be a great asset to learners in acquiring a new language" (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999).

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The phrasal verb combinations have been extensively dealt with in non-corpus-based studies (Dagut & Laufer, 1985; Hulstijn & Marchena, 1989; Laufer & Eliasson, 1993; Laufer and Hulstijn, 1996; Laufer & elMorales 2000; Sjöholm 1195; Liao and Fukuya 2002; Schmitt 2007). Likewise, corpus linguistics has witnessed an encouraging body of research on phrasal verbs in general and learner corpora (Gardner and Davies, 2007; Trebits, 2009; Akbari, 2009; Von, 2007; Schneider, 2004). There is, however, a dearth of studies dealing with the use of these mysterious structures in the instructional materials (Gardner and Davies, 2007; Koprowski 2004; Zarifi & Mukundan, 2012). This small body of research, unfortunately though, provides some significant evidence supporting a remarkable divide between research findings and the inclusion of phrasal verbs in ESL materials.

Darwin and Gray (1999), for instance, developed a list of the 20 most frequently occurring phrasal verbs in the BNC. Comparing the list with the phrasal verbs in a typical ESL grammar book, they found that only three of all the phrases in the textbooks matched the 20 phrasal verbs on the list. Likewise, Koprowski (2005) studied the use of phrasal verbs and other multiword expressions in three contemporary ELT course books. Although they were all developed as British general English materials for learners at the intermediate level, not even a single phrasal verb was found to be shared by the three books. Lamenting the lack of consistency among the textbooks, she observed that ELT materials developers do not follow any principled criteria in the process of vocabulary selection. They rather arbitrarily decide upon the selection and inclusion of these items based on their own personal experience and intuition. In another recent study on the Malaysian ESL textbooks, Zarifi and Mukundan (2012) investigated the use of phrasal verb combinations in the spoken sections of the materials. Findings of the study revealed that both the selection and presentation of these combinations were inconsistent with their actual use in the BNC. They reported that textbooks contained combinations of extremely low frequency counts in general English and vice versa.

In line with the research evidence from the literature, selection and presentation of phrasal verb combinations turns out to be a major pedagogical concern. With the phrasal verbs overwhelmingly present in the language and different collections available to choose from, curriculum designers and materials developers alike often feel frustrated with which phrasal verbs and how many of them to include. This sense of frustration is complicated by the limited volume of course books and the fact that not all of these phrases are of equal use to EFL/ESL learners. That being said, it is worth

considering whether ELT developers are really taking into account the research findings and pedagogical principles in selecting and presenting the most useful phrasal verb combinations. The current study, therefore, aimed to identify all the instances of phrasal verb combinations and their constituents, determine their frequency of occurrence and investigate their distribution in the Malaysian ESL textbooks.

III. METHODOLOGY

This is a corpus-based content analysis of the textbook materials Forms One through Form Five prescribed for use by the learners at the secondary level in Malaysia. This pedagogic corpus consists of. The BNC was also used as the reference corpus. The study involves a comprehensive data sampling (Ary, Jacob, Razavieh, & Sorensen, 2006) since all the instances of phrasal verb combinations in the corpus were included in the analysis. As to the instrumentation of the study, the WordSmith tools version 4.0 was used to hunt down the potential phrasal verbs in the corpus. In a similar way, the Zar-Test was employed to identify the different types of phrasal verbs. This test is based on the basic notion that while a preposition makes a whole unit with its following NP, and the real particle forms an integrate unit with its preceding lexical verb, the adverb particle is almost independent of the constituents it keeps company with.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The concordance function of WordSmith Tools 4.0 yielded a total number of 16826 particle forms. Looking into the concordance lines, the researchers opted out a large number of cases from the data since they were not preceded by any lexical verb, hence absolutely no potential candidates for phrasal verbs. Only 9060 out of the 16826 particle forms were following a lexical verb, and were, therefore, opted for further investigation. Since these particle forms could feature either a Preposition, an Adverb or a Real particle, the researchers went on to distinguish them from one another against the Zar-Test (Zarifi, 2013). Identification of phrasal verb combinations in terms of the particle type yielded the following results:

TABLE 1
FREQUENCY OF DIFFERENT PARTICLE FORMS IN THE CORPUS

Word tokens	Verb+particle	Verb+Prep	Verb+Adv	Verb+Real Part
302642	16826	6848	232	1980

As the table shows, an overwhelming number of 6848 (40.70%) particle elements following a lexical verb acted as Prepositions. 1980 (11.77%) of the remaining forms behaved as Real Particles, and a negligible number of 232 cases (1.38%) occurred as Adverbs.

It should be pointed out that due to some pedagogical considerations, only the combinations made up of a lexical verb followed by an Adverb Particle or a Real Particle were viewed as phrasal verbs. Therefore, prepositional components are no further dealt with in the study but in some rare cases for comparison.

TABLE 2
GENERAL DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PVs IN THE CORPUS

PV tokens	PV Lemmas	LV Lemmas in PVs	Particle elemnets in PVs
2212	464	226	23

As table 2 reveals, combination of 226 different lexical verbs with 23 different particle forms made up a total number of 2212 tokens of phrasal verbs. These phrasal verb combinations appeared in 464 different lemmas. In other words, on the average, each lemma appeared roughly in 4.77 tokens of phrasal verbs, and each lexical verb type took part in the formation of 9.79 phrasal verbs.

TABLE 3
TOKENS OF WORDS AND PARTICLE FORMS IN THE CORPUS
(TOKEN FREQUENCIES NORMALIZED TO 10,000 TOKEN CORPUS AND ROUNDED TO THE NEAREST INTEGER)

Form	Tokens	No. of PVs	Normalized to 10000 tokens
One	44672	347	78
Two	48485	345	71
Three	57918	395	68
Four	72936	583	80
Five	78631	542	69

As it is shown in table 3, the most number of phrasal verbs occurred in a descending order in Forms Four, Five, Three, One and Two. However, in order for the figures to be directly comparable, they were normalized (Evison, 2010; McEnery & Hardie, 2012; Schneider, 2004). To this end, the observed frequency counts of phrasal verbs in each Form were projected to a corpus basis of exactly 10,000 words. The normalized figures enabled the researchers to directly compare the frequencies of the combinations.

Based on the above table, Form Five had the second largest and Form One had the second smallest number of combinations. However, normalization of the data indicates that Forms Five and One contained, in fact, the first lowest

and the second largest number of units, respectively. Given the complicated features of the phrasal verbs and the problems they could create for ESL learners, the presentation of the combinations, with other criteria being observed, is unjustified in terms of the developmental stages of the learners at each level. With Form One students being at the lowest level, and Form Five students at the highest level of developmental stage across the school board, we would expect just the opposite.

Table 4 presents the total number of all grammatical tags for each of the 23 particle forms in the corpus. It shows the number of times each of these forms was tagged as a particle, including Real Particles and Adverb Particles, as opposed to a preposition and/or other grammatical categories. Out of a total of 16826 particle forms in the corpus, 2212 occurrences (13.15%) turned out to act as particles forming phrasal verb structures. Most of the cases (14035 or 83.90%) served as prepositions and a small number of them (586 or 3.48%) acted as other functions such as adjectives, nouns and verbs in the corpus. Needless to say that these particle elements behaved quite idiosyncratically in terms of the functions they served. Although such elements as 'UP, OUT, DOWN and AWAY' acted almost always as particle forms, a few other items like 'BY, FOR and WITH' almost always behaved as prepositions.

TABLE 4
FREQUENCY OF PART/PREP FORMS AND THEIR FUNCTIONS IN FORMS 1-5

Part/Prep	Freq	Part	Part%	Prep	Others
About	1108	17	1.53	1073	18
Across	57	8	14.04	38	13
After	339	48	14.16	292	0
Ahead	16	7	43.75	3	8
Along	77	20	25.98	54	11
Apart	5	1	20.00	0	4
Around	121	23	19.01	83	15
Away	194	140	72.16	17	65
Back	132	76	57.58	0	81
By	925	6	.65	905	18
Down	243	180	74.07	29	51
For	2411	2	0.08	2355	27
Forward	34	32	94.12	0	2
In	5407	190	3.51	5204	10
Off	138	94	68.12	12	29
On	1859	113	7.11	1734	40
Out	689	587	85.20	80	71
Over	209	50	23.92	113	56
Part	143	35	24.48	0	108
Round	43	5	11.63	21	17
Through	189	47	24.87	137	4
Up	632	509	80.54	16	111
With	1855	22	1.20	1833	0
Total 23	16826	2122(13.15%)		14035(83.90%)	586(3.48%)

Table 5 presents the frequency occurrence of Particle/Preposition elements and their function in each Form. As it is shown, the proportion of particles as a grammatical category to the total times of occurrences of particle/preposition elements in all the five Forms appeared to be almost similar, ranging from 11.85% to 14.57%. Chi-Square statistics of the normalized data in table 3 also revealed that there was no meaningful difference between the five textbooks in terms of the observed frequency of phrasal verbs at 0.05 level of significance. Despite the similarity between the textbooks with regard to the total number of particle elements, the proportion among the different particle elements within and across the textbooks was not consistent. For instance, elements like 'IN' (5407) and 'ON' (1859) appeared to have a strikingly higher frequency of occurrence in comparison with units such as 'OUT' (689), 'UP' (632) and 'OFF' (137); they, nonetheless, had a very poor percentage of occurrences as particle forms. They occurred as particles only 3.51% and 7.11%, respectively. The particles 'OUT, UP, and OFF', on the other hand, served 85.20%, 80.54% and 68.12% as particles, respectively. One point should be mentioned about the frequency count of FORWARD as a particle. Despite its high frequency in phrasal verb constructions, FORWARD behaved more as an adverb than as a real particle in most of the cases. This happened simply because FORWARD, as a directional particle element, can freely combine with all the verbs of motion like MOVE, GO, DRIVE, RUN, etc.

TABLE 5
FREQUENCY OF PART/PREP FORMS AND THEIR FUNCTION IN EACH FORM

Form	Part/Prep type	Part Freq	Part%	Prep Freq	Freq as others	V+Part/Prep
One	22*	347	14.57	1915	117	2381
Two	22*	345	12.99	2245	65	2655
Three	23	395	13.03	2540	95	3030
Four	23	583	13.92	3452	154	4187
Five	22*	542	11.85	3876	155	4573

*There was no record for 'ahead' in Form one; 'apart' was also absent from Forms Two and Five.

With particles having a number of confusing functions as real particles, adverbs, prepositions, nouns, adjectives, etc. in the language, it comes as a shock why these forms were so highly frequent in Form One and so infrequent in Form Five. More surprisingly, while phrasal verbs have been reported to be grammatically, semantically and orthographically complicated and challenging to ESL learners (Sawyer, 2007), the proportion of these combinations across the five Forms was far from pedagogically justified. Pedagogically speaking, one would expect an increase in the rate of presentation of these fuzzy forms in line with increase in language proficiency level of the learners; however, the frequency counts of these forms in the Malaysian ESL materials was just the reverse. That is, the highest proportion of these forms occurred in Form One and the lowest occurred in Form Five. This state of imbalance of the presentation of particle elements and phrasal verbs across the textbooks highlights the criticism often made of the instructional materials, namely the inclusion and organization of teaching materials in textbooks is largely based on the assumptions and intuitions of the writers (Mukundan, 2004; Moon, 1998; Koprowski, 2005).

The sheer number of prepositions in the corpus was due to the fact that some forms like 'WITH, FOR and BY' tend to serve almost exclusively as prepositions in the English language. Some others like 'ON and IN' show more tendency towards prepositions than towards particles (O'Dowd, 1994). Interestingly enough, the elements that function more as prepositions are overwhelmingly more frequent than those that function more as particles in general English. For instance while 'IN, FOR, and WITH' have frequency counts of 1944328, 883599, and 659332 in the BNC, respectively, the frequency counts for 'OFF, OUT, and UP' are 67880, 197149 and 207521, respectively. Furthermore, those other elements that could function as particles were infrequently preceded by any lexical verb in the corpus. In other words, they failed to act as particles depending upon the context in which they appeared. Moreover, not any sequence of verb + particle form signals a phrasal verb. There were noticeable sequences of this configuration that behaved as prepositional rather than phrasal verb combinations. Still in some other cases, these elements occurred in noun phrase combinations. For instance, 'UP' which mostly functions as a particle both in general English and in the corpus, does not form a phrasal verb in the utterance "Are you taking mother to Dr Chan for a CHECK-UP this morning?" Likewise, there occurred a number of sequences like "I CARRIED the small children OUT of the bus" that feature prepositional verbs rather than phrasal verbs. As a result, the particle forms acted either as prepositions or other forms like nouns, verbs or adjectives most of the time.

The particle forms behaved quite idiosyncratically with regard to the functions they carried in the corpus. Some forms like 'PART and APART' never acted as prepositions; some items like 'WITH and FOR' almost always acted as prepositions; and some others such as 'FORWARD, BACK, and OUT' served rather exclusively as particles. There were still a few other forms like 'UP, DOWN, and AWAY' which acted more noticeably as particles than as prepositions, and there existed some other items like 'BY, IN and ON' which tended to act more preferably as prepositions. The overall totals indicate that these forms appeared about 13.15% of the time in the phrasal verb combinations.

Although the statistics appeared to be satisfactory regarding the occurrence of these particle forms when compared against the BNC, it is, nevertheless, a bit misleading. As it will be shown later in table 9, the high frequency of occurrence of these forms was mainly due to the fact that Malaysian ESL textbooks, like other ELT materials, turned out to contain some phrasal 'teddy bears' for instructional functions such as 'FILL IN, ZOOM IN, SOUND OUT, LOOK UP, CHECK OUT, WRITE DOWN, etc.' which were used in the instructions given to the students at the beginning of the exercises. These phrases were far from pedagogically exploited and are most likely to escape the learners' attention just because the formats of the exercises in themselves indicate what the students are required to do. For instance, seeing a list of words followed by a couple of sentences with blank spaces, the students, with no attention to the instruction containing the combination 'FILL IN', could figure out that the blanks are required to be *filled in* with the words given. Reduction of these forms from the analysis reveals some degree of discrepancy between the pedagogic corpus and the natural use as empirical corpus-based evidence indicates that phrasal verbs as a grammatical category appear once per 150 words in actual use (Gardner & Davies, 2007), that is, about one and half times as much as their frequency rate in our pedagogic corpus. The observed imbalance can, however, be interpreted in terms of the make-up of the BNC since it comprises a number of different genres such as conversation, fiction, academic prose, etc.

Table 6 reveals the ten top frequent particle forms in phrasal verb combinations. As it is shown, 'OUT and UP' were the most highly frequent particles in the corpus with a frequency count of more than 500 cases each. The presentation of these two particles in the corpus seemed to be in keeping with their use in general English as Gardner and Davies (2007), Kennedy (1998) and Armstrong (2004) reported 'UP and OUT' as the most frequent particles in the BNC and Brown corpora. The particles 'IN, DOWN and AWAY' were the other high frequent forms occurring more than 100 times in the corpus. As it was already mentioned, despite the large number of times that 'IN (193)' was used as a particle, this rate was quite negligible compared with the number of times the element occurred in the corpus. It served as a particle for less than 5% while other low occurring particles like 'OFF (94) and BACK (76)' occurred with a noticeably higher ratio of 68.12% and 57.58%, respectively.

TABLE 6
TOP TEN HIGHLY FREQUENT PARTICLES IN THE CORPUS

Part	Freq as Particle					Total Freq	Cum Freq	Cum freq%	Rank
	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F 1-5	F 1-5	F 1-5	F 1-5
Out	101	110	108	160	108	587	587	29.56	1
Up	66	95	93	118	137	509	1096	55.19	2
In	35	13	43	29	70	190	1286	64.75	3
Down	20	33	32	49	46	180	1466	73.82	4
Away	26	24	21	32	37	140	1606	80.87	5
On	16	15	11	42	29	113	1719	86.56	6
Off	22	8	15	26	23	94	1813	91.29	7
Back	13	13	7	26	17	76	1889	95.12	8
Over	8	6	5	13	18	50	1939	97.63	9
Through	0	2	5	28	12	47	1986	100	10

Table 6 also reveals that particle forms followed different patterns of behavior in terms of frequency counts within and across the corpus. For instance, while ‘OUT’ was more frequent than ‘UP’ in Forms One through Four, it was less frequent in Form Five. Likewise, although THROUGH was more frequent than ‘OFF, BACK and OVER’ in Form Four, it failed to occur in Form One at all. In addition, ‘OUT and UP’ were, to a higher degree, more frequent than other items. Phrasal verb tokens involving these two particles accounted for 50.11% of all the combinations in the corpus. To put this observation into a more practical perspective, acquisition of the phrasal verbs containing ‘OUT and UP’ as their particle elements would enable the students to understand and use a larger number of phrasal verb constructions of the textbooks language than if they acquired the remaining 21 particles and their associated verb components which covered only 49.89% of all the occurrences in the corpus.

TABLE 7
TOP TEN PRODUCTIVE PARTICLES

Part form	No. of LVs combined with each Part
Up	88
Out	79
Down	48
Away	41
Off	36
Back	34
On	29
In	24
Over	17
Around	14

Table 7 presents the top ten productive particle forms. Although all of these particles but for AROUND were also reported as the top frequent forms, they fell in different rank orders in terms of productivity. For instance, while ‘OUT’ was more frequent than ‘UP’ as a particle, it was, nevertheless, less productive combining with 79 different lexical verbs. ‘UP’ was, on the other hand, used with a larger number of lexical verbs, combining with 88 various lexical verb items across the five Forms. This observation also held true for particles ‘IN and ON’ and ‘OFF and BACK’. Despite the higher frequency counts of ‘IN and ON’ (see table 4), they, notwithstanding, occurred with fewer lexical verbs than ‘OFF and BACK’.

TABLE 8
MOST PRODUCTIVE LVs IN FORMING PVS

LV	Part	Part type
Go	14	about, ahead, along, around, away, back, down, off, on, out, over, round, through, up
Get	12	about, along, around, back, down, in, off, on, out, over, through, up
Come	11	about, across, along, back, down, forward, in, on, out, over, up
Take	11	along, away, back, down, in, off, on, out, over, part, up
Turn	11	around, away, back, down, in, off, on, out, over, round, up
Look	11	after, ahead, around, back, down, forward, out, over, round, through, up
Put	10	across, away, back, down, forward, in, off, on, out, up
Move	9	about, along, around, away, back, forward, in, on, over
Bring	7	about, along, back, down, in, out, up
Send	7	away, back, down, in, off, out, up

Table 8 presents the most productive lexical verbs in forming phrasal verb sequences in the corpus. ‘GO’ turned out to rank first, combining with 14 different particles like ‘ABOUT, AHEAD, ALONG, AROUND, AWAY, BACK, DOWN, OFF, ON, OUT, OVER, ROUND, THROUGH, and UP’. Next in rank was ‘get’ combining with 12 particles. Other highly productive lexical verbs included ‘COME, TAKE, TURN, LOOK, PUT, MOVE, BRING, and SEND’. It is important to point out that almost all the potential verb-particle structures of a few of these lexical items were covered in the corpus. For instance, ‘GET, LOOK and TURN’ appeared in the corpus with nearly all their potential particles in general English, hence a good quantitative, though not equally qualitative, presentation of these units. In other words,

although they occurred with the most possible particle forms, not all the different word meanings of each of these forms were presented and adequately recycled. On the other hand, the potential structures with a few other lexical verbs turned out to be restrictively represented. For instance, while ‘GO’ was used with 14 different particles in the corpus, it occurs with 18 different particles in the real language use. Likewise, ‘COME’ was used with only 11 out of the 17 particles it could potentially combine with.

TABLE 9
TOP 20 PV LEMMAS IN THE CORPUS AND THEIR BNC RANK ORDER

PV	Freq	Corpus rank	BNC rank
Find out	138	1	9
Fill in	122	2	*
Carry out	66	3	2
Write out	58	4	*
Look up	49	5	26
Look after	44	6	*
Pick out	43	7	75
Write down	35	8.5	*
Take part	35	8.5	*
Pick up	32	10	4
Cut down	31	11	*
Go out	30	12	7
Put up	29	13.5	33
Wake up	29	13.5	*
Go through	28	15.5	73
Throw away	28	15.5	*
Give up	27	17	24
Set up	26	18	3
Check out	25	19	*
Take up	24	20	19
	899		

To look at the data from another angle, the ten top lexical verbs which comprised only 4.46% of all the lexical verbs in phrasal verb constructions in the corpus accounted for about 31.90% of all the phrasal verb tokens. In other words, roughly about 1 out of 3 phrasal verb lemmas in the corpus incorporated one of these 10 forms as their lexical verb component, suggesting the noticeable productivity of these verbs and their remarkable tendency towards combining with particle forms. The use of these lexical verbs and their associated phrasal verbs were not appropriately spaced and graded across the five Forms, however. For instance, there occurred no phrasal verb with the lexical verb ‘GET’ in Form 2, and there happened only one phrasal verb with ‘TURN’ in the same Form. Therefore, the presentation and sequencing of these combinations appeared to be more intuitively than pedagogically motivated (Mukundan, 2004; Sinclair, 1991).

Table 9 presents the top 20 phrasal verb lemmas in the corpus along with their frequency rank orders in the BNC. These combinations altogether made up 4.33% of all the phrasal verb lemmas but 41.09% of the phrasal verb tokens in the corpus. Presentation of these units in terms of recycling was, however, far from satisfactory, with some being overwhelmingly over-repeated at the expense of some others. For example, the units ‘FIND OUT’ and ‘FILL IN’ alone accounted for 21.40% of all the instances of these high frequent forms. In addition, the frequency counts of the shared items between the two corpora are not consistent. For instance, ‘LOOK UP’ and ‘GO THROUGH’ that ranked 5th and 15.5th in our corpus in the same order, rank 26th and 73rd, respectively, in the BNC corpus (Gardner & Davies, 2007). Furthermore, there is a huge extent of discrepancy between the presentation of these forms in the corpus and the BNC. As it is shown, 9 out of these top 20 combinations were not even among the top 100 phrasal verbs in the BNC, providing empirical evidence in favor of the often-made observation that inclusion of lexical items in textbooks are not informed by research findings (Koprowski, 2005). The inclusion or exclusion of these items was, it is contended, rather unwittingly intuitively motivated. Implied here is that the learners were denied sufficient opportunity to come across almost half of the forms that are highly frequent in natural use of the language.

TABLE 10
LEMMA FREQUENCY OF PVs IN FORMS 1-5

PV Lemma	Frequency	Item No.
Find out	138	1
Fill in	122	1
Carry out	67	1
Write out	58	1
Look up	49	1
Look after	44	1
Pick out	43	1
Take part, write down	35	2
Pick up	32	1
Cut down	31	1
Go out	30	1
Put up, wake up	29	2
Go through, throw away	28	2
Give up	27	1
Set up	26	1
Check out	25	1
Take up	24	1
Log on, deal with	23	2
Clean up, zoom in	20	2
Go back, take over	19	2
Act out	18	1
Go on, speak up, warm up	17	3
Come up, make up	15	2
Leave out, write away	14	2
Look forward, sound out	13	2
Come on, run away, switch off, wrap up	12	4
Fill up, get up, sit down	11	3
Break down, end up, take off	10	3
Go away, grow up, hand in, keep up, put on, reach out	9	6
Bring about, cut off, read through, sign up, take down, ...	8	7
Come across, come back, get along, help out, read out, ...	7	11
Bring up, check on, go ahead, open up, set out, stand up, ...	6	10
Break out, call up, hurry up, start off, sum up, take on, ...	5	14
Build up, burn off, call off, cheer up, come forward, ...	4	28
Blow up, eat up, put off, try out, watch out, wonder off, ...	3	39
Clear up, fall down, set off, speak out, turn out, work out, ...	2	76
Back off, call on, dress up, mark down, shy away, top up, ...	1	227

Table 10 lists down the identified lemmas of phrasal verbs and their frequency of occurrence in the corpus (see Appendix). As the table shows, the whole textbooks corpus contained 464 cases of lemmas out of which 227 (48.92%) items were hapaxes, occurring only once in the corpus. Out of the 464 lemmas, 394 instances (84.91%) had a frequency count of less than seven. If we subtract the highly frequent cliché forms (23 forms) like ‘FILL IN, FIND OUT, LOOK UP, SOUND OUT, ZOOM IN, etc.’ used in the instructions on the exercises, there would remain only about 46 cases (10.12%) with a frequency count of seven or more occurrences. It is pedagogically disappointing that the learners were denied the chance of revisiting the combinations sufficiently across the corpus to consolidate their learning.

In need of special attention would, perhaps, be the frequent combinations in the ESL corpus that are infrequent in general English and the other way round. For example, ‘CLEAN UP, THROW AWAY, CUT DOWN, WAKE UP, and LOOK AFTER’ which were among the most frequent forms in this pedagogic corpus are not included in the 100 top phrasal verbs in general English. Moreover, much to the surprise of the researchers, some of the phrasal verb combinations that are listed down among the top 100 lemmas in general English such as BREAK OFF, COME OFF, SET DOWN, HOLD UP, HOLD OUT, SIT BACK; SET ABOUT and COME THROUGH were missing from the corpus, but some highly infrequent forms like ‘WHAM BACK, RUSTLE OUT, SPROUT OUT, FLICK AWAY, PELT DOWN, LAZE AROUND, etc. did appear. The BNC query cropped out frequency shots of 0, 1, 4, 9, 15, and 20 for each of these combinations, respectively. More surprising was that most of these highly infrequent combinations like ‘WHAM BACK, LAZE AROUND and POKE ABOUT’ were introduced in the Form One textbook.

Given the inevitability of an enormous knowledge of vocabulary for the ESL learners’ success in both their academic career and international communication, the researchers hold back to stand against the inclusion of the wide range of phrasal verbs in the corpus; however, what the researchers are trying to make an almost firm stand against is why relatively infrequent phrasal verbs should be presented to the exclusion of frequent forms at least in the lower level Forms. This position is in full agreement with Biber and Conrad’s (2001, p. 335) observation “dramatic differences in frequency should be among the most important factors influencing pedagogical decisions”. This is considerably important as psycholinguistics indicates that word frequency affects word familiarity which, in turn, serves as a major factor in word recognition (Alderson, 2007).

Despite the criticism leveled above against the inclusion of the infrequent forms, different interpretations can be raised as to the overrepresentation of a few of these forms in the Malaysian ESL textbooks, however. To begin with, the

high frequency of some combinations can be interpreted in light of the writers' tendency to organize the selection of lexical items including phrasal verbs thematically (Koprowski, 2005). They probably began with a topic and then went on to introspectively include lexical items that appeared to fit in. A case in point is the phrasal verb 'CLEAN UP' which got repeated for five times in lesson 11, Form 1, dealing with the topic of a 'caring society' in its dialogue section. Second, the overuse of some other forms appeared to be culturally motivated. For instance, due to the tropical weather conditions and environmental issues in Malaysia, and the role that jungles play in this connection, 'CUT DOWN' was semantically relevant to the texts on these issues, hence highly overused in the textbooks. Third, the high frequency rate of some forms like 'FILL IN, WRITE OUT, WRITE DOWN, SPEAK UP, WARM UP' and some others could be attributed to the relevance of these forms to the bookish and scholastic register of the language (Cornell, 1985). These are among the common phrases that are likely to crop up in instructions on different types of exercises in textbook materials. Fourth, some others like 'THROW AWAY and GO THROUGH', it can be argued with less certainty, were unwittingly intuitively overused because the textbook developers had probably no access to the empirical findings on the frequency counts of phrasal verbs. As a result, these low frequent combinations were overused at the expense of some other forms which could be pedagogically more valuable to the learners.

Among others, frequency of occurrence and recycling of different language phenomena are important factors affecting language learning. However, as table 8 shows more than 85% of the phrasal verb combinations in the corpus had a frequency count of less than seven. Thornbury (2002) reiterates that words with a minimum occurrence of seven times over spaced intervals stand a good chance of being remembered. Likewise, Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) consider it pedagogically sensible for different aspects of language to be recycled and elaborated on over a period of time. Indeed, for the ESL learners to master phrasal verbs, the most notoriously challenging aspect of the language, they need not only to be exposed to the most frequent forms which are, by the same token, the most useful ones but also to frequently revisit them at spaced intervals in the follow-up activities and lessons.

With that being said, care should be exercised in pedagogical interpretation of the lexical items of seven and more frequency counts. In other words, just because a phrasal verb gets repeated seven or more times (Thornbury, 2002), it cannot be concluded that it is optimally appropriate for learning since chances are that each occurrence presents a single specific meaning of the target combination.

Despite the above mentioned shortcomings of the Malaysian ESL textbooks in dealing with phrasal verbs, one promising characteristic of the use of these combinations, among others, could be the number of shared units among the five Forms. Although Koprowsky (2005) found not even a single lexical phrase including phrasal verbs shared by all the three course books he investigated, and only a negligible number of seven items shared by any of them despite their being targeted for the same level students, the empirical evidence from the present pedagogic corpus painted a very different picture. Data analysis revealed that the textbooks, albeit designed for different levels, shared a noticeably large number of phrasal verbs. For instance, a total number of 16, 23, 50, and 69 combinations were shared by five, four, three and two Forms, respectively. To put it into perspective, these shared combinations appeared to be appropriately recycled across the different levels. This is pedagogically significant for recycling, as a teaching technique, brings about consolidation of learning (Ur, 2006). Likewise, Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983) consider it sensible for different language items to be recycled through revisiting old items, elaborating on them and comparing and contrasting them with new items as they emerge.

V. CONCLUSION

Findings revealed that both the selection and presentation of the phrasal verb combinations in the Malaysian ESL textbooks were not in good keeping with the use of these forms in actual language use. The researchers hold back to reason that such incongruity is a drastic pedagogic deficiency on the part of the textbooks but tend to argue that not only pedagogical factors like difficulty level, learnability, availability, etc. but also profitability issues like usefulness and encounter probability should be given due weight in the selection of these fuzzy forms as well. Ranali (2003) is infact holding the same stance by arguing that corpus-based findings need "to be creeping into ELT slowly over time" (2003, p. 3). Similarly, with the inherent difficulty of the phrasal verb combinations in mind, we would make a firm stand for the appropriate recycling of these forms in the instructional materials. In other words, we tend to concur with McPartland (1983, p. 155) who stated "the frequent occurrence of a phrasal verb in the input seems to accelerate the acquisition process, overriding semantic, syntactic, and phonological complexity".

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A Research for Literariness of Translation—With an Example of English Version *Medicine*

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Abstract—Traditionally, people always focus on the faithfulness and equivalence of translation as well as the extrinsic approach to literature study, which results in the ignorance of translation's literariness. However, this paper values nature and artistic value of translation in intrinsic way to draw people's attention to literariness and it is going to analyze literariness in translation, with an example of English version *Medicine* written by Lu Xun and translated by Yang Hsien-yi and Gladys Yang, by anglicizing the new imagery caused by changes of characters' nomination within the new context via the comparative analysis of words selection, rhetoric and cultural differences between source text and translation.

Index Terms—intrinsic approach, translation, literariness, *Medicine*

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Rationale

Translation activities play a vital role in today's communication among cultures and countries, and they become far more important for the sake of literary spread. Since translation is the final and direct one for foreign people to acknowledge one country's literature, people judge or criticize it. Many learners has put forward relevant theories, such as dynamic equivalence or functional equivalence, discourse and translator, text type as well as pragmatic of translation (Fei, 2003). Obviously, these theories focus on the faithfulness of translation. Meanwhile, a few learners discuss its acceptability and they think "Only translation is accepted by readers can it be successful..." (Zeng & Zhong, 2005, p.142). And in accordance with data from CNKI, there is only one paper specializing in values of translation's literariness among doctoral dissertations and none in core journals from 1994 to 2012¹. It is evident that literature's literariness is being belittled at present as people always evaluate translation from corresponding principles or acceptability in cultural transmission which emphasize the relation between literature and society, politics or history. Liu Xiangyu once pointed out: "...theorists and critics [in China] ...hold an extrinsic approach to literature study...study of literary nature is neglected [if relation between literature and reality or history is over emphasized] resulting in the loss of literature's literariness and art's artistry" (Wellek, 2010, p. 8). Moreover, influenced by traditional literary concept such as writings conveying truth, learners usually view works with tremendous effects as literature, causing the overlook of literature's nature and the real one invisible. Therefore, Guo Shaoyu thinks highly of pure literature and says: "The problems of literary criticism in China are discussing either 'writings conveying truth' or theology..." (Yan, 2010, p.101) In fact, after one literature work being translated, it will become new literature and get diversified aesthetic constitution due to the unavoidable variation in literature, and readers may receive different aesthetic effects like "plain", "graceful" or "delicate", etc. It goes without saying that studying one translation in extrinsic way is of great importance, but the more is less, which means literature nature can be covered and literature will descend into "product" with certain functions. For this reason, this paper focuses on nature and aesthetic internal factors of literature so as to analyze the literariness of translation, which attributes to a better look at it and better appreciation as well as avoid it reducing into a role with pure political, economic, social and educational function. And the underlying communication among cultures may be promoted in this way.

B. Objective and Methodology

This paper stresses on studying literary works in intrinsic way and the internal factors caused aesthetic experiences. Noticeably, literary works in this paper are not the ones that created by writer directly but the translation after translation activities. It is well-known that Lu Xun's novels are in a simple and plain style, involving sobering language as well as gloomy and black humor consisting of deep thoughts and contents. And vivid social presence from the revolution of 1911 to May fourth movement is displayed in his novels while feudalism or feudal ethical code is attacked by shaping character's image. Among them, *Medicine* represents Lu Xun's tragic fiction containing deep meanings through situation setting in a gloomy style (Ji, 2010). Meanwhile, his novels achieve great influence in world literature, for instance, "the English versions *Blessing* and *Medicine* have been selected as the textbook of Chinese literature of East Asian languages and literature at Yale University" (Wang & Wei, 2010, p.105). And many translators are working

¹ The data is from CNKI: <http://202.115.182.57/kns50/> (accessed 10/6/2013).

on his novels like George A. Kennedy, American journalist Edgar Snow, Yang Hsien-yi and Gladys Yang and British scholar Julia Lovell and so on. But in China, those who study English version of Lu Xun's novels mostly choose the ones translated by Yang Hsien-yi and Gladys Yang and Lyle (Ma, 2011). And this paper uses Yang Hsien-yi and Gladys Yang's version, because "[they] insist in the translation thought of introducing Chinese culture faithfully" (qtd. in Dang, 2012, p.72), which make their translation unaffected and maintain lots of original narrative structures, culture and national characteristics. So their translation, with high quality and value, provides good channels for foreigners to know Chinese literature and culture.

However, some learners have analyzed "the gains and losses as well as the advantages and disadvantages of *Medicine*'s English versions from Julia Lovell and Yang Hsien-yi and Gladys Yang" (Hou & Peng, 2011, p.31). At the same time, others have analyzed "the achievements that [they] have gotten on realizing the situation of source text." (Meng, 2003, p. 36) and pointed out shortcomings based on dialect translation. Clearly, they try to evaluate pros and cons of translation in various ways. It is true that criticisms of translation's quality are of great significance and mistranslation must be avoided. But if too much attention has been drawn on whether the narrative structure, expression form and skill of translation equal to source text and one translation can affect world greatly or not, the innate features of literature itself may be less focused. Hence this paper studies *Medicine*'s English version in an objective attitude instead of commenting its good and bad. And this paper values nature and artistic value of translation in intrinsic way to draw people's attention to literariness and it is going to analyze literariness in translation by anglicizing the new imagery caused by changes of characters' nomination within the new context via the comparative analysis of words selection, rhetoric and cultural differences between source text and translation.

II. THE LITERARINESS OF TRANSLATION TEXT

A. Traditional Viewpoints on Translation And Translation Text

According to data, for traditional translation study, "...translation solely means that transforming from one language to the other. So translators' only choice is to make their works faithful... and express it fluently in target text" (Wang, 2009, p.19). As a result, various translation principles come to existence and excellent translation must cater to these principles. For example, George Campbell once stated "three principles for good translation" (Dang, 2012, p. 30). Nevertheless, some learners consider that translation should be studied in comparative literature and say: "Translation in comparative literature is a literary study with no limitation to understanding or expression of linguistic phenomenon and no evaluation of its good or bad..." (Chen, Sun & Xie, 1997, p. 142) And Professor Xie Tianzheng thinks that the study of mediotranslatology "has outstripped traditional words and phrases translation. What it emphasizes is not traditional 'faithfulness', 'expressiveness' and 'elegance' but 'creative treason'" (Cao, 2001, p. 4). Additionally, André Lefevere, the famous comparative literature scholar, studies translation via the angle of comparative literature and believes that "Every translation is the revision of source text" (Wang, 2009, p. 21). So, translation is more than the transformation between two languages but becomes a literature consisting of characteristics of literary study and creativity in comparative literature.

Unfortunately, the definition of translation has not been known and the proper position has not been taken shape currently. To the contrary, translation is considered as "the 'reproduction' of source text...or the similar concept such as 'imitation' or 'copy'" (Xu, 2002, p. 16). Such view stems from Aristotle, who thinks that "art imitates nature...every art in various styles is the production of imitation" (Zhu, 2008, p. 22). In the meantime, quite a few people think translation is subordinate and say: "Source text ranks first while translation second; source text is certified product while translation substandard goods" (Xu, 2002, p. 17). While Professor Xu Jun (2002), deems that "...although source text and translation are cognate... [They] do not imitate directly...which implies that translation has creative values." (p.20) In the West, Walter Benjamin utters in *The Task of the Translator*: "Translation is a sign of work's continuation which is its afterlife" (Teng, 2006, p. 133). This concept coincides with some learners in China. Distinctly, the identity of translation has not reached a common sense, but the emphasis on the values of translation has being the focus amid academia. From data along with relevant research on translation, the author thinks translation is a special literary work experiencing translation activities and readers' acceptance, which has new aesthetic structure, aesthetic factor and literariness. But due to the differences of language cognition, cultural connotation, history and national psychological characteristics, translation comes from source text but differs from it; it becomes the work in foreign language but differs from these works created in foreign language.

B. Translation as Literature

For literary study, there are two perspectives², namely, the extrinsic approach and the intrinsic approach to literature study. In accordance with Wellek (2010), the intrinsic study to literature focuses on the internal factors that cause aesthetic experience and literariness referring to "...essential features of literature, which is a term, put forward by

² According to *Literature Theory* written by Wellek, the extrinsic approach to literature study focuses on research of writers, literature sociology and psychology in literature; while the intrinsic approach to literature study focuses on existing form of literary works, the nature of narrative works, stylistics, rhythm, image, metaphor, symbol, etc, which relate to literature itself.

Roman Jakobson (1891-1982) in 1920s...” (Zhou, 2003, p. 51) Thereby the nature of literature should be stressed including literature works’ language, structure, form and skill. Simultaneously, Professor Cao Shunqing (2001) states that “Literariness is the crucial question of aesthetic which is inherent regularity of the existence of literary and art works” (p.44). Although the important channel of communications among cultures mainly depends on turning source text to translation by languages, “cultural filtering will happen in the procedure of translation” (Cao, 2001, p.103) because of aesthetic, psychology and cultural factors mixed in translation process. And based on his views, “cultural filtering” leads to “variations of literature” which is inevitable. Similarly, if translation is studied in variations studies in comparative literature, the focus is not on the transformation of linguistic phenomenon but on the aesthetic characteristic of translation brought by variation.

Moreover, receiver of literariness is reader. After reading one literature work, reader will receive aesthetic experience from the aesthetic constituents³ of work instead of external elements. From Liu Miqing’s (2005) viewpoints, such factors form internal factors of one work’s disposition. And in *Medicine*, there are lots of methods of rhetoric such as metaphor, symbol, comparison or irony, and whatever it is nomination or environmental description, it contains implication. Furthermore, Hans Robert Jauss and Wolfgang Iser, who stand for the aesthetic reception theory, have talked about “indeterminacy”, which means “the deletion of correspondence between phenomena described in text and objects in real world” (qtd. in Zhou, 2012, p. 83); they have also talked about “blanks” referring to “vacancy of the connection of each semantic unit along with the psychological blanks caused by deny over the sight to which readers used” (Zhou, 2012, p.83). And for translation, “blanks” exists here requiring readers to overfly “blanks” to stir up imagination or thinking and receive aesthetic perception in the end. But some writers prefer to give certain special meanings to characters’ nomination causing implications in characters’ names, which conveys intentions and thoughts of works. Looking at Lu Xun’s novels, one can notice that the art of nomination is unique, which connects intentions with characters’ status, personality and fate by peculiar nomination so as to shape characters’ image and deliver thoughts. Yet owing to variation in literature, after translation activities, the implication in nomination will be filtered ending with incomplete representation which presents new nomination and new imagery. While in new context, new imagery conflicts with context resulting in the production of “blanks” providing one of new aesthetic traits. That’s why the analysis in this paper is from clues of nomination.

C. The Hypothesis of Literariness

When it comes to translation, the first thing strikes people is faithfulness, which is regarded as “the leading theory in linguistic school of translation” (Wang, 2005, p. 79), valuing the quality of one translation. Meanwhile, Professor Zhao Yanchun has stated and emphasized that “converge, meaning that the source text and translation should equal as much as possible, is the second translation principle.”(qtd. in Cong, 2006, p. 77). Obviously, faithfulness becomes the vital standard to value translation.

On the other hand, people always adopt extrinsic approach to study literature, dating back to the theory of imitation and representation from Plato and Aristotle thousands of years ago, which emphasizes the relation between literature and society, history or era, etc (Wellek, 2010). As a result, they discuss literal extrinsic problems ending in less attention to the nature of literature.

It is disputable that translators must follow some translation principles to avoid some errors such as mistranslation; and it is of great significance to study literature in extrinsic way. However, the literariness of translation, the innate property of literature, will be ignored if people always focus on how much translation can realize the source text plus over-focus on extrinsic problems of translation. Therefore, the literariness and artistic value of translation will get attached much more if people pay much attention to cultural translation, stressing on the culture behind text, and intrinsic approach to literature study with more focus on the nature of literature when studying literature,

III. ANALYSIS ON THE LITERARINESS OF THE TRANSLATION OF *MEDICINE*

The excerpts in this paper are based on clues of nomination (Lu, 2009). According to previous statements in this paper, in Lu Xun’s novels, characters’ names are unique, which contain particular symbols involving connections among characters’ social experiences, characteristics and themes. Take the example of *Medicine*, different rhetoric of nomination can be found. The symbol in rhetoric is used, for instance, “‘Zhong Guo’ used to be called ‘hua xia’. And in *Medicine*, “hua” and “xia” are used as two surnames of two families which imply the whole China’s tragedy through their tragic fate.” (Cui, 2009, p.118); while the comparison is also used in source text: “Xia Yu is a revolutionist but Hua Laoshuan is a peasant. The euphony of ‘yu’ in Chinese is ‘jade’ implying the praise of revolutionist; while the euphony of ‘shuan’ is ‘tide’ meaning the unconsciousness...” (Xu, 2003, p. 11) In addition to these rhetorical devices, there are other ones such as comparison. Undoubtedly, translation activities cannot be completely accurate and perfect, just as Professor Cao Shunqing (2006) has said that “the theory of translation is talking about...that translation is not completely accurate which causes creativity of translation and new value of translated literature.” (p.15) In other words,

³ From Liu Miqing’s viewpoints that Constituent consists two types: preventative component, also known as the beauty of language form and formal beauty of substance’s existence in aesthetic, is visual; while non- preventative component, also known as non-quota factors, includes artistic conception, verve, momentum, modality and feature which are the internal factors of one work’s disposition.

after translation activities, source text turns into translation and creates new characters' image, imagery and values because of variation. Here some of the changes of nomination in *Medicine* have been presented just as following: Hua Laoshuan is translated to Old Shuan, Xiao Shuan is translated to Little Shuan and Xia Yu is replaced by Son.

It cannot be denied that there are so many differences of nomination between two languages. Hardly can one find corresponding names between two languages, let alone such equivalent meanings and implications behind names. In the English version of *Medicine*, special implications in names have been filtered resulting in the appearance of characters' new image which leads to new imagery in translation. So in this paper, the changes of Hua Laoshuan's image, the main character whose name is a typical nomination with implication in Chinese, will be anglicized only owing to space constraints.

A. Analysis on Words Selection

Source text: Lao Shuan reached his pocket for silver dollars hurriedly, and quiveringly handed to this man. Nevertheless, he didn't dare to catch his goods.⁴

The version: Hurriedly Old Shuan fumbled for his dollars, and trembling he was about to hand them over, but he dared not take the object.

In the source text, the name "Hua Laoshuan" means restriction of thoughts and callousness, while in translation the name becomes "Old Shuan". From the excerpt, especially these words such as "hurriedly", "fumble", "tremble", "dare", it can be noticed that "Hua Laoshuan" becomes a coward and lowly person with no trace of restriction of thoughts. More specifically, the meaning of "tremble", from Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary (7th ed.), is: to shake in a way that you cannot control, especially because you are very nervous, excited, frightened, etc; to be very worried or frightened. Thus just this word has shaped new image of "Hua Laoshuan".

Source text: He sent his huge hand towards Hua Laoshuan, while the other pinched one fresh red steamed bread as the fresh red drops were dripping to the ground.⁵

The version: This man was thrusting one huge extended hand towards him, while in the other he held a roll of steamed bread, from which crimson drops were dripping to the ground.

The key phrase —"steamed bread with human blood" comes to the scene in the underline sentence for the first time in *Medicine*. In the source text, Lu Xun does not point out that steamed bread is covered human blood, namely, the blood of Xia Yu. And in translation, the phrase of "red drops" is translated to "crimson drops" without any addition. Based on the explanation of "crimson" in Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary (7th ed.), it means: dark red in color, which evokes readers' imaginations and thinking: what are the dark red drops? Why he went to buy steamed bread? What is implication behind such description? Of course, if in the source text, readers can grasp the meaning by implications of nomination in the context, but the new name does not carry any implication. The translation presents no obvious answer. Readers must contemplate by themselves through "blanks" or "indeterminacy" caused by conflicts between character's new image and imagery in the new context. Hence, aesthetic senses merge in readers' mind.

B. Analysis on Rhetoric

Source text: "Hey! The money, the goods!" said a man entirely in black who stood before Hua Laoshuan. His eyes, as sharp as daggers, made Laoshuan shrink to half of normal size.⁶

The version: "Hey! Give me the cash, and I'll give you the goods!" A man clad entirely in black stood before him, his eyes like daggers, making Old Shuan shrink to half his normal size.

In translation, the hyperbole is used in the underline sentence, especially the word "shrink". And according to the explanation from Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary (7th ed.), "shrink" means: to become or to make something smaller in size or amount; to move back or away from something because you are frightened or shocked. Hua Laoshuan's weak and coward image has been built vividly by this word. In reality, translator can choose other words that can demonstrate character's tragic fate clearly but he does not. And in this way, translation shows readers the implication appropriately and leaves them tremendous imaginations.

Source text: One of them turned back to look at him, though he couldn't see his appearance distinctly, his eyes shone with a gleam of plunder which seems like very famished people's catching sight of food.⁷

The version: One of them even turned back at him, and although he could not see him clearly, the man's eyes shone with a lustful light, like a famished person's at the sight of food.

⁴ This excerpt is translated by author. The Chinese one is: "老栓慌忙摸出洋钱，抖抖的想交给他，却又不敢去接他的东西。"

⁵ This excerpt is translated by author. The Chinese one is: "那人一只大手，向他摊着；一只手却撮着一个鲜红的馒头，那红的还是一点一点的往下滴。"

⁶ This excerpt is translated by author. The Chinese one is: "'喂！一手交钱，一手交货！'一个浑身黑色的人，站在老栓面前，眼光正像两把刀，刺得老栓缩小了一半。"

⁷ This excerpt is translated by author. The Chinese one is: "一个还回头看他，样子不甚分明，但很像久饿的人见了食物一般，眼里闪出一种攫取的光。"

Seemingly the simile is used in the underline sentence; actually, it is understatement that exposes these people's greedy and aggressive expression hinting at Chinese people in the beginning of the 20th century in China. But in translation, the translator does not present the implication but remain the original expression of the context which causes "blanks" and readers may wonder: why the author plans such strange situation?

C. Comparative Analysis on Cultural Meanings

Source text: Suddenly, Hua Laoshuan sat up in bed, struck a match and lit the grease-covered oil lamp which made the two rooms in the teahouse filled with bluish-white light.⁸

The version: Old Shuan suddenly sat up in bed. He stuck a match and lit the grease-covered lamp, which shed ghostly light over the two rooms of the teahouse.

