Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

Logos Ethos and Pathos in Political Discourse

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Abstract—Given article aims at underlining all linguistic means out of the discourses of 2002 and 2007 presidential candidates Jacques Chirac and Nicolas Sarkozy that served as the Triad of Aristotle argumentation - Logos, Ethos, and Pathos - without which it is impossible to build any type of argumentative written, verbal, and/or as in our case, political discourses.

Index Terms—argumentation, Logos, Ethos, Pathos, political discourse

I. INTRODUCTION

The goal of the given article is to study the phenomenon of the three elements of argumentative persuasion: Logos, Ethos, and Pathos and to reveal the linguistic means used in French political discourses for this purposes.

Research components of the study are the argumentative political discourses such as the pre-election campaign discourses presented by Jacques Chirac and Nicolas Sarkozy to the large audience of electorate. By examining of the discourses we will try to highlight the linguistic means, which are used by each politician to present the three dimensions of the argumentative persuasion – Logos, Ethos and Pathos. In addition we aim at comparing the discourses of the abovementioned presidential candidates to find out how each of them build rationale and logical discourses; how they present own personality; what methods do they appeal to impact electorate emotionally; and finally which out of the three argumentative persuasion means is the most favorite one for each of them or which of them they mostly appeal.

Any type of argumentation is an attempt to impact on interlocutors, to persuade them that the thesis of a speaker (writer) is valid, and to make them to be engaged in the activities in speaker's (writer's) favor. Logos, Ethos and Pathos are inevitable components of reasoning but the combination of all of them enables a speaker successfully complete his/her discourse and achieve his/her goal.

As it is known political discourse is a specific subject of interdisciplinary study and of the sciences such as political science, sociology, psychology, socio-linguistics and other. As we have already mentioned above in the given paper we plan to review such discourse for the purpose of examining the Triad – Logos, Ethos and Pathos – as inevitable components of the Argumentation processes.

II. CONCEPTS

As we are aware Greek Philospher Aristotle was the one who wrote one of the most important works on rhetoric in 4th century b.c. after Sophists. He named the work as "Rhetorica". The gretest scientist proved that the rhetoric method was the "art of persuasion" thus "the ability, in each particular case, to see the available means of persuasion.". Persuation always means to prove something. According to French linguist, Michel Meyer said rhetoric is "the analyses of connection of means and goals by help of discourse (Meyer, 1996, p.22). Thus we can say that argumentative discourse is appealed in every activity of the human being, where they deal with decision-making and sharing, or acceptance of ideas.

Starting from Aristotle (4th century b.c.) to Chain Perelman (Second part of the 20th century a.d.) analyses of argumentation in discourses, or in other words argumentative analyses aim at describing and explaining of all those means and methods, by help of which the discourse of a writer or a speaker endeavors to impact on audience (Amossy, 2000, p.1). Thus the paper studies the force of word, internal consistency of the message in a specific communication situation, where it is exclaimed or in the other words, in specific institutional, social and cultural strata.

The goal of argumentative writing is to persuade an audience that the ideas of a writer are valid, or more valid than someone else's. It consists of three important inevitable components: Logos, Ethos, and Pathos. For the first time the three elements of argumentation were presented by Aristotle.

Argumentation is effective when a speaker or writer manages to back up his or her claims in a way to impact on readers to change their opinion and make them act in writer's (reader's) favor. Argumentation is not a demonstration to dictate one's will. Speaker needs inductive and deductive proofs to defend own thesis, to convince interlocutors and to impact on them (Dokhturishvili, 2005).

Logos is a very important for argumentative judgment as one of the dimensions of persuasion. Logos means persuading by the use of reasoning which includes critical cognition, analytical skills, good memory, and purposeful behavior, which is the most important argumentation. For Aristotle Logos is rationale, logical and argumentative discourse.

As to the Ethos, it means convincing by the character of an orator (speaker), which leads to persuasion (according to Chain Perelman orator is the one who exclaims verbal discourse and even the one who does it in the written way). Ethos is a style of a speaker by help of which he or she appeals to and tries to attract the attention of audience to earn their faith. Ethos refers to the trustworthiness or credibility of the writer or speaker. If the speaker is persuasive the audience follows him or her. In his discourse Aristotle calls Ethos the face of the orator which would impact on audience by words, in other words it is a "face created by the discourse". This is conditioned by the fact that the orator earns the credibility only in case if his or her arguments are competent, reliable, fair and frank. Also, argumentation is successful when it appeals to the audience with solidarity, engagement and goodwill (Amossy, 2000, p.60-62).

The impact of ethos is often called the argument's 'ethical appeal' or the 'appeal from credibility. French linguist Dominique Maingueneau, describes Ethos as follows: "Orator's Ethos is related with his/her speech and the role that corresponds to his/her discourse but not the individual" (Maingueneau, 1993, p.66).

We need to say that we tend to believe people whom we respect, someone who is likable and worthy of respect. Ethos is composed of correct attitudes, respect, favor and which is very important, ethics. Thanks to this component of argumentation discourse becomes much more persuasive. According to Ruth Amossy (second part of 20th century) one of the most popular scientists and linguists, there are two types of Ethos: Preliminary Ethos and Discourse Ethos. Preliminary Ethos is what the audience preliminary knows about the speaker (writer), in other words, what it knows about speaker's authority, marital status and social status. Some orators attempt to ground on it and use such Ethos in his/her favor during a discourse, in case if it is positive. But in case if the Preliminary Ethos is negative the speaker does his/her best to revoke such an impression of people on him/her. As to the Discourse Ethos, it is the Ethos created immediately for the specific situation and during the discourse (Amossy, 2000, p.63).

Pathos is directly linked with an audience. Audience is a collective subject of speakers on which an orator tries to impact by own argumentation. Thus having audience is one of the necessary conditions for communication. In Aristotle's book «Rhetoric »Pathos is the power with which the writer's (speaker's) message moves the audience to his or her desirable emotional action. Thus a good orator should know for sure which emotion would effectively impact on audience considering their social status, age and other features. It is important to know not only how the orator can express but how he or she can by help of discourse cause favorable emotions, like anger, insult, empathy, fear, confusion, etc. (Amossy, 2000, p.178).