In source text, a vivid picture of the Poor's life has been formed, which paves the way to the description of Hua Laoshuan's mood with both hope and anxiety when buying streamed bread through the situation description. But in translation, the "bluish-white light" is translated to "ghostly light" adding mysterious and strange atmosphere which seeds the character's tragedy in the next context via gloomy mood in translation.

Source text: He looked up around; only saw many odd people in twos and threes, wandering like ghosts on the street.⁹

The version: then he looked around and saw many strange people, in twos and threes, wandering about like lost souls.

In source text, these people are compared as "ghost" indicating that Chinese people in that time are insensitive and own non-consciousness just like ghost. But in translation, it is translated to "lost souls" adding subaudition, that is people's thoughts and souls are lost which forms a strange situation. When readers read here, they will imagine from the "strange people" to the phrase "twos and threes" and finally they will understand when read the phrase "lost soul" which paves the way to the description of people's indifference of revolutionist's death in next context. Thus readers will receive aesthetic feelings during the procedure of thinking.

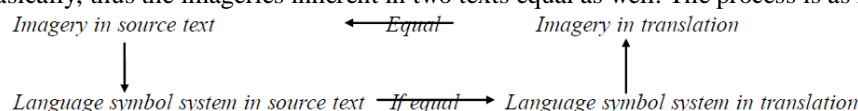
IV. CONCLUSIONS

Conclusively, there are three effects of emphasis on literariness in intrinsic approach: (1) traditional translation theory draws much attention to the faithfulness and equivalence of translation or its acceptability and influences in foreign cultures ending in overlook of its literariness. But it is literariness that allows literature being literature; (2) with the growth of cultural consumption, literature gets commercialized reduced into a "product" with certain functions instead of literature itself. For this reason, this paper focuses on the value of literature in an intrinsic way; (3) mass culture is experiencing rapid development and people prefer to secular culture and recreation. In fact, translation activities have lowered the difficulty of contacting literature's original value. On the other hand, if people always talk about translation's faithfulness or its social influences and ignore the inherent problems of literature, "the value of worship will be replaced by the value of show which causes the loss of mysterious aura due to ...overmuch copy procedure and it descends into a consumption symbol." (Xu, 2012, p.135) and that is literature's aura put forward by Benjamin, which means that literature should have mystique, authenticity and the value of worship. Once they disappear, the aesthetic value will fade away as well.

A. Findings

To be specific, from what has been discussed above, it is clear that in the translation of *Medicine*, there are "blanks" caused by new imagery from nomination interacting with obscure and implicit context. And during reading the translation, reader may imagine a lot and arouse their emotions or thoughts in the mind. And that experience or the procedure of imagination and thinking is the literariness of *Medicine*.

Traditionally, people view translation as a static process: some imagery is transmitted in source text through language symbol system which can be translated into target one. In the process of translation, the imagery corresponding to translated text will merge. And people believe that if the source language symbol system and the target one equal basically, thus the imageries inherent in two texts equal as well. The process is as following:



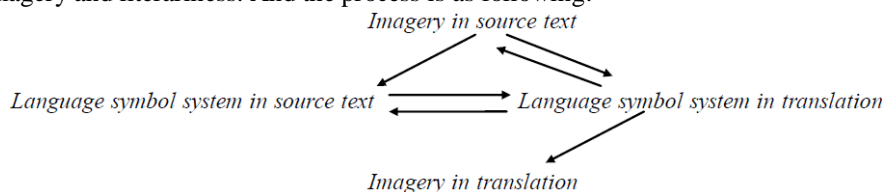
In reality, the imagery in source text and translation cannot be mentioned in the same breath because they are totally different subjects after the dynamical translation.

Nowadays, translation is regarded as a dynamical process. Hardly can translator completely convey imagery of source text into target one by transforming language symbol system purely due to the unavoidable variation. Although the imagery archetype of translation is from source text, it will be generated automatically and differently via language

⁸ This excerpt is translated by author. The Chinese one is: "华老栓忽然坐起身，燃着火柴，点上遍身油腻的灯盏，茶馆里的两间屋子里，便弥漫了青白的光。"

⁹ This excerpt is translated by author. The Chinese one is: "仰起头两面一望，只见许多古怪的人，三三两两，鬼似的在那里徘徊。"

symbols involving in both of source text and translation as well as the interaction with each, which implies that language symbol system merely serve as carrier. Therefore, translation becomes a new literature along with its own imagery and literariness. And the process is as following:

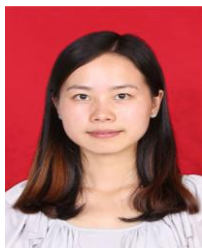


B. Limitation in Methodology and Suggestions

As a matter of fact, language is included in symbol system, but more and detailed information has not been presented in this paper which may be incomprehensive. Besides, since translation has been studied in comparative literature in this paper, the value of translation has been emphasized with an example of English version *Medicine* which may have views of literariness overshadowed by the trivial. Thus a more comprehensive and systematic study is needed.

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Iranian Students' Self Efficacy and Their Language Achievements

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Abstract—Many studies have examined the function of self efficacy in academic achievement, though as Pajares (2000) mentioned the relation of language achievement and self efficacy has not been studied well and there has been small research in this regard. This made the researcher to investigate the relationship between Iranian students' language achievements and their self efficacy. It also studied the variations of Iranian students' self efficacy and their majors. Besides, it explores the differences between students' majors and their language achievements. 112 students from Islamic Azad University Babol Branch, Islamic Azad University Ghaemshahr Branch, and Babol University of Medical sciences were chosen for the sample of present study. In order to measure students' language proficiency, Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (MTELP) was administered. The self-efficacy questionnaire which was an adaptation of Bandura's questionnaire included 40 items with subsequent 5-point Likert-scale response choices. The result of study shows a positive relation between self efficacy and Iranian students' language proficiency. This study also found that students' major will have an effect on both language proficiency and self efficacy.

Index Terms—academic achievement, language achievement, self efficacy

I. INTRODUCTION

It is apparent that learners' affective variables have a key role in students' success. Some scholars even believed affective variables have influenced success or failure of foreign language learning even more than aptitude (Chastain, 1988). Among affective variables self efficacy is recognized to have an essential role in academic success of students. Bandura (1993) argues that efficacy beliefs affect the way people feel, think and behave. "In social cognitive theory, people must develop skills in regulating the motivational, affective, and social determinants of their intellectual functioning as well as the cognitive aspects" (p. 136). Pajares (2000) believed self efficacy is a marvelous predictor of individual behavior and functioning.

Self-efficacy has been used in research in different social, political and academic settings. However as Pajares(2000) concerned there are few researches in the relation of second language achievement and self efficacy. The current study intended to study the relation between self efficacy and foreign language achievement in Iranian university students.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Bandura in 1970s, became conscious that a key component was absent from the prevailing learning theories of the day, and his own social learning theory. (Pajares, 2002). Rejecting the behaviorist's indifference to self- processes, Bandura (1977) was able to identify that important missing element, self-beliefs. He believed that each person makes self perceptions of his abilities which are useful for his perusing goals and for controlling they have over their environment.

According to Pajares (2002), these attitudes make a self system with explicit, progressive, symbolizing, self reflective, and self regulatory competences, and individual behavior is the outcome of interaction between this personal system and external sources of influence. Pajares and Schunk (2001) state that in sociocognitive perspective, an individual is considered as active and self regulating agent not a passive one controlled by other factors. Bandura (1989) mentions that "persons are neither autonomous agents nor simply mechanical conveyors of animating environmental influences. Rather, they make casual contribution to their own motivation and action within a system of triadic reciprocal causation" (p.1175). This, in turn, can be the reflection of Bandura's (1986) notion of reciprocal determinism which refers to interaction of:

- ▶ behavioral variables (what people actually do)
- ▶ environmental variables (the setting in which the behavior occurs), and
- ▶ personal/cognitive variables (how the person thinks about, perceives, or expects events to occur).

Then, Bandura changed the name of his theory from social learning to social cognitive to emphasize the serious role of human cognition in people's lives. Pajares (2002) states that Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory is different from others theories of human behavior which overemphasizes the function of environmental or biological aspects. Bandura

(1986) believed a theory which rejects thoughts can control acts cannot explain complex human behavior. What people think, believe, and feel influences their behavior. The natural and extrinsic effects of their actions, somehow establish their thought models and their succeeding actions. The fulfillments individuals achieve from what they do are established to a great degree by their self evaluative standards.

A. Definition

Bandura (1977) defines self efficacy as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performance" (p. 174). Bandura (1977) emphasized on self efficacy, which operates what individuals choose to do; their level of attempt and perseverance when encountering troubles; and the consequent act. It is a dynamic, many sided belief system that varies in different circumstances and activities.

Bandura (1986) argues that self- efficacy is a general belief about one's capabilities to successfully control crucial actions in life. Spratt, Humphreys, and Chan (2002) state that self efficacy is a motivational construct which influence learners to autonomous behavior. It refers to an individual's beliefs that he has the capability to attain a certain level of performance and attainment.

Pajares (2002) states that according to Bandura's social cognitive theory, individuals poses a self-system that permit them to use a measure control over their thoughts, feelings, motivation, and actions. Self efficacy according to Bandura's social cognitive theory, individuals possess a self-system that enable them to exercise a measure of control over their thoughts, feelings, motivation, and actions. Self efficacy beliefs can change human functioning by providing individuals with the ability to influence their own cognitive processes and actions and so modify their surroundings. Bandura (1997) claimed self efficacy has a significant role in human functions. He stated "People's level of motivation, affective states, and actions are based more on what they believe than on what is objectively true" (p. 2). That is the reason why individuals functioning can be estimated by the beliefs about their abilities rather than by what they are truly capable of doing, in fact theses beliefs can help to decide what individuals can do with their knowledge and skills

B. Sources of Self Efficacy

Bandura (1986) considered four sources of self belief: Mastery Experiences (past successes/ failures affect our current level of self-efficacy in a specific context), Vicarious Experiences (seeing others perform a behavior successfully leads us to believe in our own capability to do it, especially when these others are similar to ourselves), Verbal/Social Persuasion (people's self-efficacy beliefs are enhanced if they are told and convinced that they can succeed), Emotional and Physiological State (when you are physically fit or in a positive mood your efficacy will be enhanced). Bandura (1993) argues that the various effects that self efficacy beliefs create is done through the following four key procedures.

- Cognitive Process: Most of our actions are initially shaped in our thought. Self-efficacious ones visualize success that provides positive guides and supports for performance. Conversely, those who doubt their efficacy imagine failure which makes things go wrong.

- Motivational Process: self efficacy beliefs can also affect motivation. These beliefs have a important function in developing motivation. The majority of our motivation is cognitively shaped.

Through the exercise of forethought people motivate themselves, guide their actions, and form beliefs about what they can do.

- Affective Process: individuals' beliefs about what they are able to do influence the amount of tension and depression they would encounter in frightening or complex circumstances and also the level of motivation

- Selection Process: Judgments of personal efficacy influence people's choice of environments and activities. Individuals also break away from activities and conditions which seem to be beyond their abilities

C. Efficacious versus Inefficacious People

Bandura (1995) claims high self efficacious learners monitor their performance, endure longer, and solve the problems better than low self efficacious students. Pajares (2002) argues that high self efficacious individuals have the following characteristics:

- a) They don't see complex activities as a thread to evade rather they move toward it as a demanding activity to be mastered

- b) Their inherent interest in doing tasks is superior, their goals are more demanding, and they keep up their attempt even in the face of difficulties

- c) They would recover their self belief rapidly after failures, and would see failures due to their own inadequate attempts or their own lack of knowledge or skills, in fact they do not look for external elements

- d) They are also not nervous and are calmer in accomplishing complex tasks.

On the contrary, low self efficacious individuals consider tasks much harder than what they actually are, and this will increase their anxiety, tensions, depression and a give them weaker view for solving problem (Pajares, 2002). Bandura (1986) states that "people who hold a low view of themselves will credit their achievements to external factors, rather than to their own capabilities" (p.402). "If self efficacy is lacking, people tend to behave weakly, even though, they know what to do" (p. 425). High self efficacious people would think, feel and act in a different way from low self efficacious ones, and believes that they can make their own futures. Bandura (1993) states the following:

"Students who have a high sense of academic and self-regulative efficacy behave more prosodically, are more popular, and experience less rejection by their peers than do students who believe they lack these forms of academic efficacy. Moreover, a low sense of academic and self-regulatory efficacy is associated with emotional irascibility, physical and verbal aggression, and ready disengagement of moral self-sanctions from harmful conduct. The impact of student's disbelief in their academic efficacy on socially discordant behavior becomes stronger as they grow older." (p. 138)

Pajares (2005) argues that high self efficacious students try more, endure longer with encountering problems, are more optimistic, and are less nervous. Highly self efficacious students consider themselves capable of doing academic tasks using different kinds of cognitive and metacognitive strategies while inefficacious ones do not believe in their capability. Bandura (1997) proposes that self efficacy refers to the state of being able to control challenging environmental demands through taking adaptive action. Individuals who trust themselves and assume they have their own resources to succeed exhibit a greater effort and perseverance. Bandura (1997) states that self-efficacy refers to the obvious benefits of enhancing students' confidence in their capacities.

D. Distinctive Features of Academic Self-efficacy

According to Bandura (1977) academic self efficacy is described as personal judgment of one's abilities to manage and carrying out different actions to reach special types of educational performance. Academic self-efficacy predicts academic performance. In fact there is a mutual relationship between self efficacy and academic achievements. Dewitz and Walsh (2002) state that self efficacy beliefs are considerably related to academic choices and performances. Self efficacy beliefs are positively related to action, perseverance, and expected results. Academic self efficacy is related with students' satisfactions. Students with greater self efficacy seem to be more pleased with college life. Individuals with higher self efficacy will have higher satisfaction. Students with greater self efficacy in particular area will have better performance in that particular area. Pajares (2005) uttered that academic self efficacy will enhance students' strategy use. He mentioned that self efficacy affects cognitive strategy use and self regulation by using metacognitive strategies.

Schunk (1991) states that academic self-efficacy can be defined as person's self assurance in their own capabilities to successfully perform academic activities at a designed level. Jing (2006) states that self-efficacy in language learning can be perceived as students' judgment about their capabilities and their improvement in specific situations they are learning the language.

E. Distinctive Features of Self-efficacy

Zimmerman & Cleary (2006) named four main features of self efficacy. First, it focuses on proposed abilities to perform a task rather than on behavior or psychological characters. In fact self efficacy deals with "how well can I do something?" rather than "what am I like?". Next, self efficacy beliefs are domain-specific, context-specific, and activity specific. In context- specific, for example an individual may shows a low self efficacy for learning math in a competitive classroom context than in cooperative class. Though, self efficacy is multidimensional and changes across particular activities within specific domain. Third, self-efficacy depends on mastery norm performance rather than normative or other measures. That is students beliefs about their skillfulness in doing a specific task such as writing an essay is measured and this gives no idea about comparing them with their peers ability in essay writing. As a final point, judgment about self efficacy is done before really doing the task.

F. Self-efficacy and Academic Achievement

Students' academic achievement is mainly manipulated by their cognitive abilities. That is students with greater intellectual capacity would be successful at higher level than students with lower intellectual competencies. Students' self-efficacy perceptions play a key role in decision about student academic performances. However academic achievement is related to many factors and just knowing and possessing skills does not guarantee success. Students meet many difficult situations in their learning such as noisy study environments, bothersome thoughts, and negative feelings and if they don't use their knowledge well in these circumstances they won't success. Bandura (1993) found that high self efficacious students tend to deal well with these circumstances and would better succeed from their peers with the same academic level ability. That is self efficacy will guarantee students academic achievements irrespective of their ability. Wong (2005) found that many language learners in ESL context also suffer from low self efficacy. He argues that numerous ESL students have poor learning strategies and low self efficacy which will diminish their motivation and consequently their language proficiency. Lack of learning strategies hinder their problem solving ability and low self efficacy impede their involvement in learning tasks.

Academic self-efficacy is related to issues, such as self-efficacy expectations, perceived self-competence, perceived control, academic self-regulatory skills. According to Bandura (1997) Self-efficacy expectations determine whether that person deals with hard conditions, the amount of attempt he will spend and the degree his efforts will continue in spite of difficulties and impediments. Bandura (1993) mentions that perceived self- competence is an inherent drive to feel competent. Having the required skills or knowledge alone cannot be useful in difficult conditions. In fact many individuals cannot use their skills in difficult situations. Self efficacy is an important factor in determining their success in difficult conditions. Students with similar ability will vary greatly in their efficacy to cope with academic demands.

Perceived control (locus of control), is expressed along a continuum with an internal and external locus of control at the two ends. Meinhold and Mulkus (2005) express that in an internal locus of control, events are personally determined and one perceives that his actions will produce the desired outcome, whereas in an external locus of control, life outcomes are due to outside causes, such as fate and chance. In fact, self efficacy can predict students' use of cognitive and self regulative learning strategies in classroom situations. However these factors alone are not enough for directing one's performance in difficult situations. Bandura (1995) states that highly self-efficacious individuals apply different academic self regulatory skills like goal-setting, self evaluation, self monitoring, time planning, and strategy use.

Pajares (2002) put forward Bandura's (1986) idea of reciprocal determinism in school contexts. Teachers have the challenge for improving the academic learning and confidence of the students. Teachers can develop students' emotional state, to change their imperfect self beliefs and thinking patterns (personal factors), to develop their academic skills and self regularity strategies (behavior), and to modify school constructions to facilitate students' achievements (environmental factors). Self efficacy is not a judgment about physical characteristics or personality traits; it is a belief about what a person can do. Zimmerman (1995) mentioned that self efficacy is also context-specific and differs across subsequent elements:

- Level: level refers to the complexity of specific activity
- Generality: Generality refers to transferability of efficacy for specific task to different tasks or activities.
- Strength: Strength refers to the assurance about doing a task (Zimmerman, 1995)

G. Educational Association of Self-efficacy

Numerous studies found that self efficacy associates with academic success (Bandura, 1997; Shunk & Pajares, 2002). Self efficacy also correlates with indexes of self-regulation, especially use of effective learning strategies. Self efficacy, self regulation, and cognitive strategy use are strongly related and can guess success (Shunk & Pajares, 2002). Accordingly, as Pajares (2002) mentioned self efficacy is related to self regulated learning variables. High self efficacious students can use more cognitive and metacognitive strategies. The acquisition of cognitive skills, modeling effects and goal setting control the expansion of self efficacy beliefs and that these beliefs will affect academic performances.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

As the literature shows students' self-efficacy beliefs play a significant function in understanding how a person would act in academic settings. There are lots of obstacles that students may face during learning and just equipping ones with knowledge and skills cannot guarantee that students will use them well in hard and complex situations. Self efficacy is a key predicator of student's success. That's encouraged the researcher to investigate the self efficacy of Iranian students. This study intended to examine the relationship of Iranian students' self efficacy and their language proficiency. This study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. Is there any relation between Iranian students' language proficiency and their self efficacy?
2. Do Iranian students with different majors (humanities, medicine and engineering) have different self efficacy?
3. Are there any differences between Iranian students' majors (humanities, medicine and engineering) and their language proficiency?

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

The sample participating in this study consisted of 112 university students, majoring humanities at IAU Babol Branch, IAU Ghaemshahr branch and Babol University of Medical Sciences.

B. Instruments

Self efficacy questionnaire and Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (MTELP) were used to measure the variables under study. Students' language achievement was measured by Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (MTELP). MTELP was chosen because it is reliable and matches the proficiency level of university students. MTELP contains three parts: part one is a test of grammar which have 40 items, part two is a vocabulary test which consists of 40 items, and the last part contains four reading passages each with 5 questions. The self-efficacy questionnaire included 40 questions followed by 5 point likert scale choices. The self-efficacy questionnaire was adapted on the surveys of Albert Bandura.

C. Procedure

To examine the first variable of this study student were supposed to answer a standardized Persian self efficacy questionnaire within 15 minutes. The questionnaire contains 40 questions followed by 5 point likert scale choices. The Persian version of the questionnaire was validated with 100 students from Ferdosi University, Mashhad. The score obtained from self efficacy questionnaire ranges from 0 to 200. For measuring students' language proficiency Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency was administered. Students had 90 minutes to do the test. The MTELP ranges from 0-100.

D. Design

This study was not an experimental research it is a descriptive one. As mentioned by Seliger and Shohami (1989) descriptive study provides descriptions of naturally occurring phenomena connected with language learning. It will give information about naturally happening phenomenon with no control over any variables. Thus this study has an Ex-Post Facto design since the researcher does not manipulate what has happened to the participants of the current research. Accordingly, in this study students' language achievement is taken as dependent variables and students' self efficacy and their majors (humanities, medicine and engineering) are taken as independent variable.

V. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

In order to answer the questions the researcher used Statistical Software for Social Sciences (SPSS). The first research question is intended to find the relation of Iranian students' language proficiency level and their self efficacy. In order to find the relation between these two variables Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used. It will show how much these two variables are related. (See the table1)

TABLE 1.
PEARSON CORRELATION OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY AND SELF EFFICACY

		Language proficiency	self efficacy
Language proficiency	Pearson Correlation	1	.788**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	112	112
self efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.788**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	112	112

As shown in table1 the correlation coefficient is 0.78 which is significant at $p < 0.01$. This means that there is a positive correlation between students' language proficiency and their self efficacy. Students with higher self efficacy tend to have higher language achievement. Second research question aimed at investigating the difference between students' major and their self efficacy. Since we had three different majors we used One-Way ANOVA to compute the differences of these groups.

TABLE 2.
ANOVA RESULTS ON THE SELF EFFICACY LEVEL

self efficacy	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4506.371	2	2253.185	14.439	.000
Within Groups	17009.486	109	156.050		
Total	21515.857	111			

The results of one-way as shown in Tables 2 reveal that there are significant differences among students' majors and their self efficacy level, that is the significant is 0.00 which is smaller than 0.05 and 0.01, so the difference between the groups are significant. As post hoc table shows the mean differences are significant (Sig. = .000) between humanities, medicine and humanities, engineering, but no statistically significant differences can be found in other comparisons.

TABLE 3.
SCHEFFE TEST ON SELF EFFICACY SCORE

Scheffe		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
(I) major	(J) major				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
humanities	medicine	-12.49432*	3.09925	.001	-20.1860	-4.8027
	engineering	-14.64990*	2.83708	.000	-21.6909	-7.6089
medicine	humanities	12.49432*	3.09925	.001	4.8027	20.1860
	engineering	-2.15559	2.86300	.754	-9.2609	4.9497
engineering	humanities	14.64990*	2.83708	.000	7.6089	21.6909
	medicine	2.15559	2.86300	.754	-4.9497	9.2609

For testing the third question which examined the difference between students' major and their language achievement One -Way ANOVA was utilized.

TABLE 4.
ANOVA RESULTS ON LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

Language proficiency	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1549.962	2	774.981	7.374	.001
Within Groups	11454.895	109	105.091		
Total	13004.857	111			

As shown in the above table the differences between students' major and language proficiency are significant at 0.05 and 0.01 levels. To have a better picture of the differences among groups a post hoc analysis is used. The results of post hoc shows there are significant differences between language proficiency of humanities' students with Medicine and Engineering students.

TABLE 5.
SCHEFFE TEST ON SELF EFFICACY SCORE

Scheffe		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
(I) major	(J) major				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
humanities	medicine	-8.094697*	2.543355	.008	-14.40672	-1.78267
	engineering	-8.203740*	2.328206	.003	-13.98182	-2.42566
medicine	humanities	8.094697*	2.543355	.008	1.78267	14.40672
	engineering	-1.109043	2.349481	.999	-5.93992	5.72183
engineering	humanities	8.203740*	2.328206	.003	2.42566	13.98182
	medicine	1.109043	2.349481	.999	-5.72183	5.93992

VI. CONCLUSION AND LIMITATION OF STUDY

Most studies confirm that self efficacy can enhance students' achievement. The relationship between self efficacy and language learning has been studied by many researchers. Rahimi and Abedini (2009) studied Iranian students' self efficacy and their listening skills and found a positive correlation. Magogwe and Oliver (2007) also reported a positive relation between self efficacy and language learning strategies. The results of present study are in line with previous studies which reported a positive relation between self efficacy and academic achievement. The present study validates previous studies which focus on self efficacy as a predictor of academic achievements (Bandura 1997; Pajares, 2000). The results of present study show that self efficacy and language proficiency are strongly correlated. The result is also in line with Rahemi (2007). Rahimi found that Iranian high school students majoring humanities have low self efficacy and hence low language proficiency. This study also demonstrated that humanity students have lower self efficacy and also lower language proficiency comparing to engineering and medicine students. It can be concluded that highly self efficacious learners tend to have better perception of their capabilities and therefore try harder to reach their goals.

As Cottrel (1999) mentioned self efficacy is learners' self assurance in their general ability in accomplishing a specific language goals. Language teachers should improve students' self efficacy. In fact teachers should support learners to expand their self efficacy even before really doing a task and this can be very helpful for learners' to have a good language learning experiences. Pajares (2002) mentioned that one way that teachers can increase students' self efficacy in academic setting is through peer modeling. If individuals see a successful student who is like them, this would give them an optimistic view about their own capabilities, and this would have a significant influence on students' self efficacy. Such a high efficacy belief will make students to put more effort in accomplishing their desired goals. He also mentioned that social messages that adults receive can also enhance their self efficacy. Expressing positive views about their capabilities can really be helpful in increasing students' self efficacy and reducing their stress. So teachers as well as parents should remind students of their competences and encourage them to put more effort in the process of language learning.

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A Comparative Study of English and Chinese Animal Proverbs—From the Perspective of Metaphors

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Abstract—Proverbs, in nature, are greatly associated with culture. In both form and meaning, they are concise and comprehensive, vivid in images and select materials widely, delivering all sorts of physiological information and cultural knowledge and explicitly expressing all human beings' life, social and historical experience. Since the ancient time, animals have been the most intimate friend of human beings, and people intend to express their feelings and points of view on animals. Therefore, some animal words are added with people's feelings and associations, human beings often deliver ideas and feelings through animals. There are lots of animal proverbs in English and Chinese. Metaphor is ubiquitous. It is not only a rhetorical device but also a mode of thoughts. There are some similarities and differences in animal proverbs' metaphor because of the similar and different faith, value, and ways of thinking and aesthetic orientation. I will make a comparative and contrastive analysis of metaphorical meanings between English and Chinese proverbs and compare some representative animal proverb metaphors. This study is carried out from three main aspects: the same animal produce the same association and metaphorical meaning; the same animal produce different emotions and associations; different animals produce the same association and metaphorical meaning.

Index Terms—Chinese, English, animal proverbs, metaphor

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Major Views of Metaphor

What is metaphor? In the traditional conceptions, metaphor is just a kind of language phenomenon, which is used to decorate utterance. From the angle of rhetoric, it is a figure of speech and misplacement of an ornamental device used in rhetorical style. In the opinions of logicians, it is categories. From the understanding of cognitive scientists, it is a way for people to recognize the world. In the eyes of cognition linguists, it is not only a kind of language phenomenon, but also cognition activities, as well as human's basic instrument of cognition...

1. Aristotle's view of metaphor

When it comes to metaphor, the first person we need to mention is Aristotle. His Metaphorical Comparison, which established the foundation for the next 2000 years' research, is referred as the first systematically theatrical research related to metaphor phenomenon.

Aristotle (1954) holds that metaphor is a comparison or similarity between two or more objects that do not belong to the same category, and he takes all similes as metaphors. Aristotle sees metaphor as a kind of decoration addition to ordinary plain language, and a rhetorical device which is used at certain times to gain certain effects. From the view of Aristotle, metaphor is something outside normal language and requires special forms of interpretation from listeners or readers. It is often seen as a departure from literal language.

2. Richards' view of metaphor

The study of metaphor had developed greatly after 1930s. The publication of *The Meaning of Meaning* and *The Philosophy of Rhetoric* by I. A. Richards had made a difference in the metaphor. Richards defines metaphor that "In the simplest formulation, when we use a metaphor, we have two thoughts of different things active together and supported by a simple word, or phrase, whose meaning is the resultant of their interaction." (Richards, 1936, p.28) He did not consider a metaphor as a figure of speech, but a combination of general ideas. Richards (1936) presented that metaphors are special use of linguistic expressions where one metaphorical expression is embedded in another literal expression, and in this way, the meaning of metaphorical expression interacts with and changes the meaning of the literal expression vice versa. Therefore, his study made it possible for people to understand the semantic structure of metaphors.

3. Lakoff and Johnson's view of metaphor

Metaphor exists everywhere in our daily life, not only in languages, also in our thoughts and behavior. The conceptual system that we are used to think and act is also metaphorical in nature. Also the linguist Shu Dingfang (2011) in China points out that metaphor can be found everywhere, and it is used in one in three of our daily oral communication in average.

The publication of Lakoff and Johnson's influential work *Metaphors We Live By* marked the real beginning of cognitive metaphor study. The main concern of conceptual metaphor is that "metaphor is not just a matter of language,

that is, of mere words; we argue that, on the contrary, human thought processes are largely metaphorical” (Lakoff and Johnson, 2003, p.4).

Metaphor is a prevalent phenomenon that lies in our daily language and structures our daily life. And metaphor is conceptual in nature: it is a figure of thought, a conceptual or cognitive organization which is expressed by linguistic object rather than a figure of speech, a linguistic object. Metaphor is a way of thinking and a cognitive device. They also hold that metaphor is systematically grounded in human cognition, one common metaphorical concept will give rise to numerous linguistic expressions: different metaphorical concepts form a coherent network which underlines both our speech and our thoughts. There are two domains in metaphor. One is source domain and another is target domain. It is a mapping of the schematic structure of the source domain onto that of the target domain, and metaphorical mappings are not arbitrary but are grounded in our bodily experience. Once a metaphorical mapping is set up, it will then impose its structures on real life and be made real in different ways. Language is based on our experiences of the world and the way we perceive and conceptualize it. Experience is a product of interaction of our body with the outside world (including notions, living things, etc) or interactions between us and physical environment or other people within our culture, all of which constitute our conceptual system. And most of our abstract concepts are understood through other concrete or simple ones by mapping the properties of one domain onto another.

B. Definition of Proverb

It is not an easy job to define a proverb. Here are the several definitions:

(Proverb) is a brief familiar maxim of folk wisdom, usually compressed in form, often involving a bold image and frequently a jingle that catches the memory.——*Longman Modern English Dictionary*

(Proverb) is a short saying in common and recognized use; a concise sentence, often metaphorical or alliterative in form, which is held to express some truth ascertained by experience or observation and familiar to all.——*The Oxford English Dictionary*

(Proverb) is an old or common saying especially, a sentence which briefly and forcibly express some practical truth, or the result of experience and observation.——*Unabridged Dictionary*

Among them, *Longman Modern English Dictionary* shows us the best definition. The definition of proverb in Chinese is more difficult than that in English, because Chinese idioms are categorized into more sophisticated types. And we can try to get some characters of proverbs in Chinese: Proverb is one of idioms in Chinese, which are popular folk sayings in fixed form and colloquial in language. They are idiomatic expressions which convey wisdom, counsel or warning in a straightforward way, they are widespread popular among the common people. Proverbs compose of a couplet clause to form rhyme and parallels. As proverbs are usually independent sentences, they are instructive, philosophic, informative and inspiring.

II. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE PROVERBS

As we know, many animal proverbs can be found. But some animal proverbs do not have metaphorical meaning, such as in Chinese “犬守夜，鸡司晨” and in English “every time the sheep bleats it loses a mouthful”. And this thesis mainly concerns the animal proverbs with their metaphorical meanings. In this article, the author divides the animals into three types. The first type includes animals which are identical in both animal images and meanings; the second type includes animals which are identical in animal images but meanings; the third type includes animals which are identical in meanings but animal images.

A. Identical in Both Animal Images and Meanings

Though there are different cultural backgrounds in oriental and western countries, every nation share the same view and feelings towards our objective world, and people get the same conclusion based on their similar experience, meanwhile, one animal owns the same property. So, from this perspective, people use the same animals to express the same metaphorical meanings in both English and Chinese. Some animal proverbs in English and Chinese are identical in both form and meaning. The proverbs in this category are limited in number. They are the result of either coincidence or translation loans from one language to another. These proverbs are not hindered by national boundaries or cultural barriers, instead they have taken some universal significance. For example, evil people, flaw, disable people, sly people and timid people are mice; danger, difficult situation, and ferocious people are tigers; villain or scoundrel people and weak people are hares; craft, cunning people are snakes; docile people who do not have their own idea are sheep; wicked people and bad people are dogs; and worthless people or objects are pigs. Here are some examples:

1a. 老鼠爱打洞，坏人爱钻空 老鼠怕见猫儿。 *The mouse does not trust to one hole only.*

In example 1a, 鼠 mouse/rat, means: timid, shortsighted

1b. 一颗老鼠屎坏了一锅汤。 *A speck of mouse dung will spoil a whole pot of porridge.*

Flaw is mouse

2a. 老虎的屁股摸不得 伴君如伴虎。 *A tiger does not have to proclaim its tigri-tude.*

In example 2a, 虎 tiger, means: danger, ferocious

2b. 不入虎穴，焉得虎子。 *If you don't enter a tiger's den, you can't get his cubs.*

Danger is tiger

2c. 关门养虎，虎大伤人。 *If you raise a tiger secretly behind closed doors, when the tiger grows up it will harm you or others.*

Bad people are tigers

3a. 兔子不急不咬人 兔子不吃窝边草

If you run after two hares, you will catch neither. Seek a hare in a hen's nest

In example 3a, 兔 rabbit/hare , means: weak, docile, villain or scoundrel people are hares.

4a. 蛇走无声，奸计无影 蛇不打死害众人，虎不打死留祸

Warm a snake in one's bosom

In example 4a, 蛇 snake , means: evil, bad

5a. 羊毛出在羊身上 羊入虎口，有去无回

Lone sheep is in danger of the wolf

In example 5a, 羊 sheep/lamb, means: mild-temper, timid

5b. 羊群走路，看头羊。 *If one sheep leap over the dyke, all rest will follow.*

People who do not have their own ideas are sheep.

6a. 人生不读书，活着不如猪。死猪不怕开水烫

What can you expect from a pig but a grunt?

In example 6a, 猪 pig, means: fool, dirty and ugly, worthless people are pigs.

7a. 狗改不了吃屎。 *The dog returns to his vomit.*

In example 7a, 狗 dog, means: bad people are dogs.

The above seven examples show us that every pair of proverb not only has the same animal images, literal meanings, but also with the same metaphorical meanings.

1. Metaphorical meanings related to wolf

As we know, wolf often reflects ferocious in both English and Chinese. For example:

8a. 狼走千里吃人；狼肚子里没有好心肝

8b. *The wolf may lose his teeth, but never his nature.* 8c. *Man is to man either a god or a wolf.*

Wolves are very strong animals. From the perspective of their habits, they can work in cooperation with a due division of labor well, knowing the meaning of unity and obedience. However, people magnify wolves' ferocious towards their enemy and their greedy. And it has become the typical cognition to wolf. As the proverb says *a wolf may change his hair, but not his heart*. Though different nations are situated in different regions, so are their components, wolf always play a negative role in most culture, either in "Little Red" of Western story or in the idiom "A wolf work hand in glove with a jackal". Wolf is the source domain, and it is given ferocious meaning in the target domain, thus their negative figures are inflexible when reflecting to human.

2. Metaphorical meanings related to bee

Bee often represents busy and hard-working. In the proverbs 9a. 蜜蜂酿蜜，不为己食； 9b. 蜂采百花酿甜蜜； 9c. *She is always as busy as a bee*; The bee works in the summer and eats honey all the winter, people express their favorable impressions towards bees. Despite bees' behavior are instinct reaction, human elevating it as moral force, thus bees and their spirits make up a complete cognition process. It is a consensus for Western and Chinese people that bees' diligence and hard-working reflects human's selfless service in target domain.

Many factors have contributed to the emergence of fully corresponding pairs in English and Chinese Proverbs.

Firstly, although different nations live in varied natural environments and diversified geographic conditions, they still share quite a lot in common. They have more or less the same species of animals. And the common ground of human culture is larger than the individual features of each culture. Although, people's concrete ways of life are varied in different places, the fundamental ways of living and thinking are the same for the whole human race.

Secondly, owing to cultural exchange, translation loans are borrowed from each other, which are not limited to the root ideas but sometimes include the "clothing of the idea". As a result, some proverbs with identical form and meaning come into existence in different language, for instance, 10a. "He who rides tiger is afraid to dismount" and "骑虎难下".

B. Identical in Animal Images But Different in Meanings

Language is not only the mirror of culture, reflecting culture, but also influenced and restricted by culture. No matter in which country or area, their languages all contain love and hatred in emotional coloring. People share the different opinions towards the same thing, though expressing manners are varied. In the process of human development, China and Britain have many of the same animals. But because of their difference in cultural background, moral concept, thinking mode, and especially in geographic environment, these animals play a very different role in the two countries. People with different cultural background often entrust the same feeling or trait to different animals, cultivating their unique nationalities. So, from this perspective, people use the same animals to express different metaphorical meanings in English and Chinese.

1. Proverbs of dragon

Dragon has a long history in China, In Chinese ancient legend, dragon is a holy animal. It is the spiritual symbol of

the Chinese nation. Chinese people called themselves descendant of the dragon. It has been considered to be powerful people, and the emperors always thought they were real dragon and the sons of the heaven, thus dragon had been the symbol of power and nobility. In the proverbs 11a. 恶龙难斗地头蛇—*Even a fierce dragon is hard to put struggle against a local snake*, powerful people are dragons. And in the proverb 11b. 龙生龙, 凤生凤, 老鼠的儿子会打洞。-- *Phoenixes beget phoenixes and dragons beget dragons, so the son of rats is capable of digging holes*; people who are in high status are dragons. As dragon can do anything it wants to do, it is also called excellent people, as the proverb says 11c. 龙眼识珠, 凤眼识宝, 牛眼识青草。-- *A dragon's eyes can recognize pearls; a phoenix's eyes can see treasures, and an ox's eyes know what kind of grass is edible*. According to the legend, dragons could fly above the clouds and control the forces of nature, creating favorable weather for the crops. For example, 11d. 龙行一步, 百草皆春。-- *Dragons move one step and all the grasses will become green*. Therefore, in Chinese culture, dragon is a positive reflection.

While in Western countries, dragon is seen as dangerous, evil monster that does harm to human beings. Dragons kill people, make disaster, do damage and breathe fire. In the Medieval period, dragon represents evil or paganism, such as in the *Book of Revelation*, in the ninth sentence in chapter 12, Satan is called the great red dragon. Thus, dragon are used negatively in English and regarded as evil, as the proverb says 11e. “*If you sow dragon's teeth, you will reap a crop of violence*”; “*to chase the dragon*”. And in the proverb 11f. “*A serpent must eat another serpent before he becomes a dragon*”, vicious people are dragons.

From the above comparison, we can see that dragon occupies a lofty status in the heart of Chinese people, which is treated as god who can do anything he wants to do. On the contrary, dragon is hated by western people, since dragon is considered as evil. Owing to the difference of national beliefs and religions, people have different understandings to dragon. In the Han dynasty, Buddhism was introduced from India. Up to now, it has become the largest religion in China. While in western countries like Britain which are a typically Christian country and its culture is deeply influenced by Bible. In China, dragon is an image of totem. It symbolizes auspiciousness, authority and nobility. In English, dragon is devil in *Old Testament*. Therefore, the metaphorical meanings of dragons are positive in Chinese, but negative in English.

2. Proverbs of dog

Dogs are domestic animals in both Western and oriental countries. In China, dogs are inferior animals; they are born to eat excrement. It is a natural instinct of dogs. Thus dogs are regarded as those bad people who can not change their bad behavior. The Chinese proverbs containing dogs are mostly negative. In the proverbs 12a. 狗走千里吃屎, 狼走千里吃人。-- *Although a dog may travel a thousand leagues, it will still eat excrement; and although a wolf may travel a thousand leagues, it will still eat people*, bad people are dogs. And because eating excrement is a natural instinct of dogs, people think that dogs' mouths are dirty, their teeth are ugly. As the proverb says 12b. 狗嘴里吐不出象牙—*Out of a dog's mouth will never come ivory tusks*. In the two proverbs 12c. 狗眼看人低。-- *From the lowly perspective of a dog's eyes, everyone looks short*; and 12d. 狗不咬拜年的, 官不打送钱的。-- *Just as dogs don't bite those who come to pay formal New Year's call, government officials don't beat those who send money*, here snobbish people are dogs. In dog in the manger, dog refers to those people who are useless while they are still occupying the positions selflessly. In proverb 12e. 狗急跳墙, 人急悬梁—*Just as a cornered dog will leap over a wall, so a desperate person will hang himself from a roof beam*, desperate situation is dog. 12f. 伸手不打垂死狗—*A dead dog can't be propped up on top of a wall*, good-for-nothing person is dead dog. In 12g. 饿狗不怕木棍—*A hungry dog is not afraid of a wooden club*, wicked people are hungry dogs and 12h. 饿狗咬人暗下口—*When vicious dogs bite people they do so without warning* implies dangerous people are hungry dogs.

However, western people treat dogs as friends, family members, soul mates. They like taking orders and pleasing their owners. And they are considered to be loyal animals. In this proverb 12i. “*If the dog barks, he gives the counsel*”, loyal people are dogs. People's friends are dogs in this proverb 12j. *Love me, love my dog*. Dogs do not eat dogs. Here dogs are given human's emotion, and in 12k. “*A good dog deserves a good bone*”, here people are dogs.

The above examples show that there are numerous metaphorical meanings of dogs both in English and Chinese. And most of the metaphorical meanings of dog in Chinese are negative while mostly positive in English. The differences mainly come from dogs' positions or status in China and western countries, concerning the different living styles and customs in these two cultures, such as pets. With the influence of local climate and environment, western people earn their life mainly by hunting, and dog is an important tool for production. Thus dog is not only a watch dog, but also a hunter, a partner and a friend in west. There are a great number of English proverbs which speak highly of dogs. For instance, every dog has its day. In China, most families have a dog. Instead of a pet, dogs are seen as livestock and the watch dog; they are used to guard the house and garden. To Chinese people, dogs are symbols of inferiority, and don't exist in compliments and praises. So most metaphorical meanings of dogs are derogatory.

3. Proverbs of cat

Cats are Chinese people's favorite pet. They like cats very much. As we all know, mice are hated by all the Chinese people, and cats are their natural enemies. Without cats, the mice will have a free rein to destroy anything. As the proverb says 13a. 老猫不在家, 老鼠称大王—*When the cat is away, the mice will play*. Thus, mice have always been

treated as bad ones while cats are regarded as justice and good person. Gradually, cats become the powerful ones, having the ability of leadership. In the proverb 13b. 猫走鼠伸腰—When the cat has gone, the mice will straighten their backs, here people who has power or situated in high position is cat. In 13c. 老鼠逢猫魂魄散, 羔羊遇虎骨筋酥 -- When the mice meet cats, their soul are scattered; lambs soften their muscles encountering tigers, and 13d. 猫也有权看国王—A cat may look at a king; cats are people who want to be equal. In the proverb 13e. 猫有九命—A cat has nine lives, cat can always survive dangerous situations, and it reflects people who have strong vitality. In English, cats are often known as bad women who like speaking ill of others. As people often say she is a cat. According to the *medieval superstitions*, Satan could let himself be a black cat, and a witch often has a cat as her companion. (Evans: 1975) Thus cat presents evil things. In the proverb 13f. “The cat is out of the bag”, traitors are cats. In 13g. “cats hide their paws” and 13h. “the cat shuts its eyes when stealing cream”, here hypocritical people are cats. All cats are grey in the dark, cats are ordinary people. Western people may also take cats as pets, but many people think they are lazy and greedy. As the proverb says 13i. “A cat in gloves catches no mice”, and 13j. “The cat would eat fish, but would not wet her feet”.

Above all, Chinese people take cats as a tool to catch the mice and cats are regarded as heroes while western people think cats are evil and greedy. People have different imaginations for the same kind of animal-- cat, and give a rich cultural connotation to cat. Therefore, the metaphorical meanings of cats in Chinese are often positive but in English are negative.

C. Identical in Meanings But Different in Images

In the development of human's long history, each nation has gradually developed its own unique folk custom and cultural heritage, and these things naturally will reflect in languages. Different nations can use different things to express the same pragmatic meanings, so do animals. So, from this perspective, people use different animals to express the same metaphorical meanings in English and Chinese. Here are some examples:

1. Proverbs of tiger and lion

In China, tiger is the monarch in the mountain, king of the beasts. Tiger is born and raised in China. People worship the image of tiger since the ancient time. There are lots of proverbs praise tiger. In the proverb 14a. 深山藏虎豹, 狂野匿麒麟-- The mountains hide tigers and leopards, and the wildness conceals unicorns, tigers are capable and talent people. The sayings and stories about tigers are very rich in China. For instance, the proverbs say 14b. 二虎相斗, 必有一伤—When two tigers fight, one is sure to be wounded; and 14c. 上山敢打虎, 下海敢擒龙—Dare to go up into the mountains to hunt tigers, and down to the sea to catch dragons. Tigers are precious animals. They are mainly scattered in Asia, especially in China's remote and border areas. West people have little chance to encounter the tigers. And people can't combine tiger with anything except that tiger is a dangerous and ferocious animal. And in the proverbs, tiger appears seldom, instead of using tigers, lions take its position. In west people's eyes, lions are huge in their bodies and are admired by many west people, and they are called king of the animals. The definition of lion in *Collins Co build English Dictionary* is “a person or a country that is considered to be strong and powerful, and which other people respect or fear”. There are many proverbs containing lions, such as 14d. regal as a lion, bold as a lion, majestic as a lion. Lion enjoys great reputation in western culture. British people even take lion as their national emblem. As tiger and lion are identical in meanings, in English, tiger's position are replaced by lion. For instance: 14e. a lion in the way—拦路虎 instead of 拦路狮; 最大的份额-- the lion's share instead of the tiger's share; the lion's month should be translated as 虎穴 instead of 狮穴. And people also say 14f. 老虎屁股摸不得—Don't beard the lion, not saying beard the tiger.

2. Proverbs of cattle and horse

China is an agricultural country; to state the obvious, cattle takes a vital place in the agricultural society. Cattle are the indispensable tools which are used in traditional agricultural production. In China, cattle are used as holy spirits, and even worshipped. People often relate cattle with simple, honest, strong, diligent, hard-working, and stubborn, etc. there are many Chinese proverbs based on cattle. For instance, 15a. 一头牛, 半个家—A cattle equals to half family members; and 15b. 牛是种地的哑巴儿子—Cattle is the farmers' half dumb son. 15c. 牛有千斤之力—Have the power of heavy cattle, here implies cattle are very strong. Also, in the proverb 15d. 俯首甘为孺子牛—Head bowed, like a willing ox I serve the children, implying diligent, hard-working, sacrificing people. To English people, horses play an important role in the development of society. In ancient time, horses were used to do farming for people. They are used for traffic and are trained for war as well as race. People like horse and treat horses as their family members. And there are many proverbs containing horse. 15e. A good horse should never be spurred, and old wood is best to burn, old horse to ride. Horses can recognize the road and understand what their owners think. So they are considered to be talent. In this proverb 15f. 马行千里, 无人不能自往. -- “Though it may run a thousand leagues, a horse won't go forward without someone leading it.” Here talented people are horses. So is horse in the proverb 15g. 快马不用便催, 吹鼓不用重锤. -- A swift horse needs no whipping and a good drum needs no heavy beating. In English and Chinese, horse and cattle relate to traditional farming respectively. Therefore, their meanings are similar. Often, people say Talk horse instead of Talk cattle; 15h. eat like a horse 食量如牛 not eat like a cattle; as strong as a horse 壮的像头牛 not as strong as a cattle.

Above all, the differences in this kind of proverbs are mainly come from living environments. Living in different environment for a long time, people show the difference in the ways of expressing ideas, and the way of observing the world, difference in cosmic vision, aesthetics and beliefs in the west-east culture. Tiger and lion, cattle and horse, these two pairs of different animals, in each pair, the former ones are scarcely in west while the two animals take the similar roles, thus having the identical meanings.

III. CONCLUSION

From the above comparative analysis in the metaphorical meanings of animals between Chinese proverbs and English proverbs, we can see that metaphor exists in our daily life and structures our understanding of the world, our thought, culture and knowledge about life. Metaphor is a typical represent of ethnic culture. Besides, proverbs are not only information carriers, but also cultural carriers, reflecting different social culture. The author found that most of the proverbs are metaphors while a few of them are not. Animal proverbs are an important part of language, an indispensable element of culture. And the comparison of the three types of animal proverbs shows us the differences and similarities in living environments, living styles, religious beliefs, values, thinking mode and aesthetics of the two cultures. And their differences are also obvious. All in all, the research of animal proverbs has deepened our understanding: people in different cultures demonstrate the similarities or differences of different cultures by employing similar or different proverbs; different animal images can convey the same metaphorical meanings, and the same animal images can also convey the different metaphorical meanings. The metaphorical meanings of different animals are great achievements in English and Chinese. Understanding this phenomenon is helpful for us to promote communications and overcome language exchange barriers. We can also understand that study of proverbs is served for proverb teaching and learning.

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A Road to Destruction and Self-destruction: The Same Fate of Emily and Elly

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Abstract—Among Faulkner's more than one hundred short stories, "A Rose for Emily" is undoubtedly the most famous one, while "Elly" has been receiving increasing attention these years. Both of the protagonists are born in Southern aristocratic family. After their attempt to defy the conservative traditions and search for a new life becomes a failure and at the same time their dignity as Southern ladies is threatened even damaged, they choose a road to destruction with a virtual and inevitable result of self-destruction. This thesis is to illustrate the same fate of Emily and Elly from four aspects with an aim of revealing the truth that their choice of destruction and self-destruction is inevitable.

Index Terms—Emily, Elly, destruction, self-destruction

I. INTRODUCTION

William Faulkner (1897—1962) is admittedly a giant in the realm of American literature in the twentieth century. His short stories have not received as much attention as his monumental novels, but they are endowed with great artistic values, and more and more scholars have concentrated on them, especially on their unique narrative traits. There are also studies focusing on Faulkner's women characters in short fictions, in which Emily in "A Rose for Emily" receives more attention, a typical Southern lady poisoning her lover and keeping his corpse in her house, even sleeping with his decayed body for over forty years. Elly, the title of the story as well as the name of the protagonist, also gains increasing recognition and remarks. Both of them, born in Southern aristocratic family, are overprotected and even controlled by their parental authorities or guardians, and thereby hopelessly and resolutely choose violence and destroy their lovers when their dignity as Southern ladies, to some extent, is threatened by them.

"A Rose for Emily," a story of obsession, love, and death, is undoubtedly the most famous one among Faulkner's more than one hundred short stories. It tells of a tragedy of a screwy Southern lady Emily Grierson who is driven from stem to stern by the worldly tradition and desires to possess her lover by poisoning him and keeping his corpse in her isolated house, even sleeping with his decayed body for over forty years. The secret is not discovered until the death of Emily. This famous story that is regarded as a gothic tale inspires many people with its great artistic values. Faulkner's disordered but skillful arrangement of time plays an important role in catching readers' eyes, creating the mystic atmosphere and at last making an unfailing and thoughtful story.

"Elly" was revised from the story "Selvage" which bore Faulkner's name as well as the name of E. Oldham who was Faulkner's first lover and married him after she had divorced Cornell Franklin. According to Joseph Blotner, the story was originally hers, but she was not satisfied with her own composition, so she asked Faulkner to rewrite it (Blotner, 1977, p.42). At last it was published in 1934 and later collected in *Doctor Martino and Other Stories* and *Collected Stories of William Faulkner*. Elly, a childish and willful girl of eighteen years old, wants to get married to Paul after they are caught flirting by her grandmother, a traditional, old-fashioned and rigid old woman who is considered to be "a protector, an upholder of virtue, of past values" (Petty, 1986, p.231). Paul's repeated refusal especially after her virginity is offered as an exchange of marriage gives her a motive to fake an accident to kill her grandmother in order to prevent her from telling the truth to her parents. Eventually she drives the car down the precipice impulsively, killing both Paul and her grandmother.

This thesis is to illustrate the same fate of Emily and Elly that their creator, Faulkner, endows with the intention of revealing the conflicts between the natural expectations of young women and the cruel society that seems to destroy all of their natural needs, which lead to their inevitable destruction and self-destruction. The illustration is mainly from the following four aspects: family background, fight for life, irresponsible lover and a road to destruction and self-destruction.

II. FAMILY BACKGROUND

The description of the big, squarish frame house which is seated on the once most select street shows that Emily is born into a Southern well-known aristocratic family, which has remarkable social status and clings to traditional ethics. The noble parentage requires her to follow traditional rules with no doubts and behave as an elegant genteel lady, so she has to live in this house with different kinds of taboos, like a poor bird in a cage.

The house once full of nobility is now "an eyesore among eyesores" (Faulkner, 1977, p.119), which suggests that

Grierson family has already been declining for many years. Many years ago when a deputation of the Board of Aldermen visited her for taxes, they were led to her secret house which smelled of dust and disuse, and “when they sat down, a faint dust rose sluggishly about their thighs, spinning with slow motes in the single sun-ray” (Faulkner, 1977, p.120). All these indicate that this house is inanimate and lifeless. The appearance of the hostess, Miss Emily, who “looked bloated, like a body long submerged in motionless water, and of that pallid hue” (Faulkner, 1977, p.121) really made their hair stand on end. The beginning sets suspense for the whole story and raises the readers’ interest to know the mysterious house, hostess, and story.

Her father does not appear directly in the whole story, but his influence exists everywhere. “We had long thought of them as a tableau, ground, her father a spraddled silhouette in the foreground, his back to her and clutching a horsewhip, the two of them framed by the back-flung front door” (Faulkner, 1977, p.123). This is the remark of townspeople about the relationship between Emily and her father, which shows vividly the dominance of the paternalistic father over the silent daughter. The overprotective father manipulates Emily’s everyday life like a despotic king and drives away all her suitors so that she is still single when she gets to be thirty. He does not think that any of the young men are quite good enough for his daughter. Her father is the only man with whom she has a close relationship, so after her father has died, she cannot admit the fact of his death and does not let people dispose of his body until “they were about to resort to law and force” (Faulkner, 1977, p.124).

Emily’s domineering and overprotective father does not allow her to form a normal relationship with any men because he thinks none of them is a good match for his daughter. He is arrogant, proud, and looks down upon these young men courting his daughter. Emily is accustomed to living under this kind of severe and inappropriate paternal protection. There is not any tender and thoughtful maternal love. Therefore, she has no voice in her family and she cannot dare to strive for her own happiness and marriage. The long time of her father’s control suffocates the sentiment of an ordinary girl. Her emotions are suppressed, like a dormant volcano which will not break out unless a spark appears in due conditions. Besides, the overprotection also makes the father and daughter count on each other: the father does not allow his daughter to marry any other man while the daughter also takes her father’s control as a kind of protection and security, so she denies accepting his death and she can not live in the world with a feeling of being dispossessed and helpless.

“Elly” is both the title of the story and the name of the protagonist who is 18 years old. Elly is named after her grandmother—Ailanthia and lives with her parents and her grandmother in a bigish house. She almost nightly abandons herself to dallying with a different man in the veranda with screening vines and no lights. At first the targets are youths and young men of the town, but later almost anyone, “any transient in the small town whom she met by either convention or by chance, provided his appearance was decent” (Faulkner, 1977, p.208). But after that she sometimes cries silently and hopelessly and asks herself why she has done that. Elly’s deaf grandmother seems to be her eyesore, because she always glares at her with sternness and blame in her eyes, although she does not say anything. Elly always has a kind of fear for her and is suffocated with silent anger. All these direct conflicts in this story are about Elly and her grandmother rather than her parents, especially her father. However, it is not difficult to find that her father’s authority is the thing that manipulates her life and makes her scared when her grandmother threatens to tell the truth to her father. Her grandmother, as one of her guardians, is actually a spokeswoman for the old tradition and authority. More ridiculously, without search and fight for life and love, Elly would marry Philip, live in this lifeless Jefferson and become both a victim and an advocate of old tradition like her grandmother. At that time women should be confined to home and marriage. They are standardized and even internalized to conform to the requirement of male-headed society without any call for freedom. Miscegenation especially between white woman and black man is considered to be immoral and absolutely prohibited. The big house which Elly is confined to, to some degree, represents the “non-permissive society which is depicted as being injurious if not destructive to a number of young women in Faulkner’s stories” (Skei, 1979, p.17). That intolerant society can only produce the same kind of lady without any personality or natural needs.

III. FIGHT FOR LIFE

People are born to fight for life. So does Emily. Her father’s death is a big blow and at the same time gives her a chance to liberate her suppressed emotions. After a long grievous period she seems to be reborn and begin to get to know the world, like a bird out of cage. The sudden appearance of Homer Barron is like a spark to arouse her sense of love. He is “a big, dark, ready man, with a big voice and eyes lighter than his face” (Faulkner, 1977, p.124). He is funny and conversable, and pretty soon he becomes the focus in crowd. Such an attractive guy full of the virile fascination comes into Emily’s inanimate and despairing life. Her emotion spurts out like volcano, and she falls in love with him irredeemably and appears with him in town, driving “in the yellow-wheeled buggy and the matched team of bays from the livery stable” (Faulkner, 1977, p.124). Presently townspeople learn that Emily bought man’s toilet and clothing including a nightshirt, so they think they are going to be married. At that time the construction has finished and Homer has gone. They think he has gone to prepare their marriage. It seems that Homer is an oasis in the desert where she has been trudging for a long time, so she is irredeemably fascinated with this guy who makes her resuscitate. At that time, Homer replaces her father in her heart and becomes the second man that can give her warmth and sense of security. She thinks that she finally finds her soul mate, regardless of the condemnation of the gossipy townspeople, and she takes it

for granted that she will be Homer's wife. The descriptions of "the valance curtains of faded rose color", "the rose-shaded lights" and "the delicate array of crystal and the man's toilet things backed with tarnished silver" (Faulkner, 1977, p.129) are the proof that Emily has delicately prepared their bridal chamber like a young girl awakening in love and longing for a new life. She takes it as the only chance of escaping from overall dominance and living a normal and healthy life.

Elly, in fact, has a stronger desire to fight for life than any other girls in Faulkner's short stories, including Emily. The big house which is isolated from the outside world, coupled with her grandmother's surveillance makes her feel that she is trapped in darkness with "pointlessness and emptiness of life more profound than the rage or the sense of persecution" (Faulkner, 1977, p.209). She feels confused, lost and self-pitying. "What else can I do, in this little dead, hopeless town? I'll work. I don't want to be idle. Just find me a job—anything, anywhere, so that it's so far away that I'll never have to hear the word Jefferson again" (Faulkner, 1977, p. 212). This is the long cumulative complaint in her heart. She does not want to live in this dead, hopeless Jefferson with a feeling of emptiness and despair. She wants to work to involve herself in something so that she can escape from being idle. All these show that dallying with different men is only a way of idling away her life and defying the social conventions. Actually she has sense of virginity in her mind and refuses the defloration all the time, which indicates that she is not nymphomaniacal. She just feels confused and useless because she has nothing to do every day. Elly wants desperately to marry Paul, begs him repeatedly, and even make concessions by offering her virginity as an exchange of marriage. Paul's determined refusal makes her despair and submit to the engagement to Philip. However, this is not a true submission. Three weeks before her marriage, she makes efforts to get a chance to fetch her grandmother in Mills City with Paul. She takes it as the last desperate attempt to get rid of the tedious and lifeless future. Her stubbornness and willfulness make her desire to fight for life so strong. Just like what Hans H. Skei says, Paul apparently represents Elly's only chance of breaking loose from Jefferson and stifling parental guidance, and accordingly she is unwilling to give him up (Skei, 1979, p.17).

IV. IRRESPONSIBLE LOVER

Emily and Elly have struggled to get away from the stifling suppression and search for them a new life, but the unfortunate is that they meet wrong men, irresponsible lovers.

Homer Barron is a foreman of the construction company that comes to Jefferson to pave the sidewalks. He appears at the right moment and is supposed to be the one that can make Emily humanized after her father's death. However, Homer is a Northerner and a day laborer. In townspeople's opinion, he cannot be a good match for Miss Emily, and his humble social status makes him never qualify to marry a Southern lady. Therefore, some of the ladies say that her close relationship with Homer is a disgrace to the town and she sets young people a bad example. The meddling townspeople cannot just see a Southern lady corrupt the social moral environment and ruin the reputation of South, so they write to her relations in Alabama with whom her father has fallen out over the estate to treat with this matter in order to let them strictly reform Emily. Then she has two female cousins under her roof although they did not appear at her father's funeral. The ridiculousness is obvious in this part. Persuading Emily to keep the reputation as a well-bred Southern lady is more important than attending her father's funeral. It is not hard to find hypocrisy and indifference of Southern genteel family. Even though Emily becomes the center of gossips and encounters all kinds of condemnations, she still carries her head high without caring about them. However, a big shock, to both Emily and townspeople, is that Homer is not a responsible marrying man but a trustless playboy and he remarks in public that he likes men. Although some townspeople once think Emily will persuade him, the result shows that she has no capability of changing this virile creature. It is a big pity that she meets a wrong person at the right moment.

Paul de Montigny has never shown any love to Elly. He is only an irresponsible playboy and wants nothing but Elly's body, which is very obvious from the beginning. Every time when they are flirting in the screened and shadowed veranda, Paul lets out his strong longing for Elly's virginity, which he never disguises or denies. "You don't love me. I don't love you. We've never said we did" (Faulkner, 1977, p.222). The undisguised statement makes it clear that he sees through Elly and knows she does not love him and only takes him as a way of getting away from the tedious and boring life. Therefore he refuses to marry her with determination all the time regardless of her repeated begging, even after they "went into a clump of trees this morning and stayed there two hours" (Faulkner, 1977, p.218), which is an indication that Elly has already offered her virginity to Paul. In addition, Paul is a mulatto, a product of the immoral miscegenation. When Paul goes to Elly's house to visit her, her grandmother instinctively recognizes Paul as a mulatto as soon as she meets him and responds furiously. Elly sees her grandmother "without moving below the hips, start violently backward as a snake does to strike" (Faulkner, 1977, p.211). That night when Elly is dallying with Paul in a close clump of shrubbery on her lawn, she is "lost, her blood aloud with desperation and exultation and vindication too, talking inside her at the very brink of surrender loud as a voice: 'I wish she were here to see! I wish she were here to see'" (Faulkner, 1977, p.211)! When she see her grandmother just stand behind them, she is anxious and even scared but she accuses her grandmother of her profligacy and thinks "she drove me to it, then prevented me at the last moment" (Faulkner, 1977, p.211). The obvious fear and resent that Elly feels towards her grandmother help her to realize that having a relationship with Paul is the best way of antagonizing her grandmother, but Paul is far from that man.

V. A ROAD TO DESTRUCTION AND SELF-DESTRUCTION

Both Emily and Elly choose to destroy the man whom they can not get married to. They are forced to a road to destruction and self-destruction step by step.

Emily's tragedy is that when marriage becomes impossible, she tries hard to make Homer a prisoner of love. Her cousins' visiting is undoubtedly the last straw for her tragedy. During her cousins' staying with her, Emily bought arsenic without telling the druggist what she was going to use it for, and the druggist had his doubts about whether she bought it for rats although he wrote like that on the package. After another week her cousins leave and Homer is back three days later. At dusk one evening, people see Homer enter Emily's house, and that is the last time people see him. From that time on Emily seldom appears on the streets and her front door remains closed. Time is a good cure for extinguishing the hot gossips when the hero and heroine disappear from view, and finally everything is calm. Over forty years later, after Emily's death, people are startled by the truth that Homer does not disappear but lies dead in the bed in Emily's secret room. The secret room is supposed to be their bridal chamber which Emily has delicately prepared. Therefore, everything comes out. People finally get to know why many years ago she bought arsenic without telling the use. The strange smell of her house, the always closed front door, her incarceration in her house, and Homer's mysterious disappearance all become very clear.

The truth is that she poisons Homer secretly and resolutely. Therefore, Emily protects her dignity and reputation, and at the same time she confines her lover in her room from everlasting to everlasting, although it is only a dead body that lies in bed. The last part of the story is the most unimaginable thing. "Then we noticed that in the second pillow was the indentation of a head. One of us lifted something from it, and leaning forward, that faint and invisible dust dry and acrid in the nostrils, we saw a long stand of iron-gray hair" (Faulkner, 1977, p.218). The indentation of a head in the pillow beside Homer's corpse and a long strand of iron-gray hair are the implication that Emily even lay beside him. The rose-like bridal chamber becomes a tomb for the couple, with one of them physically dead, the other psychologically dead. She destroys the man who has damaged her dignity, reputation and longing for marriage, and at the same time she destroys herself. However, her murder and abnormal behavior of keeping a dead body do not arouse resent, while sympathy for her miserable fate is prevailing in the story.

It is obscure to readers that what happens after Homer enters Emily's house at dusk one evening. Readers get to know the result by analyzing all the facts and hints. However, the process of Elly being driven to destruction is clear, and it seems that readers are watching the tragedy happening. Elly asks, even begs Paul to marry her, and does not hesitate to exchange marriage with her virginity which Paul always desires to get. However, Paul refuses the marriage. A week later she is engaged to Philip, a promising young assistant cashier in the bank, but she does not love him and feels that she lives a dead life as if she were already dead. Two months later, she deceives her mother and drives with Paul, instead of Philip, to bring her grandmother back from her uncle in Mills City. On the way to Mills City she deliberately loses her virginity to him, but Paul still refuses to marry her very determinedly. In her uncle's house, she and her grandmother have a big quarrel over Paul's being there as a guest and the old woman refuses to put a foot in that car, and says "He shall not drive me to Jefferson. I will not put a foot in that car, and you shall not. We will go home on the train. No blood of mine shall ride with him again" (Faulkner, 1977, p. 218). In violent rage she throws out that they went into a clump of trees that morning and stayed two hours in order to infuriate her. In order to prevent her grandmother from telling her parents she has lost her virginity she attempts to fake an accident to kill her grandmother, but Paul refuses constantly. On the way back to Jefferson she begs him to marry her and is refused ruthlessly again. The conflicts are irremediable, and at last, she desperately grasps at the wheel and drives straight down the precipice, but she is by accident flung out of the car and survives.

It is Paul's final refusal to marry her that drives her to extreme insanity and makes her drive the car down the precipice. She destroys the person she desires in the process of destroying the other person who is the obstacle to what she desires. On the one hand, Elly's tragedy shows that life under the pressure of Southern aristocratic dominance is so desperate and helpless that a girl of adolescent age is forced to be a flapper, attempt to defy parental authority and eventually come to an extreme to kill her grandmother; on the other hand, it shows how useless and limited an individual's defiance of a whole society is. The endeavor to break loose from forbidding dominance and search for a new life is doomed to failure.

VI. CONCLUSION

The similarity of Emily and Elly lies in the fact that they are entangled by their unrealizable dreams and destroy the obstacle to their destination. They are courageous to defy the old-fashioned and destructive patriarchy and attempt to dominate their own life and love. When their love and marriage fall to scattered pieces, they do not hesitate to choose violence and defend their reputation according to social rules. However, their defiance is only halfway. On the one hand, they defy Southern values and hate parental authority; on the other hand, they submit to them to some extent. Therefore, the process of self-destruction is unavoidable.

The same miserable fate endowed by Faulkner earns great sympathy for them. They can not break loose from the society they are trapped in. At the same time, Faulkner accuses the intolerant even injurious social system of harm and destruction on women and makes it clear that the struggle which is dependent on one individual has no possibility of

success. The progress of culture and society can not be achieved in a short period, but needs cooperative fight in the long run.

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EFL Teachers' Self-regulation and Job Performance

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Abstract—The current study explored the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' self-regulation and job performance. To empirically explore the postulated correlation between teachers' self-regulation and job performance, 80 EFL teachers from various language institutes in Mashhad were asked to complete the "Teachers Self-Regulation Scale" and the "Job Performance Scale". The results of the finding confirmed the hypothesized relationship between teachers' self-regulation and job performance. Moreover, the result of Step-Wise Regression Analysis revealed that mastery goal orientation among sub-components of self-regulation was the best predictor of job performance. Finally, the results were discussed in details and implications were recommended.

Index Terms—self-regulation, job performance, EFL teachers, correlation

I. INTRODUCTION

According to Motowildlo (2003, p.42) "job performance is defined as the total expected value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period of time". A definition of job performance is beneficial for the domain of techniques that the industrial and organizational (I/O) psychology may employ to enhance individual performance in work organization (Motowildlo, 2003). Performance relates only to those behaviors that create a change to organizational aim achievement (Motowildlo, 2003). The performance domain involves behaviors that may have both positive and negative influence on organizational goal attainment (Motowildlo, 2003). For any organization the efficiency of its staff's performance to achieve desirable aims is of utmost important. When it comes to educational and nurture organization, it receives even more attention since it deals with the new generation who served passive roles in teacher centered methods and later become agent and active participants in an era where a classroom is viewed as a small community of different identities and individual differences. In a spectrum of language methodologists, across with attention to learners needs, roles, teachers roles have been perceived a great deal As Mount and Barrick (1998, p.851) proposed "understanding individual differences and their implication for behavior at work is one of our central tenets of our field, and personality characteristics are central to understanding individual differences" (cited in R. Mitchell & Daniels, 2003, p.239).

A great deal of attention has been devoted to self-regulation in various fields of studies and provoked scholars and psychologists to define different dimensions of this pervasive concept. "Self-regulation (or self-regulated learning) refers to learning that results from student's self-generated thought and behaviors that are systematic oriented toward the attainment of their learning goals" (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003, p.59). Self-regulation consists of three subcomponents: self-observation, self-judgment, and self-reaction (Shunk, 1996). *Self-observation* (italics in original) refers to intentional focus on individual behaviors encompassing determinants and wills, *self-judgment* (italics in original) includes the consistency between individuals present performance level and their goals and *self-reaction* (italics in original) refers to humans evaluation of their performance (Schunk, 1996) which is according to Paris and Winograd, (?) generally, people tend to evaluate their own behavior when they feel these behaviors are compatible with "their preferred or desired identity".

"People's beliefs in their efficacy influence the type of anticipatory scenarios they construct and rehearse. Those who have a high sense of efficacy visualize success scenarios that provide positive guides and supports for performance. Those who doubt their efficacy visualize failure scenarios and dwell on the many things that can go wrong" (Bandura, 1993, p.118). When learners set a goal, they find a sense of efficacy which encourages them to devote more time and effort to achieve their goals (Schunk, 1996). In another study teachers' self-regulation was believed to influence teacher's self-efficacy (Ghonsoli & Ghanizadeh, 2011).

The present study is addressed to investigate the probable relationship between self-regulated strategies and job performance among Iranian EFL teachers. The researchers of the current study are interested in exploring this association based on the logical assumption derived from the theoretical framework of self-regulation theory as well as job performance. The goal setting factor, (goal setting deals with the idea that most of people function and behavior come from their intentionally chosen goals and intention, Mitchell & Daniels, 2003), is of utmost importance in self-

regulation and job performance. So, it was hypothesized that the more the teachers employees self-regulated strategies in their classroom, the more it contributes to his/her better professional performance.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

A. Self-regulation

Based on sociocultural learning theory, cultural factors play a significant role in developing learner's self-regulation and this self-regulation is improved in a meaningful and collaborative environment (Butler, 2002). The interaction between teacher-learner and learner-learner contribute to appropriate application of self-regulated strategies in desired situations (Butler, 2002). Agency is the capability of human beings to make choices in ways that make a difference in their lives (Martin, 2004, cited in Barnard-Brak, Lan, & Paton, 2010). This agentic aspect offers the human being self-regulated in learning management to perform both autonomously and causally to have an effect on their outcomes and experiences (Barnard-Brak et al, 2010). From this agentic aspect, the self-regulation of learning is taken into consideration as supporting self-deterministic dimension (Barnard-Brak et al, 2010).

Pintrich (2004) stated that most self-regulated learning definitions have four general assumptions in common. The first one is the *active constructive assumption* (italics in original) which is derived from cognitive aspects. In this perspective learners are expected to construct their own meaning, aims, and techniques from the existing information in their "external" environment and "internal" environment (Pintrich, 2004). A second supposition is *the potential for control assumption* (italics in original). In this matter students can monitor, check, manage, and regulate particular dimensions of their own cognition, motivation, and behavior and some characteristics of their conditions (Pintrich, 2004). However this assumption does not imply that human can always manage and regulate their cognitive, motivation, and behaviors (Pintrich, 2004). Some checking, managing is possible (Pintrich, 2004).

The *goal, criterion or standards assumption* (italics in original) constitute the third assumption. Individuals plan a goal to develop their learning and then regulate their cognition, motivation, and behavior for achieving their aims (Pintrich, 2004). The last general assumption is that self-regulatory activities are *mediators between personal and contextual characteristics and actual achievement and performance* (italics in original). It offers besides cultural, contextual, individual differences, individual's self-regulation of their cognitive, motivation and behavior are significant factors in goal achievement (Pintrich, 2004).

Zimmerman (2008) offered several techniques for evaluating learners' self-regulated learning online such as computer traces, think aloud protocols, structured dairies, direct observation, and macro analytic measure. Zimmerman & Martinez-pons (1990) found that intelligent students apply more particular self-regulated strategies than their normal peers. These strategies include organizing and transforming, self-consequating, seeking peer help, and reviewing notes (Zimmerman & Martinez-pons, 1990). These strategies show triadic bidirectional intertwining components of self-regulated learning (Zimmerman & Martinez-pons, 1990). Organizing and transforming refer to regulating personal processes, self-consequating refers to individual's behavior and reviewing notes and seeking peer help refer to learners' environment (Zimmerman & Martinez-pons, 1990). Since the teaching profession deals with problem-solving and creativity, it is significant for teachers to get familiar with the notion self-regulation (Paris & Winograd, ?).

When applying strategies, self-regulated learners evaluate their outcome with regard to the kind of strategy (Butler, 2002). Effective learners self-assess their task achievement according to task criteria rather than their teacher judgment (Butler, 2002). They also translate the offered feedback from their teachers, scores, and peers (Butler, 2002) and use these feedbacks for finding solution for confronted challenges (Randi, 2004). Zimmerman (2002) presents 8 skills which are significant in this process. They include (Van Eekelen, Boshuizen, & Vermount, 2005):

- Setting particular proximal goals for one self.
- Providing powerful strategies for attaining these goals.
- Monitoring one's performance.
- Reconstructing one's learning environment to be in consistent with ones goal.
- Manipulating one's time effectively.
- Self-assessing one's methods.
- Connecting results to causation.
- Adopting future approaches.

According to developmental theories, the conception of self-regulation in terms of progressive cognitive modifications in students encourages them to take a more dominant role on their thoughts, emotions, and performances (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994, cited in Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003). They assert that "self-regulation does not mean social independence" (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003, p. 64); self-regulation progresses primarily from social source and changes to individual sources in a sequence of levels (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003). In educational context, beginners quickly acquire learning strategies from teaching social modeling, and task structuring (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003). Although the number of social strategies applied by advanced learners is fewer than beginners, it is not implied that social effects disappear with advancing skill acquisition (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003). "Self-regulated learning involves goal-directed activities that students instigate, modify, and sustain" (Zimmerman, 1994, 1998, cited in Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003, p.59).

Teachers have found the motivation to test their pedagogical practices as a kind of job-embedded staff development (Wilson & Berne, 1999, cited in Randi, 2004). Little, (2003) proposed that current teacher professional development consider teachers as learners who derive their available information of their teaching experiences to inform their work and professional improvement (Randi, 2004). This type of learning as Reyni, (1996) suggests demands teachers to feel accountability of their own learning. Regarding both teachers and learners, self-regulated strategies are significant (Randi, 2004).). Randy (2004) introduced 10 characteristics of high quality conditions for teachers in order to improve their self-regulation in educational context. These include:

1. Motivate teachers to create, rather than copy instructional practices.
2. Provide teachers options about instruction.
3. Center on the assessment of instructional practice.
4. Facilitate a pedagogical planning that cycle through planning, enacting, and reflecting on lessons.
5. Offer choices for problem solving.
6. Suggest teachers for learning within the context of teaching.
7. Consider students at the focus of teacher learning.
8. Helping teachers to articulate their knowledge.
9. Scaffolds teachers to higher level of performance, through the strategic use of resources, including mentors.
10. Consist both challenges and support.

She also proposes that "if teaching is to be viewed as a learning opportunity, self-regulated learning strategies seem to be critical skills for teachers to acquire" (2004, p. 1835). "Self-regulated learners are aware when they know a fact or process a skill and when they do not. Self-regulated learners view learning as a systematic and controllable process and they accept greater responsibility for their achievement outcomes (Zimmerman, 1990, p.4)".

Nicole and Macfarlane-Dick, (2006) claimed that formative assessment as a kind of assessment, providing an ongoing feedback of student achievement, led to learner's self-regulation that nourishes the learning process. They indicated seven features of good practice (Nicole and Macfarlane-Dick, 2006):

- Explain what good performance means (goal, criteria, expected standards);
- Assisting the improvement of self-assessment;
- Presenting valuable information to students;
- Motivating teacher and peer discussion;
- Motivating positive motivational beliefs and self-esteem;
- Offering opportunities to remove the distance between current and desired performance;
- Offering information to instructors to form the teaching.

B. Job Performance

"Job performance is perhaps the most central construct in work psychology" (Viswesvaran, & Ones, 2000, p.224). The definition of performance as expected behavior value over an appropriate time, is in complete persistent with the supposition proposed by others that a human's performance can shift over time with modifications in motivated criteria and conditional limitations (Motowidlo, 2003). Organ (1988, p.4, cited in Motowidlo, 2003, p.46) defined organizational citizenship behavior as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization".

Sackett and Laczó (2003) offered two different central aspects of job analysis; activity versus attribute. The latter refers to examining worker' performance and behaviors at work labeled '*work-oriented*' (italics in original) and the former akin to examining workers personalities such as skill, talent resulting to fulfilling their function on the job- this labeled *worker-oriented* (italics in original).

Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) introduced two dimensions of contextual performance: job dedication and interpersonal facilitation. Job dedication behavior refers to "self-disciplined, motivated acts," and interpersonal facilitation concerns "cooperative, considerate, and helpful acts" (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996 p. 525, cited in Schmitt, Cortina, Ingerick, & Wiechmann, 2003, p.81).

Considering social exchange theory (SET), the association between work involvement and OCB can be explained (Runhaar, Konermann, & Sanders, 2013). Runhaar et al., (2013) interpreted this theory in the frame of educational context; teachers represent beneficial behaviors toward their colleagues as well as organization and these behaviors will be reflected by their peers realization and beneficial behaviors. This kind of behavior motivates teachers to become more deeply involved in their job performance Saks, (2006, cited in Runhaar et al., 2013). Runhaar et al, (2013) defined OCBI and OCBO proposed by Williams and Anderson (1991). In this definition OCBI refers to "helping-behavior towards individual colleagues" (p. 100) such as a teacher assists his/her fellow to manage his/her professional difficulties and OCBO refers to "helping-behavior directed towards the organization as a whole" (p. 100) as when a teacher is interested a in carrying out an extra activity. Runhaar et al, (2013) found that there is a correlation between teacher's age and organizational citizenship behavior. The older the teachers are, the more organizational citizenship behavior they possess with the explanation that the more experienced and well aware of teaching skills teachers are, the better their job performance is (Runhaar et al., 2013).

Campbell (1990) proposed a multifactor model of job performance consisted of eight components (cited in Motowildlo, 2003, p.43):

- Job-specific task proficiency,
- Non-job-specific task proficiency,
- Written and oral communication,
- Demonstrating effort,
- Maintaining personal discipline,
- Facilitating team and peer performance,
- Supervision,
- Management and administration,

Also, Hackman and Oldman, (1976, cited in Hulin & Judge, 2003, p.262) designed a job characteristics model (JCM) which they suggested (JCM) enriched work with more challenges. It includes five job characteristics (Hackman and Oldman, 1976, cited in Hulin & Judge, 2003, p.262) :

- Task identity-degree to which one can see ones work from beginning to end.
- Task significance-degree to which ones work is seen as important and significant.
- Skill variety-degree which job allows employees to perform different tasks.
- Autonomy-degree to which employees can regulate their job.
- Feedback-degree to which the work itself offers feedback.

In the present day, the dichotomy between analytical and global styles of learning is a fixed characteristic that has received a great deal of attention (Rafalldi, Iannello, Vittani, & Antonietti 2012). "*Analytical* (italics in original) individuals have a focused attention: they have an interest in operations and procedures or the "proper" ways of doing things and prefer step-by-step planning" (Rafalldi et al., 2012, p.2). *Global* (italics in original) people prefer to scan and form the whole impressions and it makes them integrate their emotions into decision making and logical functions (.Rafalldi et. Al, 2012).

Regarding the above mentioned points, the present study aims to answer the following questions:

1. Is there any significant relationship between teachers' self-regulated strategies in their educational context and their job performance?
2. Among components of self-regulation, which component is the best predictor of teacher's job performance?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

80 Iranian EFL teachers (N=80) took part in this research. Among these participants, 36 were male and 44 were female. The majority of these participants graduated in different fields of English, 30 had an MA or were students of MA of English teaching, 21 had a BA in English literature, 12 had an MA or were students of MA in English translation. 17 of these participants were from other sciences. All of them were from different language schools in Mashhad, a city in the Northeast of Iran. Their ages varied from 28 to 43 years old. Their teaching experiences varied from 5 years to 21 years.

B. Instrumentation

1. Teacher Self-Regulation Scale (TSRS)

To measure teacher self-regulation, the researchers applied the Teacher Self-Regulation Scale (TSRS), designed by Yesim, Sunger and Uzuniriyaki (2009). This scale is based on the model proposed by Zimmerman's self-regulation (Yesim et al., 2009). It comprised of 40 items using six-point Likert scale ranging from (6) "strongly agree" to (1) "strongly disagree". Scores on this test represent teacher's degree of self-regulation as teacher's own self-regulated strategies which they apply in classrooms (Yesim et al., 2009). This test includes 9 factors which are elaborated on in the table1. In the present study the Cronbach's alpha of this measurement was 0.80.

TABLE 1.
NINE FACTORS OF TSRS ALONG WITH CORRESPONDING DESCRIPTIONS

Factor	Description
(1) Goal setting	Process of establishing objectives to guide actions during instruction
(2) Intrinsic interest	Beliefs concerning personal interest in the profession
(3) Performance goal orientation	Goals to do better than others as a teacher and to have other believe in ones competence
(4) Mastery goal orientation	Goals to improve competence in teaching And master the teaching task against self-set standards
(5) Self-instruction	Process of monitoring one s own performance in teaching and making instructional changes when necessary
(6) Emotional control	Strategies for controlling and regulating affect, mood, and emotions
(7) Self-evaluation	Process of evaluating current teaching performance by comparing it with previously established goal and past performance
(8) Self-reaction	Affective responses following a teaching performance
(9) Help-seeking	Getting help from others to resolved problems encountered in teaching process

2. Job Performance Scale

For measuring teacher's job performance, the job performance scale designed by Paterson (1990) was applied. This questionnaire consists of 15 items encompassing four point Likert scale from "always" to "rarely". In this study the Cronbach's alpha for the present questionnaire was 0.84.

C. Procedure

The process of data collection was carried out for twelve weeks. The participants were given the TSRS to fill in for 20 minutes. Then they completed job performance scale for 10 minutes. In order to analyze the data, the researchers applied SPSS version 20. To explore whether there was any correlation between teachers' self-regulation and job performance, Pearson-product moment correlation was employed. At the end, by applying step-wise regression the researchers found out which sub-capabilities of TSRS was a positive predictor of job performance.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In order to determine whether a link exists between teachers' self-regulation and their job performance, a Pearson Product Moment correlation was performed, the result of which revealed a significant positive correlation between the two variables ($r=0.500$, $P<.01$).

Correlations

Job performance	Self-regulation		
.500**	1	Pearson Correlation	
.000		Sig. (2-tailed)	Self-regulation
.80	.80	N	
.1	.500**	Pearson Correlation	
	.000	Sig. (2-tailed)	Job performance
.80	.80	N	

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

To further analyze the data, the researchers conducted the regression analysis with a Stepwise method. The results revealed that among the subcomponents of self-regulation, mastery orientation goal is the best predictor of teacher total job performance (adjusted $R^2=.455$, $p<0.5$) indicating that teachers who scored high on mastery orientation goal performed better at work.

STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS PREDICTING JOB PERFORMANCE

Beta	F	Std. Error of the Estimate	Adjusted R Square	R Square	R	Model
.680	67.026	4.53542	.455	.462	.680 ^a	Mastery-orientation goal

V. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Consistent with the hypothesized relationship between teachers' self-regulation and their job-performance, the findings of the present research demonstrate a significant correlation between teachers' self-regulation and job performance. This is compatible with theoretical and empirical research that center on the role of individual differences in professional performance. Vancouver (2000) stated that, in work context, self-regulation involves the creation of goals, the creation of a tool to achieve goals, or shifting ways for evaluating present levels (Randi, 2004). This perspective characterizes self-regulation in terms of attaining particular tasks. In organizations-centered on productivity, work is respected over learning and learning is improved for work's sake (Randi, 2004). Consistent with changes in learner's roles from passive learners to active participants (Randi & Corno, 2000, cited in Randi, 2004), teachers professional roles have changed from workers to learners which demands teachers to improve volitional learning strategies as well as volitional work styles (Randi, 2004). In a similar line, it is revealed that there is a high linkage between EFL teachers pedagogical success and their application of self-regulated strategies at their teaching environment (Monshi Toussi & Boori & Ghanizadeh, 2012).

In the present study all participants were teaching in language institutes where it was supposed that the frames of teaching manuals represent similar instructions regarding course books which (e.g. Interchange, Top Noch,) are thought. These books focus on learners' need, autonomy, responsibility as well as a focus on teachers' roles as facilitators. Teachers are required to follow the principles. Both teachers and learners are encouraged to create a meaningful context and directly or indirectly highlight the implementation of self-regulated strategies such as taking advantage of students' feedback and control their emotions (Randi, 2004). These conditions enrich the quality of learning environment in which learners learn to have an aim to progress, to feel accountable for their process (Schunk, 1996), and it is sensible to assume this influences teachers' job performance.

Holland (1973), postulated that professional and job satisfaction, morale, productivity, and attainment rely on the correlation between humans personality and their job context (Hough& Furnham, 2003). Teachers with a high level of efficacy are aware of applying the appropriate strategies at the apt situations (Randi, 2004; y) which leads to learners'

autonomy particularly in these days of post method era. According to Kumaravdivelu (2006) "the post method learner, is an autonomous learner. Because language learning is largely an autonomous activity, promoting learner autonomy is vitally important". Self-regulated learners feel autonomous and they become active even when encountering problems and laden fruitless conditions and for creating this condition, teachers play a critical role especially when both teachers and learners are viewed on the same page (Newman 2002). Interpreted in teacher education, teachers tend to enrich the quality of both teaching as well as learning by employing different patterns of self-regulated strategies and shift these techniques whenever modifications are necessary (Randi, 2004).

With respect to the second question of the present study, the results of the finding indicated that mastery orientation goal is the best predictor of teachers' job performance. This result is consistent with Yesim, Sunger and Uzuntiryaki (2009) indicated that teachers with mastery orientation goals take more consideration towards improving new abilities, developing competence, and fulfilling task rather than personal achievements. They respect the quality of teaching so they devote extra effort and time to cope with existing challenges in the educational context (Yesim et al., 2009). In learning process mastery orientation goals due to their quality of challenge are preferred to performance orientation goals Paris & Winograd, (?).

The present study has some limitation. The role of English teaching background, degree, gender have not be concerned so it was suggested a further research including the above factors. Regarding the dramatic changes in teachers' roles from transferring of information and knowledge to supporting self-regulated students learning, it seems highly critical that teachers be cognizant of essential skills (Van Eekelen et al, 2005). Researchers emphasize that it is applicable to teach self-regulatory strategies which contribute to learners' achievement and enhancing their self-efficacy (Schunk, 1996).

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The Contrastive Analysis of the Graduation Resources in China and US Press Briefings

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Abstract—This is an age of media. In press conference, reporters ask the questions what he is curious about or interesting of. The spokesperson, as a host, is required to answer reporters' any question or doubt. There are large amounts of graduation resources in the press briefings. So this thesis will give a contrastive analysis of the graduation resources in China and US press briefings.

Index Terms—graduation resources, press briefings, contrastive analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

As the globalization and media industry develops, press conference has become an important channel for all works of society to know and understand an event or policy. Being an authentic language full of meaning, many scholars home and abroad have chosen the language from press conference as the focus of their studies. In other words, language from press conference has great potential to be studied and analyzed.

The methodology of this thesis is a combination of quantitative and qualitative analysis. It includes four parts: the collection of text, statistics, analysis and result. The author uses the documents of press conference on the websites of China and US and analyzes the differences of graduation resources when they answer the same kind of topics quantitatively and qualitatively.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

To explore the deep meanings of graduation resource, it is necessary to get some basic understanding of the basic theory of functional grammar. For example, interpersonal meaning, appraisal theory. Besides these, we still need to know some concepts about press conference. Only in this way, can we better understand the Chinese and American diplomat's implied meanings.

A. *Interpersonal Meaning in Functional Grammar*

The interpersonal meaning of language has been the subject investigated by many linguists for many years. Halliday proposes three meta-functions of language, which are the function of ideational, interpersonal and textual.

The interpersonal function of language "serves to establish and maintain social relations: for the expression of social roles, which include the communication roles created by language itself, for example the roles of questioner or respondent, which we take on by asking or answering a question; and also for getting things done, by means of the interaction between one person and another" (Halliday, 2000). Through the interpersonal meaning, "social groups are delimited, and the individual is identified and reinforced, since by enabling him to interact with others language also serves in the expression and development of his own personality."

B. *Summary of the Study on Graduation*

Graduation attends to grade phenomena whereby feelings are amplified and categories (Martin & White, 2005). Graduation does not limit to one subsystem of Appraisal but involves the whole system. The distinguished feature of graduation is gradability. Martin and White (2008) have ever pointed that "the semantics of graduation should be the core of the appraisal system" (p.136). Force and focus are the two parts of graduation, which try to modify and limit attitudinal meanings and engagement system.

1. Force

Graduation is concerned with gradability. For attitude, since the resources are inherently gradable, graduation has to do with adjusting the degree of an evaluation – how strong or weak the feeling is.

Intensification deals with quality (slightly happy-very happy), process (slightly trouble us-greatly interrupt us) and modality (possible, probable, certain). The lexical intensifications of qualities are often employed to express the attitude, e.g. amazingly, dreadfully etc while the lexical intensification of processes are few used to convey the attitude, e.g. move swiftly, stare intently etc. There are mainly six modes that intensification operates: isolating, maximization, lexicalization, infusion, repetition and metaphor.

According to Martin & White, quantification involves the values of the imprecise consideration of number, mass and extent. And it is typically via isolation, infusion and repetition acting as modifiers of the graduated entities. The

following section will analyze the spokesperson press briefing in from the aspect of number, mass and extent as the analysis of quantification.

2. Focus

In general there seem to be more resources for turning the volume up than for turning it down: raise so touchy, infinitely more naked, quite clinical, most dangerous, lower a little upset, somewhat upset, the least bit more information. In the context of non-gradable resources, graduation has the effect of adjusting the strength of boundaries between categories, constructing core and peripheral types of things; this system is called “focus”.

C. *The Linguistic Features of Press Briefing Discourse*

Press briefing is a public and special meeting which government sectors, social groups or individuals hold to invite reporters to join. Press briefing is an excellent model to combine publicity with news. Press briefing offers an opportunity for the sponsor to launch information and publicize itself to widespread media in the same platform and also provide reporters with a short cut to gain all-around and authoritative information in short time. Government press briefing is of the highest specification, biggest scale and maximum news value. Its imparting information is relatively direct, authoritative and abundant, which is the important news source of news media. Therefore, government press briefing is chosen as research object. Government press briefing here specializes government spreads information and increase influence to the public via media.

1. Frankness

Frankness means being direct and straightforward. With the purpose of gaining information and the lack of question time, journalists always ask questions frankly in order to getting more information. Frankness can be classified into going straight to questions and speaking bluntly.

2. Vagueness

Vagueness is also another important feature of press briefing discourse. Language vagueness expresses uncertainty and inaccuracy. Vagueness can contribute to successful communication. Communication needed language vagueness, which sounded strange. But if we completely obeyed conventional rules and eliminated the language vagueness, the communication would be totally dull and limit the function of communication and expression.

3. The Unity of Objectivity and Subjectivity

Objectivity is another indispensable important feature of press briefing discourse. First of all, press briefing is a mean of transmitting news. Therefore, it must objectively supply information so that there will not exist deviation. But at the same time, subjectivity is another feature of press briefing discourse. It doesn't conflict with objectivity. The first reason is that human beings are full of emotion. They will be affected by pleasure, anger, sorrow and joy. The spokesman has double identity: that is to say, he is not only a looker-on, but also a participant. On the one hand, as a looker-on, the spokesman must keep away from information and be objective in order to give information accurately, justly and factually.

4. Euphemism

A euphemism is a substitution of an expression that may offend or suggest something unpleasant to the receiver with an agreeable or less offensive expression or to make it less troublesome for the speaker as in the case of doublespeak.

5. Argument

In most situations, press briefing is a battle of words. The interests and purpose of journalists and spokesmen are different. The journalists will raise ridiculous questions, twist spokesman's remarks on purpose and even saddle their subjective inference and judgment on spokesmen.

6. Humor

Humor can ease tense atmosphere, refute the error by the way of transmitting information in meaning and humorous language. As a result, the communicative purpose can be achieved under relaxed circumstance. As a Chinese old saying goes, humor should go with time and circumstance.

III. THE QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS OF CHINESE AND AMERICAN SPOKESPERSON'S GRADUATION RESOURCE

Nowadays, scholars have done many researches about press briefing discourse from multiple perspectives. Yang Xiujuan makes an analysis of remarks at press briefings held by Premier Zhu from the view of stylistics, semantics and pragmatics. Its purpose is to apply foreign theory to analyze our own native language material: Chinese, and the analysis demonstrates the tremendous vitality of language resources and the universality of foreign theory in application to Chinese language material. In the light of theories of pragmatic studies on international communication, Hu Gengshen and Wang Jing present the typical features of language use in press briefing discourses, i.e. frankness, fuzziness, euphemisticness, argumentiveness and humorousness. The researches of press briefing discourse are decentralized in different works, among which Zhao Hongvan's book stands out. She first introduces the developmental histories of Chinese and American government press briefing.

A. *Force Analysis*

As discussed in the former chapter, force should be the variable scaling of intensity, and the mode of it can be found widely in the media as well as its operation is always appeared in the expression of attitude. The daily press briefing in

America should be the main way that the world understands the attitude of American government toward the international policy of America. In the next part, the thesis will analyze the daily press briefing in from the aspect of the two parts of force: intensification and quantification.

1. Intensification

In the former chapter, we have discussed that there are seven modes of intensification, which are mainly about the intensity of the values. In accordance with these seven modes, next section will give detailed analysis about the daily press briefings.

1.1. Isolating

Isolating, as one mode of intensification, refers to those isolated items independently achieve the task of setting the level of intensity. Isolating values are which realized through grammatical items whose sole function is to encode high, median and low grade of intensity. There are mainly three ways that isolated items appearing: up/down scaling of qualities; up/down-scaling of verbal process, up/down-scaling of modalities. In press briefing, we cannot find the isolated items that modify modalities, but the other ways have all appeared.

The number of isolated words grammatically in Chinese regular press conference is 145, which includes the repetition of some words. The following analysis will give the answers of these questions:

Quality isolated: most fateful, mere primitive, very beginning, clear, late, weak, great, whole, altogether.

Process isolated: really, actually, exactly, just, never, eventually, far more than this, reverently commit, only, just, firmly

1.2. Infusion

Quality infusion: calm and firm and united, faithful, contented, happy, joyous, warm, hot, scalding

Process infusion: only do, startled, frightened, terrified, fail, maximize, minimize, better, always, at least

1.3. Repetition

Quality repetition: to use one term like people for many times

Process repetition: the objective clause led by cost, see, how much, the prepositive phrase led by from

Repetition is easily discovered in numbers, as we all know, repetition is employed to strengthen the force and to make the effect of rhythm, but the language of English pays more attention to the economy of expression. When the president gives an inaugural speech or state of union address, he employs repetition to strengthen the force. For example:

The world is very different now. all forms of human poverty and all forms of human life.

Repetition is used to stress the new trend of the world situation and the challenge of future. So repetition should be the most common way that the Chinese political texts have employed.