As it is known, one of the chapters of Aristotle's book named "Book II" is dedicated to the topic, which reviews emotions in three aspects: in which condition the audience experiences emotion, towards which categories they are sensitive and what is its motivation. Summarizing the abovementioned topic we need to say that knowing people's emotions tremendously facilitates us to act with words, to earn their credibility and faith.

Pre-election campaign discourse differs from other discourses by the following: during pre-election periods the discourses of politicians and the disposition of their personality are the subjects of the greatest attention. Presidential candidates should persuade electorate in validity of his/her position and make the audience to move to his/her favorite decision or action for supporting the candidate in future. Politician has as more chance to win elections as argumentative and persuasive is his/her discourse. According to Patrick Charaudeau "to impact on audience with words means change its existing mental status" (Charaudeau, 2005, p.16). That is why in pre-election period every politician absolutely tends to use argumentation, or in other words, as Aristotle says, different strategies of the art of persuasion to achieve the favorite goal. For achieving the goal an orator should take into account and consider the values, opinions and faith of the audience to which he/she appeals to. Thus argumentative discourse is always conditioned socially and culturally.

III. Corpus And Research

As we have mentioned above, we have selected as a corpus for research the pre-election discourses presented by Jacques Chirac, the presidential candidate of 2002 elections and Nicolas Sarkozy, the presidential candidate of 2007 elections to the wide audience of electorate in France. The first discourse took place in the city of Afghan and the second one in Nice, France. We looked for the French language materials on an official website – www.elysee.fr

Nowadays political discourse is very urgent and polyhedral phenomenon and is a subject for study and research for many scientists. We mostly review it from the linguistic point of view in the given article. In particular we analyze the linguistic methods, which are used by politicians to convey the three components of argumentation – Logos, Ethos and Pathos. On the first stage of the study we separately analyzed the discourses of Jacques Chirac and Nikolas Sarkozy. We performed lexico-metric analyses which considered statistical examination of the corpus. We also made discourse and argumentative analyses in result of which we highlighted linguistic markers characteristic for each politician which from their side once and for all serve to conveying of Logos, Ethos and Pathos. Finally we compared those two discourses and the linguistic markers used by the authors to view what was the difference and the resemblance between them.

Among the linguistic markers that consist of grammatical and Stylistic units construction the discourses from the point of view of argumentation we have highlighted as follows: Deictic (indexical) words: Personal pronouns -"I", first person, singular; "We", first person, plural; Possessive pronouns - "My", first person, singular; "Ours" - first person, plural; and the indefinite pronoun "one"; In addition: *Rhetoric question* and stylistic techniques: revision; comparison;

citing; allusion and irony. Also we need to mention phrases expressing feelings, addressing and the words phrases describing common values.

Thus the given article aims at revealing how often each abovementioned politician convey the Logos in his discourse, or in other words to see in how logical, rational, critical and analytical way they respond to existing plural problems. We also review how effectively the orator presents himself; impacts on audience; and appeals to its emotions.

According to Jean-Michel Adam, one of the greatest scientists: "Argumentative effectiveness is not defined by own self, it is the process of selecting corresponding attitudes and words for argumentation, and the search for the form of discourse. […] The form of discourse speech indicates to the coherence and the unity of speakers own values and ideology" (Adam, 2011, p.101-102).

In the city of Afghan, France, the pre-election discourse presented by the presidential candidate Jaques Chirac is constructed as a logical and persuasive speech. The politician dearly conveys plural problems related with environment and pollution, and the reasons causing them all over the world. In result he analyses actual data and informs people on future plans of the Government, which is part of his campaign and considers the strategies of overcoming of all existing problems by help of participation and support of the population. The speaker uses different linguistic means for his purpose to persuade the audience (the mentioned linguistic means will be discussed below). His discourse is logical as he uses linguistic links such as: *initially, later* and *finally*. Make use of such types of links is important for argumentative discourse of any type. According to Amossy: "Linguistic links are directly connected with argumentative analyses as to the linking function argumentative linking is added" (Amossy, 2000, p.159).

Like the discourse of Jacques Chirac the pre-election discourse presented by Nicolas Sarkozy in Nice is constructed in logical and persuasive way. But his speech is much more extensive and combined with the elements that signify the Ethos of the orator, there are many methods expressing Pathos as well though. During the whole discourse Sarkozy underlines his advantages against the other party representatives referring to differing views by which he tends to persuade the electorate in his expertise and thus them to vote for him. In addition Sarkozy reveals all those problems which the whole France and the French people are worried about. They are the problems of the young generation, social security, etc. He presents to the electorate some methods of problem solution, which is the main component of his presidential program.

Jacques Chirac appeals to different linguistic means including Ethos for better presenting his personality. First of all we have to underline that this presidential candidate uses singular first person pronoun "I" less (50%) than plural first person pronoun "we" (70%) as a deictic. As to the singular possessive first person pronoun "my" deictic, he never uses it. Still we come across to the plural possessive first person pronoun "our" as a deictic in his discourse quite often.

Deictic is a grammatical unit that has a linguistic function. According to Dominique Maingeneau deictic is an adjective relating to, or denoting a word or expression the meaning of which is dependent on the context in which it is used (Maingeneau, 2006, p. 22-23). In our case we should take into account the situation in which the discourse speech was presented and note that the first person deictic "I" serves to present the speaker's personality in a positive way. For exemple:

Je veux que les technologies de l'énergie deviennent un volet essentiel de la grande politique.
"I wish power technologies to become the main direction of politics".

Using the abovementioned deictic the politician underlines that he is aware of the issue and is sure in his own capability to solve the problem. Thus he is eager to present himself as a strong personality, who is ready to overcome all difficulties and complexities. For example, he says:

Je ne méconnaissais pas ces difficultés ; C'est un combat que je mène sans relâche dans toutes les instances.
"I am aware of all these complexity"; "This is an uncompromising struggle which I carry out at all instances".

As we have already mentioned the personal pronoun plural deictic "We" and the possessive pronoun plural deictic "Our" are intensively used in Jacques Chirac's discourse instead of "I" and "My" and it enables the speaker to identify himself with the audience and to impact on their emotions. Thus by using the personal pronoun plural deictic "we" the politician considers the government, population and the current audience as a whole body. Thanks to this method Jacques Chirac tries to earn more respect and trust from people and show them that he, as a future President is ready to lead the country together with them. He says:

Ni les lenteurs, ni les dangers ne doivent nous décourager d'agir.
"Neither slowness nor any danger should hamper us in our activities."
C'est notre responsabilité à l'égard de nos enfants.
"This is our responsibility for our children."
L'Environnement est l'une des grandes exigences de notre temps.
"Protection of environment is one of our main demands."
Nous savons que notre santé peut se trouver affectée par des expérimentations déirantes.
"We know that our health could be damaged in result of some unreasonable experiments."

Nicolas Sarkozy on opposite, mostly uses the first person pronoun singular deictic "I" (90%), through which he informs the population that he is aware of negative sides and the mistakes made by the of the government. Thus Sarkozy wants to convince his citizens in necessity of fulfillment of his presidential program. He attempts to persuade

the audience that he is an authority on the subject and his future plans are trustworthy and presents himself as a strong, competent, reliable and serious leader, who should be elected by the citizens of France. He says:

Je veux tout assumer. Rien, ni personne ne m'en fera dévier.

"I am ready to take the responsibility; nobody is able to make me sour the road."

...C'est pour cela que dans cette campagne je veux parler à tous les Français.

". . . That is why I wish to talk to each French man during my campaign."

Je veux vous dire combien je suis heureux de me retrouver une fois de plus parmi vous.

"I am happy I am standing next to you."

Je souhaite une véritable révolution des mentalités.

"I am fighting for the mental revolution."

Sarkozy almost never uses the first person pronoun plural deictic "we" and he uses indefinite pronoun "on" only twice under which he means the activity of his team:

Pour la première fois depuis 30 ans, on parle de morale dans une campagne électorale.

"For the first time during the last 30 years I am speaking about the morality of some election campaigns . . ."

We can say as well that comparing with Jacques Chirac Nicolas Sarkozy is often using the possessive pronoun singular deictic "my" while the possessive pronoun plural deictic "our" is not used by him in his discourse at all. Thus he once again underlines the superiority of his personality. He says:

C'est ma conception. "It is my concept" .

Ma conviction est qu'un homme politique responsable est toujours du côté des victimes et qu'un homme politique qui prend le parti des délinquants est un irresponsable.

"To my opinion, responsible politician almost always stands next to victims, but the politician who stand next to the criminals in irresponsible."

All forms of auto-dialogue (the term "autodialogisme" belongs to the French Linguist Jacques Bres) when author conducts dialogue with his own words is conveying Ethos and underlines the strength of the author and sense of his responsibility:

Je l'ai dit a la jeunesse. "I told it to the young generation" .

Je le dis comme je le pense. "I say it as I understand it".

It should be mentioned that in their discourses Jacques Chirac and Nicolas Sarkozy mostly use linguistic strategies, which emotionally appeal towards the audience. It indicates that they use argumentative Pathos as well. As we have mentioned above Pathos is important for carrying out successful argumentation and for impacting the audience by appealing to its emotions. Emotional appeal can effectively be used to enhance an argument in political discourses. According to Walton: "Emotional appeal is legal and it has an important role in persuasive dialogues." (Walton, 1992, p. 1)

The references made by Jacques Chirac and Nicolas Sarkozy do indicate on existing of Pathos in their discourses:

Monsieur le maire, monsieur le président du conseil régional, mes chers amis.

"Mr. Mayor, Mr. Regional Council President, My dear friends ..." (Chirac).

Mes chers amis. "My dear friends ..." (Sarkozy).

Such forms of references used at the beginning of discourse is addressed to the audience and they attract their attention from the very beginning as orators underline their immediate relationship with people. It is a remarkable fact that emotional phrases emotionally affect audience. From the very beginning of his discourse Jacques Chirac pronounces the phrases, such as:

Dans cette magnifique région d'Avranches ... comment ne pas éprouver fortement un sentiment de responsabilité? Responsabilité à l'égard de notre patrimoine historique et culturel?

"In Afghan, in such a beautiful region ... how it may happen, not to feel strong responsibility which we need to take for protecting our historical and cultural heritage."

Nous avons le sens dess respnsabilites. "We have the sense of responsibility".

In the discourses of Chirac and Sarkozy it is characteristic to find one and the same words used several times that add to some of the concepts more dearness and cogency and makes more memorable for the audience. They are: *environment*, the noun is used by one of the orators 18 times; and - *responsibility* - the abstract noun used about eight times. They also use one and the same word combination in different phrases:

C'est un projet pour l'homme. "This is the project designed for people."

C'est un projet de protection . "This is the project for protection."

C'est un projet de progress. "This is the project for progress."

C'est un projet de liberté."This is the project for freedom."

C'est un projet de responsabilité."This is the project for responsibility."

Nicolas Sarkozy is often using parallel constructions as well, or in other words he repeats one and the same words and phrases:

Je veux redonner à tous les Français la fierté d'être Français.

"I wish to return to each French man the sense of pride that they are French."

Je veux leur dire qu'ils auront à choisir entre ceux qui ne veulent plus entendre parler de la Nation et ceux qui veulent qu'on la respecte.

"I wish to tell them they will be able to make choice between those who do not want to speak about nationality any more but who want to appraise them at their true worth".

Je veux que la France reconnaisse sa dette.

"I wish France to acknowledge its obligations."

Je veux qu'on respecte la Nation.

"I wish each of us to respect the nation".

By using such methods orators present their positions and stress basic issues and values which are urgent for the epoch. As Perelman says: "Repetition is a stylistic figure aiming at aggravation of feelings that is very important for argumentation" (Perelman, 2000, p.236). According to Amossy "Correct selection of words adds some weight to argumentation. Despite the feeling that the words are less important and/or unnoticed they are always addressed to a target group and one needs to put it in within the interactive frame" (Amossy, 2000, p.144).

Sarkozy often appeals to comparisons for emotional impact on population. In other wards based on actual data, related to the existing situation in his country he negatively characterizes almost all his opponents and talks about his advantages against them:

Il n'y a pas une histoire de France de droite et une histoire de France de gauche comme le croient le Parti socialiste et le parti Communiste.