2. Quantification

According to Martin & White, quantification involves the values of the imprecise consideration of number, mass and extent. And it is typically via isolation, infusion and repetition acting as modifiers of the graduated entities. The following section will analyze the spokesperson press briefing in from the aspect of number, mass and extent as the analysis of quantification.

2.1. Number

...and to recognize we have so much more to gain by working together than finding the areas in which there are obvious disagreements and focusing more on them.

Imprecise numbers: *so much more, more*

In the spokesperson press briefing, there are many imprecise numbers showing the newly happened situations.

2.2. Mass

Imprecise numbers: tiny, large, gigantic etc.

In the press briefing, the reporters and the spokesperson mostly talk about the foreign affairs or international issues. These abstract topics are few about one concrete presence.

2.3. Extent

Extent has been divided into proximity and distribution, which involves with imprecise time and space. Generally speaking, the employment of extent is hard to find out in official text, which is determined by the style of political texts. It is acknowledged that political text is very formal and even every word is asked to be concise and exact. While press briefing is a instant response, the spokesperson cannot refer to the accurate materials. So he may employ ambiguous expression about proximity and distribution in terms of time and space.

Quantification, according to Martin and White, is to the imprecise one, which is very common to be used in this conference or briefing.

B. Focus Analysis

In terms of focus, the concept of grading has to do with sharpen or soften of categorical boundaries around experiential phenomena. A sharp focus represents a strengthening of the categorical meaning, and a soft Focus represents a weakening.

Sharpness is to make the effect of maximal investment by the authorial voice in the value position being advanced and hence to strongly align the reader into the value position being advanced.

Softness has mentioned that the softened term is a negative one, which is to show the lessening of the

speaker/writer's investment in the value position. In briefing, the sentences that express the meaning of focus are 38:

Which ones were talking about? Just the whole territorial –

I will say in this set of circumstances it is not unusual that almost every country feels that they are on the defensive,

Sharpeness: *Just*

Softness: *not unusual*

The Chinese spokesperson is to express the attitude that these two ones are all important in the adjustment of income distribution in a reasonable manner.

In this example, the Chinese spokesperson has employed the maximizes *real* to modify, which has the attitudinal meaning: these five years are the real extraordinary time. *Truly* represents a sharpening of a categorical boundary. The word of *truly* not only has expressed the attitudinal meaning of the spokesperson, but also has the meaning of focus.

After analysis of the press conference of Chinese spokesperson, the sharpening items have been widely used while the softening items are not employed. From the above illustration, the attitudinal meaning, the context and culture all should be taken into account of our thinking the meaning of focus are often expressed by the word.

IV. THE QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE REASON

After a quantitative analysis of the graduation resource, we have a visualized picture of this phenomenon in diplomatic world. But this is only a scientific data. For most diplomatic students or enthusiasts, they need a more conclusive answer about this question. In the following part, we will study the reason of the distribution feature of graduation resource in press conference.

A. The Reason of the Distribution Feature of Graduation Resource in American Press Conference

Generally speaking, American press conference feels like a seminar. The spokesperson and the reporters enjoy a relaxed environment. At the beginning, the spokesperson briefs the present situation of the world. The next step is reporter's free asking time.

1. Social Status

In America and many other western countries, the media is called the fourth power besides administration, legislation and judiciary. The media is a monitoring power in the society. So in the situation of press conference, the reporter appears as the equal one to the spokesperson. They can ask the spokesperson to answer their question. For example, even though a topic has been answered by the spokesperson, the reporter still can ask the spokesperson back to the topic. For example:

MS. PSAKI: *Again, Brad, the Philippine Government is conducting an investigation. We encourage them to do so. I don't think I'm going to foray into this any further today.*

QUESTION: *Can I go back to Japan?*

QUESTION: *Jennifer, can we go to Iraq?*

MS. PSAKI: *Into – back to Japan?*

From this example, we can see the press briefing is flexible. If the reporter feels an issue isn't answered well, he can ask the spokesperson to answer it again. This proves the high position of media reporter in America. Sometimes, a reporter can criticize administration to the spokesperson with upscaling words, like the case of Snowden.

2. The Topic

Most of time, the topic proposed by the reporters is about other countries, like China, Japan, Syria, Israel etc. We must admit no other countries can be a direct foe to the America. The motive of reporters to ask these questions is that America has enough influence on these topics no matter the international controversy and war nor the domestic affairs, such as human rights, air pollution even the misconduct of government officials of an independent country. So these questions give the American spokesperson a special speech rights to give their judgments on these issues, but also an pressure of interfering other nation's independent administration. We cannot ignore this psychological effects reflecting in American spokesperson's answers.

American spokesperson always uses "do not wish to" "avoid" mid value process to express their negotiator or neutral attitude on the issue of the dispute of sovereignty between China and Japan.

But American spokesperson always uses "pronounce" "I think" "proclaim". These dictions are employed to strengthen its involvement as a super power.

3. The Culture

As we all know, individual Culture is the foundation of America. So no matter in any situation, American would like others to make their own decision. For example, we can find "Viewer discretion is advised" at the very beginning of many American TV dramas. So as to the press conference, the spokesperson doesn't want to engage his too much judgment in his statement or answer.

It has close relationship between language and culture. Due to the appearance and development of language, culture has been emerged and passed down. In this world there is no culture without language, and also no language without culture; culture influences language while language reflects culture. As cross-cultural activity, press briefing is supposed to involve with cultures of different countries. The definition of culture includes many aspects: habits, beliefs, political stands, value systems etc.

B. *The Reason of the Distribution Feature of Graduation Resource in Chinese Press Conference*

In China, since long time ago, the officer in government enjoys a lot of power. So, in Chinese press conference, the spokesperson gives less information about the situation.

1. Social Status

In China, the media doesn't have the function of being a watchdog of the administration. So the reporter only asks what they have interest and record what the spokesperson said, but cannot challenge the spokesperson's position in a press briefing. This decides why there are less upscaling words in the reporter's question in the press conference of China.

2. The Topic

As we know, China government pays more attention on its own affairs or concerned interests. China few interfere other countries' domestic issues, like human rights, political dissidents etc. So the topics on the China press conference are mainly about sovereignty.

3. The Culture

Usually, we think the culture of China is Confucian. Confucius emphasizes gentleness and peacefulness. But in the answer of Chinese spokesperson, there are 44% process strengthening words. These words are related to the present culture of China. Not only in public political texts, there are also many process strengthening words in our daily communication. So the spokesperson is influenced by the speech habit of common people.

V. THE CONCLUSION

Graduation is not only an isolated issue, which is easy to be affected by the factors like social status, topics, culture and psychology etc. Graduation can stimulate us to realize the communicative function of strengthening or weakening the semantic meaning, to employ reasonably the different level of linguistic resources and to accomplish the expression and communicative mission of different intention in press briefing more strategically.

Have you ever thought the system of appraisal theory is filled with the diction of diplomacy. This kind of study will be a new try and meaningful. On the basis of graduation under Appraisal, this thesis gives the detailed approach to the translation of the graduated words in the English version of press briefing. In this chapter, it will conclude the major findings, significance, and limitations of this study and also the recommendations for further research.

A. *Findings of This Study*

After a contrastive study of Chinese and US press briefings, the author has some findings listed below:

First, the distribution of force in press briefings is much more than the focus.

Second, the two parts of force (intensification and quantification) also have completely different distributions in press briefings. The number of intensification is more than the number of quantification.

Third, Intensification is explored through the six modes. However, still other graduated words have been made some adjustments, because of the special attitude in its contexts, the different cultures and different features of these two languages.

Fourth, Quantification is about the imprecise reckonings according to Martin and White. In contrast, we can easily find the precise items in press briefings but the imprecise ones are comparatively few.

Fifth, In comparison with the number of employments of force, the expressions of focus are comparatively few. Meanwhile the expressions of graduation are all sharpness without the appearing of softness.

B. *Significance of This Study*

Although the former studies have given more illustrations of the Appraisal in many kinds of discourses, few scholars choose the point of graduation to give research on the press briefings and its distributive features of the graduation resources. This study will deepen the researches on the graduation and expand the applications of graduation.

C. *Some Limitations of This Study and Recommendations for Further Research*

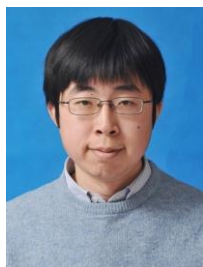
This study cannot be an exhaustive one of analyzing the translation of graduated words under Appraisal and there are still many limitations. Firstly, in the Appraisal System, graduation is to scale the other two subsystems: attitude and engagement. This thesis just talks about the graduation without touching upon the others. Secondly, there are many causes to the changes of graduated words in the text; especially the differences from the aspects of culture and language, but this thesis only give several points due to the limited time and space.

This thesis only takes the press conference of Chinese Government, and the press briefings of US Government in other years have not been included. The graduated words in these press briefings still need to make further research so as to exactly construe the attitudinal meaning of the spokesperson.

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An Analysis of Cultural Differences in Chinese and English First-person Deixis from the Perspective of Pragmatic Empathy

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Abstract—The first-person deixis, as an essential component of pragmatics, may indicate the social status, interpersonal relationship and other factors of the conversational parties, thus reflecting the implicit cultural in a particular society. Therefore, the different uses in first-person deixis of different languages may imply the cultural differences among different societies. In view of this, based on the theory of pragmatic empathy, this thesis attempts to explore the implied cultural differences reflected in the specific uses of the first-person deixis in English and Chinese.

Index Terms—first-person deixis, pragmatic empathy and de-empathy, cultural differences

I. INTRODUCTION

Deixis remains a major topic of discussion in the pragmatic field, meaning “pointing” or “indicating”. Levinson (1983) gives five categories of deixis: person deixis, place deixis, time deixis, discourse deixis and social deixis. As Ran Yongping (2007) puts it, the function of person deixis consists in the embodiment of emotional or psychological divergence or convergence of the addresser and the addressee, thereby creating social distance or proximity between the two sides, which just corresponds to the two concepts: pragmatic empathy and pragmatic de-empathy.

The term empathy means “the process of putting yourself into someone else’s shoes, of reaching beyond the self and understanding and feeling what another person is understanding or feeling.” (Brown, 1987, p.107). In the application of empathy to pragmatics, He Ziran (1991) proposed the concept of pragmatic empathy, which refers to the experience of achieving emotional convergence, or of reaching the emotional resonance between the addresser and the addressee by bringing the social, cultural backgrounds of both parties and the communicative context into consideration. Naturally, the opposite side of pragmatic empathy constitutes the concept of pragmatic de-empathy initially proposed by Ran (2007) in counterpoint to pragmatic empathy, referring to the experience of achieving emotional distance between the addresser and the addressee on the basis of considering the social, cultural backgrounds of communicators and the communicative context.

The Chinese and English person deixis, deeply rooted in different cultural backgrounds, may be endowed with some different cultural connotations in their empathetic aspect. This paper, therefore, attempts to offer both English and Chinese learners a brief glimpse of the implicit cultural disparities embodied in different usage of Chinese and English first-person deixis from the perspective of pragmatic empathy.

II. CONTRASTIVE STUDY ON I IN ENGLISH AND ZAN, WO IN CHINESE AND OTHER SELF-DEPRECIATORY CHINESE DEIXIS

A. *zan, wo in Chinese and Other Self-depreciatory Chinese Deixis*

By speaking *zan* which actually means the addresser himself on one hand, but also puts himself in an empathetic stance as one member of a whole community on the other, the addresser shortens the psychological distance with the addressee, for example,

(1) 要说当经理，*咱*哥们也行。

(*I'm equally qualified for the very job of the manager*)

In (1)a, the addresser uses *zan* to indicate that he is one member of the community of his friends, and if he is qualified for that job, so are all of his friends, the addressees. In this case, the addresser puts himself in a whole community, which means the addresser gives the addressees an ambiguous sense of *I* in self-reference and *zan* in this case is a dependent *I* instead of an independent or a distinctive one, thus bringing the addressees a sense of intimacy and affinity. *Zan* practically refers to the addresser himself, but the pragmatic stance of the addresser, which means the

addresser's perspective of utterance (Ran Yongping, 2007), falls into a certain community which is far from clear-cut in self-reference. This sense of community shortens the psychological distance between the communicators, thereby reaching pragmatic empathy.

In addition to *zan*, Chinese *wo* (I, me, myself, etc.) sometimes also puts the addresser himself in an empathetic stance as one member of a whole community. Look at the following examples.

(2) a: 还 *我* 河山! 还 *我* 青 岛 !

(Return *our* homeland, and return *our* Qingdao!)

b: 形势有利于 *我*, 而不利 于 敌。

(The situation is now in *our* favor; rather than in the enemies'.)

The Chinese *wo* mentioned above conveys an ambiguous meaning for it not merely refers to the addresser himself but also extends to the group or the whole community including the addresser. And this kind of ambiguity proves to be a universal pattern in various Chinese person deixis. In view of the connotation of community mentioned in the above example, the deictic centre shifts from the addresser himself to the whole group of people, so as to achieve empathy and to show affinity and social relationship.

In addition, in Chinese there are some self-depreciatory forms of first-person singular deixis used to convey the feeling of modesty, politeness or proximity.

Inspired by Leech's Politeness Principle, Gu(1990) has proposed four maxims under the politeness principle, namely the Self-denigration Maxim, the Address Maxim, the Tact Maxim and the Generosity Maxim, the first two of which are connected closely with the uses of person deixis. According to Gu, the Self-denigration maxim consists of two clauses or sub-maxims: (a) denigrate self and (b) elevate other. In light of this, when we come to the first-person singular deixis in Chinese, the two sub-maxims are given to their full play. Look at the following examples.

(3) a: *我* 怎么能跟你比。

(How can *I* compare with you?)

b: *咱* 怎么能跟你比。

(How can *I* compare with you?)

c: 等你飞黄腾达了, 可别忘了 *小弟* 呀!

(When you are rolling in money someday, please don't forget *me*.)

By comparison, we can find that both (3) a and (3) b convey the meaning that 'How can I compare with you?' in order to show the addresser's modesty and respect. But the use of *zan* in (3) b shows much higher pragmatic empathy of the addresser. Since *zan* has a depreciatory implication, both the respect degree and modesty degree of *咱 zan* are higher than those of *wo*. In *zan*, the addresser, on the pragmatic stance of the addressee, not only denigrates himself, but simultaneously elevates the addressee, thus giving the addressee a sense of friendliness. According to Verschueren's linguistic Adaptation Theory, empathy itself is the result of linguistic choice-making (Verschueren, 2000). Due to the features of "variability", "negotiability" and "adaptability", a language user can make appropriate choices. Correspondingly, the Chinese often intentionally choose *zan* (*I, me*) as a substitute for *wo* (*I, me*) to improve the relationship between the addresser and addressee. But in English, there is no such substitute for the first-person singular deixis *I* or *me*, and if we want to fully express the Chinese meaning of *zan* (*I, me*) in English, we have to add some other words as a supplement in C-E translation.

In (3)c, *小弟 xiaodi* (*your small younger brother*) is one of the thousands of self-depreciatory Chinese first-person deixis such as *晚生 wansheng* (*later born*), *在下 zaixia* (*your subordinate*), *小人 xiaoren* (*small person*). The existence of this phenomenon is inextricably connected with Chinese culture in that it is one extended usage of kinship terms conforming to politeness principles. In (3)c, the addresser puts himself into the addressee's shoes, and from the addressee's perspective considers himself inferior to the addressee by adding "*小 xiao* (*small*)" to "*弟 di* (*younger brother*)" which is often used not among family members, but friends. The choice of *xiaodi* in place of *我 wo* (*I, me*) indicates the addresser's positive appreciation or admiration concerning the addressee's economic influence, social status, and so on. Furthermore, from a deeper perspective, we can see that, by the use of *xiaodi* for self-reference, the addresser intentionally conforms to the long-held Chinese ideology of power hierarchy, but more importantly he cleverly place himself in a lower hierarchy than the addressee's, thus rendering the addressee a sense of modesty and politeness.

B. *I* in English

Unlike the various deictic forms of referring to the addresser himself in Chinese, the first-person singular deixis in English is strictly limited to only one deictic form of expression "*I*" and its corresponding grammarian variants such as *me, my, myself*. The deixis "*I*", which will be more frequently used in both formal and informal linguistic styles in English, intends to emphasize the addresser's existence as an individual. Moreover, contrary to the ambiguous reference of *zan* and *wo* in Chinese, its reference is much more clear-cut and specified.

Firstly, "*I*" is used as a specific reference to only the addresser himself and to emphasize that the opinion expressed is his own opinion. For example,

(4) a. *I* do not believe Mrs. Long will do any such thing.

b. *I* am glad to find that you do not depend on her serving you.

In (4) a, *I* expresses the addresser's own attitude that according to her knowledge about Mrs. Long, he does not think that Mrs. Long will do such a thing. In order to highlight his own opinion which may differ from most of the addressees, the addresser excludes himself from the community of the addressees by using "I" to indicate himself as an independent individual, thereby giving the addressees a sense of psychological distance or a sense of de-empathy. The same is true of (4) b, the addresser is satisfied with the addressee's deed, so he uses *I* to show addresser's own opinion other than anyone else's. Furthermore, when expressing his own attitude, the addresser does not trouble to put himself into one community to show a low profile or modesty, but bluntly magnify his own identity with a view to deliberately enlarging the distance from others.

Secondly, "I" makes the person in great power e.g. President, seem much more personal and authoritative. For example,

(5) Tonight, *I*'m here for a different reason. *I*'ve come to a difficult personal decision as to whether or, not *I* should seek reflection. (Ronald. Reagan, 29 January, 1984)

In announcing his decision to run for a second term as President, Reagan uses *I* with great frequency. Alongside with the whisper of power is the mention of himself as *I*, which makes the President seem personal, competent, and charismatic. With the frequent use of *I*, Reagan stands on his own stance and de-empathizes so as to give prominence to his campaign slogan of individualism, human rights and freedom which have been hold long by most American citizens as indispensable parts of the American idea of democracy.

C. Cultural Differences in Chinese *zan*, *wo*, Depreciatory Terms and English *I*

According to the previous analysis, we can find one stark difference between Chinese first-person singular deixis and its English counterpart is that Chinese often use such deictic terms as *zan*, *wo*, *xiaodi* for empathizing with others, while in English-speaking countries, people are inclined to use *I* for de-empathizing, with a view to stressing the personal self. With respect to their empathizing and de-empathizing usage, these Chinese first-person singular deixis are defined as pragmatic empathetic deixis which refers to the use of deictic forms to indicate emotional or other psychological distance or proximity between addresser and addressee (Lyons,1977), whereas the English *I* in those cases is naturally pragmatic de-empathetic deixis..

As regards the de-empathetic deixis *I*, since people brought up in English-speaking countries are influenced by the act code "Do-It-Yourself", the addressers are accustomed to taking the responsibility for their opinions by emphasizing their independence and to thinking things on their own stance, and they will feel more comfortable when excluding themselves from others or any community. Moreover, due to the notion of individualism guided by their long-held human-oriented ideology, they are encouraged to freely air their own thoughts. As a result, the boundary between oneself and others is strengthened.

Compared with English, the Chinese shows a tendency towards putting themselves in a whole community. As we have discussed above, Chinese can use *wo* and *zan* to implicitly indicate a certain community instead of only a detached or completely independent individual. Nevertheless, this practice is indissolubly connected with Chinese culture. In traditional Chinese society, the "self" is never regarded as an independent person, but an entity that is subordinated to a certain community of society which is usually based on "family and blood". In Chinese culture, people emphasize a lot on collectivism, so the addresser attaches much significance to maintain a friendly interpersonal relationship by means of pragmatic empathy. And that's why in most cases Chinese are inclined to use such kind of sentences as "we think", "we hold the opinion that" to deliver the addresser's own viewpoint.

On top of that, in the previous analysis, we find that it is obvious that the Chinese *zan* and *wo* are general and ambiguous in reference, but the English *I* tends to be clear-cut and specified to merely refer to the addresser himself. This disparity tells the very difference in the mode of thinking between the Chinese and people in English-speaking countries. In terms of the mode of thinking, it is the intuitive integrity that features in the mindset of traditional Chinese culture, while the analytical logic epitomizes that of the western culture. (Jia Yuxin, 1997) Just given that the Chinese are keen on integrity and largely depend on imagination and intuition, the Chinese mindset usually manifests an evident sense of generality and ambiguity. On the contrary, since the mindset in western cultures usually abides by an analytical logic, the reference in their utterances must be clear and specific so that it can make sense when analyzed by strict logic in syntax as well as in meaning.

In addition, the exchange of pronouns can shape or confirm the power dynamics and solidarity of a relationship, and the use of Chinese self-depreciatory terms just shows another cultural difference between the Chinese ideology of power hierarchy and of 礼 *Li* (politeness) and the western ideology of equality, which to a great extent overlaps with Brown and Gilman's theory of power and solidarity (1960) in this paper.

As to power, it implies social distance and an unequal power relationship between the communicators and that one person is more powerful than another person to the degree that he can influence the other person's behavior. (Jia Yuxin, 1997) Tempered through such a finely-stratified society in its long history when each individual had an asymmetrical relationship with every other individual, Chinese culture has defined politeness, which in Chinese is called *Li* (礼), as a sanctioned belief that an individual's social behavior ought to live up to the expectations of respectfulness, modesty, attitudinal warmth and refinement according to the individual's own social status in the power hierarchy (Gu, Yueguo,

1990). However, since the unequal relationship in power hierarchy is apt to arouse psychological distance and show impoliteness, Chinese prefer to use pragmatic empathetic deixis to shorten it by standing in the addressee's shoes to denigrate themselves by placing themselves in lower hierarchy.

With respect to solidarity, on the contrary, it implies an equally sharing experience between people, a degree of closeness and intimacy. In English speaking countries, people are endowed with a strong sense of solidarity or equality, which can be traced back to the period of Renaissance and their mainstream religion of Christianity. Hence, they hold that all are born equal and each is uniquely created as a distinctive and independent individual, and it is undesirable and unreasonable to denigrate self merely for the sake of others' comfortable feelings in social communication. Thus, in communication, their relationship is equal and close in the most natural state of affairs such as religion, occupation, age. In this circumstance, the de-empathetic uses of *I* not only imply relative equality but keep a comparatively close relationship in communication.

III. CONTRASTIVE STUDY ON ENGLISH AND CHINESE FIRST-PERSON PLURAL DEIXIS

A. 我们 *wo-men* in Chinese

Firstly, it is a common practice in Chinese history that *wo-men* is used empathetically as an implication of the humbleness on the part of the speaker, so as to promote the social relationship, for instance,

(4) 刘姥姥一面走一面笑着说：“你老是‘贵人多忘事’了，哪里还记得**我们**？”

(Grannie Liu followed her cackling, “you know what they say: ‘Important people have short memories.’ I wouldn't expect you to remember **the likes of us**.”) (Translated by Hawkes, 1973)

By using the humble *wo-men*, the speaker stands on the addressee's shoes and takes the initiative to acknowledge his inferiority to the addressee in some aspect, which accordingly gives the addressee a sense of politeness and comfort to promote their relationship.

Secondly, when using *wo-men*, most Chinese are much dedicated to face work to promote close relationship by empathetically taking the addressees' affective and psychological demands into serious consideration. For example,

(5) a **我们**是主张自力更生的。**我们**希望有外援，但是**我们**不能依赖它，**我们**依靠自己的努力，依靠全体军民的创造力。(Mao Zedong, 1945)

(*We stand for self-reliance. We hope for foreign aid but cannot be dependent on it; we depend on our own efforts, on the creative power of the whole army and the entire people.*)

b 在这篇论文中，**我们**将介绍一种新的教学方法。

(*In this thesis, I attempt to introduce a brand-new teaching method.*)

In (5)a, the empathetic use of *wo-men* intends to keep the addressees' positive face in that by using *wo-men*, the Chinese leader gets himself emotionally involved with the multitude, so that people will feel an intimate relationship with the Party and the great leader. In (5)b, although he is the only author of the thesis, the Chinese writer stands on the addressees' shoes and uses *wo-men* to put himself in an equal position with the addressee and to avoid a misunderstanding of his being arrogant. Moreover, by empathetically using *wo-men* in self-reference, the speaker keeps the addressees' negative face in the avoidance of such feelings of imposition of his own opinions on the addressees, thereby achieving affective convergence with them.

B. *We* in English

Firstly, *We* in English sometimes are used de-empathetically by royal members to underline their sovereign authority and uncommon identity, which is called ‘royal we’. For example,

(6) Margaret Thatcher: “We are a grandmother”.

This announcement invited a lot of criticism from both her political enemies and the general public simply owing to the de-empathetic use of *we* rendering her arrogant and inaccessible in affection. Since the “royal we” indicates a sense of social hierarchy, while de-empathetically using it for self-reference by placing herself in a higher hierarchy in comparison with the addressees, the addresser deliberately ignores the addressee's feelings to show her royal authority or other special motives. Moreover, given that the royal *we* is normally limited to royal members, once it sometimes appears in the speech of non-royals, pretentious grandeur arises in the tone of the speaker.

Secondly, *we* in English is often used de-empathetically to shun potential responsibilities. In such cases, the relationship among the referents of *we* is much more serious and business-like and bears less relation to affection. For example,

(7) *Today I announce a tax cut for hundreds of thousands of working families on low income. We do this to encourage enterprise; to reward work; to support families to advance ambition not just the few but of the many.* (Gordon Brown, 1998)

In (7), *we* is one “we-exclusive-of-addressee” which means the addressees are not included in the referents of *we*. Therefore, the speaker organizes messages from his own point of view, and meanwhile, by using *we*, he cleverly withdraws from the sole spotlight of the public concern in shouldering potential responsibilities. Moreover, as regards the relationship among the speaker and the other referents in *we*, it is more an instrument rationally catering to the speaker's personal ends than an affective need for spiritual or psychological convergence or satisfaction.

C. Cultural Differences in English and Chinese First-person Plural Deixis

In contrast, we can see the first noticeable difference in English and Chinese first-person plural deixis consists in the different origins of the Chinese humble *women* and the English royal *we*. The origin of humble *wo-men* can date back to the finely-stratified society in ancient China in which each individual had an asymmetrical relationship with every other individual, and common people were too insignificant to call themselves as *wo(I)*. With respect to the royal *we* in English, it has a quite different cultural origin. In Latin, there used to be only one singular deixis in self-reference, and later the plural form coined for self-reference was only used by the kings. During the 4th century, there were two kings on the throne, the king of the Eastern Rome and the king of the Western Rome. Afterwards, when the two countries were united politically, there still remained two kings. Therefore, a plural first-person deixis VOS was coined for the two kings in self-reference. Then with the development and transformation of the society in history, the authoritative nature of *we* gradually takes shape in western cultures. Hence, the royals or those with a higher social status prefer *we* to *I* which is considered as a mark of ordinary people.

In addition, another cultural difference reflected in *women* and *we* is the difference between affective type of relationship in Chinese culture and the instrumental type of relationship in western culture. As discussed in examples (5), the Chinese *wo-men* attach much importance to face work, which in fact is another way of saying the consideration of communicators' feelings. Therefore, the Chinese people's ceaseless efforts for face work just reflects the affective type of relationship in China, in which "favor" and "face" are two highly-valued factors.(Jia Yuxin,1997) as for the relationship in English speaking countries, as stated in example (7), it is more businesslike and rational and bears less relation to affection or common feelings.

IV. CONCLUSION

Through the previous analysis, we find that the cultural differences between China and English-speaking countries do result in some pragmatic disparities in verbal communication. In the contrastive study on Chinese and English first-person deixis, we discern the following the cultural differences: a) the difference between the collectivism orientation in Chinese culture (I-less and other-oriented culture) and the individualism orientation in western culture (self-oriented culture); b) the difference between Chinese mindset of intuitive integrity and the mindset of analytical logic in western cultures; c) the difference between the impact of Chinese ideology of power hierarchy and 礼 *Li* (*politeness*) and the influence of western ideology of solidarity (or equality); d) the different origins of the royal *we* in English and the humble *wo-men* in Chinese; e) and the difference between affective type of relationship in Chinese culture and the instrumental type of relationship in western culture. Keeping those differences in mind will be a help to bridge the gap between the different cultures in our daily intercultural communications. Meanwhile, more detailed study in this orientation still remains to be conducted for our future language teaching and research.

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The Relationship between Iranian EFL Learners' Critical Thinking and Reading Comprehension Performance in Journalistic Texts

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Abstract—The purpose of the present study was to investigate the relationship between critical thinking and journal text reading comprehension in Iranian EFL learners. 90 students of English translation at Abhar Payame Noor University participated in this study. After running the proficiency test, 62 students were selected as a homogenous group for this project. One questionnaire of critical thinking and one journalistic test for measuring their reading comprehension proficiency were administered to find out the relationship between critical thinking and reading comprehension of journalistic text. The Persian version of questionnaire (Honey, 2004) was given to the subjects. After the questionnaire, journalistic reading test consisting of four passages and 40 items was given to the subjects. Strong correlation found between the two variables through using Pearson Product Moment Correlation. The findings of present study can have theoretical and practical implications for improving EFL learners' ability in reading journalistic text.

Index Terms—reading comprehension, critical thinking, critical reading, journalistic text

I. INTRODUCTION

Critical thinking is an important every day activity. Every time we have to make a decision, the process we go through involves critical thinking. Nowadays, critical thinking is one of the major concepts under consideration in education. Critical thinking has been mostly used for first language education in the United States, but today its role in second and foreign language learning and teaching is of great importance (Atkinson, 1997).

Critical thinking is important in education; Lloyd and Bahr (1995) believe that successful learners are those who are able to think about reasons in a logical manner.

Many researchers believe that there is a necessity for everyone to become better critical thinker. They have implicit hope that enriched critical thinking has a general humanized effect among all social groups and different classes of the society. Therefore, for all students and teachers it is necessary to learn critical thinking for their own educational development and understand its role in their future life.

According to Facione (1990), "we understand critical thinking to be purposeful, self regulatory judgment which results in interpretation of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, or contextual considerations upon which that judgment is based. Critical thinking is essential as a tool of inquiry. As such, critical thinking is a liberating force in education and a powerful resource in one's personal and civic life" (p.3).

There are many reasons to support that critical thinking in society is as important as educational and professional contents. Moon (2003) states that critical thinking is the actual meaning of being a developed person living a democratic society; or moving toward democratic societies. On the other hand, human beings by critical thinking power can write their words and sentences directly or indirectly. Journalists can also write and tell their ideas explicitly or implicitly.

Therefore, people find and understand the meaning of their writing by analyzing and comprehending the text. Cody (1997) reported that even the students in advance level read the text, analyze discourse and use the techniques of thinking critically. Recent theories have suggested that the ability to think critically is one of the most important devices for processing information and absorbing knowledge.

Hall (1989) stated that with emergence of the cognitive approach, focus is on meaning, context and thinking. For comprehending journalistic text and understanding the gist of the text, the reader needs to control her/his thinking to process information to judge about data and decide to analyse and answer to questions. Also currently, reading has

centered on psychological perspective in which the reader utilizes her or his background knowledge, prior knowledge of language structure, context and cultural background for making a sense and interpreting a text (Hall, 1989)

Also discourse is another important feature of any text. Gee (1996) stated that most people introduce language which is used in the text or speech as a means of communicating information but language can shape the culture and social activities of humans within social groups.

Although the relationship between critical thinking and many different fields is studied in many academic works, observing the effect of critical thinking on journalistic text is yet new.

A. *Critical Thinking*

In the information age, people must ask question and find the ways of solving problems. A person who thinks critically can ask appropriate questions, gather relevant information, efficiently and creatively sort through this information, reason logically from this information, and come to reliable and trust worthy conclusion about the world that enable him to live and act successfully in it (Center for CT, 1996a).

According to Atkinson (1997) critical thinking is one of the major concepts under consideration in education. Critical thinking has been mostly used for first language education in the United States, but today its role in second and foreign language learning is of great importance. Moon (2008) states that critical thinking and its relationship to the educational process has become a central issue and it is time to explore the term. She believes that since critical thinking is a process which is involved in any research activity; it can be considered as a principal concept in education, especially at higher levels. Critical thinking is also important in relation to other disciplines (e.g. management or social sciences) or professions (e.g. medicine or social work) or master levels and undergraduate levels. That is to say, critical thinking can be considered as an important facilitator of what students are expected to achieve at the end of a level in higher education program. For instance, at the higher Educational levels students should have critical evaluation abilities, provide logical and reliable suggestions, and investigate contradictory information; all these capabilities require a well-developed way of thinking critically.

There are many reasons that could be given here to support that critical thinking in society is as important as in educational and professional contexts. Moon (2003) states that critical thinking is the actual meaning of being a developed person living in a democratic society or moving toward democratic societies.

Many researchers approve remarkable effects of critical thinking, but they give no unique definition while describing the term. The following are some examples of attempts to define critical thinking:

"Critical thinking is the ability to analyze facts, generate and organize ideas, defend opinions, draw inferences, evaluate arguments and solve problems" (Chance, 1986, p.6).

"Critical thinking is a way of reading that demands adequate support of one's beliefs and an unwillingness to be persuaded unless support is forth coming" (Tama, 1989, p.64).

"Critical thinking is reasonable reflective thinking focused on deciding what to believe or do" (Ennis, 1992, p.27).

"Critical thinking is the organized cognitive process we use to carefully examine our thinking and thinking of others in order to clarify and improve our thinking" (Chaffee, 1999, p.5).

"Critical thinking is the ability of a person to think critically about one's own thinking known as "meta-cognition" (Paul, 2004).

"Critical thinking is in short, self-directed, thinking" (Paul, 2008)

Critical thinking is the best understood as the ability of thinkers to take charge of their own thinking. This requires that they develop sound critical and standards for analyzing and assessing their own thinking and routinely use those criteria and standards to improve its quality (Paul and Elder, 1997).

B. *Reading Comprehension*

Although there have been many definitions of reading, it is not easy to define it in a single sentence. For example Chastain (1988) defines reading as a process involving the activation of relevant knowledge and related language skills to accomplish an exchange of information from one person to another. Grabe and Stoller (2002) define reading as the ability to draw meaning from the printed page and interpret this information appropriately.

According to Nunan (1999), people in reading have different strategies. For example reading a label on a bottle of water does not require the same strategies as reading academic texts. Chastain (1998) states the goal of reading as getting the meaning or recreating the writer's meaning. He believes that reading to improve pronunciation or practice grammatical forms does not constitute reading. In his view comprehension of what learners read is the goal of reading.

C. *Critical Thinking and Reading*

Bala subramaiaam (1991) defines deep comprehension as the ability to recognize, organize, and articulate the central idea of text without conflating them with peripheral details. Kurland (2000) claims that comprehension requires higher-order thinking. He states that reading actually a problem solving process requires cognition. According to Kurland (2002), "We do not simply read the words; we read ideas, thoughts that spring from the relationships of various assertions". (p.2). To understand text deeply, it is necessary to construct meaning through connection and interpretation of the author's ideas.

Byrnes (2001) believes that good readers can recognize word automatically which enables the individual to focus on higher order thinking by utilizing sentence integration and making semantic connections. Secondly, good readers quickly recognize words. Speed is important because readers need to operate on information in working memory before it dissipates (Byrnes, 2001). The third characteristic of good reader is their ability to record words in to phonological representations. The phonological skills help the individual to create a code and stable pathway of working memory to effectively access word meanings.

II. METHOD

Intended plan of this study is to evaluate the relationship between critical thinking and press reading comprehension in Iranian English language learners. For this purpose a test of reading comprehension and a questionnaire of critical thinking were administered and the results were obtained.

A. Participants

In this study, 62 male and female students whose age – range was from 20-37 were selected out of 90 students, majoring in English translation from Abhar Payame Noor University.

Sex and age were not assumed as moderator variables, so their effects on the process of the study were not considered. The reason for selecting senior English translation students was that this study's participants must have enough general English knowledge to be able to read and answer a critical thinking questionnaire as well as reading comprehension tests.

B. Instrument

The materials used for this study include a proficiency test, a critical thinking questionnaire, and three press reading comprehension tests to measure impact of critical thinking on press reading comprehension.

A TOEFL test (2000) used to minimize individual differences among the participants and ensure the close homogeneity of them. It includes 50 structure tests and 50 reading comprehension test. Listening test was not the focus of this study and was deliberately omitted. As a result, the subjects whose score were between one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected as the participants of this study. Consequently, 62 students were chosen for this research.

A Critical thinking questionnaire by Peter Honey (2004, as cited in Naeini, 2005) which contained 30 closed questions was used to evaluate Critical thinking skills. According to Naeini (2005), the Persian version of the questionnaire was studied by some professors at Tehran Azad University and they modified it. The reliability of questionnaire was 0.86 and considered acceptable.

A press reading comprehension test was developed by the researchers to measure students' performance on press reading comprehension. At first, four reading passages from five passages from South China Morning post were selected. Then the researchers put 16 multiple choice questions at the end of the every passage.

Next, the tests were piloted on 20 students majoring in English translations. After getting feedbacks from the students and after adding and deleting the number of questions for each passage the appropriate items were prepared to using for this research.

C. Procedure

To obtain the answer to the research question of this study, at first, TOEFL test was administered among 90 English translation students of Abhar Payame Noor in order to homogenize the sample group. After analyzing the scores 28 students whose scores were beyond one standard deviation above and below the mean were excluded from the study. Four journalistic reading comprehension passages with their questions and a critical thinking questionnaire were given to the rest of the participants in two sessions. At the first session, the critical thinking questionnaire was given to them; this questionnaire reflected and specified their inferences, evaluations, and inductive / deductive reasoning. Participants completed their questionnaire in the classroom and delivered them. In the next session, news story alongside its questions was given to the participants which included four passages and it took 70 minutes for students to answer the questions.

III. RESULTS

To ensure the homogeneity of the participants, the researcher administered TOEFL to 90 participants. Those students whose TOEFL scores were between one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean of 63.69 were selected as homogeneous participants of this study. Therefore, 62 students whose score were between 53 and 64 were chosen. *Table 1* indicates the statistical data of participants' scores on critical thinking questionnaire.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR CRITICAL THINKING QUESTIONNAIRE

	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	Mode	Median	SD	Variance
Critical Thinking	62	95	46	141	90.69	95a	91.00	24.584	604.380

The descriptive statistics of participants' scores on journal reading comprehension are set forth in *Table 2*.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR JOURNAL READING COMPREHENSION

Parameter	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	Mode	Median	SD	Variance
Journal Reading Comprehension	62	18	20	38	28.31	29	28.50	4.167	17.36

According to *Table 2*, 62 participants took journal reading comprehension test with a mean, mode, and median of 28.31, 29, and 28.50 respectively that are very near to one another. Thus we can claim that the scores of journal reading comprehension are normally distributed. Moreover, range is 18 and variance is 17.36.

Figure 1 represents statistical information of the descriptive statistics together with frequency of participants' scores on journal reading comprehension test. The minimum score is 20 with the frequency of two students, and the maximum score is 38 with the same frequency of one student.

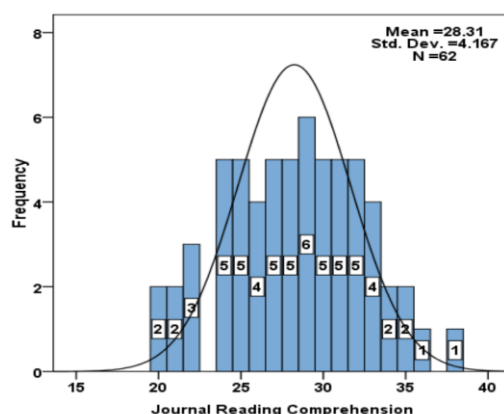


Figure 1. Distributions of Participants' Results on Journal Reading

Test of Normality

In order to see whether participants' critical thinking and journal reading comprehension scores were normally distributed, Kolmogorov-Smirnov Normality Test was applied. The results of this analysis are represented in *Table 3*.

TABLE 3.
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST OF NORMALITY FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND JOURNAL READING COMPREHENSION SCORES

Parameters		Critical Thinking	Journal Reading Comprehension
	N	62	62
Normal Parameters ^{a, b}	Mean	90.69	28.31
	Std. Deviation	24.584	4.167
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute Positive	.071	.066
	Negative	.071	.060
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	-.037	-.066
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.558	.520
		.884	.919

The results in *Table 3* shows that participants' both critical thinking and journal reading comprehension scores are normally distributed because Sig. for critical thinking and journal reading comprehension were not significant and they were .88 and .92 respectively (Sig>.05).

The relationship between critical thinking and journal reading comprehension was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The results of this correlation analysis are laid in *Table 4*.

TABLE 4.
CORRELATION BETWEEN PARTICIPANTS' CRITICAL THINKING AND JOURNAL READING COMPREHENSION SCORES

	Critical Thinking	Journal Reading Comprehension
Pearson Correlation Critical Thinking Sig. (2-tailed) N	1	**
		.556
	62	.000
Pearson Correlation Journal Reading ComprehensionSig. (2-tailed)	**	1
	.556	
	.000	62
N	62	62

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (Sig<α).

A quick look at *Table 4* reveals that a dramatic positive correlation coefficient ($r=.556$, $p=.0$) can be observed between participants' critical thinking and journal reading comprehension scores. This amount of correlation is significant since the level of significance is .000 which is less than that of the chosen significance level, .05 ($\text{Sig}<\alpha$). In addition, the correlation coefficient obtained of this study (.55) exceeds critical values of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (.25) with the assigned degree of freedom (60). Therefore, the null hypothesis of this study which states that "There is no significant correlation between EFL learners' critical thinking and journal reading comprehension score" is rejected. Accordingly, with 95% confidence, we can safely claim that there exists a statistically significant positive correlation between Iranian EFL learners' critical thinking and journal Reading comprehension scores.

IV. DISCUSSION

The results of this study show that .55 correlations could be observed between critical thinking and journal reading comprehension variables. Different authors interpret the value of correlation differently; however, Cohen (1998, pp. 79-81) suggests some guidelines. These guidelines are mentioned in *Table 5*.

TABLE 5.
GUIDELINES FOR INTERPRETING THE VALUE OF CORRELATION

Small	$r=.10$ to $.29$
Medium	$r=.30$ to $.49$
large	$r=.50$ to 1.0

According to this guideline, the correlation between .10 to .29 is considered small, .30 to .49 medium, and .50 to 1.0 large. Therefore, based on Cohen's guideline, the relationship between these two variables in this study is large.

The findings of the present study coincide with Cody's (1997) opinion that even the students in advance level read the text, discourse analysis and the techniques of thinking critically. Likewise, recent theories have suggested that ability to think critically is one of the most important devices for processing information and absorbing knowledge.

In addition, the findings of this study are in line with Moon's (2008) belief that critical thinking and its relationship to the educational process has become a central issue and it is time to explore the term. She believes that critical thinking is a process which is involved in any research activity.

V. CONCLUSION

The finding of this study revealed that students who are critical thinkers have better performance in reading journalistic texts. It can be concluded that teaching critical thinking skills in university is another point in favor of the fact that teachers can closely monitor the stages of students' progress in thinking and help them when they need. Students should consider critical thinking an important skill in their lives because it can change their view point toward everything. In the domain of education, it encourages students to look everything carefully, concisely, and hesitantly and search for available information. It helps them to seek reliable knowledge, be responsible for their learning and their life, and as a creative person have significant effect on the future of their society.

According to the result of this study, teachers should pay more attention to the effect of critical thinking on the learning process. Syllabus designers and coursebook writers should consider critical thinking as an effective element in their program. To develop teachers' ability for teaching critical thinking, school must commit significant time and resources to professional development. Thus, using critical thinking skills is fruitful in both everyday life and academic success.

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A Critical Study of English Eco-hotel Profiles— Based on Fairclough's Three-dimensional Model

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Abstract—Eco-hotels are promoted to minimize the negative impacts on the environment. The author, therefore, makes a critical study of English eco-hotel profiles in order to decode the ecological thoughts embodied in the profiles. Based on Fairclough's three-dimensional model, this study follows the three steps: description of linguistic features in terms of transitivity, interpretation of ecological thoughts, and explanation of social reasons. After examining transitivity in twenty English eco-hotel profiles, the author finds that material processes and relational processes enjoy the overwhelming occurrence. They serve to construe the ecological thought that we human beings should identify ourselves with nature and minimize our impacts on nature. In a society in which mankind has gradually been alienated from nature, the eco-hotel founders, as profit-seeking businessmen, tend to convey ecological thoughts in their profiles since such endeavor can earn them both fame and fortune. Seen from the study, the linguistic resources used in English eco-hotel profiles convey the prevailing ecological thoughts, which may influence readers' ecological ideologies and lifestyles. Correspondingly, readers are supposed to have a critical look at the language use that expresses ecological or un-ecological thoughts.

Index Terms—English eco-hotel profiles, Fairclough's three-dimensional model, ecological thoughts, transitivity

I. INTRODUCTION

Along with deteriorating natural environment and mounting ecological crises, eco-tourism, a new type of tourism has arisen, which includes programs that minimize negative aspects of conventional tourism on environment, contribute to the sustainability of tourist resources and enhance the cultural integrity of local people. With the development of eco-tourism, eco-hotels have emerged. According to Wikipedia, eco-hotel is a term used to describe a hotel or accommodation that has made important environmental improvements to its structure in order to minimize its impact on the environment. An eco-hotel must usually meet the criteria as follows, dependence on the natural environment, ecological sustainability, proven contribution to conservation, provision of environmental training programs, incorporation of cultural considerations, and provision of an economic return to the local community ([Http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Eco-hotel](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Eco-hotel)). The founders of eco-hotels not only try hard to provide guests with comfortable and environment-friendly accommodation, but also wish to present and equip their guests with ecological consciousness. And the hotel profile is undoubtedly a desirable channel for them to display and promote their ecological awareness and environmental concern.

Thus, how can they express their ecological thoughts? What kinds of linguistic resources do they apply in the profiles? What kind of social contexts drive them to make such endeavors? These questions motivate the author to conduct the current study, which is committed to the exploration of the ecological thoughts conveyed in English eco-hotel profiles, thus shedding lights on the interrelationship among language, environment and society. The author has selected randomly twenty English eco-hotel profiles from the website *Eco-Hotels of the World*, and made a statistical analysis of the linguistic resources in terms of transitivity in all the profiles. And one profile is chosen for case study, which, based on Fairclough's three-dimensional model, first describes the linguistic features in the profile, then interprets the involved ecological thoughts, and consequently makes an explanation of the social reasons.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. Fairclough's Three-dimensional Model

Fairclough (1989 & 1992) puts forward three stages of discourse analysis, be they description, interpretation and explanation respectively. Description, concerned with the analysis of text, is the linguistic description of the language text in terms of linguistic devices and concepts mainly by making use of Systemic Function Grammar. Interpretation, concerned with the analysis of discourse practice, is interpretation of the relationship between the productive and interpretative discursive processes and the text, with attention paid to the situational contexts in which text production, distribution and consumption occur. Explanation, concerned with the analysis of social practice, is explanation of the relationship between the discursive processes and the social processes, in other words, it aims to analyze the discourse within a wider social practice or identify the social determination and social effects of the discourse, as Fairclough (1989) believes that explanation of social practice involves analysis whose "objective... is to portray a discourse as part

of a social process, as a social practice, showing how it is determined by social structures, and what reproductive effects discourses can commutatively have on those structures, sustaining them or changing them” (p.163).

The three-dimensional concept of discourse and the corresponding analytical methods constitute the three-dimensional model of Fairclough, as shown in Figure 1.

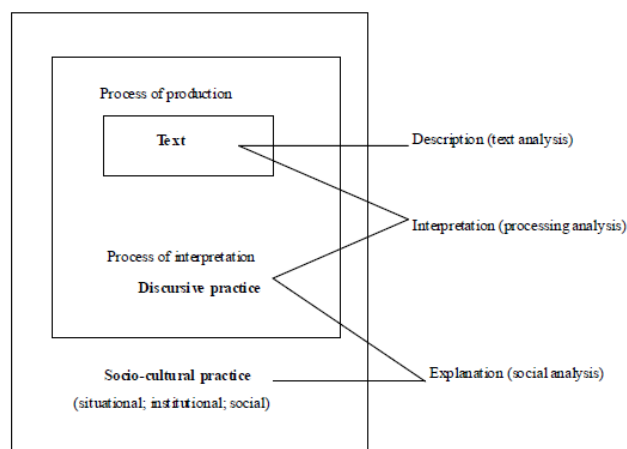


Figure1 Fairclough's Three-Dimensional Model

Just as the three dimensions of discourse are interrelated with each other, these three stages of discourse analysis also enjoy close interconnection, which is shown in the fact that the analysis of discursive practice serves as a bridge between text and social practice analysis. According to Fairclough (1992), a special feature of this three-dimensional approach to discourse analysis is that “the link between socio-cultural practice and text is mediated by discursive practice” (p.9). Fairclough (1995) values the feature as one of the significant principles of CDA, that is, analysis of text should not be artificially isolated from analysis of institutional and discursive practices within which texts are embedded.

Seen from the above discussion, it can be concluded that the analysis of any specific discourse requires all the three interrelated stages, which cannot be separated from one another. The point can be well justified by Fairclough's (1992) comments on the interrelationship between description and interpretation, “description is not as separate from interpretation as it is often assumed to be. As an analyst and as an ordinary text interpreter, one is inevitably interpreting all the time, and there is no phase of analysis which is pure description” (p.199).

B. Transitivity

Halliday (1994) believes that “the transitivity system construes the world of experience into a manageable set of process types” (p.106) and puts forward six types of processes: material, relational, mental, verbal, behavioral and existential, among which, material, relational and mental processes being the major types.

Material processes are processes of “doing”. They express the notion that some entity “does” something—which may be “done to” some other entity and represent something that goes on in the external world (Halliday, 1994, p.103). In this process, there is at least one participant acting as the “doer”, which is called “actor”; if there is another participant who suffers or undergoes the process or at whom the action is directed, it is termed as “goal” (Huang Guowen, 2001, p.86).

Relational processes are processes of “being”. In relational clauses, something is described in terms of something else. In other words, a relation is being set up between two separate entities (Halliday, 1994, p.119). There are two modes of relational processes: the attributive mode and the identifying mode. In the attributive mode, an entity is endowed with particular quality, with the entity referred to as “carrier” and the quality as “attribute”. (Halliday, 1994, p.115). In the identifying mode, an entity is being used to identify another one, with the entity used to identifying others being “identifier” and the entity to be identified being “identified”. (Halliday, 1994, p.116). The attributive mode emphasizes the quality, property and contents of an entity, demonstrated by its efforts to express what attribute a certain object has, or what type it belongs to; the identifying mode focuses on the identity of a particular entity and expresses the identical properties of entities (Halliday, 1994, p.114). In a word, relational processes are used to describe things in terms of their qualities, attributes or identities.

Mental processes are processes of “sensing” (Halliday, 1994, p.112). While material processes represent things or events going on in the external world, mental processes depict the pictures of what is going on in the inner world. Participants involved in the process are senser and phenomenon. The Senser is “the conscious being that is feeling, thinking or seeing” and the phenomenon is hence “that which is ‘sensed’—felt, thought or seen” (Halliday, 1994, p.114).

Verbal processes are processes of “saying”. Halliday points out that “saying” has to be interpreted in a rather broad sense; it covers any kind of symbolic exchange of meaning, like “*the notice tells you to keep quiet*”, or “*my watch says*

it is half past ten". The grammatical function of "the notice", "my watch" is that of "sayer" that is not necessarily a human being, but can be anything related with symbolic exchange of meaning. (Halliday, 1985, p.115).

Behavioral processes are processes of (typically human) physiological and psychological behavior, like breathing, coughing, smiling, sighing, dreaming and staring (Halliday, 1985, p.114). Typically, behavioral processes have only one participant: the human behavior, the person who is "behaving" that is also conscious being like the sener in mental processes, but grammatically it sounds more like material processes. (Thompson, 1996, p.99).

Existential processes represent something that exists or happens. There is only one participant involved, termed as "existent" that may be an event, an object or a human being (Halliday, 1985, p.115).

By virtue of the above discussion, it is understood that speakers or writers express their world views or experiences of the external as well as inner world by choosing one particular process type instead of other processes, or by placing participants in specific positions, which betrays speakers' or writers' viewpoints towards the world or reality.

C. Analytical Framework of the Study

To decode the ecological thoughts in English eco-hotel profiles and reveal the interaction among language, environment and society, the author employs Fairclough's three-dimensional model as the analytical framework of the study.

In practice, the first two steps—description and interpretation are combined to explicitly present the ecological thoughts. The linguistic features in the English profile texts are described, and then the ecological thoughts conveyed by these linguistic devices are interpreted. Regarding the linguistic features, transitivity will be analyzed in terms of processes and participants. By analyzing transitivity in eco-hotel profile texts, a general idea will be obtained of the profile writer's knowledge of and viewpoint towards eco-hotels, e.g. which aspect of eco-hotels the writer pays most attention to. After exposing the ecological thoughts through description and interpretation, we will try to explain the social reasons, that is, under what kind of social contexts are such thoughts derived and in turn, how such thoughts influence the language use.

In summary, we first describe the linguistic features of English profile texts in terms of transitivity, and then interpret the ecological thoughts reflected by the linguistic devices; and finally we try to explain the discursive practice from a socio-cultural perspective.

III. DATA ANALYSIS

A. The Statistical Analysis of the Data

Before analyzing the sample profile, the author makes a statistical study concerning the distribution of the transitivity processes in all the profile texts. First, the transitivity processes in all profile texts are classified and counted so as to know the distribution in general. After that, one sample is taken as an example to describe in detail the linguistic features and to illustrate how the linguistic resources serve to express ecological thoughts.

To facilitate the statistical work, different linguistic resources are marked with different symbols. As far as the process types under transitivity are concerned, they are represented in boldface in square brackets (e.g. **[material]**). Among the six process types, relational processes are further classified into the attributive mode and the identifying mode, which are underlined with double-line (e.g. attributive) and single-line (e.g. identifying) respectively. Concerning the participants of all kinds of processes, they are denoted in parenthesis (e.g. (actor)).

After tagging all the processes in the twenty English eco-hotel profiles, figures obtained are as follows. Altogether, there are 357 processes, involving 186 material processes, 146 relational processes which include 121 attributive relational processes and 25 identifying relational processes, 15 mental processes and 10 existential processes; and no behavioral processes or verbal processes are traced, as is shown in.

TABLE I.
THE DISTRIBUTION OF SIX PROCESS TYPES

Processes		Frequencies	Percentages
Material		186	52%
Relational	Attributive	121	41%
	Identifying	25	
Mental		15	4%
Existential		10	3%
Verbal		0	0%
Behavioral		0	0%
Total		357	100%

Seen from the table, material processes and relational processes enjoy the overwhelming occurrence in English eco-hotel profiles, taking up 52% and 41% respectively. Taking into consideration the nature of eco-hotel profiles, they are a kind of introductory discourses which have the informing, promoting and persuading functions. Similar to other introductory texts, eco-hotel profiles are also designed to introduce and publicize the hotels in terms of the facilities, room arrangements, specialty services, locations, and surrounding environment and landscape. In order to catch potential guests' eyes, the profiles should try utmost to promote the distinctive and outstanding features of the

eco-hotels concerning the above aspects so as to give consumers an impression that staying in these very hotels will be a unique and unforgettable experience, which may succeed in persuading travelers to come and stay.

The fulfillment of the informing, promoting and thus persuading functions relies largely on the factual and vivid description of the exceptional characteristics of eco-hotels in all possible facets. Since relational processes serve to describe the attributes or determine identities of persons, entities or objects, they are frequently used in the eco-hotel profiles for vigorous description. With regard to relational processes, it is shown in the table that the attributive relational processes noticeably outweigh the identifying relational processes, which manifests that the profiles give priority to describing the attributes, features or qualities rather than ascertaining the identities of the eco-hotels.

What's more, just as the definition of eco-hotel suggests, "eco-hotel is a term used to describe a hotel or accommodation that has made important environmental improvements to its structure in order to minimize its impact on the environment" (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Eco-hotel>), the eco-hotel profiles should foreground their environmental concern and especially the efforts they make to provide guests with comfort and hospitality and meanwhile minimize their impacts on environment. The efforts involve everything they do to furnish guests with fine food, comfortable accommodation, up-scale services, and in the meantime equip guests with ecological and environment-protection consciousness. All these are concerned with processes of "doing", that is, material processes, which thus enjoy striking frequency in these English eco-hotel profiles.

Apart from the two dominant processes, other processes also play important roles in eco-hotel profiles, like mental processes and existential processes, indicated by the statistical findings. Mental processes, known as processes of "sensing", are mainly concerned with feelings, emotions, perception and cognition of human beings. Through the use of mental processes, the profiles enchant the potential guests with the fantastic experience they can feel exclusively in the eco-hotels and thus incite their passion to taste it in person.

Concerning existential processes, they are used in the eco-hotels profiles to inform the prospective guests of something special that exists in the eco-hotels.

B. Sample Analysis

In this part, one sample is to be analyzed in detail in order to illustrate how the different processes under transitivity help to convey ecological thoughts in English eco-hotel profiles.

Hawaii Island Retreat

[1] Hawaii Island Retreat at Ahu Pohaku Ho'omaluhia (carrier) is [attributive relational] a sacred site (attribute/ identified) serving [identifying relational] as a physical and spiritual healing retreat center (identifier). [2] They (carrier) are [attributive relational] a luxury eco-conscious spa retreat (attribute/ goal/ carrier) designed [material] to be [attributive relational] in harmony with nature (attribute). [3] Located [attributive relational] along the pristine Kohala coastline with breathtaking views of the ocean (attribute), it (carrier) is [attributive relational] a place where individuals and groups (actor) may find [material] peace and tranquility (goal) among the ancient stones and healing gardens (attribute). [4] Nestled [attributive relational] among towering Ironwood trees (attribute) their intimate and unique boutique hotel (carrier/ goal) has been constructed [material] with the intention of teaching [material] all who come [material] here how to live [material] in harmony with the earth.

[5] Many of the sustainable practices (goal) they have implemented [material] in their effort to achieve [material] this goal are taught [material] to guests, efforts such as producing [material] their own electricity through solar cells (photovoltaic panels). [6] The retreat (goal/ actor) is designed [material] to use [material] natural lighting during the day and used full-spectrum compact fluorescents for night.

[7] Much of the flooring throughout the retreat (identified) is [identifying relational] Tiger wood, a farmed sustainable hardwood that does not impact [material] native forests (identifier). [8] Their 50 acre Hawaiian sanctuary (carrier) has [attributive relational] abundant organic vegetable gardens and tropical fruit trees (attribute). [9] All organic waste (goal) is recycled [material] back into the soil through an active system of composting. [10] Each individual (actor) that leaves [material] the retreat goes [material] home with a sense of peacefulness and a new understanding that living [material] lightly on the earth (carrier) is [attributive relational] not only an attainable goal (attribute), it (carrier) is [attributive relational] also an achievable reality (attribute).

1. Description of Linguistics Features

It is found from the above analysis that only material processes and relational processes are used throughout this text.

These material processes are classified into two groups, according to their participants that include the eco-hotel and guests, so one group is concerned with what the eco-hotel does, and the other is related to what guests may obtain from the experience.

In respect of the eco-hotel, it has made good attempts in the following aspects, a) taking all possible measures to be special and exceptional and meanwhile calling for guests to show respect for and live in harmony with nature, e.g. "Nestled among towering Ironwood trees their intimate and unique boutique hotel has been constructed [material] with the intention of teaching [material] all who come [material] here how to live [material] in harmony with the earth"; b) recommending guests to save natural resources by producing their own electricity so as to guarantee the sustainability of nature, e.g. "Many of the sustainable practices they have implemented [material] in their effort to achieve [material] this goal are taught [material] to guests, efforts such as producing [material] their own electricity through solar cells (photovoltaic panels)"; c) practicing exactly what it preaches, typically reflected by its efforts to save energy and protect

the environment, which is illustrated by the two examples given. “*The retreat is designed [material] to use [material] natural lighting during the day and used full-spectrum compact fluorescents for night*”; “*All organic waste is recycled [material] back into the soil through an active system of composting*”.

Several material processes are used to show what the guests may gain from the experience. First, it is revealed that the guests may feel peaceful and tranquil in the eco-hotel, since the hotel is located in such a beautiful natural environment that individuals regard themselves as part of the nature and are inclined to be tamed by nature, e.g. “*Located along the pristine Kohala coastline with breathtaking views of the ocean, it is a place where individuals and groups (actor) may find [material] peace and tranquility (goal) among the ancient stones and healing gardens*”. Furthermore, thanks to the peacefulness and tranquility guests have gained, they come to realize that it is admirable and practical to live without severely affecting nature, e.g. “*Each individual (actor) that leaves [material] the retreat goes [material] home with a sense of peacefulness and a new understanding that living [material] lightly on the earth is not only an attainable goal, it is also an achievable reality*”.

The relational processes, however, are designed for promoting the characteristics and traits of the eco-hotel Hawaii Island Retreat, which are discussed from the following three aspects.

One defines the eco-hotel as a place in which travelers can not only stay away from daily chores and boring work and get relaxed physically, but also feel relieved spiritually because at the eco-hotel they are totally free of tension and pressure which they have to face in daily life. For example, “*Hawaii Island Retreat at Ahu Pohaku Ho’omaluhia (carrier) is [attributive relational] a sacred site (attribute/ identified) serving [identifying relational] as a physical and spiritual healing retreat center (identifier)*”.

Another elaborates the eco-consciousness of the eco-hotel in that the hotel is nature-oriented and strives for a harmonious relationship with nature, e.g. “*They (carrier) are [attributive relational] a luxury eco-conscious spa retreat (attribute/ carrier) designed to be [attributive relational] in harmony with nature (attribute)*”.

Still another highlights the environment-protection awareness of the eco-hotel, reflected by the raw materials they use for construction. In the example “*Much of the flooring throughout the retreat (identified) is [identifying relational] Tiger wood, a farmed sustainable hardwood that does not impact native forests (identifier)*”, the eco-hotel makes use of renewable natural resources—Tiger wood as flooring material, which exerts no harmful influences on the natural forests or the whole ecological system.

To sum up, the overwhelming use of material processes and relational processes in the sample serves to underline the ecological consciousness and environmental-protection awareness of the eco-hotel Hawaii Island Retreat. The eco-hotel tries all possible means to save energy and maintain sustainability of nature and endeavors to equip guests with the same awareness by resting them in a natural and unspoiled environment, which helps them to realize the intimate relationship between themselves and nature and to free both their body and mind.

2. Interpretation of Ecological Thoughts

Based on the above linguistic description, the authors move on to demonstrate how the language use in English eco-hotel profiles works to embody the ecological thoughts, thus revealing that language not only reflects, but also constructs social-cultural reality.

2.1 Human Identification with the Nature

As far as we human beings are concerned, the more we expand “self” to identify with “others” (people, animals, ecosystems), the more we realize ourselves. Thus, one’s Self-realization relies on the well being of all the other existences in the ecosystem. Self-realization which is based on interconnectedness and interdependence can direct human to preserve nature actively so as to achieve harmonious co-existence with nature (Lei Yi, 2001, p.45-49).

In the sample, it is emphasized that human should live in harmony with nature, shown by the material processes used in sentence [2] “*...eco-conscious spa retreat (attribute/ goal/ carrier) designed [material] to be [attributive relational] in harmony with nature (attribute)*” and in sentence [4] “*how to live [material] in harmony with the earth*”. It is suggested that only when we human beings interact and identify with nature and other existences, can we realize the true meanings of life and gain the simplistic happiness of life, illustrated by the material process used in sentence [3] “*it (carrier) is [attributive relational] a place where individuals and groups (actor) may find [material] peace and tranquility (goal) among the ancient stones and healing gardens (attribute)*”.

The profile also shows us the efforts made by the hotel in order to maintain a harmonious relationship with nature, which are elaborated by the material process used in sentence [5] “*...efforts such as producing [material] their own electricity through solar cells (photovoltaic panels)*”. By producing electricity through solar cells rather than through natural resources, the hotel makes attempts to save natural resources and reduce its negative impacts on nature, thus keeping nature as what it is. What’s more, the hotel strives to publicize its nature-friendly consciousness by teaching guests to do the same thing, shown in the material processes used in sentence [4] “*...their intimate and unique boutique hotel (carrier/ goal) has been constructed [material] with the intention of teaching [material] all who come [material] here how to live [material] in harmony with the earth*” and in sentence [5] “*Many of the sustainable practices (goal) they have implemented [material] in their effort to achieve [material] this goal are taught [material] to guests...*”.

Seen from the above examples, it is realized that only after we human beings identify ourselves and live in harmony with nature can we be blessed with the peaceful and tranquil environment and find the peace and relaxation for our body and mind. Such being the case, we human beings should acknowledge the existence of and acquire a deep-seated

respect, or even veneration, for all forms of life in the biosphere. More importantly, we should take real actions to guarantee the survival and wellbeing of all kinds of life and the natural environment as well.

2.2 Simple in Means, Rich in Ends

Since both human and nature are indispensable and interrelated parts of the intricate web of the ecosystem, we human beings should minimize rather than maximize our influences on nature, remain nature as it is and behave in accordance with law of nature. In the sample, by combining the relational process and material process in sentence [7] *Much of the flooring throughout the retreat (identified) is [identifying relational] Tiger wood, a farmed sustainable hardwood that does not impact [material] native forests (identifier)*, the profile producer attempts to highlight that the eco-hotel is a place where strives not to impact the natural environment. Also, in sentence [10] *Each individual (actor) that leaves [material] the retreat goes [material] home with a sense of peacefulness and a new understanding that living [material] lightly on the earth (carrier) is [attributive relational] not only an attainable goal (attribute), it (carrier) is [attributive relational] also an achievable reality (attribute)*, the combination of relational process and material process reflects that as long as human beings make efforts, it is not only an attainable goal but also an achievable reality for human beings to live lightly or minimize their impacts on nature.

And the relational process used in sentence [1] *a sacred site (attribute/ identified) serving [identifying relational] as a physical and spiritual healing retreat center (identifier)* serves to show the hotel's efforts in enriching guests' spiritual ethos, instead of merely advertizing material comforts as hotel profiles generally does.

From the above discussion, we get to know that by minimizing human impacts on nature, we can harvest a friendly living environment and a harmonious relationship with nature which assures us everlasting prosperity and welfare. This is a lifestyle which deep ecologists suggest individuals to pursue, "simple in means, rich in ends" (Devall & Sessions, 1985, p.68). Life quality mentioned here actually underlines the spiritual life, which implicates love, happiness, security and access to nature and other basic emotional needs.

To conclude, through the use of different transitivity processes, especially material processes and relational processes, the eco-hotel profile conveys the above-mentioned ecological thoughts and environmental concern.

3. Explanation of the Social Contexts

After having discussed about the ecological thoughts represented by the language use in eco-hotel profiles, we go further to explore the social contexts in which profit-oriented businessmen tend to express their environmental concern in the eco-hotel profiles.

As mentioned above, the depletion of natural resources triggers wars and combat among countries for oil, petrol and maybe water in the near future. The pollution of air and water undermines human health as well as longevity. Global warming arising from the excessive emission of carbon dioxide brings about the rising of sea level and climatic anomaly. The ecological crises are stemming from the stance that human beings' benefits and interests should come before nature's wellbeing. It is not unusual for human to sacrifice the ecological environment and natural resources for material wealth or comfort, which is justified by the human-centered instrumentalism that regards nature simply as tools. What is worse, the instrumentalism results in the rejection and conquest of nature by human beings, which eventually brings about the dissimulation and alienation between man and nature and between man and man. And human beings have gradually lost mutual-trust, responsibilities, morality and the noble quality of appreciating differences, diversity and richness. All these are detrimental to the sustainable development of human society. As a result, to remove the ecological crises which have grown in frequency and severity, a change from human-centered viewpoints into eco-centric values is a must and should be fulfilled as soon as possible.

Under such contexts, it is wise for businessmen to embody their ecological thoughts in eco-hotel profiles. By doing so, for one thing, they raise people's awareness of the significance of nature and environment to human beings; and for another, they earn themselves fame and reputation for their environmental ethics. This serves to bring continuous guests to the hotels, which is the ultimate purpose of the hotel profiles. With both fame and fortune gained, it is needless to say that businessmen are voluntary to express their ecological thoughts in the eco-hotel profiles and in the meanwhile try utmost to guarantee a natural environment for simple, ecology-oriented and sustainable tourism.

IV. CONCLUSION

In modern society, the environmental pollution and ecological crises are so severe and rampant that they have cast detrimental effects on human lives in all possible respects. Men of insight become alert to the phenomenon and try hard to raise the ecological consciousness of the public by various means, such as "green" speeches delivered by statesmen, environment-protection actions taken by individuals, etc. This study, however, is designed to probe into the ecological consciousness encoded in English eco-hotel profiles. Theoretical foundations are discussed thoroughly, and an analytical frame is proposed based on Fairclough's three-dimensional model. In accordance with the proposed frame, the author makes a detailed analysis of the English eco-hotel profiles in three steps as follows, description of linguistic features in English eco-hotel profile texts in terms of transitivity, interpretation of ecological thoughts revealed by the linguistic resources and explanation of social reasons.

A. Major Findings

After the analysis, the following major findings are obtained.

First, the English eco-hotel profiles make use of various linguistic resources, among which, material processes and relational processes under transitivity are most frequently used. Material processes are mainly used to inform potential consumers of the nature-oriented efforts and actions the eco-hotels have taken; relational processes are largely employed to promote and highlight the unique natural environment where eco-hotels are located and the spiritual enjoyment brought to the guests by history and culture. All these linguistic resources work together to persuade the prospective customers into paying a visit to the eco-hotels for a unique and ecology-friendly experience.

Second, all the linguistic resources used in English eco-hotel profiles help to express certain kinds of ecological thoughts. It is learned that human beings should identify ourselves with nature and view ourselves as part of nature so as to live in harmony with nature and find the true meanings of life; owing to the interconnectedness and interdependence between human and nature, we mankind should minimize rather than maximize our impacts on nature and seek after a lifestyle that is “simple in means, rich in ends” so as to maintain the prosperity of natural universe and the sustainable development of human society.

Third, in a society replete with ecological crises and irrational people who chase only the material comfort, those are urgently needed who speak for nature and propagate nature-friendly lifestyle. Eco-hotel founders, therefore, may gain both fame and fortune, thanks to the ecological thoughts they express through the language use in their eco-hotel profiles. Thus, they, as profit-seeking businessmen, are voluntary to express and disseminate ecological thoughts or consciousness.

It is also discovered that the language use helps to convey ecological thoughts or ideologies, which may in turn influence or manipulate readers’ ecological ideologies by changing their “human-centered” values into “eco-centric” world view. Thus, individuals should be more critical in the language use that expresses ecological or un-ecological elements.

And the study has some implications for the introductory discourses, like eco-hotel profiles. It is advisable for introductory discourses to select linguistic resources elaborately in the expression of particular ideologies or viewpoints so as to exert profound effects on the potential readers, which may help to achieve the ultimate purposes of the introductory discourses. For instance, the use of particular linguistic resources may talk prospective consumers into purchasing certain products by impressing them with a certain consumption pattern, or persuade job applicants into working for a company by arresting them with the special corporate culture of the company.

B. Limitations

The present study has its limitations.

First, regarding the analysis of linguistic features, we only analyze transitivity but put aside nominalization, voice, etc. A comprehensive study of all these linguistic devices may turn out more valid.

Second, the eco-hotel profiles collected are written in English, so the conclusions thus reached simply reflect the discursive and linguistic practices of the English language.

Third, ecological study is so extensive because ecologists have absorbed in its theory the latest achievements of all kinds of natural science and a wide range of humanistic thoughts. Thus, the exploration of ecological thoughts is not all-inclusive in the study.

Last but not least, in the study, only the distribution of linguistic resources that reflect ecological thoughts is examined. A comparison between the frequency of ecological linguistic resources and that of non-ecological linguistic resources will make the conclusion thus reached more reliable and soundly based.

Accordingly, further studies are suggested to conduct from the aspects in which the present study is not involved. Studies can be carried out to probe into ecological thoughts through analysis of such linguistic devices as nominalization and voice, etc. It is also worth trying to make a comparison between different languages, say, English and Chinese, to see how the language use of two languages differs when employed to express ecological thoughts and try to seek reasons from a cross-cultural perspective.

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Research on the Course Setting and Professionalization of MTI Program

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Abstract—This paper introduced the current development about the education of MTI (professional master) in China and analyzed its development. Due to the deficiency in cultivation for full-time masters in our country, many problems arise, such as the limit of course setting and educational plan for professional master, the unreasonable arrangement of course credits and the poor management for teaching. After comparing with the MATIS program, the writer analyzed the domestic translation market and offered the path of professionalization for MTI graduates.

Index Terms—MTI, course setting, translation market, professionalization

I. THE INTRODUCTION OF MTI PROGRAM IN CHINA

In order to meet the urgent demand of the market economy in our country which requires the high-quality, professionally specialized practical talents, and according to Interim Regulations on the Approval of the Establishment of Professional Degrees by the Academic Degrees Committee of the State Council and Opinions on the Enhancement and Improvement of Professional Degrees Education by the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, after studying and discussion, in January 2007, the representatives of the 23rd conference held by the Academic Degrees Committee of the State Council voted unanimously to approve the establishment of Master of Translation and Interpreting (MTI). National Committee for MTI Education exclusively designed the curricula syllabus for Master of Translation and Interpreting. MTI is one of the twenty professional degrees (compared to academic degree) in our country, which is complementary to the present translation teaching. It does not follow the teaching mode of academic-oriented or research-oriented programs. Instead, MTI focuses on training high-quality, professionally-specialized translators and/or interpreters.

In the year 2007, 15 universities were rectified to carry out a pilot study of MTI: Beijing Foreign Studies University, Fudan University, Hunan Normal University, Peking University, Nanjing University, Nankai University, Shanghai International Studies University, Tongji University, Southwest University, Xiamen University, Sun Yat-sen University, PLA University of Foreign Languages, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, Central South University, and Guangdong University of Foreign Studies. Among them, Xiamen University has the largest enrollment, reaching to more than 200 people. Among all the applicants of all the universities, the most senior candidate was 60 years old that year, the applicants include staff from administrative units of government, overseas-invested and private enterprises as well as university teachers, etc. From the construction of organizations, hardware facilities to enrollment, everything worked well with satisfactory results, thus other universities followed the lead, applying to the State Council for the approval of establishing MTI. In the year 2009, the Ministry of Education decided to vigorously develop the education of full-time professional degrees for masters. On March 19, 2009, the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China issued Opinions of Ministry of Education on the Education of Full-time Professional Master Degree:

“To better meet the urgent demand for high-quality, professionally specialized practical talents in our country seconomy construction and social development, and to actively develop professional degrees education with Chinese characteristics, our ministry determined to expand the enrollment range of full-time professional degrees for university graduating seniors since the year 2009.”

By the end of the year 2010, approved by the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, the number of newly established MTI universities reached as many as 236, including Beijing Jiaotong University (Northern Jiaotong University), Beijing Institute of Technology, Beijing University of Posts and Telecommunications, China Foreign Affairs University, Tianjin University, Hebei University, Taiyuan University of Technology, Inner Mongolia University, Liaoning Normal University, Fuzhou University, Nanchang University, Guangxi University for Nationalities, Shandong Normal University, Shandong University of Science and Technology and so forth. MTI is now playing an increasingly important role in training high-quality, professionally specialized practical talents and has become a significant component in Degree and Graduate Education in our country. It is reported by Xinhuanet news on September 12, 2009, that the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China has required the universities having the right to receive MTI students in 2010 to rearrange the enrollment members, no less than 5% in principle, to change their identity from academic degree to professional degree, in addition to the requirement that according to the plan, the extending part mainly allows postgraduate professional degree students. In light of the demand from the Ministry of Education, it is presumably that in 2011, the enrollment of professional degree students will reach 130,000 with an increase surpassing

16%. (Xinhuanet, 2010)

II. CHARACTERISTICS AND REQUIREMENT OF MTI

With the rapid development of knowledge and technology, there are more and more requirements for further professional classifications. The present world has a higher and specific demand for application and specialization. Under such context, the professional degree emerges in an appropriate situation. The development of professional degree modifies and improves the academic structure, shifts the purpose and model of cultivating talents, to some degree, it strengthens the power and adaptability of the talents. The State Academic Degrees Committee of the State Council of the People's Republic of China announces that it is necessary to establish translation professional degree in China. The reasons are as follows: 1) adapt to the reform and opening-up policy and meet the demand of the socialist construction and modernization; 2) to promote the exchanges between China and the rest of the world; 3) in order to bring up the high-level and practical translation professionals. It puts forward several requirements for the Masters of Translation and Interpreting: 1) Prospective students are supposed to have a sound knowledge of bi-language competence; 2) Prospective students are supposed to have a high-level translation and interpreting skills; 3) Prospective students are supposed to have a wide horizon of world knowledge; 4) Prospective students are supposed to have a good intercultural communicative competence; 5) Prospective students are supposed to have a practical ability of translation and interpretation; 6) Prospective students are supposed to pass China Accreditation Test for Translators and Interpreters (CATTI) when they graduate.

III. INTRODUCTION OF MATIS PROGRAM STRUCTURE (2011-12)

In the Center of Translation and Intercultural Studies (CTIS), MA in Translation and Interpreting Studies (MATIS) was established in 1997 in School of Languages, Linguistics and Cultures in Manchester University. The objective is "to equip you with the knowledge and skills for a career in translation" and obtain "other professions which require expertise in cross-cultural communication". MATIS is one of the leading programs in European Masters in Translation (EMT) program, whose purpose is to promote the variety and diversity of European language and culture. Therefore, MATIS program has a very important and instructive role in China's MTI program. By comparing and analyzing the two different yet similar programs, we may get some very interesting and constructive conclusions that may be helpful to our MTI teaching and learning.

MATIS involves the full-time or part-time study. The MA in Translation and Interpreting Studies (MATIS) is available on a full-time and part-time basis.

Full-time MATIS students take the MA program over 12 months. The taught course units are completed over two semesters (end of September-May). The dissertation is written over the summer period and submitted by the beginning of September.

We will mainly focus on the full-time study in this paper. Let us come to the MATIS Program content for 2011-12 to get more detailed comparisons.

MATIS consists of a total of 180 credits, divided as follows:

(1) Specialist optional course units (75 credits), 2) Compulsory core course units (45 credits), 3) MA dissertation (60 credits)

1) Specialist optional course units

Specialist course units in translation include:

Translation Technologies (15 credits, all language combinations)

Audiovisual Translation I (15 credits, all language combinations)

Audiovisual Translation II (15 credits, all language combinations)

Literary Translation I (15 credits, all language combinations)

Literary Translation II (15 credits, all language combinations)

Commercial Translation (15 credits, all language combinations)

Scientific and Technical Translation (15 credits, all language combinations)

Translating for International Organizations (15 credits, all language combinations)

Case Studies in Chinese-English, English-Chinese Translation (15 credits)

Specialist course units in interpreting include

Consecutive Interpreting (15 credits, Chinese/Arabic/Spanish/French/German)

Public Service Interpreting (15 credits, Chinese/Arabic/Spanish/French)

Research-oriented course units include:

Translation and Interpreting Studies II (15 credits)

Cross-Cultural Pragmatics (15 credits)

2) Compulsory core course units

Translation and Interpreting Studies I (15 credits)

Research Methods in Translation & Interpreting Studies I (15 credits)

Research Methods in Translation & Interpreting Studies II (15 credits)

3) Dissertation

Select from 12-15,000 word dissertation or extended translation/interpreting project.

For details on the content of course units, download the MATIS Handbook. Prospective students should bear in mind that the Handbook and some course unit descriptions will be revised for 2011-12.

IV. EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM AND LENGTH OF SCHOOLING OF MTI

We are going to list and compare some requirements for MTI students and academic master students from one Chinese university as following.

1) MTI: Full-time study, two years of schooling. The curriculum of MTI is based on the credit system, according to which students should obtain 50 credits, including 22 credits for degree courses, 13 credits for internship, and at least 15 credits for optional courses.

2) Academic master: educational system: 3years. Length of schooling: limited in 4 years.

The curriculum of the program is based on credit system, which requires that the students should obtain 44-48 credits, including 22 credits for degree courses, 13 credits for research work, and at least 9 credits for optional courses.

TABLE I
COMPARISON IN DEGREE COURSES BETWEEN ACADEMIC MASTER OF ENGLISH MAJOR SPECIALIZED IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS AND MTI IN ONE CHINESE UNIVERSITY (PART)

Course Name	MTI (Professional master)			Academic master		
	Course Type	Class hour	Credit	Course Type	Class hour	Credit
Socialist Theory with Chinese Characteristics and Practical Research	common course	36	2	Common course	64	2
Chinese Language and Culture	common course	32	2	common course	32	2
Introduction to Translation	Specialized Courses	32	2	Specialized Courses	32	2
Translation theory and Practice	Specialized Courses	64	4	Specialized course	32	2
Interpreting Theory and practice	Specialized Courses	64	4	selective course	32	2
Translation for Science and Technology	Specialized Courses	64	4	selective course	32	2
Translation for Applied Writing	Specialized Courses	64	4	selective course	32	2
Marxism and Social Sciences Methodology	Selective Courses	18	1	selective course	16	1
Computer-aided translation	Selective Courses	32	2	selective course	32	2
Cross-cultural Communication	Selective Courses	32	2	selective course	32	2
Contrastive studies of English and Chinese	Selective Courses	32	2	Specialized course	32	2
Translation Appreciation and criticism	Selective Courses	32	2	selective course	32	2
Tourism Translation	Selective Courses	32	2	selective course	32	2
Business translation	Selective Courses	32	2	selective course	32	2
Literary Translation	Selective Courses	32	2	selective course	32	2
On-sight interpreting	Selective Courses	32	2	no		
Consecutive Interpreting	Selective Courses	64	4	no		
Business Interpreting	Selective Courses	32	2	no		
Translation of Chinese Classics	Selective Courses	32	2	selective course	32	2
Translation of Essays and speeches on policies and international relations	Selective Courses	32	2	selective course	32	2
Chinese and foreign translation history	Selective Courses	32	2	selective course	32	2
Internship	Internship and Research Work		5			1
Publications	Internship and Research Work		1			1
Thesis proposal	Internship and Research Work		1			1
Thesis	Internship and Research Work		6			8

From the table above, we can come to the following conclusions:

According to the requirements of ministry of education(the Ministry of Education), the courses setting of MTI (professional master) should be focused on application, targeted at professional requirements and centered around the comprehensive accomplishment as well as the enhancement of applied knowledge and ability. Designing courses are to combine theory with practice and practical research, pay more attention to develop the academic ability and the awareness of exploring practical problems. Students are to attach more importance to the development of practical research as well as innovation ability. Besides, they are to also obtain their working experience, shorten the time of adapting to employment and enhance their professional quality as well as employment or pioneering ability. Based on the information above, the author holds the idea that institutions of higher learning should spare more efforts to provide more opportunities of practice for MTI (professional master) students especially when their schooling time is to be limited in two years. Table II is the requirements of credits in a domestic university.

TABLE II
CREDIT REQUIREMENTS OF MTI AND ACADEMIC MASTER'S DEGREE

Credit Requirements	Academic master	MTI(Professional master)
Total credits	44- 48	50
Degree courses	22	22
Selective courses	≥9	≥15
Internship and Research Work	13	13

We can conclude from Table II that it is extremely irrational in the credits arrangement for professional master. In the courses setting, professional master pays more attention to theory and sessions. Even though the schooling time for professional master is one year shorter than that of academic master, they are required to accomplish four more credits. Besides, they need to get three more credits in degree courses. However, they have 7 credits less than that of academic masters in the practical research aspects, which is opposite to the requirements that professional masters should attach more importance to practice and application.

In the case of shortened period of schooling for professional master, universities are also required to enhance professional master's practice ability and career background. To achieve this goal, the writer believes that institutions of higher learning should reduce the classroom instruction for professional master and cut back the ratio of degree courses on the precondition of reduced classroom instruction. At the same time institutions of higher learning should also increase the types of professional courses such as standard of profession for students to select relevant courses according to the career they will choose in the future, which will enhance students' initiative of study and specialized skills.

TABLE III
SEQUENCING THE PROBLEMS IN MTI TEACHING

Problem	No updated material	No chances of practice	No internship in international conference	No qualified and experienced teacher	No prospect for future work
Sequence	1	2	3	4	5

From Table III, we can see that the updated materials are the biggest concern for students. To be a qualified interpreter or translator need the interpreting materials as many as possible. However, many schools are lack of those materials needed urgently. The second and third problem basically belongs to one practical concern, that is, students are lack of chance to interpret or translate. For the domestic translation market, people cannot find jobs or work as many as possible. For fourth problem, as we know, in many universities, a certain number of professors and teachers come to teach the professional masters' course and academic masters' course at the same time. For some teachers, they are more interested in theories than in the practical interpreting. They mainly focused on being a theorist and linguist instead of an interpreter. Due to the above problems, of course students may get negative prospect toward the future work.

In addition, many institutions of higher learning basically evaluate the performance of full-time professional masters by examination. Classroom performance and grades was largely invisible and can't be evaluated effectively. Practical evaluation mainly refers to internship reports, research work which cannot evaluate students objectively. Other factors, lack of communication between students and instructors in school and limited supervision both will deteriorate the situation. This singular evaluation method cannot evaluate professional masters effectively and precisely, which makes it difficult to guarantee the quality of professional masters.

The curriculum design of translator training in MTI program is based on the development of translation competence, because of the differentiated teaching resources, faculties and qualities of students, etc. The suggested courses may be not suitable for all the teaching units of MTI program. The reference framework of translation competence for MTI students is proposed on the basis of analysis of study of translation competence, successful experience of EMT project, as well as the practical situation of social development and present educational conditions in China. This framework is hoped to be served as the minimal requirements for MTI graduates. What's more, the given suggestions on courses are based on the general condition of teaching units, and they can make use of their own strengths to design their own feature courses.

How could we solve all those questions for MTI students and teachers? The writer is going to talk about the domestic

translation market and analyze the prospect for MTI students, that is, professionalization.

V. TRANSLATION MARKET AND PROSPECT FOR MTI STUDENTS

1) Domestic booming market

Along with the rapid advancement of economic globalization and China's further opening up to the outside world, China's comprehensive national power is constantly being enhanced, and the exchange and integration of domestic and international markets are speeding up. Therefore, translation's function and position are increasingly improved by the society, and the translation industry develops at all unprecedented speed, thus becoming one of the popular industries. The data provided by TAC (Translators Association of China) shows that, there are more than 15,000 registered translation agencies throughout the country. It is estimated that there are 60 thousand full-time translators, the number of translation employees is up to about 500 thousand. Nationwide, more than 3000 translation companies are active, most of which are located intensively in big cities like Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, etc. Also this is the main reason why some MTI graduates complained they cannot find translating and interpreting work in smaller cities. However, this is just a conservative estimation, and probably this figure will increase up to 1 million (in the future). According to the statistics of Translators Association of China, only in 2010, the value of China's multi-language information market reached 50 billion RMB, an increase at a speed of 30-40 percent per year. The association also predicts that with the quickening globalization process, the value produced by Chinese translation market will probably exceed 100 billion RMB by 2015 for multi-language information processing is all accelerator of modern economy. Multi-language translation industry is regarded as one of the highest output compared to other relevant industries in terms of stimulating industrial development. It can be seen from the analysis of the international institutions that the translations value which worth 1 RMB can bring 5 RMB to the directly related industries. Among the cultural industries, the translation service has become an essential one which is only second to education. China's cooperation with other members of the WTO in every aspect, together with the successful Beijing Olympic Games and Shanghai World Expo, ushered in a golden period for the development of China's translation industry.

2) Professionalization and localization for MTI

Professionalization is simply a process that draws a clear line between qualified professionals and amateurs. In addition, the professionalization process tends to establish norms of conduct and qualification of membership. Jennifer Mackintosh, the late AIIC president, gives more specific explanation of what professionalization is, in her paper Professionalization: Conference Interpreting-a new profession, she suggests despite many definitions of professionalization, there has been little disagreement in that professionalization involves a social process whereby people come together to engage in an activity as a means of livelihood, inculcating a shared set of attitudes, values and behavior and involving the creation of an association whereby they can claim professional identity. She further proposes the principal attributes of a profession as follows:

- (1) A professional association
 - (2) Communications
 - (3) A code of ethics
 - (4) Professional standards and codified working practices
 - (5) A membership and admissions system
 - (6) A recognized training paradigm
 - (7) External recognition
 - (8) Professional services to members
 - (9) Self regulation
- (Mackintosh 2005)

In the path of professionalization, training institutions, based on the set standards, should equip themselves with necessary training resources. Trainees take part in the training at appropriate levels. The training result needs to be examined by all authoritative testing and accreditation organization, which is responsible for granting certificates to examinees who have passed the test of certain levels. With a certificate in hand, it would be easier to reach an agreement about the task the translators can fulfill and the salary to be received. This path gives rise to several important factors in defining professionalization, including the quality, working condition, professional association, the ethics of the profession and accreditation, etc.

What makes a professional translator? With specific characteristics of translation as a cross-cultural, cross-lingual, cross-national activity, professional translators should act as linguists and mediators. Professional translators are applied linguists who have a genuine ability dealing with languages and have a deep understanding of them. Professional translators are people who are dedicated to languages influenced by nations, societies, and cultures. They are devoted to improving their ability to understand the source language and rewrite in their target language.

Practical translation should play a major role in the training program. There are three approaches to improve this:

(1) Classroom discussion: The representatives of different kinds of text types are used for analysis and translation. Subjects of translation include scientific, newspaper, legal, fiction, etc. Through those practical assignments, trainees are expected to develop the ability to identify translation problems in various types and genres of texts and to solve them on the basis of taught theoretical assumptions. Courses include revision of translations, translation analysis and

commentary, terminology work related to the translated texts, etc.

(2) Translation workshop: Professionalism has become a major trend in translator education. Respecting the differences between education and training, a profession-oriented workshop is a great proving ground. It provides good opportunities for the trainees to practice translating, while at the same time, translation skills/techniques/strategies are discussed and applied. The real practice brings the experience and knowledge of the craft.

(3) Internship: Translation and localization companies are offering the opportunity for internship, in which the new translators are trained in how to perform various localization and translation activities such as translation, editing, proofreading, glossary development, DTP (=desktop publishing) and post—DTP quality control. Working in a real-life environment together with experienced translators who help them improve their skills, the new translators acquire experience related to business issues such as handling tight schedules, teamwork, developing and maintaining glossaries, managing the CAT tools, and incorporating a sense of accountability and commitment towards the company's quality assurance standards.

VI. CONCLUSION

We hope this paper could improve the professional master's practice ability, innovative thinking, and better the training mechanism for the full-time professional master in our country. Based on above analysis, this paper reveals some problems to be tackled in the current MTI educational system, and puts forward some possible solutions and approaches. Translation industry has been one of most increasing industries in China, to take this chance to make further development, MTI students and teachers have to exert their most to develop their potentials to adapt to the professionalized market to perfect their skills, for example, attach more importance to classroom discussion, translation workshop and internship.

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The Impact of Peer Scaffolding through Process Approach on EFL Learners' Academic Writing Fluency

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Abstract—This paper aimed to examine the impact of peer scaffolding through process approach on writing fluency of EFL learners. To this end, a Nelson Proficiency Test was administered to 49 EFL learners studying at University of Guilan, based on which 40 homogenous learners at an intermediate level comprised the research sample. Afterwards, the participants were randomly divided into a control group of 20 students, and an experimental group comprising 10 dyads. The control group wrote argumentative essays based on product approach to writing and those in the experimental group practiced essay writing through process approach while a competent writer provided scaffolding to a less competent one. The essays produced in pre- and post-test were analyzed in terms of writing fluency. Using SPSS 16, the results of One-way ANOVA at the alpha level of .05 revealed that in spite of having improvement in some aspects of their writing fluency such as words per minute, average words and T-units, learners in the experimental group did not outperform those in the control group. However, one-way Repeated Measures ANOVA illustrated that both competent and less competent writers in the experimental group have improved in their writing fluency. The study may have implications for improving EFL learners' fluency in writing.

Index Terms—academic writing, peer scaffolding, process approach, interaction, sociocultural theory, fluency

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing is one of the most important and challenging skills which involves a complicated process of generating ideas and translating them into written symbols. In recent years, the teaching of English as a Second or Foreign Language (TESL/TEFL) has witnessed a change in the theoretical and methodological perspectives from considering language learning as an individual accomplishment to understanding it as a social act. Particularly, this change is evident in the conception of writing skill in which interaction and collaboration have become the concern of many researchers (See for example Storch, 2005; 2007, Wiggleworth & Storch, 2009).

Furthermore, recently scaffolding and the zone of proximal development (ZPD) have gained paramount attention in L2 learning studies. Initially used by Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976) in an analysis of children-tutor interaction, scaffolding was soon associated with Vygotsky's notion of ZPD. According to Donato (1994) the concept of scaffolding is derived from cognitive psychology and research in L1, and it refers to the supportive conditions made by a knowledgeable participant in a social interaction. Scaffolding and its relationship to second or foreign language learning has been studied in different aspects of interaction such as teacher-student or student-student interaction, called peer scaffolding.

As is stated by Mirzaee, Domakani and Roshani (2010), Sociocultural concepts have been a matter of neglect in Iran and most of the studies have been concerned with linguistic, cognitive and affective aspects of second language acquisition. More specifically, although the use of pair or group work is strongly advocated in EFL/ESL classrooms, these are not much applied to Iranian EFL classrooms, and in spite of many researches done in ESL/EFL writing pedagogy, writing is still one of the most difficult skills for language learners. One of the difficulties that most of the EFL learners complain or ask about when they are required to write an essay or composition is the amount or quantity of their writings. Due to the problems that most EFL learners face when writing individually, it seems to be more practical to engage the learners in pair writing during which competent peers scaffold and guide less competent ones.

Therefore, this paper aims at investigating the impact of peer scaffolding through process approach on the writing fluency of EFL learners. To this end the present research study addresses the following questions:

- 1- What is the impact of peer scaffolding through process approach on writing fluency of intermediate EFL learners?

2- Does peer scaffolding through process approach have any influence on writing fluency of competent intermediate EFL writers?

3- Does peer scaffolding through process approach have any influence on writing fluency of less competent intermediate EFL writers?

Regarding the aforementioned research questions the following null hypotheses have been formulated:

H₀₁. Peer scaffolding through process approach has no impact on writing fluency of intermediate EFL learners.

H₀₂. Peer scaffolding through process approach has no impact on writing fluency of competent intermediate EFL writers.

H₀₃. Peer scaffolding through process approach has no impact on writing fluency of less competent intermediate EFL writers.

II. THEORETICAL AND RESEARCH BACKGROUND

A. An Overview of Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory

Sociocultural Theory (SCT) is an approach to human sciences with the purpose of explaining and developing a connection between mental functioning and the cultural, institutional and historical conditions in which mental functioning happens (Van Lier, 2004 as cited in Pishghadam & Ghadiri, 2011). It directly emphasizes the link between social context and individuals' psychological development (Bruffee, 1993, 1996; Gere, 1987 as cited in Tsai, 2006).

Vygotsky (1978, 1981 & 1987) is fundamentally concerned with the thesis that the development of human cognitive functions proceeds from the social or interpsychological plane to the individual or intrapsychological plane, with the use of symbolic, socioculturally developed tools the most important of which is language. In other words, SCT regards human mental functioning as necessarily a mediated process which is organized by artifacts, activities and concepts (Lantolf, 2000). In addition, as Lantolf & Thorne (2007) point out, although Vygotsky does not reject the neurobiological factors for the development of higher order thinking ability he mainly focuses on the significance of interaction occurring within social contexts for developing human cognitive ability. Generally, in SCT learners are treated as active meaning-makers and problem-solvers in their process of learning with the great emphasis on the learning which stems from interaction and negotiations of meaning among individuals.

The notion of ZPD is considered significant in SCT since it is the region in which the transition from interpsychological functions turns into intrapsychological functions. It is believed that a variety of internal developmental functions will be activated by learning and this process only happens provided that the child interacts with the peers or adults in a social environment (Fahim & Haghani, 2012). However, it should be mentioned that the current view of the ZPD has been expanded beyond the interaction between an expert and a novice. Recent research seeks to gain a better understanding on how L2 learning is mediated in the ZPD by looking more closely at peer interactions in the ZPD. In other words, ZPD is considered as providing an opportunity to learn with and from others (Anton, 1999; Lantolf, 2000; Wells, 1998).