"There is no Right French history and Left French History as the Socialist and Communist Parties think. . ."

Le Président de la République ce n'est pas le chef d'un parti, même s'il est issu d'un parti. Ce n'est pas le chef d'une majorité, même s'il y a une majorité présidentielle. Ce n'est pas le Président de la droite, de la gauche ou du centre.

"President of Republic is not a leader of a party, despite the fact which party he represents. He is not the leader of majority despite the fact that there is a parliament majority in there. He cannot be the President of Rights, Leftists or Centrists only."

Le Président de la République c'est le Président de tous les Français.

"The President of France is the President of all French people".

In his discourse Sarkozy often uses the stylistic technique which directly   appeal to emotions and feelings of an audience. According to Amossy "The main goal of Rhetoric is to affect feelings or persuasion purposes and each stylistic unit may affect in some way" (Amossy, 2000, p.144). In Sarkozy's discourse we mostly come across the stylistic technique, such as: Citing, Allusion, Irony.

Thus when the Sarkozy addresses young generation he cites the words of Antigone (Sophocles). By using this technique he attempts to enhance emotionality and trustworthiness to his speech. According to Perelman "Citing is a figure (unit) of communication (figure de communion), thanks to which orator brings proofs from respectful persons to enhance his own position; to impact on reader's (listener's) emotions and to share their feelings (Perelman, 2000, p. 240)." Sarkozy says:

Quand il n'y aura plus qu'une toute petite partie de la jeunesse qui comprendra ce qui signifie la phrase d'Antigone: « je ne suis pas venue pour partager la haine, mais pour partager l'amour"», nous n'aurons pas préparé une société de l'amour mais une société de la haine.

"If only a small part of young generation hears the words of Antigone - "I came here to share love but not hatred" - then we will get abhorrence society instead of loving society".

We come across allusion in Sarkozy's discourse as well. According to Perelman allusion is a figure of communication as well: "We come across the allusion when the interpretation might be incomplete in case if we did not know the referent to which the author indicates without naming him/her; It could be any event which took place in the past or a cultural fact, which is kknown for the group of people with whom the author strives to share information with" (Perelman, 2000, p.239). For example:

Je veux leur dire que le 22 avril et le 6 mai, ils auront à choisir entre ceux qui ne veulent plus entendre parler de la Nation et ceux qui veulent qu'on la respecte.

"I would like to tell them that on April 22 and May 6 they should make a choice between them who do not wish to talk about nation and who wish to respect nation".

Je veux dire aux Français que le 22 avril et le 6 mai, ils auront à choisir entre ceux qui sont attachés à l'identité nationale et qui veulent la défendre et ceux qui pensent que la France a si peu d'existence qu'elle n'a même pas d'identité.

"I would like to tell French people that on April 22 and May 6 they should make a choice between those, first, who values the national identity and wishes to protect it and the second, who think that France has a short life and it has no identity."

Thus the orator indirectly indicates to the opponent parties, underlines their negative sides and at the same time he indirectly mentions his own team and estimates them in a positive way.

Nicolas Sarkozy appeals to Irony a lot that is called as a *trope* in Rhetoric. This is a technique used by an author to say the opposite of what he wishes to be heard by the addressees (Charaudeau, P. & D. Mainguaneau, 2002, p. 330). For example, Sarkozy says the following:

Voilà ce que j'appelle la faillite morale d'une certaine gauche!
"This is what I call moral failure of certain Leftists".

"Une certain gauche" – Certain Leftists – This is how Sarkozy nominates the opponent party in the following several parallel syntax constructions and that way he diminishes the meaning of their activities.

As to the rhetoric question, Sarkozy successfully appeals to it in his discourse. For example:

Quels éducateurs serons-nous si nous nous laissons aller à ces petites lâchetés? si nous apprenons à nos enfants que l'âge excuse tout?

"What kind of educators we are if we do not forbid the young generation to conduct those minor mean behaviors? Are we going to teach the youngsters that they are forgiven due to their age in any case whatever they do?"

We see that Nicolas Sarokozy expresses regret towards the situation which dominates in the country and against which he fights. He addresses people and demands for the corresponding reaction from them. It is a way of certain anticipation in people's reaction and the attempt to impacting on them. According to Meyer "Rhetoric question always considers both, the one who asks the question and who answers the question. In other words it is just a question; while asking such question we quest the image, social differences, the issue of inappropriate attitude towards the own and others' emotions." (Meyer, 200, p.129).

In result of the research in both discourses we found the values usage of which appeal to the reader's (listener's) Pathos. According to Meyer "Values are emotions (or principles) without any subject aspects" (Meyer, 2009, p.4). We need to mention the fact that Michel Meyer's works showed the meaning of emotion and its role in argumentation.

The discourses selected by us both candidates attempt to use the words and phrases expressing such concepts, which is a common value for the society. Famous linguist Philippe Breton believes that: "Appealing to values that is one of the most important ways for argumentation, mobilizes emotions and affects deeply" (Breton, 2000, p.78).

Pretty often orator does his/her best by conveying those values and elements, which she/he bases on, to present them in a way to make the acceptable for everyone. Thus "the statement of values appeal to personal emotions and the stamen of fact appeals to values." (Perelman, 2000, p.236).

The selected politicians convey their discourse in different time period, 2002 (Chirac) and 2007 (Sarkozy). Correspondingly the values differ according to the epochs. As we have mentioned Jacques Chirac values the most environment and problems related ecology all over the world. He conveys real facts and describes all activities and situation, which is urgent to be addressed in the indicated period. He states that the existing problems in that direction may negatively affect France and the whole world in general.

Here we need to note that Jacques Chirac often mentions common and collective values that indicate to the unity and close relation with people which at the same time conveys Pathos. In his discourse the presidential candidate expresses dissatisfaction related to many issues existing in the world in general and sates that it is necessary to provide changes everywhere. He says:

C'est l'efficacité et la responsabilité collective.
"It is effectiveness and collective responsibility".
Ce sont ces principes, ces valeurs qu'ensemble nous allons faire gagner demain.
"These are the principles and values, which we need to win tomorrow".