B. Scaffolding

Scaffolding was first associated with the ZPD; it was later used by Bruner (1978) as a metaphor for a mother's verbal assistance in maintaining conversation with a child and indirectly promoting language learning. It has also been applied in the context of tutorial interaction where a tutor helps a less skilled person to solve a problem (Hekamäki, 2005). Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976) used the term scaffolding as a metaphor to refer to a process whereby an adult assist a child to learn how to perform a task that she or he cannot perform alone. They describe the process of scaffolding as involving "the adult's controlling those elements of the task that are initially beyond the learner's capacity." (p. 90)

Accordingly, by scaffolding the learner will be enabled to complete those elements of the task that he or she may not be able to do without assistance. However, as Wood et al. (1976, p.90) further state, "the process can potentially achieve much more for the learner than an assisted completion of the task." And it eventually results in "development of task competence by the learner at a pace that would far outstrip his unassisted effort." (Ibid.) Furthermore, Walqui (2006) points out that scaffolding can be regarded as three related pedagogical scales. First, there is the meaning of providing a support structure to enable certain activities and skills to develop. Second, there is the actual carrying out of particular activities in class, and third, there is the assistance provided in moment-to-moment interaction.

As stated by Nguyen (2013), the term scaffolding has been interpreted and operationalized in various ways since its emergence. These varied interpretations have expanded the significance of scaffolding to the extent that who provides scaffolding is no longer a question and the focus has shifted from "expert" to "expertise". The use of scaffolding is no longer restricted to expert/novice interactions and many researchers have considered peer collaboration (e.g. Barnard, 2002; De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000) in addition to interactions between a teacher and classroom (e.g. Riazi & Rezaii, 2011) as scaffolding.

Van Lier (2004) lists six important features of scaffolding as follows: 1- *Continuity*: repeated occurrence over time with variations connected to one another; 2- *Contextual support*: a safe but challenging environment, errors are expected as part of the learning process; 3- *Intersubjectivity*: mutual engagement and support, two minds thinking as one; 4- *Flow*: communication between participants is not forced but flows in a natural way; 5- *Contingency*: the

scaffolding support depend on learners' reactions, elements can be added, changed, deleted, repeated, etc. 6-*Handover/Takeover*: there is an increasing role for the learners when the skills and confidence increase.

C. Review of Related Literature

Sociocultural Theory and its related components of ZPD and scaffolding has gained unprecedented attention and become an appealing frame in educational contexts and especially in L2 studies. However, to date there are very few studies regarding the impact of peer scaffolding on the writing performance of EFL learners. Whereas most of the studies on scaffolding are concerned with teacher- student interactions, as Storch (2007) points out scaffolding can also occur when peers work together and interact in pairs or small groups.

Storch (1999) explored the impact of peer scaffolding on the students' language learning and found that collaboration has a positive impact on the overall grammatical accuracy of the learners when doing grammar focused exercises. As a result, it can be concluded that peer scaffolding leads to co-construction of knowledge by the learners and language development.

Storch (2005) also investigated the writing performance of 23 ESL students completing degree courses. Comparing texts produced by pairs with those written by individuals, the results showed that the pairs produced less fluent but better texts in terms of task fulfillment, complexity, and accuracy. However, in this study pairing was not done in a way that more competent writers work with less competent ones.

In another study, Wiggleworth and Storch (2009) investigated the use of collaborative writing on students' writing ability in terms of their writing fluency, accuracy and complexity. Although they found it effective on the learners' accuracy in writing, the results did not reveal a positive, effective influence on the learners' fluency and complexity of writing.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participant

The present study was carried out at Guilan University in Rasht, north of Iran. 49 university students (23 males and 26 females) were the potential participants of the study. After the test of proficiency 40 students (20 males and 20 females) were selected and randomly assigned to two groups, one experimental including 10 males and 10 females, and the other one control group consisting of 10 males and 10 females. The students were all freshmen majoring in English Language and Literature and they were in the second semester of their studying at university. The writing classes for both experimental and control groups were held once a week in 90 minutes. The age of the participants ranged from 17 to 32. The control group was taught based on the product approach to writing and the students wrote essays individually, while in the experimental peer scaffolding was conducted through process approach to writing.

B. Instruments

The first instrument used in this study was Nelson Proficiency Test (B). Some argumentative essay samples were also used during the teaching for the control group. Moreover, both experimental and control groups were provided with some pamphlets introducing the argumentative genre of writing. In addition, we made use of peer feedback sheets taken from the book *Refining Composition Skills* by Smalley, Ruetten, and Kozyrev (2001), in the experimental group. The topics were chosen considering students' interests, age and field of study.

C. Procedure

First, to ensure the homogeneity of the participants Nelson Proficiency Test (B) was administered to 49 students in the two classes in the first session and 40 students who were more or less at the same level of English proficiency were considered as the participants of the study. Then they were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. In doing so it was tried to assign equal numbers of male and female students to each group. The second session in week 1 was spent informing the students of their proficiency test scores and dividing them into two groups.

In the second week, the first session in each class was spent making students familiar with the format of argumentative essay by lecturing and using pamphlets and handouts about how to write introduction, body paragraphs and conclusion. At the end of the session, a sample argumentative essay was also introduced and explained to learners in both groups.

In the third week, a pre-test was taken from both groups in the time limit of 45 minutes. The pre-test had two purposes. One of them was to be able to compare students' writing performance at the end of the classes, and the other purpose was to determine the competent and less competent learners in the experimental group in order to form dyads so that the more competent writers scaffold the less competent ones when writing essays. It needs to be mentioned that the selection of competent learners was based on their performance regarding the definition of writing fluency in this study as being able to write more in a limited time. In other words, those students who could write a full argumentative essay in shorter time with more number of words, clauses and T-units were considered to be fluent and more competent writers. Furthermore, pairing in the experimental group was done in such a way that females were paired together and males were also paired together. The next four weeks (weeks 4, 5, 6 and 6) were spent by having the control group to write based on the product approach and those in the experimental group to write on the basis of process approach to

writing while each competent writer scaffolded his/her partner. In what follows a comprehensive description of the procedure in each group will be provided.

The teaching procedure in the control group started by a class discussion about the topic of the essay that the students were supposed to write in each session respectively. Then they were given a model essay and the main parts of the essay were analyzed in the class as a whole with students contributing and giving their idea about what should be written in each section of the essay such as the thesis statement, pro ideas, con ideas, and concluding remarks. This took about thirty to forty-five minutes of the class time in each session. After that the students were asked to produce an individually-written essay in the traditional way common to most Iranian contexts, similar to the model essay at hand within the remaining forty-five minutes. After submitting their essays they were provided with the teacher feedback mainly on the content and organization of their essays.

The teaching procedure in the experimental group inaugurated in the same fashion as in the control group by having a class discussion and brainstorming about the topic at hand in each session. The main difference was that in the control group students wrote their essays in pairs rather than individually and they went through the main phases of writing process as those offered by Seow (2002, as cited in Richards & Renandya, 2002) including 1) planning, 2) drafting, 3) revising, and 4) editing. Since the students were not familiar with these stages a whole session was devoted to having them practice writing based on the process approach. Some points about the pair writing needs to be mentioned. First, the members of each dyad were assigned different roles. The competent writers had been given the role of a consultant or helper while the less competent writers were asked to take the responsibility of writing the essays, and they were given the role of the writer. Moreover, members of the dyads were chosen randomly by the researcher and since the students knew each other they were not reluctant to be paired with their classmates. In addition, both learners in each pair were asked to share their ideas in the planning, drafting, and revision phases of the writing. Also, the members were not told that one of them is more competent than the other, and peer scaffolding was conducted as the more competent learner took the role of the consultant. In addition, the scaffolding features, as observed by the researcher, in the experimental group as stated by Van Lier (2004) have been met as follows:

Contextual support was initially provided by the explanations and clarifications on the argumentative genre by the tutor and with the peer discussions between the members of the dyads. Another layer of the contextual support was created by the students themselves when deciding to argue for or against a topic and providing supports for their arguments. The challenge was to co-construct a five-paragraph argumentative essay in the limited time of classroom hour.

Continuity was met as every session the pairs were required to write a complete argumentative essay, building on their past knowledge of the genre which have been developed in the previous sessions. Out of class collaboration on revising their essays based on peers or teacher feedback and comments also enabled the learners to link the past and future interaction.

Intersubjectivity was achieved when the pairs engaged in harmonious exploratory talk in such cases as reformulating the statement made by one member of the dyad and seeking confirmation of his or her understanding. There was mutual engagement and support in each dyad as the members tried to pull on each other's linguistic and extra-linguistic knowledge of the mechanical as well as contextual aspects of the essay at hand. In this way they were involved in the knowledge transmission, receiving and taking suggestions and working toward a common goal, namely co-constructing a comprehensive essay.

Flow was achieved as the interaction between the peers in each dyad was the characteristic of easy, unforceful conversations. The peers addressed each other and talked comfortably when sharing ideas and discussing different aspects of their writing.

Contingency was met during drafting and revision phases of the writing process as the assistance provided by the more capable peer was contingent upon what has been done in the previous stages of the writing process, thus, elements were changed, added or deleted accordingly. More specifically in the drafting phase it was observed that the more capable peer who had taken the role of a consultant tried to build a trustful atmosphere ensuring the less competent peer that what he or she says regarding for instance spelling or choice of a particular term was right. This made the peers' varied comprehension and interpretation to be brought in the surface of discourse and it was reconstructed and refined through contingent interaction (Barnard & Campbell, 2005).

Handover was employed when at the end of each writing task the peers reached agreement on what they were supposed to write in each section of the essay including introduction, body, and conclusion, or what should be added to them. Thus, before submitting their essay to the teacher, the learners achieved a measure of control over their writing process through interdependent activity. (Ibid.)

Furthermore, the students in the experimental group were asked to write a revised essay individually, since the ultimate purpose of scaffolding is being able to perform a task independently, or moving from interpsychological plane to intrapsychological plane. Like the control group, students in the experimental group were provided with teacher feedback on the content, organization of their essays in each session.

Finally, the last week was considered to take a post-test from each group. In the post-test students in each group were asked to individually write an argumentative essay in the same time limit as the pre-test that is in 45 minutes.

IV. RESULTS

Writing fluency in the study of Wigglesworth and Storch (2009) referred to the average number of words, Terminable Units (T-units) and clauses. Following Wigglesworth and Storch (2009), in our study fluency was measured in the same way. And as time is an important aspect of fluency, we also used Chenoweth and Hayes' (2001) measurement scale i.e. the number of words written per minute. For data analysis SPSS 16 was used.

To make sure that there is enough accuracy in the calculation of the number of words, T-units, clauses and words per minute, each essay in the pre-test and post-test was checked twice by the researcher. The intra- rater reliability was investigated using Pearson Product-moment correlation. There was a strong positive relationship between the calculations both at the pre-test ($r=.88$, $p<.05$), and the post-test ($r=.895$, $p<.05$).

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics for each of the for measures of fluency in the pre-test, such as mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the means regarding the performance of the participants in each group separately. It needs to be noted that since one of the participants in the control group was absent in the time of pre-test, the data from that learners was excluded in the final analysis. Therefore, the number of participants in the control group was reduced from 20 to 19.

TABLE1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR WRITING FLUENCY IN PRE-TEST

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Words per min .pre	control	19	5.1184	1.593	.365
	experimental	20	5.1970	1.882	.420
Words .pre	control	19	203.37	60.422	13.862
	experimental	20	201.15	75.277	16.832
Clauses .pre	control	19	24.16	8.896	2.041
	experimental	20	23.60	8.191	1.832
T-units .pre	control	19	13.95	5.212	1.196
	experimental	20	15.05	4.904	1.097

As the main aim of the study was to compare two means obtained from two groups of EFL learners, and since the independent variable in our study, that is, writing fluency had four levels, One-way ANOVA was used for the statistical analysis of the data both in the pre-test and post-test. Table2 illustrates the results of ANOVA test for the comparison of groups regarding the four indicators of writing fluency in the pre-test.

TABLE2
RESULTS OF ANOVA TEST FOR WRITING FLUENCY IN PRE-TEST

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
words per min	Between Groups	.060	1	.060	.020	.889
	Within Groups	113.076	37	3.056		
	Total	113.136	38			
words	Between Groups	47.952	1	47.952	.010	.920
	Within Groups	173380.971	37	4685.972		
	Total	173428.923	38			
clauses	Between Groups	3.033	1	3.033	.042	.840
	Within Groups	2699.326	37	72.955		
	Total	2702.359	38			
T-units	Between Groups	11.846	1	11.846	.463	.500
	Within Groups	945.897	37	25.565		
	Total	957.744	38			

As is shown in the table the performance of both experimental and control group in terms of writing fluency is similar in the pre-test. More specifically, for "words per minute" ($\text{sig}=.889$, $F=.020$, $p<.05$), with reference to "average number of words" ($\text{sig}=.920$, $F=.010$, $p<.05$), for "average number of clauses" ($\text{sig}=.840$, $F=.042$, $p<.05$), and for the last indicator of writing fluency namely, "average number of T-units" ($\text{sig}=.50$, $F=.463$, $p<.05$). Therefore, there was not a significant difference between control and experimental groups in terms of their writing fluency in the outset of the study.

Tables 3 and 4 express the results obtained from the analysis of the essays produced by the control and experimental groups in the post-test. Table 3 below shows the descriptive statistics for the four measures of writing fluency in the post-test.

TABLE3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR WRITING FLUENCY IN POST-TEST

	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Words per min .post	control	19	5.807	1.412	.324
	experimental	20	7.084	2.296	.513
Words .post	control	19	234.05	58.151	13.341
	experimental	20	287.45	85.236	19.059
Clauses .post	control	19	29.74	9.036	2.073
	experimental	20	33.30	10.250	2.292
T-units .post	control	19	17.84	4.670	1.071
	experimental	20	21.50	6.817	1.524

Table 4 is illustrative of the results of ANOVA test ran in order to compare the performance of experimental and control group in the post-test.

TABLE4
RESULTS OF ANOVA TEST FOR WRITING FLUENCY IN POST-TEST

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
words per min	Between Groups	15.892	1	15.892	4.321	.045
	Within Groups	136.093	37	3.678		
	Total	151.985	38			
words	Between Groups	27781.692	1	27781.692	5.168	.029
	Within Groups	198905.897	37	5375.835		
	Total	226687.590	38			
clauses	Between Groups	123.706	1	123.706	1.321	.258
	Within Groups	3465.884	37	93.673		
	Total	3589.590	38			
T-units	Between Groups	130.371	1	130.371	3.782	.059
	Within Groups	1275.526	37	34.474		
	Total	1405.897	38			

As is indicated in the table experimental group outperformed the control group in some aspects of the writing fluency, however in one of the measures the table does not show a significant difference between the two groups. To put it more specifically, experimental group had outperformed control group with regard to “words per minute” (sig=.045, F=4.321, $p < .05$), “average number of words” (sig=.029, F=5.168, $p < .05$), and “average number of T-units” (sig=.059, F=3.728, $p < .05$). But, as to the third measure of writing fluency which is “average number of clauses” the table does not show any significant difference (sig=.258, F=1.32, $p < .05$). Since not all the indicators of writing fluency showed a significant difference between the experimental and control group, we cannot strongly reject the first null hypothesis.

In order to analyze data for the second and third objectives of the study namely exploring whether there is an improvement in the writing fluency of competent and less competent learners in the experimental group, the means of words written per minute, words, clauses and T-units was compared for competent and less competent learners, separately. For this purpose repeated measures ANOVA was used to compare the performance of competent and less competent writers in terms of their writing fluency in Time (1) prior to treatment and Time (2) after the treatment. Table5 shows descriptive statistics for the essays of 10 competent writers in the experimental group, who were supposed to provide scaffolding for their peer writers, in the pre-test and post-test.

TABLE5
RESULTS OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR WRITING FLUENCY OF COMPETENT WRITERS

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Words per minute1	5.971	2.102	10
Words per minute2	7.961	2.590	10
Words1	248.40	79.126	10
Words 2	328.60	93.086	10
Clauses1	29.50	7.472	10
Clauses2	36.70	11.036	10
T-units1	18.00	5.099	10
T-units2	22.70	7.718	10

Table6 shows the within subjects effects for the writing fluency of competent writers.

TABLE6
WITHIN SUBJECT EFFECT FOR WRITING FLUENCY OF COMPETENT WRITERS

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Words per minute	20.869	1	20.869	11.438	.008
Words	41678.450	1	41678.450	20.209	.001
Clauses	684.450	1	684.450	14.596	.004
T-units	336.200	1	336.200	17.212	.002

Note: sphericity is assumed

The results demonstrated that there was a significant effect for all the four indicators of writing fluency. To put it more specifically, for “words per minute” ($\text{sig} = .036$, $F = 6.024$, $p < .05$), for “average number of words” ($\text{sig} = .016$, $F = 8.86$, $p < .05$), for “average number of clauses” ($\text{sig} = .040$, $F = 5.77$, $p < .05$) and for “average number of T-units” ($\text{sig} = .051$, $F = 5.07$, $p < .05$). Accordingly the second null hypothesis postulated is rejected.

Table 7 reveals the descriptive statistics for the writing performance of less competent writers in the pre- and post-tests, and Table 8 shows within subject effects for less competent writers.

TABLE7
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR WRITING FLUENCY OF LESS COMPETENT WRITERS

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Words per minute1	4.165	.911	10
Words per minute2	6.208	1.647	10
Words1	154.80	31.290	10
Words 2	246.10	54.321	10
Clauses1	18.20	4.23	10
Clauses2	29.90	8.621	10
T-units1	12.10	2.331	10
T-units2	20.30	5.945	10

TABLE8
WITHIN SUBJECT EFFECT FOR WRITING FLUENCY OF LESS COMPETENT WRITERS

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Words per minute	19.801	1	19.801	6.024	.036
Words	32160.200	1	32160.200	8.860	.016
Clauses	259.200	1	259.200	5.777	.040
T-units	110.450	1	110.450	5.070	.051

Note: sphericity is assumed

As is evident in the table, the results indicated that in case of less competent writers also there was a significant effect for all the four indicators of writing fluency. In other words, regarding “words per minute” ($\text{sig} = .008$, $F = 11.438$, $p < .05$), for “average number of words” ($\text{sig} = .001$, $F = 20.209$, $p < .05$), for “average number of clauses” ($\text{sig} = .004$, $F = 14.596$, $p < .05$) and for “average number of T-units” ($\text{sig} = .002$, $F = 17.212$, $p < .05$). Therefore, the third null hypothesis is also rejected.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study aimed at investigating the impact of peer scaffolding through process approach on the writing fluency of EFL learners. To this purpose two groups of university EFL students majoring in English Language and Literature took part in a series of argumentative writing classes. One group (Control) was taught based on the traditional product approach to writing, whereas the other group (Experimental) received instruction based on process approach to writing while the learners wrote in pair and one them, that is, the competent writer provided scaffolding to the other one. Since the main aim of providing scaffolding is to lead the learners to a path in which he or she can complete a task individually, at the end of the classes each learner both in the control and experimental group was required to write an argumentative essay individually which was also used as the post-test.

Regarding the first Research Question that is “what is the impact of peer scaffolding through process approach on writing fluency of EFL learners?” it can be concluded from the results of one-way ANOVA that although, peer scaffolding may have an influence on the amounts of words produced per minute ($p = .04$), or the average number of words produced ($p = .02$) and the average T-units written ($p = .05$), it does not have any significant effect on the average number of clauses produced by the learners ($p = .25$). Therefore, since not all of the indicators of writing fluency, as it was defined and used in the present study, expressed a significant improvement regarding the pre- and post-test of writing, the first null hypothesis cannot be rejected, and the statistical analyses show that peer scaffolding through process approach does not have any significant impact on developing writing fluency of EFL learners. This result is in line with the study of Wiggleworth & Storch (2009), based on which the performance of individuals and pairs were similar across the sub-measures of writing fluency.

Referring to the second Research Question which is “does peer scaffolding through process approach have any influence on writing fluency of competent learners?” the results of Repeated Measures ANOVA revealed that there was a significant difference between the writing fluency of competent learners in the pre- and post-test of writing. More specifically, competent learners produced more words per minute ($p = .036$), and also the average number of words produced by them was greater than the pre-test ($p = .016$), they also wrote more clauses ($p = .040$) and more T-units ($p = .051$). Accordingly, the second null hypothesis is rejected and peer scaffolding through process approach is shown to have a significant effect on writing fluency of competent writers.

Considering the third Research Question which is “does peer scaffolding through process approach have any influence on writing fluency of less competent learners?” Repeated Measures ANOVA showed that less competent writers have improved in their writing performance in terms of writing fluency. To put it more specifically, less competent writers produced more words per minute ($p = .008$), also the average number of words ($p = .001$), clauses

($p=.004$), and T-units ($p=.002$) have increased in the writing performance of these learners. Consequently, the third null hypothesis can be rejected, and it can be concluded that less competent learners have benefited from peer scaffolding through process approach as they wrote more fluently after the experiment.

Overall, on the basis of the obtained results we can conclude that although having the EFL learners to write in pair while one of them provides scaffolding for the other one, may not influence their writing fluency as a whole, it can have significant impact on the writing fluency of those who provide scaffolding and those who receive it. As writing fluently is one of the most important requirements of students in an academic EFL context, and since there are a great number of students in the classes, the application and use of peer scaffolding can be a valuable asset for EFL teachers.

Further research is needed in order to investigate the impact of peer scaffolding through process approach on other dimensions of writing skill, such as writing accuracy or complexity. Additionally, other research studies can be conducted to explore the probable impacts that peer scaffolding can have on the development of other language skills such as Listening, Speaking and Reading. Finally, as the present study was conducted in an academic context and with intermediate level students, further research is needed to be done in other learning contexts considering other proficiency levels.

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Oral English Learning Strategies

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Abstract—This thesis is concerned about the strategies of learning oral English. In the thesis, I introduce many strategies to help students to improve their oral English. Some of these strategies can directly influence their effectiveness of learning oral English such as cognitive strategies, but some do not have directly influence on oral English. The theory of individual differences is still another important one for choosing effective strategies, which includes age, gender, learning style preferences, etc. In the last part, I carry out a SBI (strategies-based instruction) to test the effectiveness of the strategies I introduce. I get two major findings: one is that learning strategies do have effect on learning oral English; the other is that not a strategy is fit for all learners. The effectiveness of a strategy depends not only on what task it applies to but on personal characteristics.

Index Terms—learning strategy, oral English learning strategy, individual difference, SBI

Strategies of language learning are specific actions, behaviors, steps or techniques that students use to improve their progress in developing second language skills. (Maryam Khosravi, 2012) Oral English learning strategies are complex procedures that individuals apply to tasks, consequently, they may be represented as procedural knowledge which be acquired through cognitive associative and autonomous stages of learning, (Fateme Serri, Aliakbar Jafarpour Boroujeni & Akbar Hesabi, 2012) in early stages of learning the strategies may be conscious and later be showed unconsciously. For most Chinese learners of English as a foreign language, it takes a great deal of psychological preparation and efforts to develop oral English communication skills. Oral fluency in English requires lowered inhibition, enhanced self-confidence, intrinsic motivation, greater ambiguity to tolerance, realistic personal goals and most of all, adventurous risk-taking. (Gai Fangpen & Yang Dong, 2010) Meanwhile, effective communication also necessitates language accuracy based on less LI interference and pragmatic appropriateness obtained through both linguistic and non-linguistic media. In order to achieve the above two criteria of oral English, we should use efficient learning strategies. Next, I will introduce the oral English learning strategies one by one.

I. APPLYING INDIRECT STRATEGIES TO SPEAKING

The indirect strategies are in favor of language learning. There are three branches. Metacognitive strategies allow learners to control their own cognition—that is, to coordinate the learning process by using functions as centering, arranging, planning, and evaluating. Affective strategies help to regulate emotions, motivations, and attitudes. Social strategies help students learn through interaction with others. All these strategies support and manage language learning without directly involving the target language. Indirect strategies are useful in virtually all language situations. (Rosna Awang Hashim, 1994)

A. Metacognitive Strategies

(a) Centering Your Learning (Maryam Khosravi, 2012)

First, paying attention. The strategy of paying attention is necessary for speaking. This strategy involves two modes, directed attention and selective attention. Directed attention means deciding generally or globally to pay attention to the task and avoid irrelevant distractions. In contrast, selective attention involves deciding in advance to notice particular details. Encourage directed attention by providing interesting activities and materials, reducing classroom distractions, reminding students to focus, and rewarding them when they do so. Facilitate selective attention by giving learners an incomplete chart to fill out, a table or checklist on which to mark details, or some other activity which requires attention to specifics.

Secondly, delaying speech production to focus on listening. This strategy relates to speaking. You do not have to teach or encourage this strategy, because many learners do it automatically by postponing their speaking in the target language for hours, days, weeks, or possibly even months. This phenomenon is often viewed as a way of focusing on listening comprehension before students feel comfortable enough to speak. The speech delay may be total or partial. The delay occurs because listening is more rapidly developed than speaking, and because speaking seems more threatening to many students. Some instructional theorists have stressed the importance of allowing a “silent period” for all learners, and various language teaching methods reflect this emphasis, but research evidence concerning the significance and optimal length of the silent period is mixed. Help build solid listening comprehension skills, and encourage students to speak as soon as they are ready, without any externally imposed delay.

(b) Planning and Arranging Language Learning.

First, understanding language learning. This strategy means uncovering what is involved in language learning. Learners often do not know much about the mechanics of language learning, although such knowledge would make

them more effective learners. Books about language learning are a good source of information. Help your students by allowing them to talk about their language learning problems, ask questions, and share ideas with each other about effective strategies they have tried. Taking class time to talk about learning process will reap rewards for the students. This strategy can aid speaking.

Secondly, setting goals and objectives. Goals and objectives are expressions of students' aims for language learning. Students without aims are like boats without rudders; they do not know where they are going, so they might never get there! Goals and objectives should be noted in the language learning notebook, along with deadlines for accomplishing them and an indication as to whether those deadlines were met. Goals are generally considered to be long-range aims referring to the outcome of many months or even years. Objectives are short-term aims for hours, days, or weeks. Aid your students in determining goals and objectives in each of the skill areas, realizing that different students will have different aims.

Thirdly, identifying the purpose of a language task. This strategy involves determining the task purpose. The strategy of considering the purpose is an important one, because knowing the purpose for doing something enables learners to channel their energy in the right direction. Help your students understand the purpose by allowing them to discuss the purpose before doing the task itself. Figuring out the purpose for speaking is made easier by understanding the kind of speech being used—for instance, casual speech, deliberate speech, reading aloud from a written text, and speaking from a memorized script.

Lastly, seeking practice opportunities. Language learners must seek out—or create—opportunities to practice any and all of the four language skills. If students want to reach moderate to high proficiency, classroom time cannot usually provide adequate practice opportunities. Therefore, students will need to find additional chances to practice the language and must realize it is up to them to search for these occasions. This strategy underscores students' responsibility to generate their own opportunities to practice. Challenge your students to look for such chances whenever and wherever possible.

(c) Evaluating Your Learning

First, self-monitoring. This strategy does not center as much on using the language as it does on students' conscious decision to monitor—that is, notice and correct—their own errors in any of the language skills. Encourage your students to write down their most significant difficulties in their language learning notebooks and try to eliminate them. In considering a particular faux pas, learners can often benefit from trying to determine the reason why it is made. Self-monitoring is important for speaking, but students should not become obsessed with correcting every speech difficulty, because this would kill communication. Without expecting to be perfect, learners should notice and rectify their important speech problems, such as those which are socially offensive or which cause confusion.

Secondly, self-evaluating. This strategy involves gauging either general language progress or progress in any of the four skills including speaking. Global impressions are often faulty, and the more specific the learner is in self-evaluating, the more accurate the evaluation. Of course, any self-evaluation must take into consideration the difficulty of the situation or the language. Checklists, diaries, or journals can help learners evaluate their progress, at the same time as getting in touch with feelings. In speaking, there are many ways to self-evaluate. Learners may record their own speech on a tape recorder and then listen to the recording to find out how they sound compared with native speakers.

B. Affective Strategies

Affective strategies can regulate emotions, motivations, and attitudes. They cannot improve your speaking ability directly. They only can improve it indirectly.

(a) Lowering Your Anxiety

First, using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation. These techniques are all effective anxiety reducers, according to scientific feedback research. Progressive relaxation is that all the major muscle groups are alternately tense and relaxing. Deep breathing is often an accompaniment to progressive relaxation. It involves breathing low from the diaphragm, not just from the lungs. The simple act of deep breathing brings greater calmness almost immediately. Meditation means focusing on a mental image or sound to center one's thoughts, and it, too, helps to reduce the anxiety that often dogs language learners.

Secondly, using music. This strategy is useful before any stressful language task. Five or 10 minutes of soothing music can calm learners and put them in a more positive mood for learning. The language teaching method known as Suggestopedia is based partly on the use of baroque music to alter students' moods and mental states. The powerfully relaxation capabilities of music cannot be denied in the language learning context.

Lastly, using laughter. Laughter is the best medicine, as the saying goes. The use of laughter is potentially able to cause important biochemical changes to enhance the immune system, so many hospitals are now using "laughter therapy" to help patients relax. Language learners, too, can benefit from laughter's anxiety-reducing powers. Laughter brings pleasure to the classroom. Laughter is part of a general atmosphere of enjoyment for students of all ages.

(b) Encouraging Yourself

First, making positive statements. The strategy of making positive statements can improve each speaking skill. Make clear about the kinds of positive statements. Urge your students to say those statements regularly, especially before a potentially before a potentially difficult language activity.

Secondly, taking risks wisely. This strategy involves a conscious decision to take reasonable risks regardless of the possibility of making mistakes or encountering difficulties. It also suggests the need to carry out this decision in action—that is, employing direct strategies to use the language despite fear of failure. This strategy does not imply wild, unnecessary risks, like guessing at random or saying anything at all regardless of its degree of relevance. Risk taking must therefore be tempered by good judgment. Deciding to be a wise risk taker may require the supportive use of other affective strategies, such as making positive statements or rewarding yourself.

(c) Taking Your Emotional Temperature

Listening to your body. One of the simplest but most often ignored strategies for emotion-assessment is paying attention to what the body says. Performance in speaking is affected by the learner's physical state. Negative feelings tighten the muscles and affect all the organs of the body. Positive feelings can have either a stimulating or a calming effect that is discernibly different from the effect of negative feelings. Language learners need to learn to pay attention to these physical sensations frequently.

C. Social Strategies

(a) Asking Questions

This strategy is mostly in speaking, because errors which are most obvious to other people occur in producing the new language. It is related to the strategy of self-monitoring, in which students notice and correct their own difficulties. In a spoken conversation, learners can ask the other person for correction of impatient problems—that is, those which cause confusion or offense. However, the other person cannot be expected to correct all errors made by the learner, because this would intimidate the learner, halt the conversation, and turn the conversation partner into a “speech cop”

(b) Cooperating with Others

First, cooperating with friends. This strategy involves a concerted effort to work together with other learners on an activity with a common goal or reward. Games, simulations, and other active exercises challenge students to develop their activity to cooperate with friends.

Secondly, cooperating with proficient users of the new language. (Rosna Awang Hashim, 1994) This strategy applies to speaking skill. When used for listening and speaking, this strategy involves taking specific steps to enhance communication with a proficient user of the new language.

(c) Empathizing with Others

First, developing cultural understanding. Background knowledge of the new culture often helps learners understand better what is heard in the new language. Such knowledge also helps learners know what is culturally appropriate to say aloud. Help students sharpen their culture understanding by injecting short cultural discussions into classroom activities, and by comparing and contrasting behavior in the students' native culture and the target culture. Outside of the classroom, encourage students to find out all they can about the target culture through reading, going to lectures, or watching films in the target language. All these activities develop greater cultural awareness, which is necessary for achieving proficiency in the new language.

Secondly, becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings. Learners can purposefully become aware of fluctuations in the thoughts and feelings of particular people who use the new language. Such awareness makes learners be easier to close to the people they meet, helps them communicate each other more clearly, and suggests what to say and do.

Till now, we have discussed the indirect strategies. These strategies provide a rich and powerful support to any language learning effort. They work in concert with direct strategies.

II. FACTORS RELATED TO SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGY USE

Among recent studies regarding learning strategies, many have examined relationships between learning strategy use and learner variables such as motivation, gender, language proficiency, learning style, and learning beliefs.

First, age. Age has been found to be a factor affecting oral English strategies use. Older learners often use complex, sophisticated strategies. (Ehrman, M. & Oxford, R.L., 1989)

Secondly, L2 proficiency. Several studies have indicated relationships between L2 proficiency and learner strategies. (Bialystok, E. 1981) used a questionnaire to gather data concerning the relationship between four strategies and second language proficiency. Functional practice and inferencing are two strategies concerned with learning resulting from communication in the target language. Formal practice and monitoring are two strategies used more consciously by learners to learn the target language. In investigating tenth graders and twelfth graders studying French, (Bialystok, E. 1981) found that functional practice correlated significantly with second language proficiency in tenth graders, whereas functional practice, formal practice, and monitoring were related to L2 proficiency in twelfth graders,

Thirdly, learning styles. In synthesizing factors that influence the choice of learner strategies, asserted that learners' learning styles often determine the choice of L2 learning strategies”. (Rebecca L. Oxford, 1992), analytic-style learners tend to use strategies such as analyzing or separating words and phrases into parts, learning rules, and seeking similarities and differences between the target language and the first language. Globally-oriented learners prefer to use strategies such as guessing, scanning, and predicting to gain the gist of a passage and to read it holistically. Moreover, globally-oriented learners tend to use strategies such as paraphrasing and gesturing to converse with others in the target language in spite of limitations in linguistic knowledge. Visual learners are very likely to use

strategies such as taking notes and writing word groups. On the other hand, auditory learners prefer to listen to tapes and practice aloud. (Ehrman, M. & Oxford, R.L., 1989; Rebecca L. Oxford, 1992).

Fourthly, learning beliefs. Learners have different beliefs about language learning. Learning beliefs reflect learners' learning experiences and their socio-cultural educational backgrounds. Learners' learning beliefs, as researchers have suggested, play an important role in dictating learning strategy use. (Wenden, A., 1987) conducted semi-structured interviews with 25 adults enrolled part-time in an advanced level class at an American university. (Ellis, Rod, 2008) In this study, Wenden elicited subjects' views on language learning and examined the relationship between learners' learning beliefs and their choice of learner strategies. This study reported that learners recognized the importance in language use would often make use of communication strategies; that "learners who emphasized the importance of learning about the language tended to use cognitive strategies that helped them to better understand and remember specific items of language". Learners with beliefs in the use of language as often as possible, thinking in the target language, and living and studying in an environment in which the target language is spoken. Learners with beliefs in learning about the language emphasized learning grammar and vocabulary, learning from errors, enrolling in a formal course and being mentally active. (Nambiar, Radha, 2009)

Fifthly, gender. The study indicated gender differences in learning strategy use. Oxford and her colleagues conducted a series of studies on language learning strategies that (Hasan Bedir, 2010) examined relationships between learning strategy use and factors like motivation, academic major, and gender differences researched the relation between gender differences and strategies of language learning, and his study indicated that in many scopes women reported more on using strategies than did men. When Oxford and Nyikos conducted an analysis of the results of the SILL with 1200 university students through analysis of variance, they found that there were profound gender differences in strategy use and that female students reported using the following learning strategies more continually: formal rule-related practice strategies, general study strategies, and conversational input elicitation strategies. (Zhang Yan, 2012)

Lastly, motivation. (Gardner, R.C. 1985) In second language learning, motivation plays a significant part, and it can be divided into integrative motivation, in which the learner has a strong desire to recognize the target language, and instrumental motivation, in which the learner is motivated to learn the target language for utilitarian purposes. Although many research studies have examined relationships between motivation and achievement, only a few studies concern the relationship between motivation and learning strategies. Highly motivated students used more learning strategies and employed them more often than did less motivated students. (Rebecca Oxford & M. Nyikos, 1988) Ehrman and Oxford assessed the relationship between motivation and learning strategies by using the Affective Survey—a 118-item, six-point Likert-scaled measure instrument developed by Ehrman and Oxford. Ehrman and Oxford reported that motivation was correlated with language learning strategy use from the 20s to the high 50s; that the highest correlation was between motivation and cognition strategies.

III. EMPIRICAL STRATEGIES-BASED INSTRUCTION ON SPEAKING

This part, I'll introduce the impact of strategies-based instruction on speaking English. It focuses on a study conducted at Changchun University. In China, English majors study hard in their four-year's study but they make different progress. The reason must be relevant to their English learning strategies. Therefore, I carried out a research into students' English learning strategies. My investigation was mainly based on self-report surveys.

The objects of my research were the English majors in Grade One at college. As to the students, they had mastered 2500 English words and expressions. Thirty students were singled out from English department in Changchun University. In March, 2013, the students finished the papers and gave the answers which were just students' personal opinions.

The items were designed to assess how the students went about learning English. Each represents a particular kind of language learning behavior. The results would help to know more about students' English learning.

The student who chose "a" would get one point, chose "b" would get two points, chose "c" would get three points, chose "d" would get four points. After calculating, I got the result shown in the below table:

Score Group	Number of Students
<20	1
20-30	7
30-40	14
40-50	6
50-60	2

The thirty students' scores were found from 56 down to 18. Among them, one was below 20 points. Seven were between 20 and 30 points. Fourteen were in the range from 30 to 40 points. Six were in the range from 40 to 50. Only 2 students got above 50 points. I summed all their scores up and got 1070. Then I divided 1070 by 30, obtaining 35.7. And dividing 35.7 by 15, I got the overall average score for each item. It was 2.4 points.

The number indicated that the students used learning strategies on rare occasions when they were learning English. The statistics also suggested that it was very necessary for them to master some language learning strategies.

According to the three different tasks, students completed the strategies checklists which indicated data on strategy using at 3 points: The first task was before speaking, the second task was during itself, the last one was after the completion. The checklists were intended to put three stages into strategy using: firstly, prepare to use the language skill, secondly self-supervision to use the skill and thirdly self-reflection after using the skill. The strategies checklists reflected both those found in the language strategies' literature, as well as those particular to the three tasks.

After test the checklists, there were some questions to do self-reflection. During completed the three tasks, some questions handled the students' experiences. Another question determined whether students as language learners were more independent in the six weeks language study.

The English native speaker didn't know whether replied the 3 tasks when they assessed students' tapes in English. There were two taped sample, one was experimental group, another was comparison group.

Students made the spoken language which was assessed three aspects. Firstly, showed confidence in communication. Secondly, made correction in grammar. Thirdly, have control on vocabulary.

There are two aspects to assess the task of retelling story: one is to identify the key elements. Another is to appropriate ordering of these elements.

After the rating the tapes, the native speaker gave every tape a score. Then, I compared the two groups' scores to find out which group was better in speaking proficiency. In this step, I used the statistical method and counting percentage method. I computed out how many percent the students of over 90 occupied the whole students both of the experimental group and of comparison group for every topic. Then the percents of the students of over 80, over 70, over 60 and below 60 in the two groups. I got the following tables:

TOPIC 1
GROUP

percent	Experimental group	Comparison group
Over 90	26.7%	20%
Over 80	33.3%	26.7%
Over 70	20%	26.7%
Over 60	20%	20%
Below 60	0	6.7%

TOPIC 2
GROUP

Percent	Experimental group	Comparison group
Over 90	33.3%	20%
Over 80	33.3%	33.3%
Over 70	20%	33.3%
Over 60	13.3%	6.7%
Below 60	0	6.7%

TOPIC 3
GROUP

Percent	Experimental group	Comparison group
Over 90	40%	13.3%
Over 80	40%	20%
Over 70	20%	26.7%
Over 60	0	20%
Below 60	0	20%

After studying these three tables, we can see the experimental group students did better than the comparison group students on every topic especially the difference in topic three was more clearly. It proved that strategies-based instruction had effects on improvement of speaking proficiency. And the strategies did have effects on English learning. According to their remarks, I knew that some strategies which were made by the teacher and the students of experimental group did not suit some students, on the contrary, these strategies suited other students. So strategies vary with different person.

In this study, I got major findings. Thirty college students were participated in a SBI action. They were comparison students getting six weeks language study. The students completed questionnaire. After three tasks strategy checklists were also finished. SBI to test the strategies was effectively.

We could add preparatory strategies and monitoring strategies to one or more aspects for the experimental group students. We note that these were primarily language use strategies, employed in order to help retrieve language material, to rehearse it, and to use it communicatively. In addition, several of the strategies used increasingly could be seen as language learning strategies. Translating specific words and practicing their pronunciation in preparation for speaking were learning strategies if as a result of using them the learners became more cognizant of grammatical relationships, since increases in the use of those two strategies correlated significantly with an increase in grammar ratings.

We could add some strategies to task performance for the comparison group. The correlation between creating a mental picture and a higher rating on vocabulary could be viewed as a learning strategy, since mental imagery helps in

the storage and retrieval of new lexical items, most of the significant correlations seem to involve language use strategies, such as increased attention to pronunciation and the use of paraphrase being linked to an increased vocabulary rating, and an increase in positive self-talk being significantly correlated with a higher self-confidence rating. All three of these—attention to pronunciation, use of paraphrase, and positive self-talk—could be seen as communication strategies par excellence.

Instances such as these, where comparison students had positive correlations and experimental students did not, would seem to run counter to expectation, since the strategies were emphasized in the treatment. A possible interpretation for these findings is that some experienced speakers can make use of strategies without many strategy indications.

After discussion with the students of experimental group, the instructor and the native speaker of English, we got a conclusion that individual differences play very important role in strategy choosing and they directly influence the effects of strategies.

IV. CONCLUSION

From my SBI (strategies-based instruction), we can see that after taking the instructed strategies, the scores of experimental group have evidently improved, but the scores of comparison group which didn't take any learning strategies haven't improved evidently.

Learning strategies have effectiveness on oral English learning. We should try our best to exert as many learning strategies as we can on our oral English learning. Before teaching oral English, teachers should introduce some learning strategies to the students first, then the importance of learning strategies. Individual differences also influence on learning strategy choice. Teachers, of course, should pay enough attention to students' personal differences such as gender, age, motivation, learning style, learning beliefs etc. So to different students, teachers should introduce different strategies to them in order to get the best learning result. Most important of all, while teaching oral English, teachers also should apply these learning strategies to their teaching in order that students can use them automatically because the students can clearly see the improvement of oral English level. In all, learning strategies really can improve your learning results. In practicing oral English, utilizing learning strategies also can greatly improve your oral English level.

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A General Review of Existing Retranslation Study

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Abstract—As a controversial issue in the translation field, the history of translation has witnessed the conflicting debates over whether retranslation is necessary or not. This paper aims to comb the controversial issue by reflecting on the important issues with regard to retranslation. What's more, relevant retranslating strategies are generalized in this paper. Retranslation phenomena spring up for a reason. It is the translators' obligation to justify it, regulate it and thus avoid the chaos of retranslation.

Index Terms—retranslation, faithfulness, ideal translation, perspectives, strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Retranslation, as a frequently-occurred phenomenon, has been a controversial issue in the literary translation field. Issues regarding whether retranslating is necessary or why retranslating activities never cease to spring up, seem always simple on the surface. However, retranslating activities is not as simple as it appears to be, on the contrary, it is a rather complicated issue. This paper is mainly concerned with retranslation and, in particular, with the proposal of perspectives to reflect upon the phenomenon of retranslation. Moreover, this paper is an attempt to emphasize the importance of considering about relevant issues of retranslating, and the necessity for further in-depth study of the phenomenon. Therefore, a brief introduction of existing retranslation study would be made. As a result, a clearer picture of from where our research is to proceed may be revealed. In order to set the scene for what is to follow, we need to ask three relevant questions which, we believe, lie at the root of any attempt to understand the phenomenon of retranslation and, if such is our goal, improve the work of the translator.

In consequence, in order to clarify the confusion of retranslation status and help us gain a better understanding towards retranslation phenomenon, in the following parts, we are going to respectively respond to three questions as follows:

- A. Is "Faithfulness" to the Original Possible?
- B. What Are the Characteristics of Literary Translation?
- C. Does There Exist the "Ideal Translation" in Literary Translation?

Undoubtedly, it is easy to figure out that these questions are fraught with ambiguity and that the answers to them, not surprisingly, are far from satisfactory. On top of this, we are to center on the discussion of the only theme of retranslation, which will recur in different guises throughout the paper, although we probably may not mention it directly.

II. DELIMITATION OF RETRANSLATION

In this part, before we explore into these questions, it is extremely necessary for us to clarify the ideas borne in mind of what translation is about. Accordingly, at the very beginning of this part, we had better have a general look of the definitions of translation so that we can clear our confusions in mind.

Catford (1965, p.20)) thus defines translation as follows: "The replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)." Then Catford (1965, p.21) further argues as what follows: "The central problem of translation practice is that of finding TL translation equivalents. A central task of translation theory is that of defining the nature and translation equivalence." Needless to say, Catford stresses that the essential thing of translation is to seek for "TL translation equivalents", which, of course, is highly advocated by most translation scholars of translation field.

However, Ian F. Finlay (1971, p.1) expresses his viewpoints of what makes a translation in a quite different way. Finlay contends that "A translation must be defined as a presentation of a text in a language other than that in which it was originally written." What's more, Finlay (ibid) holds that: "Normally, it is universally accepted that any translation worthy of the name must reproduce the full sense of the original, omitting nothing and adding nothing." Another point of Finlay worthy of noticing is stated as follows: "Ideally, the translation should give the sense of the original in such a way that the reader is unaware that he is reading a translation." (Finlay, 1971, p.2) From Finlay's above statements we can clearly get the idea of "reproducing the full sense of the original, omitting nothing and add nothing" and that "giving the sense of the original" even leads to the situation that "the reader is unaware that he is reading a translation". An ideal picture of translation is vividly described. There is no doubt that it is every translator's dream to achieve that

goal. However, it always remains the highest aim for any translators to arrive at.

Right up to the end of the 1970s, definitions of translation can be described as variations on the central theme of “equivalence”. In Nida and Taber (1969, p.12) we find: “Translating consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style.” In the sense of “equivalence”, the viewpoints of Catford and Nida have something in common, yet Nida explain it further and specifically declares that the equivalence should be of “first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style”. So in this sense, Nida’s points of view sound more reasonable and convincing.

From the above-mentioned discussions we may find out that the core these definitions possess lies in the translator’s effort to attain the aim of the closest natural equivalent to the original. In other words, the criterion of translation in the translator’s mind is whether a translation is “faithful” to the original or not. Since this question is in close relation with retranslation, in the next section we will discuss it separately. And before we go further, we would like to provide a definition of He Lin (1998, p.43) as follows: “In a philosophical sense, translation is a communication between the interpreter and the text, which contains the procedure of understanding, interpretation, apprehension and transformation, etc.. The translated text is the result of the objectivization. It is the condensation and fulfillment of the communication between the interpreter and the text. And the relationship between the translation and the text is similar to that between interpretation and implication, or writing and logos.”

And here, the author would like to offer one definition of translation from the philosophical hermeneutic perspective: “Translation is inevitably bound up with understanding, interpretation, and recreation. During the process of translation, the translator himself as a reader continually adjusts his prejudices to the text and carries out a conversation with the text. Hence finally he removes the alienation that is brought about by temporal distance and attains the ‘fusion of the horizons’, so to speak, he accomplishes the product as a translation.”

Aside from the above-mentioned clarifications of various definitions on translation, we feel it necessary to distinguish some translation terms according to Roger and T. Bell, (1991, p.13), which are as follows:

- a. translating: the process(to translate; the activity rather than the tangible object);
- b. a translation: the product of the process of translation (i.e. the translated text);
- c. translation: the abstract concept which encompasses both the process of translating and the product of that process.

As a result, when we later mention the concept of retranslation in the following parts, what we mean is similar to the above-mentioned. Due to the complexity of retranslation, we just provide a loose definition here: retranslation refers to the translations of the same text. As a matter of fact, we cannot provide a comprehensive and accurate definition here, for no consensus with regard to it has been reached among translation scholars. Hence the author deems it preferable to leave the definition open.

To make it clear, we should add up one point here, if we mention the “text”, it refers to “the original”, namely the original text. The reason why we adopt the “text” instead of the “original” at times is due to the ontological standpoint we take in the current paper. Now, since we have already made necessary clarifications in the previous discussion, we have to come back to the question we previously put forward at the beginning of this paper: is “faithfulness” to the original possible?

III. PERSPECTIVES ON RETRANSLATION

A. Is “Faithfulness” to the Original Possible?

Ever since human beings were first engaged in the act of translation, debates on what should be done in translation began. However different their diction may be at first sight, these debates basically center on one issue: whether a translation is faithful to the original or not? As to this puzzle, Theodore (1968, p.54) generalizes a list of the various representative views toward translation in *The Art of Translation* as follows:

- a. A translation must give the words of the original.
- b. A translation must give the ideas of the original.
- c. A translation should read like an original work.
- d. A translation should read like a translation.
- e. A translation should reflect the style of the original.
- f. A translation should possess the style of the translation.
- g. A translation should read as a contemporary of the original.
- h. A translation should read as a contemporary of the translation.
- i. A translation may add to or omit from the original.
- j. A translation may never add to or omit from the original.
- k. A translation of verse should be in prose.
- l. A translation of verse should be in verse.