For Nicolas Sarkozy French republic, people and identity are the most important values. Almost in each paragraph of his speech Sarkozy stresses on abovementioned concepts. He directs the whole discourse to the issues faced by French people and to his future plans for solution of those issues. By doing it Sarkozy strives to deepen the electorate's love towards the motherland and to show that his main task is to care about France.

Je crois à l'identité de la France qui est faite de principes et de valeurs qui se sont forgées au cours d'une très longue histoire.

"I believe in identity of France that is comprised of principles and values"

Je souhaite qu'on ne puisse pas vivre durablement en France, sans savoir parler et écrire le français.

"I would wish that those who do not speak and write in French language could not stay in France for long".

Thus as the corpus we have researched showed that both presidential candidates endeavor conveying common values and impacting on people's emotions to earn their trust and faith to be supported during elections by them.

IV. CONCLUSION

In conclusion we should say that in the political discourses of Jacques Chirac and Nicolas Sarkozy we attempted to reveal all those linguistic markers and means, which serve to express the Triad of Argumentation: Logos, Ethos and Pathos. Thanks to the Triad the discourses become more argumentative and it is very important for understanding messages and impacting on audience.

We found out that both political discourse are logically constructed and ideologically correct. We should also note that both candidates use one and the same linguistic means for presenting themselves. By using personal and possessive pronoun deictic they reveal their Ethos, but Nicolas Sarkozy appeals to those elements more often. As to the Pathos or in other words, emotional appeals, the difference is that Jacques Chirac, mostly conveys phrases expressing emotions, addresses, repetitions and stresses on values, but Nicolas Sarkozy in addition to all abovementioned appeals to comparison and to some stylistic techniques as well.

It needs to be noted that the discourses analyzed by us were successful for both of them, Jacques Chirac won in 2002 and Nicolas Sarkozy won in 2007 in the presidential elections in France. Both of them had achieved the goals successfully during their discourses.

In future studies we plan to compare pre-election campaign discourses of Nicolas Sarkozy and Francois Oland carried out in 2012 as we suppose that to analyze political discourse of the same period will be even more interesting.

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Language Education and Youth Empowerment: A Linguistic Strategy for Achieving Nigeria's Millennium Development Goals

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Abstract—Language education is being considered in this paper as a veritable weapon or tool for youth empowerment. The author examines the contributions of Applied Linguistics to the realization of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Particular attention is paid to Nigeria's National Policy on Education, specifically theNational Language Policy and its implementation strategies. The essence of this approach is to ascertain whether or not these policies have any sound philosophical orideological basis, and also whether or not there are pragmatic strategies for achieving the goals,especially that of youth empowerment. The paper posits that the education sector of the Nigerian society is supposed to be a very fertile ground for the generation and cultivation of new intellectual ideas, concepts and practices that can be applied to address the MDGs. To support this assertion, the author examines the documents on theNational Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS), and the State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (SEEDS). It was found that Education For All (EFA) goals - aspects of MDGs- are laudable but their achievement is fraught with some intractable problems. Crafting philosophically sound policies isone thing but implementing them religiously is a different ball game. The author therefore proposessome linguistic strategies termed "Linguistic Andragogy" as a way out for effective youth empowerment.

Index Terms—language education, linguistic andragogy, youth empowerment, millennium development goals, onomastics/onomasiology, ethnography of speaking, acculturation, linguistic right

I. INTRODUCTION

Empowerment is defined as the process whereby people are endowed or given the power and the opportunity to improve themselves in order to contribute to positive change (Olaoye, 2005). It can also be defined as a process of challenging the dominant power structures that may inhibit or hinder one's personal growth and advancement in the society, in order to gain recognition, control, and power. Empowerment takes many and varied dimensions, which include activities like individual self-assertion, self-improvement, collective bargaining or resistance, in order to challenge existing power relations. Self-empowerment takes varied forms, such as education for social uplift, apprenticeship for job or occupational advancement, usurpation through domination and force. Our concern is how the youth can be empowered in order to be able to contribute to community and national development. But who are the peopledescribed as the youths? Theyouths are those who fall between the age bracketof the adolescents and the aged, that is from teenageup to the forties.

A. Attributes of the Youth

What are the attributes or characteristics of the youth? The youths, whether male or female, form the most formidable, energetic work force of any nation, hence they are regarded as the life-wire of the economy of any country. They also form a large percentage of the students in our tertiary institutions. The youths constitute a big percentage of teaching workforce and the National Youth Service Corp membersin Nigeria. The youths serve a nation in many capacities, for instance, as teachers, guidance counsellors, factory hands, farm hands, tradesmen and women, professionals in variousfields, social workers, office workers or civil servants, politicians, spiritual leaders, military men and women, private sector engines of growth, media practitioners and vanguards of democracy, and unfortunately as armed robbers, cultists, prostitutes, drug addicts, examinations malpractice culprits, religious bigots, 419ners, economic saboteurs, and so forth. it is really unfortunate because these negative attributes are the consequences of the many years of neglect of the youths by successive governments who have failed to sufficiently empower the youths.

B. Empowering the Youth through Education

Education is the most fundamental and important tool for youth empowerment, which in turn is a catalyst for social justice, equity, individual growth and national development. Education is a weapon for the uplift of the under-privileged, the marginalized, the un-informed and the oppressed in the society. The culture of reforminitiated by the previous and present administration is to engender sustainable change in the society. This change is to be engineered through our education institutions. This is one of the Millennium Development Goals that runs through the National Economic

Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) at the federal level,and the state Economic Empowerment Strategy (SEEDS) at the state level (NPC 2004). These reforms are to be carried out through education (UNESCO 2005). Different types of education programmes for the empowerment of the youths have been designed. We have citizenship education, human rights education, peace education, vocational or entrepreneurship education, computer education and language education.

The objective of education in general is the improvement of the intellectual capabilities of the beneficiaries or the acquisition of some essential skills, and a further elevation of the persons from the position of low value or status to one of higher value and recognition (Lassa, 1996). The various fields under general education will further empower the youth become well exposed, rational in thought and action, critical, sensible and responsible.