From the views listed above we may realize that those diametrical principles reveal the translator’s dilemma: they are confronted with options. Regardless of how hard they try to improve their work of translation, they are destined to feel depressed while they are facing those choices, in other words, they have to make hard decisions while translating: they have to either oppose them or make possible compromises.

If we trace back to the history of translation theory, we may notice that three “laws of translation” which Alexander

Tytlar (1978, p.54) formulates in his *Essay on the Principles of Translation* as follows:

- I. That the translation should give a complete transcript of the ideas of the original work.
- II. That the style and manner of writing should be of the same character with that of the original.
- III. That the translation should have all the ease of the original composition.

In explaining the first of these general rules, Tytlar (1978, p.17) emphasizes as such: "it is indispensably necessary, that he (the translator) should have a perfect knowledge of the original, and a competent acquaintance with the subject of which it treats." Tytlar's points of view make great sense: a perfect knowledge of the original and a competent acquaintance with the subject would ensure a translator's translating process smooth and certainly the quality of translation would be guaranteed with no doubt.

Furthermore, if we explore deeper into the root of the issues of the "what the translator should do" and the "laws of translation" and the like, we may say, they would all focus on one issue: is "faithfulness" to the original possible? Dryden (Snell-Hornby, 1988, p.11) compares translation to "dancing on ropes with fettered legs" and long time ago we have the old axiom "traduttore-traditore". In the West academic translation field, translation by nature is in close connection with the history of the translating of *The Bible*. Hence the holy text determines a translator's attitude, so to speak, the sacred text, *The Bible*, must be translated with the utmost fidelity. Accordingly, the translator's complex of "faithfulness" comes into being in the atmosphere of the worship of God.

Moreover, the translating of *The Bible* provides a persuasive proof for the possibility of translation: since even the words of God can be translated (regardless of whether it conforms to "faithfulness" or not), then, is there anything that cannot be translated? However, the real problem arises: can the translation and the text (original) have the identical truth, so to speak, even if the translation can attain the aim of "faithfulness", can this so-called "faithfulness" reach the "truth" of the text? Hence the question of the relativity of translation comes up.

In the above paragraphs we have examined what most translators argue about the problem of "faithfulness". Although it seems to be a cliché with regard to translation, we still think it necessary to mention it again. What's more, we shall further clarify it in the following parts.

B. What Are the Characteristics of Literary Translation?

"Literary translators", writes Finlay (1971, p.45), are "translators of all types of fiction and covers such categories as novels, plays, poetry, film scripts and the like, as well as, in many cases, biographies, travel books and similar basically non-technical types of non-fiction."

In China, many literary translators, such as Xu Yuanchong (1999), holds that literary translation is an art and recreation. There are also other similar voices in the field of translation. Xie Tianzhen (1998) maintains that literary translation is a productive, cross-cultural betrayal. Luo Xinzhang (1995) describes the act of translation as "the productive translation", which means that the work of the translator belongs to a second creation different from that of the writer. Wang Kefei (1996) even argues that the truth of the translation lies in that it has the single truth but it has to be presented by multiple means of expressions. These voices on literary translation reveal an identical truth that literary translation calls for requirements or stresses different from technical translation work. Therefore, we will make an attempt to analyze the characteristics that literary translation possesses in the following parts.

Another translation scholar Fang Ping (1998, p.124) has put forward the following ideas: literary translation possesses two characteristics, namely subordination and subjectivity. It is always the case that is confronted by the translation. Therefore, due to the commitment to make a bridge between different cultures, literary translators take "fidelity to the text" as their major task. In the previous section we have discussed the problem of fidelity, which is in connection with the claim of "equivalence". Roger and T. Bell (1991, p.6) argue as such: "It is apparent, and has been for a very long time indeed, that the ideal of total equivalence is a chimera." However, we may ask: why does this take place? The subordination of literary translation determines that the translator must respect the text. However, not all the translators can realize that subordination is just one aspect of literary translation. If it is over-exaggerated, literary translation may fall into a simple work of copy and lose its necessary significance. To be frank, this is always the case with translation: misunderstandings and partial prejudices toward literary translation all arise from that.

As a matter of fact, during the process of translating, the translator is always switching to and fro between subordination and subjectivity, attempting to search for the best combination of the two extreme poles. Subordination and subjectivity make compensation for each other and work together. Without subordination, a translation cannot be regarded as translation at all. On the other hand, literary translation will not deserve its title if it lacks the function of the role of subjectivity.

In addition, the art of translation cannot be neglected in literary translation. Due to the above reasons we attach great importance to subjectivity of literary translation. In consequence, literary translation, with the same character as the other artistic forms, becomes a creative work. It is of great importance to comprehend the characteristics possessed by literary translation, for it illustrates the phenomenon of retranslation of literary works to some extent.

Then, on the basis of the analysis of the characteristics of literary translation, we would be prepared to deal with another question in the following part: does there exist the "ideal translation" in literary translation?

C. Does There Exist the "Ideal Translation" in Literary Translation?

With the development of the economy, translation activities reach a climax in the twentieth century, the so-called

“age of translation”. Many famous foreign literary works are to be translated over and again. On the one hand, the boom of retranslation actions means the prosperity of translation. On the other hand, this kind of concentrated retranslation activities has brought about quite a number of problems. As a result, translation scholars are deeply concerned about this issue and they carry out the debates over retranslation phenomenon in order to cope with this in a proper way. Some translators are in favor of the activities of retranslation while others disagree with actions like that. Those who show approval for retranslation phenomenon hold faith in that it is reasonable and possible to allow the existence of varied versions of translation of one literary text. On the contrary, as to those who disagree with it, they just believe that there is only one-direction of true meaning, other than the only true meaning of the original, the author’s meaning, other alternatives of interpretations might cause confusion and chaos in understanding of the text as well as the order of translation. Needless to say, however their attitudes seem to be different at first sight, the issues they discuss are all centered on one theme: does there exist the “ideal translation” in literary translation?

According to the viewpoints of Xu Jun (1991), the so-called “ideal translation” must contain three levels of connotation. First, an “ideal translation” must achieve its perfection both in understanding and expression, without any mistakes in understanding and any blank in interpretation. Not only can it be equivalent to the text in content, but also it can rival with the text in form. Accordingly, there remains no possibility and necessity for retranslation. Secondly, the “ideal translation” also has the meaning of “being immortal”, so to speak, it can last beyond time and space. Regardless of which age it is, the “ideal translation” is to be adored as classics. Hence there is no necessity to make any correction or adjustment for the translation with the changes of times, language, or readers’ aesthetic taste. The “ideal translation” will be the everlasting model. Thirdly, the “ideal translation” also includes the meaning of “the perfect model”. From my point of view, when confronted with a text, it is natural that different translators may have different understandings and expressions for the text, therefore, different translations regarding the same text seem to be reasonable. In this sense, an “ideal translation” may remain as a relative concept, for it is questionable to set an absolute standard for what might be the “ideal translation”. Therefore, it is reasonable to make deduction that the activities of retranslation are justified and reasonable.

IV. RELEVANT RETRANSLATING STRATEGIES

In this section, the author intends to briefly introduce relevant retranslation strategies so as to broaden the translators’ horizon in understanding what underlies retranslation. Accordingly, four strategies with regard to retranslation are to be generalized, among which one strategy is put forward by the author. These strategies (Charles, 1998) run as follows:

a. Corrective translation. It refers to the retranslation of a work already existing in a bad or faulty translation in order to provide the target language receptor with a more faithful reproduction of the original. According to the above-mentioned, it is easy to know that the goal of corrective translation is to make a better translation of a work that has already existed in the target language in an imperfect form.

b. Critical translation. It refers to the retranslation of a literary work already extant in a translation free of errors and “acceptable” in order to shed new interpretational light on the original work. By definition, it is obvious to see that the goal of critical translation is to retranslate a work already extant in an acceptable form in the target language, in order to present the reader with a valid interpretation of the original work that the earlier translations do not possess.

c. Proselytizing translation. It refers to the retranslation of a work already existing in an acceptable form in the target language, with the intent of emphasizing its special meaning for a particular, well-defined group of receptors via an interpretation of the text according to the customs, ideas, or world-views of said group. It is worth mentioning that the goal of proselytizing translation is to retranslate a work already extant in an acceptable form in the target language in order to actualize its message for a particular group of readers.

d. Neoconceptual translation. This strategy, put forward by the author, refers to the retranslation of a work already existing in an acceptable form in the target language, with the intent of eliminating gender discrimination or certain violent inclination reflected in the language of translation. By definition, the goal of neoconceptual translation is to purify the language of translation so as to avoid the language pollution in translation.

It must be pointed out that these translation strategies must unavoidably have something in common. As a matter of fact, it is hard to draw a sheer borderline between them. Needless to say, each strategy has its own right to survive and each translator is free to take his own options.

V. CONCLUSION

Andrew Chesterman (1997, 184) argues as such: “As readers, we perceive a something, and we then try to interpret this something, to understand it. But the whole process is a relative one. Perfect understanding like perfect clarity, is a relative idea.” Since “perfect understanding” is just a relative idea, the “ideal translation” is also a relative one. Therefore, the “ideal translation” is after all an ideal that does not exist in reality. Some scholars, such as Xu Jun (1998), Fang Ping (1998), and Xie Tianzhen (1998), have expressed similar viewpoints.

The characteristics that literary translation possesses determine that the “ideal translation” does not exist in literary translation. The constant retranslating recurs for a reason, and different retranslating strategies lead to retranslations for different purposes, which has become a consensus shared by most translators. However, we may find that the above

discussion only proceeds from the level of language, which obviously lacks a deeper exploration into retranslation. This is always the case with the existing retranslation study: as to what underlies the retranslation phenomenon, how to understand it from a macroscopic and speculative perspective with reference to philosophy, the translators rarely discuss. Accordingly, we are committed to undertaking the investigation within the framework of philosophy, which, in my opinion, would be hermeneutics, the philosophy of interpretation and understanding. To fully understand and interpret retranslation, further study will be necessary and indispensable.

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Motivated Learners and Their Success in Learning a Second Language

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Abstract—This paper has tried to show how motivated students are more successful than unmotivated ones. Firstly, the word motivation was discussed in detail, and various definitions were presented. Secondly, different types of motivation and their relationship with each other were discussed. Thirdly, factors such as personality variables, attitudes towards social or cultural milieu, and non-linguistic outcomes of the learning experience and learning were discussed. Finally, some recommendations for motivating language learners were enumerated. Results show that language learning is facilitated when learners are highly motivated. Therefore, language teachers are highly recommended to motivate their learners in order to increase their chance of learning a language.

Index Terms—motivation, motivated students, personality variable, learning a foreign language

I. INTRODUCTION

As the term motivation itself indicates, it is a motive force, same thing that prompts, incites action. Motivation seems to be the biggest single factor affecting language learner's success. In addition, one of the factors influencing the success full of the learners in learning a L_2 , is the person's motivation (Tuan, L. (2012). It is out of question that one's success in any task is closely related to his motivation. Learning a language is no exception. Learners can be motivated in various ways, by a desire, emotion, reason, need or purpose move a person to particular action. It's easy to assume that one's success in any task is based on his/her motivation, and in foreign language learning it can be claimed that a learner will be successful with motivation. The student's learning is facilitated most effectively when they are motivated, so a less able student who is highly motivated achieves greater success than the more intelligent student who is not well motivated. Being motivated is one of the most important factor in learning a foreign language (Abdelrahim, I., & Humaida, I, 2012). Research on: Motivation to Learn English among College Students in Sudan). Many teachers and scholar in the field of language pedagogy believe that language learners will be more successful if they are motivated. Others think that motivated language learners achieve more success than the intelligent learners who are not well motivated. Sometimes, Lack of motivation is caused of low attendance, participation and performance of the students. Also motivation is accepted by both teachers and researchers as one of the factors that influence the rate and success of second / foreign language learning (Mao, Z., 2011). So, People have many different reasons for studying a foreign language, that one of them is motivation. There are many types of motivation that move people to learn, so let's see the definition of motivation, the kinds of motivation. What does it mean when we say that someone is motivated? And how do you create, foster and maintain motivation?

II. BACKGROUND

Some studies have been carried out about motivation, role of motivation and effect of motivation in same cases under the department of English education.

Itumaide and Abdel Rahim (2012) carried out a study on "motivation to learn English among college students in Sudan" they used questionnaire as the tool of data collection and T-test for data analyzed and also the method that they used, is descriptive and the sample is simple and random in order to select sample. The result of T-test showed that the scores of the motivation were higher among students, there was no significant difference on motivation attributed to class level, and no correlation between motivation and age were found.

Dahmardeh and Hunt (2012) have carried out research on "Motivation and English language teaching in Iran", to understanding the role of the motivation in the textbooks or the English language teaching program. In order to do so they used a desk and its linked textbooks, as the tool of data collection. They give foundation based on the result that motivation has no role in both of them (either in the textbooks or the English language teaching program) with regard to test it.

Akolkar (2012) studied on a comparative study of Achievement motivation and mental health among higher secondary students. He focused practically on relationship between Achievement motivation and mental health between male and female students, in order to understand if there is difference between their motivation and their mental health or not. He used questionnaire as the tool of data to collection and as result he found that male and female student

significantly differ for their achievement motivation but there is no significant difference of mental health between and female student's.

Shevatekarshradavasant (2012) carried out research on the relationship between academic achievement and motivation in adolescents for investigating is there any relationship between motivation and academic achievement in adolescents or not? In order to do this research he used recording as the tool of data collection. Data was evaluated in scales that were concluded from comparing them. As result the researcher found that there is correlation between family environment and educational achievement and this correlation is positive correlation and at low level.

In another study, Tuan (2012) studied on an empirical research in to EFL learner's motivation and focused on motivation of EFL learners in order to investigate whether motivation has any impact on student's English learning or not. She uses questionnaire survey in order to collect data. Both students and teachers were involved in this survey. The result showed that the students had positive motivation toward learning of foreign language and also teachers should find necessity of motivation in developing student's English performance.

Mao (2011) has carried out a research in L2 motivation and application in reading class in senior high school to understanding the effect of motivation on learning. He used questionnaire survey in order to collect the data and he conclude that combination of integrative motivation and instrumental motivation can exert a more influence on reading class improvement and English teachers shall take some effective application to arouse student's motivation in reading class and help them develop integrative motivation towards English learning.

Afful-Broni studied on relationship between motivation and job performance at the university of Mines and Technology, Tarkwa, Ghana: leader ship lessons have focused particularly on understanding their relationship. He used purposive and simple random sampling method. Survey was the main instrument that used in collecting data. Data collected was analyzed. With descriptive and in frontal statistic. Result of statistic showed that major reasons for reducing morale for high performance at the university, are low monthly salaries and the general lack of motivation.

Djigunovic (2012) has carried out research regarding attitudes and motivation in early foreign language learning (2012) to examine early foreign language learning attitudes and motivations. He described Approaches to studying these effective learner characteristics. His finding was presented through over views of cross sectional and longitudinal; studies which was carried out in different settings. The finding base on this research showed that the attitudes and motivation of the young foreign language learners are not stable learner characteristics but change over time, creating layers of complexity.

Quadris (2012) has carried out his research work on EFL learner's motivation in learning a foreign language. His objectives were leak EFL learner's motivation in learning a foreign language from a theoretical approach. He explained different definitions of motivation of concept, definition of different kinds of motivation, the importance of motivation, factors that influencing motivation. At the end of research, the researcher summarized the research and focus on motivation of learners in learning a foreign language.

Atta and Jamil have carried out research on "effects of motivation and parental influence on the educational attainments of students at secondary level" in order to understand is motivation and parental influence have effect on the educational attainments of the students at secondary level or have not, in Order to measure student's level of motivation and parental influence. The result showed that there is a significant and positive effect of motivation and parental influence on the educational attainments of the student's at secondary level. The educational attainment of those students who were under the influence of their parents and motivated is better.

III. WHAT IS MOTIVATION?

Motivation is defined differently according to different perspectives. According to behaviorist, motivation is an anticipation of reward in order to acquire positive reinforcement. In this view our acts are at the mercy of external forces.

In cognitive terms, ,based on Maslow opinion(Maslow, 1970), motivation has more emphasis on the individual's "decisions, the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect". Some cognitive psychologists see underlying needs or drives as the compelling force behind our decisions (Maslow, 1970).

According to constructivists, each person is motivated differently based on his or her unique situation. However, these motivations are always done within combine of cultural and social and cannot be separated from the society. Abraham Maslow (1970) viewed motivation as a construct in which ultimate attainment of goals was possible only by passing through a hierarchy of needs, which were solidly grounded in community, belonging and social, etc.

Maslow (1970) saw motivation as dependent on the satisfaction, first of fundamental physical necessities then of community security, identity and self-esteem, the fulfillment of which finally leads to self –actualization. In his view, (Maslow (1970)), motivation was dependent on the satisfaction of fundamental physical necessities and then of community security, identity, self-esteem, which finally leads to self –actualization.

IV. KINDS OF MOTIVATION

In the world, people have different reasons for studying a foreign language: some study a language and enter to learn language just for practical reasons, while others are interested in a particular language and its speakers and cultures as well. For many language learners, learning a language is only a means for an academic degree. Gardner and Lambert (1972) define integrative and instrumental motivation. Falk (1978) believed that the successful students in the learning of a target language are those who had a desire to become familiar with the society in which the target language was used; this kind of motivation is known as integrative motivation.

Integrative motivation is a key component in assisting the students to improve some level of proficiency in the language, when he/she becomes a resident in a new society that uses the target language in its social interaction. A learner can be one of the members of a community in which the target language is spoken by using integrative motivation. It is also theorized “integrative motivation typically underlies successful acquisition of a wide range of registers and a native like pronunciation” (Finegan, 1999, p.568).

The hypothesis of the Gardner (1982) was about integrative motivation. He believed that oriented learners were more persistently and intensely motivated than other learners. In his view an integrative oriented learner had a stronger desire to learn the language and had more positive attitudes towards the learning situation, and was more likely to expand more effort in learning the language. Gardner believes that the interactively motivated students and learners are more active in language classes, and they are more successful in learning a second and foreign language. These students are more eager to participate in other society, and to interact with members of that community.

A. *Instrumental Motivation*

Instrumental motivation refers to when we acquire a language just for instrumental goals or it means to learn a language with non-interpersonal purposes such as to pass an exam or just to have a career. As the researcher believes, Learners with an instrumental motivation want to learn a language because of a practical reason such as getting a job or getting into college.

Spolsky (1989), it is worth mentioning that an instrumental motivation is referred to a specific goal. If a goal is continuous, it seems possible that an instrumental motivation would also continue to be active. To a considerable extent, this is the point made by Spolsky (1989), in his analysis of the role that economic factors could play in promoting second language acquisition in some contexts.

These two orientations (integrative/ instrumental) are not mutually exclusive. Some learners learn better if they are interactively oriented, while others are more successful if they are instrumentally motivated and some learn better if they take the advantage of both orientations (Spolsky, 1989).

Deci and Ryan (1985) put forward intrinsic/extrinsic motivation theory. According to Rotter (1966), intrinsic/extrinsic motivation is related to the term locus of control.

B. *Intrinsic Motivation*

Considering Rotter (1966), if a person places responsibility for his/her life within self, she/he has internal locus of control and is self – motivated character. In order to achieve internal locus and self- motivation, one should be eager to give up the security of making excuses and to take responsibility of all her/his decisions and actions (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975, Deci, 1975, Deci & Ryan, 1985). Intrinsic motivation is a motivation which is in the inner of the students. An intrinsically motivated student studies because he/she wants to study and The material is interesting and fun and the student receives some kind of satisfaction from learning (Deci, 1975). In intrinsic motivation there is no reward except the activity itself, It means that the essence of motivated action that is, sense of autonomy and the desire is self – initiating and self – regulating (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

C. *Extrinsic Motivation*

If a person places the responsibility on others and on circumstances outside self, she/he has external locus of control (Dornyei, 2000). In fact Extrinsic Motivation refers to motivation that comes from outside of an individual, its factors are external or outside rewards such as money or grades and these rewards provide satisfaction and pleasure that the task itself may not provide (Dornyei, 2000).

A person who is motivated extrinsically works on a task that there is little or no interest in it, there is no good satisfaction from learning. The rewards can be something as minor as a smiley face to something major like fame or fortune (Dornyei, 2000). Extrinsic motivation does not mean, however, that a person will not get any pleasure from working on or completing a task, It just means that the pleasure they anticipate from some external reward will continue to be a motivator even when the task to be done holds little or no interest. For example an extrinsically motivated student, may dislike an assignment, may find it boring, or may have no interest in the subject, but the possibility of a good grade will be enough to keep the student motivated in order for him or her to put forth the effort to do well on a task (Dornyei, 2000).

Maslow (1970) claimed that intrinsic motivation is clearly superior to extrinsic, because learners are motivated to achieve “self-actualization”. Based on his idea, once basic physical, safety, and community needs are met, regardless of the presence or absence of extrinsic reward we will strive for self-esteem and fulfillment. One of the most effective ways to help students is to free them from the control of rewards (Bruner, 1966). In some cases intrinsic and extrinsic

motivation may overlap to some degree, because one may be motivated from both an inside source and outside one at the same time. Obviously both kinds of motivation play important roles in learning foreign language.

V. FACTORS INFLUENCING MOTIVATION

According to Gardner many factors influence motivation and acquisition of second language. These factors include personality variables, attitudes towards the social and cultural milieu, and linguistic and nonlinguistic outcomes of the learning experience. At follow I discuss these factors in brief. Personality variable is one of these factors. Many believe that there is a positive relationship between personality characteristics and learning a second language successfully. While different students have different types of useful characteristics.

Giles and Copland (1991) believe that the individual differences such as intelligence, aptitude, motivation and anxiety can influence the acquisition of the second language. These variables depend on the context which learning takes place. For example, in a formal setting, intelligence and aptitude play an important and basic role in learning, while in an informal setting exert a weaker influence. Another factor which influences motivation is attitudes which learners have.

Different beliefs of individuals about other cultures and languages have different impacts on second language acquisition. Gardner suggests when expectations, combined with attitudes toward the second language and its culture, they form the basis of an individual's attitude towards language learning at general (1979, Cited in Skehan, 1993). Linguistic outcomes are another factor which influences motivation, which refer to real language knowledge and skills. Non – linguistic out- comes reflect an individual's attitudes, values and beliefs, usually towards the second language community or society. Individuals who integrate both outcomes of the learning experience will attain a higher degree of second language proficiency (Ellis, 1997).

Foreign language teachers and researchers come to the basic idea that individual students prefer modalities of learning. Consequently, when learners have some freedom to choose one way of learning or another, they do better than those who find themselves force to learn in environments where a learning style, is imposed as the only way to learn. So the styles of learning affect motivation. One of the positive views of the initiators of humanistic approaches to learning is that teachers should adapt their programs with the objectives of their students and the needs of the area where they are teaching. Though, this is not always easy, in this case, student's learning styles is a great help in motivating them to learn.

Positively motivated students are more pleasant to teach, prepare more carefully for class, participate more actively in class, and achieve more than negatively motivated students. For enhancing positive motivation teachers have to attend to other classroom factors such as classroom management, Teacher-student affiliation and methods of instruction. Motivating students is not easy. Oliva (1972) states that students are motivated to learn when they;

1. Deal with material geared to their level.
2. See purpose in their activities and study.
3. See their studies as important.
4. Are given a demanding work.
5. Live in a secure environment.
6. Feel the learning is for them and not for the teacher.
7. Work with interesting material.
8. Experience more success than failure.
9. Have the opportunity to express their psychological needs for success, recognition, and approval.
10. Conceive of themselves as capable individuals.
11. Have some opportunity to make decisions, enter into the planning, and feel responsibility for participating.

Fishman (1984) maintains that an important factor in motivation to learn a second language is its "socio-functional" validity. From the student's perspective, learning a second language may or may not be worthwhile, depending upon its social reality for the learner, language learning has an important social function, when the learner has a reason for using the acquired knowledge and skills to communicate with other people of importance in his or her environment. In other word, when no out-of-class validity exists, language learning loses its functional relevancy, and lack of motivation becomes a problem. Teachers should recognize that for improving motivation they will be dealing whit cognitive, affective, social and perhaps even psychomotor variables. Below I list some of the recommendations which are offered as positive suggestions for improving student's achievement motivation.

1. Cognitive

- a. Give the students feedback as to their progress (Klausmeier and Ripple, 1971).
- b. Use resumes and review sessions to help students organize the material in their mind (Oliva, 1972).
- c. Use class work that requires the use of previously learned material (Gage and Berliner, 1975).

2. Affective

- a. Develop a system of rewards for good work or good conduct be prepared poor work or misconduct as necessary (Klausmeier and Ripple, 1977).
- b. Give assignments that appeal to the students, that they can accomplish, and that will improve their class performance the following day (Olive, 1972).

c. Use simulations and learning games in appropriate situations to enhance learning and heighten motivation (Gage and Berliner, 1975).

3. Social

a. Discuss desired “prosocial” behavior with the class (Klausmeier and Ripple, 1971).

b. The teacher should comprehend the power relationships operating in the classroom. He has various powers inherent in his position as the teacher: reward, coercive, referent and expert power. These powers give the teacher the advantage over the students. At the same time, he should realize that the student also have a degree of social power that can be employed individually and collectively to influence teacher behavior (Gage & Berliner, 1975).

VI. CONCLUSION

Foreign language acquisition is a complicated process, which involved different factors. The personality factors, especially non-intelligence factors, such as motivation, attitude, character, etc., are the most important ones, among them, apparently, motivation is the key to learning (Dahmardeh, M., & Hunt, M., 2012). To conclude, we receive in the fact that motivation is an important variable when we examining the successful of the second language learning (Mao, Z., 2011). One of the best step for facilitate learning for learners is to inform learners about needs of motivation in learning. Students should be motivated in different ways, because different students with different characteristics need different types of motivation. In classroom motivation can be provided by other students, in my opinion in this way students become more motivated. In addition to factors which influence student’s motivation and are discussed in this paper, teachers should consider other factor, according to their classroom environment, student’s aptitude, and course goals and so on.

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Innovative Thinking in Translation Studies: The Paradigm of Bassnett's and Lefevere's 'Cultural Turn'

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Abstract—Nowadays, there is an increasing number of scholars who conduct their translation studies from a cultural perspective, or at least, they are paying more attention to the factors relevant to culture in their theoretical researches and translation practices. Such a trend in the field of translation studies might be called as 'cultural turn', which dates back to the 1990s when Bassnett and Lefevere officially suggested that translation studies should take the 'cultural turn' (Bassnett & Lefevere, 2001, p.xi). In this paper, the author introduces Bassnett's and Lefevere's innovative thinking in translation studies, that is, the study of translation is essentially the study of cultural interaction. According to them, translation may be viewed as rewriting or manipulation. Based on their enlightening ideas and the previous studies, the author of this paper then generalizes a theoretical framework which can be used to conduct translation studies, especially from a cultural perspective. The framework includes the theoretical foundation of cultural manipulation and cultural interaction, and some practical manipulative methods to guide translation practices to facilitate cultural communication. The author hopes that this study will contribute at least to some extent to the cultural communication and interaction partly through translation studies and practices.

Index Terms—translation studies, cultural turn, cultural manipulation, cultural interaction

I. INTRODUCTION

In the new era, each country in the world is becoming closely connected with other countries due to an inevitable trend of globalization. The communication in politics, economy, culture, etc. among countries becomes more and more important and frequent. As we know, communication between two countries will necessarily confront difficulties or conflicts because of different cultural systems. Therefore, it is of great significance to make researches to find ways to facilitate cultural communication and improve the efficiency of communication. At the same time, intercultural communication will also contribute to the harmonious development of the diversified cultures in the world. According to the school of Translation Studies, translation studies can partly serve as such a purpose.

Translation, especially translation for cultural transmission, plays an important role in the communication of different cultures. As the scholars from the school of Translation Studies put it, the study of translation is the study of culture interaction (Zhang, 2012). Inspired by this, the author of the paper probes into Bassnett's and Lefevere's innovative thinking in translation studies, since the two scholars have conducted pioneering studies in terms of cultural interaction and constructing cultures in translation studies. This paper firstly introduces the 'cultural turn' (Bassnett & Lefevere, 2001, p.xi) in the field of translation studies, and then brings forward a theoretical framework of Bassnett's and Lefevere's cultural manipulation theory.

"It is known that Lefevere's and Bassnett's cultural manipulation theory is based on their studies of translations of literary works, and that most scholars who have conducted researches on the theory and practice of the school of Translation Studies always choose literary translation as their research objects. As many scholars argue, the theory of the school of Translation Studies has some limitations, one of which is that it is mainly concerned about literary translation" (Zhang, 2012, p.2342). As a matter of fact, there are some scholars, even though not many, who have used Bassnett's and Lefevere's theory to study non-literary translations, such as the translation of cultural-loaded tourism publicities, cultural-specific trademarks, cultural heritages, and so forth. Therefore, the author of this paper attempts to make continuing efforts to reach a breakthrough to extend the use of cultural manipulation theory beyond literary translation.

II. BASSNETT'S AND LEFEVERE'S INNOVATIVE THINKING ON TRANSLATION

A. Translation as Cultural Interaction

For the scholars of the school of Translation Studies, translations, rather than being a secondary and derivative genre as the traditional translation schools argue, are instead one of the primary literary tools that larger institutions – educational systems, arts councils, publishing firms, and even governments – have at their disposal to 'manipulate' a given society in order to 'construct' the kind of 'culture' desired (Bassnett & Lefevere, 2001, p.x). The task of the

translator is then less to copy an original text, but to re-create the source text in the construction of meaning and culture so as to achieve the goal of transmitting and constructing cultures, enabling different cultures to interact.

As the pioneering scholars of the school of Translation Studies, Andre Lefevere and Susan Bassnett view translation in a completely different way, the way in which to view translation studies from the perspective of the studies of interaction between cultures, stepping away from those of the traditional translation schools. They argue that cultural studies should be located into translation studies and they present a large amount of cases in their book *Constructing Cultures* (2001) for moving the field of cultural studies closer to translation studies. They redefine the object of translation studies as a verbal text within the network of literary and extra-literary signs in both the source and target cultures (Bassnett and Lefevere, 2001, p.xi). In the book *Constructing Cultures*, Bassnett and Lefevere claim that the study of translation is the study of cultural interaction (2001). They also point out in the book that translators have always provided a vital link enabling different cultures to interact.

B. Some Essential Concepts

Bassnett and Lefevere provide several possible approaches of translation for the interaction between cultures, including constructing cultures, circulation of cultural capital, transplanting the seed and pseudo-translation, which are all concerned with rewriting or manipulation. Before probing into the practical translation procedure, the author of the paper will introduce some of these essential concepts first.

a. Translation, Rewriting, Manipulation

As is shown in the above discussion that, Bassnett and Lefevere disapprove the principle of equivalence or of faithfulness represented by the linguistically oriented approach and view translation as rewriting which is manipulation of the source text to some extent.

It seems that a clear understanding may be acquired of the relation between translation, rewriting and manipulation from Bassnett's and Lefevere's preface to the book entitled *Translation, Rewriting, and the Manipulation of Literary Fame*, which reads "Translation is, of course, a rewriting of an original text. All rewritings, whatever their intention, reflect a certain ideology and a poetics and as such manipulate literature to function in a given society in a given way. Rewriting is manipulation, undertaken in the service of power, and in its positive aspect can help in the evolution of a literature and a society. Rewritings can introduce new concepts, new genres, new devices and the history of translation is the history also of literary innovation, of the shaping power of one culture upon another. But rewriting can also repress innovation, distort and contain, and in an age of ever increasing manipulation of all kinds, the study of the manipulative processes of literature as exemplified by translation can help us towards a greater awareness of the world in which we live." (Lefevere, 2004b, p.vii)

Through the concepts of rewriting and manipulation, Bassnett and Lefevere have the purpose to assert the central function of translation as a shaping force (ibid). This means that translators, who manipulate the source text in the process of translation so as to make the translated texts function in a given culture and to enable different cultures to interact, have to make their attempts to rewrite the source text. The manipulation through rewriting the source text in the procedure of translation, on the one hand, serves the interaction between source and target cultures, as well as between translation and cultures and, on the other hand, plays a vital role in the circulation of the source language's cultures.

b. Cultural Capital and the Circulation of Cultural Capital

The concept of cultural capital has been first introduced by Pierre Bourdieu, by which he refers to the information "a person needs in any given cultural context to belong to the 'right circles'" (Edwin Gentzler in the foreword for *Constructing Cultures*, 2001, p.xvi). Be somewhat similar to Pierre Bourdieu's point of view, Lefevere argues that cultural capital is what makes one acceptable in one's society, and no matter what one's social status is, he is expected to participate in conversations on certain topics.

In his article entitled *Translation Practice(s) and the Circulation of Cultural Capital: Some Aeneids in English*, Lefevere (2001) claims that the object of some translations, namely translations of those texts which are recognized as belonging to the cultural capital of a given culture, is the circulation of cultural capital. The cultural capital of a given culture can be transmitted, distributed and regulated partly by means of translation, not only between cultures, but also within one given culture (Bassnett and Lefevere, 2001).

c. Pseudo-translation

In an article entitled "When is a Translation Not a Translation?" in *Constructing Cultures*, Susan Bassnett introduces a new concept she calls 'collusion' and argues that readers collude with what is translation, a term that distinguishes one type of textual practice from others (Bassnett and Lefevere, 2001). Then, she incorporates the term 'pseudo-translation', a term coined by Gideon Toury in *Translation, Literary Translation, and Pseudotranslation* (1985), into her discussion. In her essay, she discusses in detail several types of pseudo-translations, including the inauthentic source, self-translation, inventing a translation, travelers as translators and fictitious translation. She points out some writers create an original text and claim that it is a translation. One of the main reasons for such phenomenon is that certain cultural constraints make it impossible to write about certain topics or use certain poetic forms, or to put it in another way, cultural construction is a determinant factor in presenting and marketing a text as a translation, when it is in fact an original text (Bassnett and Lefevere, 2001).

By studying the so-called pseudotranslation, Bassnett points out that the questions such as when a translation is or is not taking place become increasingly difficult to answer, and she argues that, 'it is probably more helpful to think of

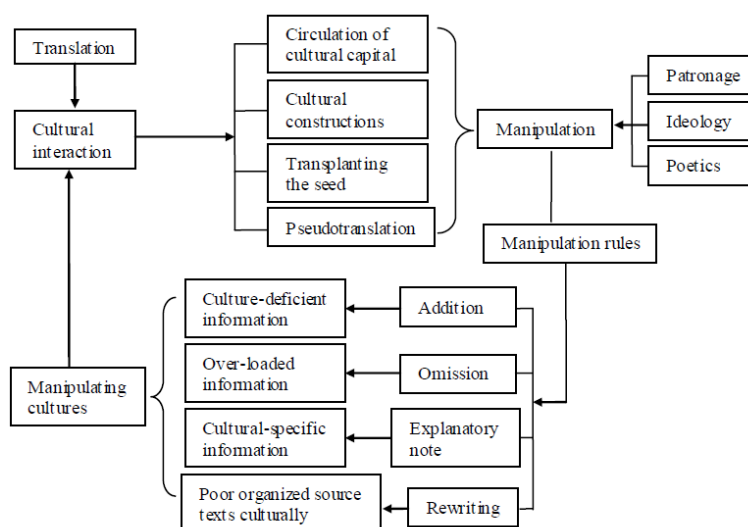
translation not so much as a category in its own right, but rather as a set of textual practices with which the writer and reader collude.’ (Bassnett and Lefevere, 2001, p.39)

After we have understood the relevant basic concepts, the author would then move on to discuss the theoretical framework in what follows.

III. THE FRAMEWORK BASED ON BASSNETT’S AND LEFEVERE’S MANIPULATION THEORY

We have introduced the school of Translation Studies as well as the related thoughts and concepts, especially Bassnett and Lefevere’s innovative thinking on translation. Maybe we can get a clear-cut map of their theory from the following graph. This graph is drawn based upon Lefevere and Bassnett’s manipulation theory, but the author goes beyond it, trying to reinforce the edifice from without by bringing in some more building materials for use.

A. Translation as Cultural Interaction



We can see from the graph that, under the cultural manipulation theory, translation is a cross-cultural communicative act which enables different cultures to interact. For the school of Translation Studies, translation should not be a copy of the original, and most importantly, in addition to making the translated text understandable to the target readers, translators should seek to transfer the culture-oriented information creatively. This means that, in translating, it is of vital importance to transfer the culture-oriented information and make the translated text meaningful and functional in the target culture systems.

Therefore, to start with, translators should have a sharp awareness of the nature of translation as well as of the intended meaning and function of the original, followed by rewriting or manipulating the source text culturally.

B. Transferring of Cultural Capital by Manipulating the Source Text

In the collection of essays entitled *‘Constructing Cultures’*, Bassnett and Lefevere give several illuminating examples of how translators manipulate the source text or even create a translation in different cultural contexts with the purpose of transferring or even constructing certain cultural capital of a given culture into the target language culture systems.

According to Lefevere, when a text is considered as part of the cultural capital of a given culture, or of the world culture, the object of the translation is to transfer the cultural capital. In his article *Translation Practice(s) and the Circulation of Cultural Capital: Some Aeneids in English*, Lefevere (2001) proves his point of views by analyzing some English translations of Virgil’s *Aeneid*. Lefevere points out in the article that cultural capital can be distributed and regulated by means of translation, and the distribution and regulation of cultural capital depends on at least the following factors: (i) the need, or rather needs, of the audience, or rather audiences, (ii) the patron of initiator of the translation, and (iii) the relative prestige of the source and target cultures and their languages (Bassnett and Lefevere, 2001, p.44). In *‘Constructing Cultures’*, Bassnett and Lefevere (2001) illustrate how translators or translations enable the transferring of certain cultural capital with some more typical examples, such as Lefevere’s *‘Acculturating Bertolt Brecht’*, Bassnett’s *‘Transplanting the Seed: Poetry and Translation’*, and Bassnett’s discussions on several types of pseudo-translations.

From their discussion it is known that for Bassnett and Lefevere the purpose of translation or, at least the translation of literary works or the culture-oriented materials, is to transfer the cultural capital of a given culture (Zhang, 2012). Translators should transmit the source language culture to the target culture systems or construct it there creatively so that the interaction between source language culture and target language culture becomes possible.

C. *The Main Factors Affecting the Cultural Manipulation*

In his book entitled *Translation, Rewriting, and the Manipulation of Literary Fame*, Lefevere (2004b) discusses the three major factors influencing the manipulation, which are ideology, poetics and patronage. He points out that translation cannot reflect factually the image of the original mainly because it is inevitably influenced by these three factors.

Translators and translation practices are impacted consciously or subconsciously by the ideology of a certain society or culture. Under the manipulation of ideology, translators might take the strategies of adding, omission or editing during the process of translation so as to serve the political or social purpose of the society he lives in. The manipulation theory also claims that translations are laden with the influence and constraint of poetics. As Lefevere argues, the manipulation through rewriting the source text is in nature a phenomenon of cultural necessity, and translators are surely impacted by various social cultural elements. The third factor is patronage which is recognized as one of the most important manipulative factors by Lefevere. Lefevere's concept of patronage is a broad one within which kings, queens, booksellers, school systems, arts councils, governments and individuals are all implicated. Patronage is the extra-textual factor which can influence the translation from the aspects of ideology, economy and social status.

However, it is important to note that the three factors usually lie hidden behind the translation.

D. *Some Workable Manipulation Rules*

Based on the previous studies of the translation of tourism materials from Chinese into English, the author of the paper will bring forth some manipulation rules into the framework of Bassnett's and Lefevere's manipulation theory. The techniques employed in this paper include addition, omission, use of explanatory note and rewriting (Zhang, 2012). As to these manipulation rules, further and detailed discussion will be included in the following part of the paper.

The manipulation rules are employed to achieve a common purpose, namely, demonstrating cultures and facilitating the interaction between cultures. Therefore, all the techniques applied here can be considered as having much to do with cultures being manipulated when doing translation, and we call such phenomenon cultural interaction. Thus, through the analysis we will demonstrate Bassnett's and Lefevere's core thoughts of translation which consist in a belief that translation is a cross-cultural communicative act and the study of translation is the study of cultural interaction.

IV. REVIEW OF SOME WORKABLE MANIPULATIVE METHODS BASED ON THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In this part, the author of the paper will move on to review some manipulative methods such as addition, omission, explanatory note and rewriting based on the cultural manipulation theory (Zhang, 2012) and many prestigious scholars' studies.

A. *Addition*

We can see the clue of manipulative method of Addition from Lefevere's discussion of the different translations of the *Lysistrata* of Aristophanes. He argues that the interpretations quite literally become the play for those who are unable to read the original or, in other words, that the translation projects a certain image of the play in the service of a certain ideology (Zhang, 2012). He also discusses that "This fact is most apparent in the passages various translators insert in their translations, passages that are most emphatically not in the original (Lefevere, 2004b, p.42)." From Lefevere's discussion, we may say that translators would on occasion add some extra information in their translations to present the source text or the image of the source text to the target readers. Bassnett also argues that the translator can at times "enrich or clarify the source language texts during the translation process" (Bassnett, 2004, p.36). To generalize Lefevere's expression of "insert passages in their translations" and Bassnett's "enrich or clarify the source language texts", we can use the term 'Addition' (Zhang, 2012), a manipulative method to facilitate cultural communication and cultural interaction which is also discussed a lot by many Chinese translation scholars who are enlightened by the cultural manipulation theory. Qiu argues that the manipulation theory advocated by Lefevere and some other scholars has provided a convincing justification for using the manipulative methods of which addition is one when translating the tourism materials from Chinese into English (Qiu, 2008, p.96). In a published article entitled *A Cultural Explanation during the Translation of Tourism Materials from Chinese into English*, Pan also discusses several manipulative methods of cultural explanation within which the method of addition is included. According to him, a lot of scenic spots introduced on tourism publicity sheets are related to certain historical events, heroes, legends and so forth, which are Chinese culture-specific and thus are difficult for the foreign readers to comprehend. Therefore, the technique of addition is used by translators in order to ensure the target readers a better understanding of the illocutionary meaning contained in the words, expressions and sentences of the source texts (Pan, 2007, p.82).

On the premise that, in the light of the school of Translation Studies, the study of translation is the study of cultural interaction, or put it in another way, translation is in nature cultural communication or even cultural construction to some extent, translator is not necessarily 'faithful' to the source text writer all the time in the process of translation. Translators may use the manipulative method of Addition in order to facilitate cultural interaction. That is to say, some culture-oriented information related to the source language text may be added to the target language texts for the sake of demonstrating cultural elements and enabling them to interact with foreign cultures partly through the translation (Zhang, 2012).

However, Addition is just one feasible way which can be used to manipulate the source texts for the sake of cultural interaction. On the contrary, translators may also employ the method of Omission, which will be discussed in the coming part, to demonstrate foreign cultures in a feasible and proper way.

B. Omission

Opposite to Addition, many translators would as well use Omission as a manipulative method when translating the source text. According to Lefevere, such kind of manipulative method can be called as ‘ideological omissions’ (Lefevere, 2004b, p.64 & Zhang, 2012). In his book entitled *Translation, Rewriting and the Manipulation of Literary Fame*, Lefevere probes into the different translations of *Anne Frank’s Diary*, in which he discusses how translators employ the translation technique of ideological omissions (Zhang, 2012). The author of the paper would like to mention that, as argued by Lefevere, translators omit passages, expressions or words of the source texts under certain constraints which include ideology, poetics and patronage. However, those constraints are hardly noticeable because they are not something floating on the surface of water, but lying behind the texts, for most of the time (ibid). Since the school of Translation Studies argues that the study of translation is the study of cultural interaction, the author of the paper would like to focus on the study of the cultural manipulation phenomena and of the cultural transmission and cultural interaction, and would not venture into the study of the factors of ideology, poetics and patronage even though this is another research direction which may breed other scholars most interests. The technique of omission in the process of translation has also been discussed a lot by many Chinese translation scholars. Qiu (2008) argues that, because of cultural differences, there might be some information in the source texts which is of little value to the target language texts. In order to deal with the meaningless or redundant information properly during the process of translation, Qiu suggests that translators should operate the source texts by means of omission (Qiu, 2008, p.97). Another scholar conducts an empirical study of the translation of School News of colleges from the perspective of ‘cultural turn’ in translation studies, which comes to the conclusion that, from the cultural perspective, translators may break the shackles of the source texts and manipulate the translation of them by omission, among other things (Guo, 2010, p.118).

In the process of translation, translators may properly use the technique of Omission. For example, He and Wang argue that Chinese tourism texts always lay stress on the social characteristics, natural features and scenery of the scenic spots, such as their social influences, historical evolvments, cultural characteristics and then some. Accordingly, the Chinese texts abound with flowers of speech, emotional words, rhythm and parallelism. Particularly, there are always some lengthy historical records, literary works or poems quoted in the tourism texts (He & Wang, 2009). In such a case, if the source text is all of it translated into English with absolute ‘faithfulness’, an overgrowth of information will result, part of which may appear redundant and unreadable, part of which may damage the demonstration of and interaction between cultures because of its distracting effects, and should be omitted in order to facilitate cultural communication and cultural interaction. Therefore, many redundant or dispensable modifiers, quoted poems, historical records and literary works are omitted in most cases in the process of translation.

C. Explanatory Note

Another manipulative method which would presumably benefit the cultural construction and cultural interaction is “explanatory note” (Lefevere, 2004b, p.50), a term coined by Lefevere. He claims that “faithfulness” is just one translational strategy, not the only strategy possible, or even allowable, and translators will use the “explanatory note” to ensure that the reader reads the translation – interprets the text – in the “right” way. He argues that “translated texts as such can teach us much about the interaction of cultures and the manipulation of texts” (Zhang, 2012). It is notable that by “explanatory note” we mean some information contained in the target language texts, which is different from footnote (ibid).

This manipulative method can be used in the translation of culture-loaded materials. For example, in culture-loaded tourism materials, there are always some nouns, expressions, historical events or the like which is difficult for English speaking readers to understand owing to their lack of cultural or historical background knowledge. Therefore, in order to ensure that the target language readers to understand the source text and the culture-oriented information it contained in the ‘right’ way, ‘Explanatory note’ (Lefevere, 2004b, p.50) is another workable manipulative method in the process of translating culture-loaded tourism materials or other culture-specific source texts.

D. Rewriting

Apart from the above three manipulative methods, there is another one that can be called Rewriting. According to Lefevere, he would like to term translation as rewriting which can “project the image of an author and/or a (series of) work(s) in another culture, lifting that author and/or those works beyond the boundaries of their culture of origin” (Lefevere, 2004b, p.9). The manipulative method of Rewriting has also been discussed much by many Chinese scholars who argue that it can be employed when translating culture-loaded tourism materials from Chinese into English to constructing Chinese cultures in foreign culture systems to realize cultural interaction, such as Chen Shaokang (2010), Qiu Hemin (2008), Pan Ningyu (2007), Han Xiaohong, to just name a few.

Through Rewriting, “some irrelevant or tenebrous information of the source texts can be weakened or even ignored during translation, while, some culture-oriented information related to the source language texts is highlighted, or at whiles, the original information is even replaced by culture-oriented information. This makes the focus of a translation

shift to demonstrating or transferring culture-oriented information from translating the source text with the principle of 'fidelity' as traditional translation theories assert" (Zhang, 2012).

V. CONCLUSION

This paper is qualitative one which introduces the innovative thinking in translation studies argued by the school of Translation Studies, particularly Bassnett and Lefevere, the two pioneering scholars who argue that translation studies should take 'cultural turn' (Zhang, 2012). The author also generalizes their theories and has formed a theoretical framework which can be referred to when doing translation studies or practices. Besides, the author is making his effort to extend the feasibility of cultural manipulation theory beyond literary works, that is to say, cultural-loaded materials such as cultural heritages, culture-specific scenic spot and so forth. There are surely some limitations of the present study. First, the author has not probed into sample analyses, or we can say the study might be too theoretical, at least to some extent. Second, currently the theories of the school of Translation Studies are not the main stream in the field of translation studies, and partly because of the author's limited knowledge, the study might be not as profound and comprehensive as it should be.