C. National Policy on Language Education

Since education is given or delivered through language, either in the Mother Tongue (MT) or in English Language, or whatever, the role of language in youth empowerment cannot be over-emphasized. Language is the vehicle through which knowledge is imparted; and knowledge is power. One of the cardinal points in (NEEDS) is education, and language education is a key tool and a bridge to the future. Mother Tongue education is a weapon for the empowerment of the child and the youth. Through MT the youths are introduced to their culture. It is a mark of identity. Language in general is a tool for national and global integration and sustainable democracy. It is a tool for actualizing human ingenuity and creativity.

Language education is as old as formal (Western) education in Nigeria. The 1926 Colonial Education Ordinance (CLO) can be said to be the first milestone in language education. It was however the 1952 and 1954 primary school syllabus for the Eastern and Western Regions of Nigeria that really emphasized the study of Nigerian Languages. Provisions were then made in the syllabi for Igbo and Efik in the Eastern Region, while Yoruba was for the Western Region, and Hausa for the Northern Region. These syllabi formed the foundation upon which the 1981 and the 1998 revised National Policy on Education was laid.

The multilingual and historical experience of colonialism has had a major impact on language education policy in West Africa, particularly Nigeria. In most part of Africa, a persistent theme of national education meetings has often resulted in the utilization of African (Nigerian) languages as media of instruction in schools. The advantage derivable from this fact is that African Languages and tradition constitute the indispensable foundation of any educational and cultural advancement in Africa.

The principle of Mother Tongue education is closely tied to the education objective of cognitive development, and this is another millennium development goal for the youth. MT education has beenstrongly recommended by UNESCO, to the effect that every effort should be made to provide education in the MT.The role and importance of indigenous languages in Nigeria's education system cannot be over-emphasized. In other climes, children from developed countries explore their own natural environments, and communicate in their native languages, thus acquiring, at a very early stage, self-confidence, resourcefulness, creative reasoning and adaptability skills necessary for further physical, emotional and intellectual development. Teaching both the pupils and the youth three main Nigerian languages will also enable them know their cultures, and to respect other people's ideas and opinions, people's values and beliefs. Since indigenous languages transmit and preserve the people's culture, education given through MT is bound to produce children and youth with moral finesse, a sense of responsibility and the right attitude to life, thus making children and the youths shun ethnocentrism or cultural stereotypes and biases.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Linguistic Andragogy

Linguistics studies, both theoretical and applied are a good source of youth empowerment. Linguistics studies prepare the youth in the art of communication. Performance in spoken language defines man's personality. Articulate youths always invariably win the hearts and respect of their hearers or listeners. Empowerment through languageeducation promises the youths an escape from both economic poverty and oppression. It promises greater social prestige, job mobility and a better future prospect. These are some of the Millennium Development Goals envisioned by government for the youths.

Empowerment struggles begin at infancy during the child's language acquisition period. The various stages of language acquisition – preverbal babbling stage, holophrastic, telegraphic and the semantic stage prepare the child for adolescence and adulthood. The child's Mother Tongue (MT) is the functional tool for youth empowerment. The MT has both instrumental and integrative functions. It is also used for regulatory purposes; to control other people's behaviour, through warning, persuading, dissuading, commanding, directing, threatening, cajoling, teasing, mocking, praising and reprimanding, These are the illocutionary functions of the MT. It also serves interactional and heuristic purposes. The youths with a good grounding in their MTs are endowed with intellectual, economic and socio-political arsenal of polemic war.

Applied linguistics studies, especially sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, pragmatics and anthropological linguistics, prepare the youth for future challenges in the society. These studies are capable of acculturating the youths in the art of speaking, especially public elocution skills, such as turn-taking, intercalary expressions, phatic communion and

illocutionary acts. Language education or Applied Linguistics is useful in preparing the youths in tertiary institutions to understand and master other fields of education. For instance, knowledge of linguistics and the social sciences: philosophy, philology, sociology, psychology, anthropology, geography, history, social studies, government and religious knowledge - the interplay of which results in such fields as philosophical linguistics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, anthropological linguistics, geo-linguistics, helps in exposing the youths to knowledge explosion and new world order. Citizenship education, social valueseducation, peace education, entrepreneurship education, science andtechnological education, can only be taught through language, and they are better done through the MT.

Political sociolinguistics, for instance, prepares the youths for activeparticipation in politics, as they learn the relevant and appropriateregister for politics, religion and social behaviour in their speechcommunity. They learn about linguistic and cultural taboos, such as telling lies, swearing, cursing, rape, greed and squander-mania. For linguisticand social inequality some cultural sanctions are imposed on any breach of language etiquette. Since language can be regarded as the celestialelectricity which illuminates the darkest part of the linguistically blind person, language studies in linguistics could transform the youth from their primordial barbarity or pristine primitiveness torefined men and women. From ontological point of view, the youths get spiritual empowerment through their knowledge of the language ofintercession, praise worship, prayer diction, and the use of evocative epithets. All these language studies are designed to re-brand the youth and prepare them for future task of re-building the nation.

B. Indigenous Languages and Politics

Nigerian Languages have a lot to contribute to the evolution and success of democratic culture (Emenanjo, 2004). Through a national language and literacy policy which recognizes egalitarian multilingualism, and thefull empowerment of Nigerian languages as vehicles of communication through literacy, Nigerian languages can become veritable instruments for the full empowerment of the Nigerian youths, and this makes them to fully appreciate democracy, its workings, its values and indeed its raison d'etre, as a way of life (Emenanjo, 2004).

The linguistic equivalent of the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights is the 1996 Universal Declaration of Linguistic Rights. These rights, according to Anikweze et al. (2005) are the right:
- to be recognized as a member of a language community
- to use one's language, both in private and in public.
- to the use of one's own name
- to associate with one's language community
- to maintain and develop one's own culture.
- to own their languages and cultures and for these to be taught.
- to have access to cultural services
- to an equitable utilization of one's language and culturein the media.

These rights have conferred on all Nigerian citizens, through theirindigenous languages, the right and opportunity to participate in partypolitics, express th1ir feelings and emotions through the media (Ogunranti,2000), and get involved in cultural shows, drama and exhibition of works of arts.

This truism is supported by Njoku (2004) who believes that Nigerian languages are important instruments in the socio-political lives of all Nigerians. It is in recognition of the primacy of indigenous language that the Federal Government recommended in chapter 5, part 1, Article 55 of the 1999 constitution that the business of the National Assembly shall be conducted in English, and in Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba The constitution as well as the NPE are fundamental documents that promote multilingualism Linguistic competence, indeed competence and performance in the indigenous languages can empower the youth to understand the constitution better and thus making the youthsparticipatefully in democratic politics.

C. Language, Literature and Culture

Indigenous languages, literature and culture are inseparable as tools for national development The trios are educative and humanistic resources for achieving national development The three are complementary. There is no literature without language. Literature (poetry, prose, drama) depends on words (languages). Language is the vehicle through which records of events are kept, and people's culture transmitted. In literary language, satire is an artistic weapon used in communicating ideas, thoughts and feelings about what is going on in the society. Literature, through language, humanizes, entertains, warns people of dangerous practices, ridicules people, guides administrators with historical facts, and acts as the mirror of the society. Literature criticizes such evils like corruption, injustice, nepotism, bribery, economic and political sabotage, oppression, colonialism, neo-colonialism, dictatorship, power mongering and other anti-social and anti-democratic practices.

The print and electronic media, through sensational and vitriolic language are capable of purging, cleansing or sanitizing the society of itssocio-economic, religious and political filth. Language andliterature empower the youth to imbibe the right values, and to shun anti-social behaviours.

Literature helps in improving the youths' cognitive and language skills, including their personality and the cultivation of aesthetic sense. Literature is akin to history, as it x-rays people's past history. Literature is therefore a tool for social and cultural development. For instance, through folktales, stories, drama and dance, the youths are taught to imbibe

good behaviour. Through indigenous poetry, human frayed nerves arerelaxed. Through melodic songs and ballads, youths' worries, anxieties are removed or reduced.Through odes and lyrics perturbed minds are soothed. The transmission of cultural values is done through language. The way a person speaks or writes is, to a certain extent, determined by one's cultural experience, which is in turn determined by one's level of education. Language behaviour is governed by societal norms. Any breach of language rules attracts societal sanctions. People's world view is determined by one's language and culture, hence the view proposed by Sapir (1929) and Whorf(1941)known as Sapir-Whorfian hypothesis of cultural relativism and linguistic determinism. The world is viewed from the perspective of our indigenous languages. What does not exist in one's culture has no name. Language is thus a shaper of ideas. We dissect the world through the instrumentality of our indigenous language. The youths' world view is constructed through language.

Indigenous languages have the capacity to change the society, while environment too is a social force to be reckoned with in language change. Language adaptation brings about language growth and development. Languages have to accommodate new inventions and ideas, through lexical modernization such as lexical coinage and borrowing. New words and expressions have entered into the lexicon of our indigenous languages through linguistic globalization. Man, as a political animal, has to adapt to the changing environment and language change. There is knowledge explosion brought about by the interplay of language and society. The world is fast becoming a global village through mass communication and information technology. The local languages are now being used in the teaching of science and technology including computer science, thus contributing to advancement in science, health, technology and national development. Indigenous language keyboard has been designed to facilitate language learning.The keyboard has such linguistic facilities as tone markers, diacritics,special orthographies, graphetic and graphological cues. All these are aids to faster learning of computer appreciation. The youths get empowered faster through these linguistic facilities.

D. Ethnography and Semiotics

A functional inter-relationship among language, culture and communication has been established (Ajah, 1996). He claims that communication process in any society performs three functions:

a. Surveillance of the environment. Communication informs and warns people, it discloses threats and opportunities affecting the values of the community.

b. Correlation of the components of society in making a response to the environment. It prepares people's mind on how to tackle environmental problems

c. Transmission of the social inheritance. Communication - oral and written - is used to transmit, store, preserve and sustain people's culture.

These three functions are carried out through language. Language and culture are identity markers. People cultivate a given language, and also flaunt or showcase their culture in order to show that they are distinct from other races. Dress, cultural marks, national ensigns, coat of arms, signs and symbols, including flags, in Semiotics, communicate something about a people. The ethnography of speaking or of communication differs from one ethnic group to another. Speech norms and the sanctions that go with the breach of speech norms also differ from community to another. A powerful source of linguisticempowerment of the youth is the knowledge of what Hymes (1962) calls ethnography of communication, encapsulated in the acronym SPEAKING.

The communicative competence of the youth is enhanced by their thorough understanding of Hymes' (1962) acronym SPEAKING. S: Setting (spatio-temporal); P: Participants or interlocutors; E: Ends mean objective; A: Act sequence means topic of discourse; K: Key or manner or tone of speech; I: Instrumentality, this means channels of communication (oral or written mode); N: Norms, mean rules governing speech in the speech community; G: Genres mean style used in communication. Speech is rule governed, and itsbreach can bring about war, while its observance brings peace. The youths who are well armed with this linguistic arsenal would be able to participate in intellectual discourse at both national and international for a such as the AU, UNESCO, UNICEF, Commonwealth, NEPAD, and the United Nations' meetings. This is political empowerment, an aspect of MDGs.

Language communicates thoughts, and the thoughts being communicated in language according Ajah (1996) may be aspects of the people's culture. Here lies the functional relationship in language, culture and communication. Language is therefore a perfect instrument of communication of cultural heritage, cultural identity, a weapon of nationalism, a preserver of historical and archaeological discoveries, and the chief tool for human thinking and intellectual empowerment.

III. METHODOLOGY AND DISCURSIONS

A. Introduction

The author studied the Federal Government's NEEDS document and the State Governments' SEED document and analyzed the role which applied linguistics can play.The following issues are discussed: language acculturation, bilingualism and multilingualism, Teachers' Corps, NYSC Scheme, Teachers' registration, onomasiology, and the role of the Humanities Departments in Nigerian Universities.