In consideration of the limitations of the present study, the author suggests that further studies may include a much wider range of sources and a greater number of samples providing a more convincing discussion. Besides, further researches may circle around the translations of culture-loaded materials in addition to literary translations, in other words, researchers may try to employ the theories of the school of Translation Studies into the practice of various types of translations, if those translations concern cultural elements.

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Communicative-autonomous Teaching: An Innovation in China

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Abstract—Communicative-autonomous Teaching is a new language teaching approach in TESOL. It absorbs the merits of both Communicative Language Teaching and Learner Autonomy Model of Teaching. Adoption of such a method is feasible in China both theoretically and practically. Both the government and the front-line teachers support its application. ‘3+1+x’ acts as a good example of practising Communicative-autonomous Teaching in the context of China. ‘3+1+x’ is a teaching model centering on the development of students’ communicative competence and autonomous learning capacity. Analysis of the teaching materials in China University of Petroleum, including textbooks, handouts and other materials used in the language lab, shows that it is a successful case.

Index Terms—communicative-autonomous teaching, innovation, China

I. INTRODUCTION

Along with the process of world globalization, China is accelerating its steps of development and strengthening its ties with the outside world. English, as a means of communication, is becoming more and more important. However, there is a widespread recognition that the traditional teaching method can not meet the demand of the society any more. The students can perform well in the written exam but find it difficult to be understood in an interview or in communication with native speakers. Having been accustomed to depending on teachers’ instructions, students tend to be passive in learning and do not know how to improve after graduation. In order to solve these problems and to achieve the objectives of the syllabus, a new teaching approach has been adopted in the tertiary teaching, i.e., Communicative-autonomous Teaching Method.

II. COMMUNICATIVE-AUTONOMOUS TEACHING IN CHINA

Communicative-autonomous Teaching Method, an innovation in TESOL, is a newly adopted language teaching method in China. It absorbs the merits of both Communicative Language Teaching and Learner Autonomy Model of Teaching.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is an approach that emphasizes both processes and goals in classroom learning (Savignon, 2002). Its central concept is ‘communicative competence’, a term coined by Dell Hymes in 1966 against Noam Chomsky’s distinction between linguistic competence and performance. In 1971, Savignon first used it to describe the ability of students’ interaction in the classroom. Keith Johnson and Helen Johnson (1998, p. 62) defined communicative competence as ‘the knowledge which enables someone to use a language effectively and their ability actually to use this knowledge for communication’. That means communicative competence refers to not only the knowledge to use language but also the practical skills.

‘Communicative language teaching originated from the changes in the British Situational Language Teaching approach dating from the late 1960s’ (Razmjoo & Riazi, 2006). It was introduced into China in 1970s but was not adopted until the recent years. The project of CECL (Communicative English for Chinese Learners) started by two Canadians and a Chinese teacher in Guangzhou in 1979 was our first attempt to base the materials on communicative approach (Li, 1984). In the process of its development, there were some accounts that valued the adoption of CLT in China (e.g. Li, 1984; Spenser, 1986; Liao, 2004). For example, Li (1984), based on the study of a project, argued that such an approach made language learning an active development process. It also met some resistance (Harvey, 1985). There are, of course, some critical ideas concerning the adoption of CLT in China (Scovel, 1983; Anderson, 1993; Bax, 2003; Liao, 2004). Anderson (1993) evaluated the pros and cons of using communicative language in Chinese context. Bax (2003) argued that teaching should be in accordance to specific contexts, whereas Liao (2004) claimed ‘the difficulties caused by situational constraints’ could be overcome. It is the argument among the scholars, in the process of putting forward questions, solving them and finding new problems..., that has propelled the development of CLT and has made theoretical preparation for its adoption in China.

With the emergence of CLT, ‘autonomy’ began to be addressed in the foreign language teaching. Holec (1981)

defined it as 'the ability to take charge of one's learning' and 'an ability or a capacity that needs to be acquired'. Autonomy was regarded as a 'pedagogical goal' by Wenden (1987) and 'an unavoidable methodological option' by Narcy (1994). It aroused lots of discussion in the western world (Dickinson, 1987; Dam, 1995; Little, 1991). It was introduced into China in 1980s. Some studies have been done in this field (Ho & Crookall, 1995; Littlewood, 1996; Hua, 2001; Wei, 2002; Xu, et al, 2004). Hua (2001) discussed the teacher roles in the students' autonomous learning. Wei (2002) stressed the necessity and importance of developing students' autonomy in foreign language teaching. Xu, et al. (2004) also put forward some problems in the students' autonomous learning, based on a survey on the college students.

After reviewing research and literature of the theorists, It can be found that both CLT and developing learner autonomy have obstacles when used in China's teaching context. Despite that CLT can promote the interaction between teacher and students in class, there are also some problems in practical language teaching. For example, China usually has big classes, which make it difficult to give each student enough time (Jin, 2007). That's just what autonomous learning can make up for. On the other hand, although autonomous learning encourages students to learn independently, the lack of adequate knowledge and skills prevents them from doing so. Fortunately, that's just what CLT can help. As Littlewood claimed, autonomy is based on 'the ability to use the language creatively' and 'the ability to use appropriate strategies for communicating meanings in specific situations' (Littlewood, 1996, p. 432). From this perspective, we can see CLT and learner autonomy model of teaching can supplement each other. That seems to justify their combination.

Syllabus is an important basis for what method being used in language teaching. China's special context determines the authority of syllabus in teaching. Ministry of Education, the top educational management department, reformulated the syllabus in 2004, stating the objectives of college English teaching is:

培养学生的英语综合应用能力，特别是听说能力，使他们在今后工作和社会交往中能用英语有效地进行口头和书面的信息交流，同时增强其自主学习能力，提高综合文化素养，以适应我国社会发展和国际交流的需要。(to develop students' comprehensive competence, especially that in listening and speaking so that they can freely communicate in their later work and social communication both orally and in the written form, meanwhile enhancing their autonomous learning capacity and raising their cultural literacy to cater to the needs of development of the society and international communication.)[my translation] (Chinese Ministry of Education, 2004)

The syllabus sets two goals of teaching: one is communicative competence which can be better obtained by using CLT; the other is autonomous learning capacity, which depends much on learner autonomy model of teaching. Therefore, to achieve these two goals, the two teaching approaches have to be combined together.

What's more, College English Test Band 4 (CET-4) is another factor that determines the language teaching method in universities. It's a very important test to the university students. 'Many universities have refused to grant a Bachelor's degree to those who fail the test', claimed by Zhang (2005), 'and many companies and government agencies have refused to accept applicants without test certificates'. CET-4, a nationwide, standardized English test, was reformed in 2004 to cater to the new syllabus. The new test canceled the grammar structure and the usage of words, and added fast reading part. The scale of listening increased to 35% from 20% (Zhang, 2005). From this, we can see the new CET-4 has shifted the focus from testing knowledge to testing competence. Accordingly, the universities have to change the teaching method, considering its importance to the university students.

Working in the front line, many teachers began to realize weaknesses of the traditional teaching method. They were eager to find a new way to change the situation. The traditional approaches to language teaching put stress on the grammar and vocabulary input. 'They were based on the belief that grammar could be learned through direct instruction and through a methodology that made much use of repetitive practice and drilling' (Richards, 2005). So, the most commonly used technique was asking students to recite words or drills and reproduce new sentences. The main activity in class is in the question-answer form: Teacher initiates questions and students answer together or individually. That's a typical cramming method of teaching. Students were presented with a lot of information concerning grammar rules and usage of words in class. There's a very vivid comparison, saying, 'the traditional way of teaching English in China is just like trying to teach people to swim without getting in the water'(Zhang, 2005). Therefore, the outcome of this method is that students 'have learned lots of grammar rules, [but] when using English to communicate, they will make grammatical mistakes frequently' (Jin, 2007). Without teachers' instructions, the students did not know what to learn, let alone how to learn.

As can be seen from the discussion above, lots of theoretical studies had been done. Both government and the front-line teachers supported reform in language teaching. The change of teaching method in college English had become an inevitable trend. It is in such a situation that the communicative-autonomous teaching method was born. So, it can be argued that roots of the innovation are both in theory and practice.

III. '3+1+X': A SUCCESSFUL MODEL IN PRACTISING COMMUNICATIVE-AUTONOMOUS TEACHING

Under the guidance of the new syllabus, China university of Petroleum quickly threw itself into the stream of practising the innovation. A new teaching model named '3+1+x model' was put forward. It turns out to be a successful example of applying the communicative-autonomous teaching method.

'3+1+x' is a teaching model centering on the development of students' communicative competence and autonomous learning capacity. In the model, 2 weeks is considered as a unit: '3' stands for 3 hours' intensive reading class, '1' means 1 hour's speaking and listening class, 'x' is the time for students to do autonomous learning by using the facilities of the

university. This model, with the help of multimedia and internet technology, attempts to make College English a new system focusing on not only teaching knowledge, but also skills, learning strategies, and cross-cultural communication.

The application of the communicative-autonomous teaching method can be reflected in every stage or aspect of the new teaching model. Teaching materials are the most representative one. As Barker and Matveeva (2006, p.192) mention, teaching materials 'represent the main content and teaching techniques that an individual teacher might use'. Here is a detailed analysis of the different kinds of teaching materials used in China University of China.

A. Textbooks

'Textbooks play a very crucial role in the realm of language teaching and learning...' (Riazi, 2003, p. 52) Cortazzi and Jin (1999) define the role of a textbook as 'a trainer' that provides teachers with explanation and guidance, 'a teacher' that gives students direct instructions, and 'a map' which shows an overview of structured cultural elements, etc. In the traditional language teaching, 'textbooks serve as the basis for much of the language input learners receive', whereas in the new language teaching model, they provide 'the balance of skills taught, and the kinds of language tasks students actively use'. (Razmjoo, 2007) When the '3+1+x' teaching model was first practiced in the university, the revised version of 'New College English' was used as the textbook. In the new version, more activities have been added and the texts have been changed into much more useful ones to keep step with the development of the outside world. The preparation part of each unit gives much more background information by providing more activities such as description of pictures, brainstorming words, etc. As is mentioned in the preface, the aim of this book is:

在遵循现代外语教学理念、充分利用先进信息技术的基础上，注重为学生创造自主学习环境，强调个性化学习，全面培养学生的英语综合应用能力，尤其是听说能力，使他们在今后工作和社会交往中能用英语有效地进行口头和书面的信息交流 (under the guidance of modern language teaching, on the basis of making full use of advanced information technology, put stress on creating autonomous learning environment for students to do personalized study, developing students' comprehensive competence, especially that in listening and speaking so that they can freely communicate in their later work and social communication both orally and in the written form.) [my translation] (Ying, 2004)

B. Handouts

In China University of Petroleum, supplementary materials are usually worked out by the teachers collectively to aid teaching. They are usually printed in the form of handouts and assigned to every teacher a copy. Here is a comparison between the two copies of handouts in different teaching models. Distinction can be clearly seen in the same unit of the same book (Unit 1, Book 1) as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
COMPARISON BETWEEN TRADITIONAL MODEL AND 3+1+XMODEL

Comparison	Model	Ability	Vocabulary & Grammar	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Translation	Writing
Proportion (%)	traditional(%)		60	5	5	15	10	5
	3+1+x(%)		5	30	30	25	5	5
Main Parts Used to Develop the Ability	traditional		Word & Sentence Analysis, Summary, Supplementary Exercises	Spot Dictation	Making up Sentences in the Vocabulary Analysis	Text Analysis	Sentence Translation, Paragraph Translation	Composition
	3+1+x		Words in Context	Listening Comprehension, Summary	Lead-in Activities, Discussion	Text Analysis, Supplementary Exercises	Sentence Translation	Summary, Composition

As can be seen from the table, in the traditional teaching, 60% of the material was used to deal with grammar and vocabulary, whereas the proportion aiming to develop listening and speaking altogether was only 10%. So, the reason why people usually call it 'dumb English' is quite clear. In contrast, in the new teaching, only 5% centers on the grammar and vocabulary. More efforts are put on the cultivation of listening, speaking and reading abilities, with the

proportion going to each almost equally. Faerch's words seem to justify the proportion of different parts in the new material: 'Communicative competence in fact covers listening and reading as well as speaking and writing' (Faerch et al, 1984). As to the writing part, the distinction seems not to be so clear in this table. Actually that's just what is usually put in 'x' part. There are lots of writing materials in the language lab for the students to use. Students can access them in the autonomous learning time and can practice there by using the modern system. Every two weeks, students are required to submit at least one piece of writing. For each, the teachers will quickly give feedback online or individually.

From comparison between the old material and the new one, it can easily be seen that there are not many activities in the old material. It seems that almost all the stages of teaching should serve for illustrating the usage of words. Before dealing with each passage, there is always a list of words or phrases for students to grasp in different level: some for recitation and some for comprehension. Even in the analysis of the text, the stress is still put on the words instead of the structure or the information of the passage. One more weak point reflected in the old material is that teachers do not use multimedia. Even in the spot dictation part, they have to read the text to the students. In sharp contrast, the new materials, with help of multimedia, provide more varieties: lead-in activities, listening comprehension, words in context, etc. In the new teaching model, even when guiding students to understand the usage of some words, teachers show the context instead of telling the students the usage directly. The different items in the supplementary exercises also clearly show a shift of focus away from the traditional way. As to the different functions of each part, they can be roughly shown in the table above (table 1).

C. *Materials Used in the Language Lab*

Materials in the language lab are mainly authentic materials and are used for both 'listening and speaking' class and students' autonomous learning. Gebhard (1996) sees authentic materials as a way to 'contextualize' language learning. When lessons are centered on comprehending a menu or a TV weather report, students tend to focus more on content and meaning rather than the language itself. This offers students a valuable source of language input, so that they are not being exposed only to the language presented by the text and the teacher.

In 'listening and speaking' class, besides the materials for listening comprehension, there are lots of discussion topics to guide students to say something. Facilities in the language lab provide the convenience for students to discuss with others even if they sit far away. What they need to do is clicking somebody who is interested in the same topic, then they will be in the same group. During their discussion, the teacher can monitor and can interrupt when necessary. Such facilities create opportunities to realize free communication in class between teacher and students or among students themselves.

Some labs are open to students every day, including the weekends. The students can go there to do autonomous learning at any time when they feel like. This is a unique characteristic of the '3+1+x model'. 'Learner autonomy' as Bergen (1990, p. 59; cited in Dam, 1995, p. 1-2) pointed out, 'is characterized by a readiness to take charge of one's own learning in the service of one's needs and purposes.' 'X' serves well in this aspect. It fully depends on the students as to when and how long to learn. There the students also have the opportunity to select what they want to learn and what they need to learn. Lots of materials are available in the labs to cater to the students of different level: textbooks with detailed explanation and audio-visual courseware, listening exercises, exam papers of the previous years, items for translation, reading exercises, writing materials, items for spoken English practice, videos, and films, etc. Of course, there are certain assignments for the students to finish online. Considering that some students may not voluntarily do autonomous learning, a minimum amount of time has been set to 'x', that is, 3 hours every two weeks. And a very good monitoring system has been made.

From the above analysis, '3+1+x model' is a good example to practise Communicative-autonomous Teaching Method. It can clearly achieve the goal of fostering the students' communicative competence and developing their autonomous learning capacity. Teaching results also show that it is a successful case.

IV. CONCLUSION

Communicative-autonomous Teaching Method, an innovation in TESOL, was born with development of the communicative language teaching theory and the theory of autonomy. The research done in these two fields made some theoretical preparation for the adoption of this method in China. On the other hand, some factors in practice also contributed to its birth, such as reformulation of syllabus, reform of the nationwide test and findings of the front-line teachers, etc. So, it can be argued that its roots are both in theory and practice. Communicative-autonomous Teaching Method aims to develop students' both communicative competence and autonomous learning capacity. It's a shift of focus from the traditional teaching, which mainly centered on grammar and vocabulary. This paper uses a new teaching model '3+1+x' in China University of Petroleum as an example to show how the innovation is used in practice. From comparison of the old and the new materials, the weaknesses of the traditional teaching and the strengths of the innovation can be clearly seen.

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Test Fairness in Traditional and Dynamic Assessment

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Abstract—This paper aims to unfold the conceptualizations of test fairness from two different perspectives: traditional and dynamic assessment. First, it goes over a variety of definitions presented for fairness. The paper then discusses three views regarding the relationship between test fairness and test validity in order to get better insights into the nature of the intended concept. It further investigates Kunnan's test fairness framework (TFF) as one of the most comprehensive models presented for test fairness. It tries to review and criticize this model. It is worth noting that the three views, discussed in this paper, represent fairness from a traditional perspective. Furthermore, the study elaborates on dynamic assessment and its main tenets since it intends to compare the conceptualizations of fairness within traditional and dynamic assessment. In fact, fairness is viewed from a completely different perspective in dynamic assessment in which instruction and assessment are integrated and dialectically related to form an approach which prioritizes development over measurement.

Index Terms—traditional assessment, dynamic assessment, test fairness, Kunnan's test fairness framework, language development

I. INTRODUCTION

Testing is a multi-faceted and intricate field in which right decision-making is very complicated. In order for any evaluation to be reliable, a number of considerations should be taken into account. In fact, evaluation usually leads into making decisions about individuals and situations; therefore, several consequences will follow as a result of the decisions. Some of these consequences are social or psychological, affecting individuals' motivation, goal, and even social status. As Bachman (1990) states, "since testing takes place in an educational or social context, we must also consider the educational and social consequences of the uses we make of tests" (p. 237). Thus, one can easily notice that testing involves many intricacies because it eventually requires raters to judge test takers on their potentials and causes certain changes in their life path. Thus, thorough attention should be paid to consider as many relevant aspects as possible in order to make fair judgments.

Fair judgment requires measurement professionals to be aware of the concept of test fairness and its characteristics as well as other pertinent testing concepts so that they know how to observe this feature in different testing contexts as much as possible. Though many test developers and raters think that they know what 'fairness' is, they simply consider it as a test quality which pertains to a test itself and guarantees its content validity. However, one should notice that "test fairness" is a multi-faceted issue which is not confined to the content of a test and covers other aspects of testing as well. In fact, most test developers and raters attend to superficial levels and certain dimensions of test fairness which are easier to reach and do not make any attempt to achieve fairness in its full sense and at a higher level.

Fairness should not be restricted to either test development or administration. According to Willingham and Cole (1997), fairness should apply to all assessment stages including the conceptualization underlying assessment as well as the way the assessment results are used. One should not simply view the concept of test fairness as being confined to the test itself. As a matter of fact, having so simplistic a point of view about such an important and complex issue results in unfair testing contexts, violation of test takers' rights and finally lack of sufficient research in this area.

The concept of test fairness is so complicated and controversial that yet no agreed-upon definition is provided. In addition, some fairness models have been proposed but none lends itself easily to practical investigation of fairness. Furthermore, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, no previous study has investigated the trend that fairness follows to see how its concept differs in traditional and dynamic assessment. Therefore, the current study is an endeavor to provide a comprehensive portrait of 'test fairness' and discusses Kunnan's (2004) framework as the most comprehensive model available for test fairness. It also presents different views about fairness and elaborates on each view. Finally, the study compares fairness in traditional and dynamic assessments and hence fills the aforementioned gap.

II. TEST FAIRNESS

Test fairness has not been paid due attention for a long time. People believed that differences among groups reflected reality, and fairness was not really a concern for them. Gradually, measurement professionals began to study group differences in terms of score and fair testing. They "began to pay increasing attention" to test and item fairness almost at

the beginning of 1970s (Cole and Zieky, 2001, p. 370). Kunnan (2010) thinks that test fairness as one of the most fundamental concepts in evaluation entered the forefront of investigations and discussions in the field of language assessment in 1990s.

In fact, fairness is such a complicated concept that a variety of definitions has been proposed to clarify its broad and controversial nature. According to Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary (1988), 'fairness' means 'being free from having favor toward either or any side'. Xi (2010) believes that such a definition indicates that fair testing mainly focuses on comparing testing practices and test results across different groups. Therefore, test fairness mainly arises from the way group differences are perceived and treated. Similarly, Xi (2010) defines fairness "as comparable validity for all the identifiable and relevant groups across all stages of assessment, from assessment conceptualization to the use of assessment results" (p. 154).

Davies (2010) states that "the language testing literature has tended to treat fairness under the heading of bias" (p. 174). According to Elder (1997), test bias studies "are directed to identifying and where possible reducing the effect of any confounding variables on test scores, by making changes to the test" (p. 261). McNamara and Roever (2006) think that the term "bias" in assessment research conveys an unfair tendency for one group or population which results in the detriment of another. Therefore, the notion of bias is highly related to fairness in all stages of assessment: "A biased judgment unduly takes into account factors other than those that should be informing it" (p. 82). Angoff (1993) believes that in traditional terms, bias can be considered as construct-irrelevant variance which threatens the test outcomes and hence reduces the validity of the conclusions made based on scores. Particularly, one can consider a test as biased if test takers who have equal ability but come from different groups score differently on the items of the test due to their group membership.

According to "the Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing (AERA, APA & NCME, 1999)" fairness is defined "as absence of bias, equitable treatment of all test takers in the testing process, and equity in opportunity to learn the material in an achievement test" (Xi, 2010, p. 147). In other words, fairness requires equitable treatment of all test takers in the testing process. However, test fairness is so broad an area that many measurement professionals consider it to encompass management of quality in test design, administering and scoring, appropriate coverage of relevant material, sufficient work to ensure construct validation, equal opportunities for learning and access to testing, and items which measure only the ability under investigation without being affected by factors related to test-takers' background (McNamara and Roever, 2006; Kunnan, 2000; Saville, 2003, 2005; Shohamy, 2000).

Davies (2010) believes that the concept of fairness has been deeply studied by John Rawls (2001) who equates fairness with justice. Rawls proposes two principles underlying his argument. "The first is that everyone has the same claim to the basic liberties. The second is that where there are inequalities they must satisfy two conditions, that offices and positions must be open to everyone on the basis of equality of opportunity, and that the least-advantaged members of society should benefit most from these inequalities" (Davies, 2010, p. 174). Having a similar idea, Velasquez *et al.* (2008) link fairness to justice and define justice as providing everyone with what they deserve, or, in other words, offering each individual their due.

As it was mentioned, measurement professionals have defined test fairness in different ways. Such definitions may not clarify the concept of test fairness and its relevant aspects to the extent that practitioners can observe fairness in actual testing contexts. They may need a concrete model through which fairness can really be observed and applied in testing situations. Among all the available models proposed for test fairness, Kunnan's (2004) framework can be considered as the most comprehensive fairness model. In what follows this model is explained and criticized.

III. THE TEST FAIRNESS FRAMEWORK

A number of approaches have been proposed to investigate fairness. However, the test fairness framework, proposed by Kunnan (2004), is the main concern of this study since this model has been at the forefront of attention regarding test fairness for several years. Kunnan (2010) puts forward an ethics-inspired rationale for his framework and claims that this model considers the whole testing system, not only the test itself, hence it seems to be more comprehensive than the other existing models. Kunnan's (2004) framework was the first attempt made to "propose an overarching framework for fairness research" in language testing (Xi, 2010, p. 150). In his previous work on test fairness (Kunnan, 2000), he considers fairness as a concept encompassing three facets to deal with validity, justice and access. Kunnan agrees with Jensen (1980) who thinks that "the concepts of fairness, social justice, and equal protection of the laws are moral, legal, and philosophical ideas and therefore must be evaluated in these terms" (Jensen, p. 376). Xi (2010) also thinks that such an idea mainly arises from social justice theories. However, Kunnan tried to expand his ideas and develop a more comprehensive model that was later proposed in 2004. In this framework, he views fairness as an overarching concept which includes five testing qualities: Validity, absence of test bias, equal access for learning and testing, test administration, and social consequences. According to this approach, validity of a test score interpretation, which is considered as part of the test fairness framework, can be supported through four types of evidences: *Content representativeness or coverage evidence* which refers to the adequacy with which test items represent the test domain, *construct or theory-based validity evidence* which refers to the extent to which test items represent the construct or the underlying trait being measured in a test, *criterion-related validity evidence* which refers to whether the test scores meet some criterion variables, and *reliability evidence* which refers to the consistency of test scores. The second quality

refers to absence of any source of bias such as offensive content or language, unfair penalization based on test takers background, and disparate impact and standard setting. In fact, offensive content can cause bias for test takers from different backgrounds because it may conflict with their beliefs or it may be needlessly controversial (McNamara and Roever, 2006). A test is also biased if it causes unfair penalization due to a test taker's group membership. In addition, disparate impact and standard setting can bring about different performances by test takers from various group memberships. The third quality of the fairness framework refers to test takers' access to the test in terms of educational, financial, geographical, personal, and equipment access. In other words, all the test takers should be provided with opportunities to learn the test content and get familiar with the kind of tasks and cognitive demands required by the test. Furthermore, the test should be affordable for test takers and the site should also be accessible in terms of distance as well as test takers' physical and learning conditions. In addition, test takers should be familiar with the test taking equipments, procedures, and conditions. The fourth feature of test fairness framework is related to administration conditions. This quality refers to the physical conditions of test administration such as optimum light and temperature as well as uniformity and consistency across test sites and in equivalent forms. Finally, social consequences of a test should be studied as contributing to test fairness. These consequences refer either to the effect of a test on instructional practices or the remedies offered to test takers to compensate for the detrimental consequences of a test.

Although Kunnan's test fairness framework considers many relevant factors and thus seems to be a comprehensive model, it has several shortcomings. First, it mainly arises from theories and is not practical enough to provide a principled guideline to ensure all the aspects of test fairness. Having a similar idea, Xi (2010) also criticizes Kunnan's (2004) framework for not providing "practical guidance on how to go about developing the relevant evidence to support fairness" (p. 148). He thinks that although this approach may be helpful in dealing with general aspects of research, it does not provide a practical "mechanism to integrate all aspects of fairness investigations into a fairness argument", nor does it "offer a means to plan fairness research" (p. 148). Xi believes that a framework should identify and prioritize research needs so that one can practically observe and measure the progress made in fairness investigations.

Second, although Kunnan (2004) claims that this fairness framework can apply to the whole system of a testing practice, it does not actually consider all stages regarding assessment. The Code of Fair Testing Practices in Education (1988), modified in 2004, highlights the role of test fairness as a quality that pertains to all assessment stages. Therefore, fairness issues are not confined to the development of appropriate and adequate test items, their administration and scoring but they also pertain to providing test takers with the accurate and sufficient reporting of test results since individuals have rights to receive feedback on their performance so that they get aware of their strength and weakness. However, there is no concern for the latter issues in Kunnan's test fairness framework; thus, it is not comprehensive enough to consider all the aspects and consequences of a testing practice. In addition, this test fairness framework does not specifically define any qualities devoted to the responsibilities of test developers and users regarding the importance of their roles. On the one hand, test developers should provide test users with sufficient information and supporting evidence to help them select appropriate tests. They should also explain the procedures needed for administering and scoring tests appropriately and fairly. On the other hand, test users should inform test takers about their responsibilities and rights, the nature and purpose of the test, the appropriate use of test results, and procedures used for resolving challenges encountered in the evaluation process (McNamara and Roever, 2006).

Finally, Kunnan's test fairness framework mainly focuses on *group differences* and the kind of bias that may stem from test takers' membership in different groups, but it does ignore the important issue of *individual differences*. This lack of attention to individual differences may result in having test items and tasks, which are more suitable and convenient for some individuals with certain learning styles; but are not appropriate for all the members of the same group. For instance, the same test given to two groups of men and women can yield different results that may be attributed to gender differences. However, one should note that there are some intra-group differences regarding the ability being tested, for example: Test taking strategies or learning styles that can bring about different performances. Highlighting the importance of individual differences, Cole and Zieky (2001) state that, "all testing data show far more individual variation of scores within groups than variation between groups. Individual variation, not group variation, is the dominant influence on scores and should therefore be the dominant fairness concern" (p. 11). Therefore, considering the qualities and aspects included in Kunnan's test fairness framework, one eventually finds out that this model does not propose a practical means to investigate test fairness in its full sense.

Xi (2010) believes that establishing a fairness framework that would be useful for practical purposes requires primary attention to the conceptualization of fairness. Fairness related theories, models, and definitions suggest that most measurement professionals study test fairness in relation to validity issues since test fairness is sometimes influenced by the interpretations of test scores. Therefore, studying about how fairness and validity are related can provide better insights into the conceptualization of fairness and its practical investigation.

IV. FAIRNESS AND VALIDITY

Fairness has been conceptualized in various ways which result in different approaches of viewing fairness. Though these conceptual approaches may vary with regard to the degree of their emphasis on issues such as the political and social aspects of fairness, a major point on which they differ is how fairness and validity are related (Xi, 2010).

Considering the relationship that may exist between fairness and validity, Xi proposes three views: “whether fairness is independent of validity, subsumes it, or is a facet of it” (p.148).

View 1: Fairness as an independent test quality

This view considers fairness as a test quality facet which is relatively independent and is not consistently and clearly connected to validity. According to this view, “fairness is characterized as a test quality that is separate from validity, although some tenuous and inconsistent references may be made to validity” (Xi, 2010, p. 149). The *Standards for Fairness and Quality* by Educational Testing Service (ETS, 2002) and the *Code of Fair Testing Practices in Education* (1998, 2004) are representative of this approach. The *1999 Standards* claims that “fairness requires that construct-irrelevant personal characteristics of test takers have no appreciable effect on test results or their interpretation” (p. 17). The Code primarily focuses on the partition of responsibilities between test developers and users in ensuring testing practices which are supposed to be fair. Xi (2010) states that “This is also a major contribution of the Code compared to the Standards, as the partition of responsibilities between test developers and users has not always been clear cut (Shohamy, 2001). Since it requires both test developers and users to work in concert to ensure fairness, guidelines as to who is responsible for what help promote fairness” (p. 150). In addition, the ETS Standards for Fairness and Quality presents a broad list of fairness standards; but it does not provide a mechanism for weighing one piece of fairness evidence against another or for prioritizing them either. Furthermore, Xi points to one of the standards, proposed in the ETS Standards for Fairness and Quality, which explains “that if the use of assessment results causes unintended consequences for a studied group, the validity evidence should be investigated to see if the differential impact for the studied group is a result of construct irrelevant factors or construct under-representation” (p. 151). Such elaboration implies the potential existence of a more consistent and coherent linkage between test fairness and validity (Xi, 2010).

View 2: Fairness as an overarching test quality

According to this view, fairness subsumes validity; in other words, fairness is viewed as an all-encompassing test quality with different facets including validity. This view highlights the importance of fairness issues by giving primacy to test fairness and defining it as a test quality, which subsumes validity and goes beyond it. Therefore, for a test to be fair, it must be valid first. Kunnan’s test fairness framework is a manifestation of this view since validity is considered as one of the five qualities that contribute to fairness. Kunnan views fairness as a test quality which includes validity, absence of test bias, access to the test, conditions of administration, and consequences of the test (Kunnan, 2004, 2010). However, this view considers fairness as a broad concept, which consists of several facets that are related to one another. That is why Bachman (2005) criticizes Kunnan’s work in which various fairness components are not necessarily connected to each other. Therefore, he emphasizes on the need for a mechanism to integrate them appropriately to support a comprehensive fairness argument.

In addition, McNamara and Roever (2006), who are proponents of the second view, focus on the social dimensions of language testing evident in item bias investigations. The desire to ensure social justice motivates their test fairness discussion. They argue that factors, which bias some test takers’ educational opportunities and bring about advantages and disadvantages for them, comes from the larger social context. McNamara and Roever put great emphasis on the political and social dimensions of fairness. They believe that the social embeddedness of testing can be dealt with through the procedures of sensitivity review and the promotion of codes of ethics. Sensitivity review or fairness review refers to the formal process of identifying, modifying or eliminating possibly biased items during the construction process of a test. The codes of ethics are “useful for guiding ethical decisions and protecting testers from stakeholder pressures to take actions that contravene professional conduct” (McNamara and Roever, 2006, p. 7). Therefore, adopting this view requires thorough attention to all the aspects of fairness and their relations as well as the social and political context of a testing practice.

View 3: Fairness connected directly to validity

This view arises from the *1999 Standards* which supports three prevalent features of fairness in educational and psychological testing fields: test fairness as lack of bias, test fairness as equity in opportunity to learn the content covered in an achievement test, and test fairness as equitable treatment of all test takers in the testing process. The 1999 Standards rejects the popular view that fairness requires the equality of testing results for different groups of examinees, and argues that a more widely accepted view would imply that test takers who belong to different groups and have equal standing regarding the construct being measured should on average get the same test score (Xi, 2010). In addition, the *1999 Standards* emphasizes that gathering various pieces of evidence helps to ensure test fairness. The *Standards* requires the investigation of each type of validity evidence for relevant groups of test takers to determine if the meaning and interpretation of test scores, and the consequences of using the assessment results may differ due to construct irrelevant factors or construct under-representation. Xi, who is in favor of this view, points out that the “connection between discussions of fairness and validity suggests a strong possibility for linking fairness back to validity in a principled way [which could not be observed in Kunnan’s work]. This kind of linkage would allow fairness research and practice to take advantage of a well-defined framework for validity” (p. 152).

In fact, Xi “proposes an approach for studying fairness that links it directly to validity. Fairness is characterized as comparable validity for relevant groups that can be identified” (p. 167). She considers fairness as a facet of validity. Therefore, anything that compromises fairness weakens the validity of a test as well. However, Davies (2010) criticizes Xi’s proposed conceptualization. He believes that validity itself does pertain to all identifiable and relevant groups; then

why do we need to appeal to fairness? Davies argues that “validity guarantees that an ability is being appropriately tested for a relevant population: this population will be made up of various groups but there is sufficient homogeneity across groups for them to be treated as comparable” (p. 175). He believes that a test which is valid for children may not be valid for adults because these two groups of test takers belong to different populations. It is not whether such a test is fair or unfair for adults: the test is just considered to be invalid for the latter group. Davies thinks that pursuing fairness in language testing is chimerical: “First because it is unattainable, and second because it is unnecessary” (p. 171). So Davies’s idea is not in line with any of the three conceptualizations presented above as he rejects the concept of fairness overall.

V. FAIRNESS IN TRADITIONAL AND DYNAMIC ASSESSMENTS

All the three views, discussed regarding the relationship between fairness and validity, have been proposed within the framework of traditional assessment. Traditional testing contexts draw a clear distinction between development and measurement. Assessment usually follows instruction and is not intended to improve test takers’ learning. Since such assessment is usually statistically based and grounded in psychometric principles, it considers any change in the test taker’s performance during the assessment administration as a threat to test reliability, which definitely compromises those principles as well (Poehner and Lantolf, 2005). In such a traditional perspective, test fairness requires providing learners with equal opportunities to learn and subsequently take part in exams. Instruction is planned based on a hierarchy including a sequence of increasingly difficult learning tasks. In fact, teachers provide all the learners with the same material without considering their needs and teach them equally since all learners are supposed to receive the same amount of input and support from the teacher to move through the predetermined hierarchy. In other words, teaching undergoes several distinct stages; therefore, learning can be investigated through traditional assessment instruments, designed equally for all the learners, at a particular point in the teaching sequence. All the learners receive the same test on which they should perform independently. They should not cooperate with their peers or teacher during the exam since the only purpose of assessment is measurement. Therefore, the central focus of fairness within a traditional framework is to provide learners with equal learning opportunities and access to a test which usually takes the form of a summative assessment which evaluates learners’ performance at the end of a program and is often used for the purposes of admission decisions, accountability, selection and promotion (Poehner and Lantolf, 2005).

However, dynamic assessment views teaching and testing from a different perspective in which the pursuit of fairness undergoes a different path. Dynamic assessment (DA) is an approach to instruction and assessment derived from Vygotsky’s socio-cultural theory of mind and his focus on the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Poehner and Lantolf, 2005). In this approach, teaching and testing are integrated as a single activity that aims to simultaneously understand and promote learners’ abilities through mediated interaction in the Zone of Proximal Development (Poehner, 2008). In other words, dynamic assessment blends instruction and assessment and benefits from tutor mediation to recognize the areas in which students need the most support (Shrestha, et al., 2012). Therefore, DA has two major concerns: first, teaching and testing are dialectically integrated to the extent that one cannot tell the two activities from each other at a particular point. Second, learners receive support from the teacher within their ZPD even when they are performing on a test, because this approach advocates any tools that lead to development; therefore, assessment is not mainly intended to measure learners’ knowledge but to develop it. Thus, development has priority over measurement.

ZPD refers to the ‘difference’ between what learners can do on their own and what they can do when receiving support and assistance on a test. The idea of ZPD is highly associated with Vygotsky’s socio-cultural theory of mind. He believes that engagement in activities mediated by others and by cultural tools allows learners to develop higher levels of consciousness, which are unique to humans (Vygotsky, 1978, 1986). “In Vygotsky’s view, abilities do not simply mature on their own but instead result from individuals’ histories of engaging in activities with others and with cultural artifacts” (Poehner, 2008, p.24). Socio-cultural theory implies that cultural artifacts and other individuals are not only a factor of development, but they are also the source of development. Dynamic assessment is not concerned with attributing development either to the individual or to the environment. According to this approach, the individual and the environment constitute an inseparable dialectical unity that cannot be understood if the unity is distorted or broken. The interaction between learners and their environment helps them develop control over and awareness of their psychological functions, including attention, perception, and memory (Poehner, 2008). Newman *et al.* (1989) also believe that cognitive changes arise from the productive intrusion of other individuals and cultural objects in the developmental process. Kozulin (1998, 2003) considers physical, psychological, and symbolic tools as a way of conceptualizing Vygotsky’s major argument that a learner’s social and cultural environment is the source of the development of higher psychological functions. In a Vygotskian view, humans relate to their world *physically* as well as *psychologically*. Unlike physical tools, symbolic tools that Vygotskian researchers refer to as cultural artifacts are directed both outwardly and inwardly to mediate individuals’ relationship with the world and with themselves (Vygotsky, 1994). Therefore, as Poehner and Lantolf (2005) put it, “the unit of analysis for the study of development is not the individual acting alone, but the interpersonal functional system formed by people and cultural artifacts acting jointly to bring about development” (p. 238). Wertsch (2007) believes that Vygotsky views mediation as the “hallmark of human consciousness because it is through their appropriation of the forms of mediation provided by particular cultural, historical, and institutional forces that their mental functioning is sociohistorically situated” (p. 178).

Highlighting the importance of mediation and intervention, Shrestha *et al.* (2012) believe that both ZPD and mediation are integral to dynamic assessment. While the ZPD is basically about the learner's potential development, mediation paves the way for such development. In other words, mediation can be defined as a process that humans undergo to regulate others, the material world, or their own social and mental activities by using concepts, activities and artifacts which are culturally constructed (Lantolf and Thorne, 2006).

In order to get better insights into the ways traditional and dynamic assessments differ, one can think of them as assessment *while* teaching and assessment *by* teaching respectively. According to Newman *et al.* (1989), assessment *while* teaching requires children to learn base on a hierarchy which is composed of a sequence of increasingly difficult activities. Therefore, determining how successful the children are at moving through the sequence requires the teacher to observe their independent performance on traditional assessment instruments usually in the form of psychometric tools at a particular stage in the instruction sequence. But, assessment *by* teaching, which is in line with dynamic assessment, suggests that teaching is not organized and planned according to “a neat sequence of levels to be mastered in an invariant sequence with a single correct route to mastery. Tasks and knowledge may be organized according to a teacher’s assumptions about their relative complexity” (Newman *et al.*, 1989, p. 78). Therefore, once students and teachers get involved in instructional activities, things can move in unanticipated directions and learning occurs at unanticipated rates (Poehner and Lantolf, 2005).

In dynamic assessment, there is a shift of attention from focusing on learners’ independent performance on traditional measuring instruments to focusing on the process of development through mediated interaction. Since development has priority over measurement in dynamic assessment, fairness suggests that learners should not be deprived from any tool that promotes their learning. Therefore, even a test, which has traditionally been used only for measurement purposes, should now be in service of development.

In fact, dynamic assessment views test fairness from a perspective different from the one underlying the three views proposed by Xi (2010). Those views discuss fairness within the framework of traditional assessment in which test fairness requires institutions and teachers to provide equal opportunities for all the individuals to learn the same material and consequently provide them with the same testing conditions for measurement purposes. In other words, traditional assessment is more product-oriented and seeks to measure the ultimate level that learners have reached. The views, already discussed regarding the relationship between fairness and validity, are included within this product-oriented approach. However, the third view seems to manifest some traces of dynamic assessment since in this view Xi points to some sort of equitable treatment of individuals but it still follows the main tenets of traditional assessment with regard to instruction and testing procedures. Unlike the traditional approach, dynamic assessment focuses on the developmental process and hence is considered as a process-oriented approach in which a test is a helpful tool that can both measure and promote individuals’ knowledge so that they can transfer what they learn to other tasks beyond the test. Having a similar idea, Shrestha *et al.* (2012) state that, “DA is grounded in the notion of assessment as a process rather than a product. In other words, DA is a development-oriented process which reveals a learner's current abilities in order to help them overcome any performance problems and realize their potential” (p. 5).

It is worth noting that the major difference between the ways that traditional and dynamic assessment view fairness lies in the different teaching and testing relationships within the two approaches. In the traditional sense, instruction and assessment are separate activities carried out at particular stages. All the learners are taught the same material selected based on a predetermined hierarchy and they later receive the same test on which they should perform independently since the only purpose of such a test is measurement. Therefore, in order to observe fairness, educational systems and practitioners are required to treat all the individuals equally regardless of their needs and backgrounds. But dynamic assessment takes on a different perspective in which instruction and assessment are integrated in all the stages so that one cannot distinguish the two activities from one another at a single point. All the individuals do not receive the same instruction. In fact, each learner receives as much assistance as he or she deserves. Development is achieved intentionally rather than incidentally. As Poehner and Lantolf (2005) mention, “dynamic assessment is a pedagogical approach grounded in a specific theory of mind and mental development... [Therefore,] mediation cannot be offered in a haphazard, hit-or-miss fashion, but it must be tuned to those abilities that are maturing” (p. 260). Although one can carry out dynamic assessment either formally or informally, it must be planned and systematic. It mainly insists on the inseparability of instruction and assessment because they constitute a unity which is necessary for individuals’ development. In such an approach, fairness requires providing each individual with what they deserve regarding their needs. Learners do not move through a hierarchy of tasks sequenced based on their difficulties rather each individual receives what is required for his or her development based on a theory of mind since mediated interaction and intervention should be systematic in order to be fair and beneficial. Even, their performance on a test is assisted by receiving support from others such as their peers, teachers and whatever exists in the environment. Thus, each individual receives as much assistance as he or she needs. In fact, dynamic assessment attends to individual differences in a practical sense. This is contrary to the views of traditional assessment.

Models following traditional perspectives define fairness in terms of equal treatment of individuals regarding learning opportunities and testing conditions. In such an approach, the focus is on inter-group differences rather than intra-group differences. Within this framework, tests are only used for measurement and any kind of intervention may threaten their reliability since they are often used for purposes such as admission decisions, selection, and promotion.

Therefore, test takers do not usually receive any kind of feedback on their performance to know which areas require more attention and practice. However, dynamic assessment employs a different view toward fairness. In this approach, teaching and testing are dialectically integrated and considered as a single activity since both aim at promoting learners' knowledge; and development has priority over measurement. In fact, this approach requires teachers to assist learners to overcome the difficulty of test tasks and master the intended knowledge being tapped by the test so that they can transfer such knowledge to other tasks beyond the test. Therefore, fairness in dynamic assessment does not only apply to the test itself or the testing process but to the whole teaching and testing activities integrated as a single unity which must ultimately lead to development. In other words, fairness implies that individuals should not be deprived of any opportunity that can promote their learning. From a dynamic perspective, fairness in education does not require teachers to treat all learners as if they were the same, because doing so ignores that they are not. Fairness necessitates doing everything possible to promote learner development, with the understanding that some learners will need more support, time and resources than other individuals (Poehner, 2011).

Reuven Feuerstein, a leading DA researcher, has proposed a "structural cognitive modifiability theory" to suggest that "traditional conceptualizations of the examiner/examinee roles should change in favor of a teacher-student unity that works towards the ultimate success of the student" (Feuerstein et al., 1979, p. 271). Putting this idea another way, Poehner (2011) states that the purpose of assessment is fully realized by actively trying to promote a learner's knowledge. Poehner (2011) claims that "this orientation requires a shift on the part of the assessor, also referred to as a *mediator*, whose responsibility is no longer limited to neutrally observing learner performance but now involves engaging as a co-participant with learners" (p. 100). Feuerstein et al. (2002) do not consider cognitive capabilities to be fixed traits determined by our genetic endowments rather these abilities are supposed to develop in various ways, depending on the presence, and the quality of suitable forms of instruction and interaction. Feuerstein et al. (1979) state that "it is through this shift in roles that we find both the examiner and the examinee bowed over the same task, engaged in a common quest for mastery of the material" (p. 102). Following the same line of thought, Poehner (2008) thinks that teachers' intervention is necessary to help learners stretch beyond current capabilities. In other words, interpretations of learners' abilities and knowledge are extended beyond observations of independent performance to include their responsiveness and contributions during participation and engagement in joint activities with a mediator. Moreover, the instructional quality of the interaction begins and affects the process of helping individuals move toward overcoming their current difficulties (Poehner, 2011). Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002) also state that dynamic assessment is a procedure with results that take into account the outcomes of an intervention in which the examiner teaches the examinee how to perform more efficiently on individual items or on the whole test. Therefore, the final score can be considered as a learning score which represents the difference between pretest (before an individual's learning) and posttest (after his/ her learning) scores, or it may be the score on the posttest considered alone. It seems that the major difference between the traditional and dynamic approaches has to do with whether or not the administration of the assessment should have the expressed purpose of modifying learners' performance during the assessment itself (Poehner and Iantolf, 2005).

Therefore, fairness is conceptualized differently in traditional and dynamic assessment. In traditional approaches, teaching and testing are considered as distinct activities with different objectives. Hence, fairness, in the former approach, requires institutions to provide equal opportunities and conditions for all learners to learn the same material and to perform on the same traditional measuring instrument independently. However, the latter approach which blends instruction and assessment views fairness in terms of providing each individual with what he or she deserves based on need analysis and ongoing assessments used for diagnostic purposes.

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper investigated test fairness conceptualizations within the perspectives of traditional and dynamic assessment. It started with presenting available definitions for fairness to provide a portrait of the concept at hand. In order to get better insights into the very nature of this test quality in a more concrete sense, it investigated Kunnan's (2004) test fairness framework as the most comprehensive available fairness model. However, a closer look at the framework and its components resulted in a number of criticisms. First, it is impractical due to the lack of guidelines on how to ensure validity. Contrary to what Kunnan claims about the comprehensiveness of his framework, it does not apply to the whole system of a testing practice since it does not indicate any concern for accurate reporting of test results and informing test takers as well as providing them with feedback on their performance with regard to their strengths and weaknesses. In addition, this model understates the important roles of test developers and test users by not clarifying their responsibilities in the testing process. Furthermore, it ignores the intra-group differences and only attends to inter-group differences. Therefore, the test fairness framework does not seem to be practical and comprehensive enough to be applied to the whole system of a testing practice appropriately. Xi (2010) suggests that establishing a useful framework for practical research requires measurement professionals to have concerns for the conceptualizations of fairness. She proposes three views regarding the relationship between fairness and validity. The first view considers fairness as an independent test quality, the second view, to which Kunnan's test fairness framework belongs, sees fairness as an all-encompassing test quality which is composed of several facets including validity. The third view considers fairness as being directly related to validity. It is worth noting that, all the views proposed by Xi are discussed from a traditional

perspective toward assessment. However, fairness is viewed quite differently within the framework of dynamic assessment in which instruction and assessment are integrated in order to simultaneously measure and promote learner development. In DA, development has priority over measurement. As the paper discusses, the traditional and dynamic assessments conceptualize fairness from different perspectives. While, in the former approach, fairness requires instructors and measurement professionals to teach all the learners based on a predetermined schedule and provide them with equal opportunities to learn and take tests on which they are not assisted, the latter perspective defines fairness in terms of providing each individual with what he or she deserves. Therefore, individual differences as well as their needs and interests are taken into consideration. Although, dynamic assessment seems to view fairness from a more humanistic perspective, it requires careful attention and programming on the part of educational institutions and practitioners so that all the learners get what they really need and deserve. Employing needs analysis before beginning a course and having small classes help teachers implement the tenets of dynamic assessment and reach fairness as much as possible.

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