B. Acculturation as Youth Empowerment Strategy

The New Encyclopedia Britanica defines acculturation as the process of change in artifacts, customs, and beliefs that result from the contact of societies with different languages and cultural traditions. It is a process of social adaptation of a group of individuals. The Webster New Collegiate Dictionary (Nigerian - Webster 1981) defines it as cultural modification of an individual, or group of people through prolonged and continuous interaction involving inter-cultural exchange and borrowing with a different culture. Acculturation as youth empowerment strategy is a programme of instruction for the study of Nigerian languages as second language (L2). This programme is offered by Colleges of Education and Universities, and it involves only the three major Nigerian languages.

There are three language centers in Nigeria responsible for the language immersion programmes: Kano for Hausa, NINLAN Aba for Igbo, and Oyo for Yoruba. Students who speak these languages asMT do not need acculturation. Acculturation is a practical - oriented programme which started with the implementation of the NPE (Uluocha, 2000). It was designed to promote national integration. The objective of acculturation is to facilitate inter-ethnic understanding and national unity. The acculturees make friends, exchange views, learn the host culture and borrow some aspects of the host cultures. Through interactions they later relate with their colleagues academically, socially, economically, politically and religiously. This promotes bilingualism with all its advantages.

C. Bilingualism and Multilingualism

A bilingual/multilingual youth has an advantage over his monolingual counterpart in many respects. The multilingual or polyglot youth is also likely to be multicultural, and this gives him the opportunity of understanding many peoples and their cultures. This facilitates international engagements - travels, bilateral trade, reading of texts in many languages, migration, participation in international politics, conferences and seminars. Job opportunities are legion. Multilingualism removes ethnocentrism and opens the gate to the innermost recesses of mankind, and makes possible easy access to the cultures of the world. Bilingualism and multilingualism therefore can empower the youth in no small measure.

D. Teachers' Corps

For the youths who are out of school and who had no training in language studies or Linguistics ,the Federal Government should establish language learning programmes in both the Teachers' Corps (a two-year capacity- building internship) and the NYSC scheme. This will afford the teacher-interns and the Youth Corp Members the opportunity to become bilingual or multilingual, and hence become more empowered. A form of language immersion programme can be organized to achieve this goal. The Teachers Registration Council (TRC) of Nigeria also has a role to play. Teachers' capacity building programmes should include the teaching andlearning of Nigerian languages.

E. Onomastics

Naming, otherwise known as Onomastics (Emenanjo 2002) or Onomasiology (Olaoye, 2007), is a tradition and a cross-cultural practice in the ethnology of mankind. Names communicate - they tell people about the origin of the namees and the namers; they provide evidence about language change, either diachronic or synchronic; they also provide information on the socio-economic and religious background of the people. Since names are words (language), and they reflect the thoughts (culture) of a people, names are a veritable weapon in the hands of cultural workers, as names can be used to trace a lost race, identify tribal allies and enemies, control human excesses, and to bring orderliness into the society. The study of Onomastics is another strategy for youth empowerment. Names, (words in different languages and cultures) whether endogenic or exogenic, contribute immensely to the teaching of geo-linguistics or linguistic geography, anthropology, sociolinguistics and ethnology.

F. Humanities Departments

The challenges for the humanities departments in the Nigerian Universities are although daunting but not insurmountable. The department of Linguistics and African Languages, University of Abuja, is making giant strides in running linguistics courses that are capable of providing students with a good language background in English, Arabic and Nigerian languages, with a working knowledge of French and Spanish. The objectives are to equip (i.e. empower) the students (most of who are youths) with a good knowledge of the main principles of current linguistics theories and practices, to train them to be able to apply the knowledge and skills acquired to language-related tasks and problems, particularly in their own environment, and to prepare them for further studies in the discipline and relevant careers in teaching, administration, the media and social engineering. The department, through teaching, research and community services in linguistics and language-related areas, has been contributing her quota toward the realization of Nigeria's MDGs.

IV. CONCLUSION

The author concludes that, based on the valued and cherished language education programmes of tertiary institutions in Nigeria, Language Education, using linguistic strategies, as a veritable tool for youth empowerment, is capable of achieving Nigeria's millennium development goals. It was found that the Nigerian Education Policy, particularly the National Language Policy, is a very good document which is capable of empowering the youth if well implemented. Education For All (EFA) goals can be achieved if linguistic andragogy is religiously pursued. Education which prepares

the youth to take up life challenges and which provides opportunities is a veritable tool for achieving social security for the youth. Linguistic andragogy is a humanistic education system which empowers through civic and political reorientation, language acculturation, egalitarian multilingualism, social and moral rearmament ,communicative competence and ITC skills.Empowerment through language education ensures that the youth escapes from intellectual and economic poverty and oppression.Linguistic andragogy is therefore capable of rebranding the youth thus preparing them for the future task of rebuilding the nation, and achieving some of the millennium development goals.

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- Association of Nigerian Language Teachers (ANLAT)
- Nigerian Institute of Management (NIM)
- Curriculum Organization of Nigeria (CON)
- Nigerian English Studies Association (NESA)
- Reading Association of Nigeria (RAN)

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Perception and Production of English Front Vowels by Taiwanese EFL Learners

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Abstract—The study aimed to compare the perception and production of English front vowel pairs: /i/-/ɪ / and /ɛ /-/æ/ and to identify their perception-production link by Taiwanese EFL learners through minimal-pair tests. Twenty Grade 6 elementary school students in Taiwan were randomly selected to be engaged in two tests with 4 front vowels (/i/, /ɪ /, /ɛ /, /æ/) embedded in ten monosyllabic words respectively for perception and production. The results revealed that the performance of Taiwanese EFL learners on the /i/-/ɪ /pair was significantly better than that on the /ɛ /-/æ/ pair both in terms of perception and production. To be more specific, the participants perceived and produced /i/ significantly better than /ɪ /. The production performance of /ɛ / was significantly better than that of /æ/ whereas the perception performance of /æ/ was slightly better than that of /ɛ /. A positive relationship between perception and production of these two front vowel pairs was also proven. Pedagogical implications of the study and suggestions for future studies were discussed in the end.

Index Terms—front vowels, vowel perception, vowel production

I. INTRODUCTION

Acquisition of the phonetic system plays a critical role on learning L2 communication (Ho, 2009). Speakers with good pronunciation can be understood by others more precisely. In other words, non-native speakers may easily feel frustrated and be misunderstood when they make conversation with native speakers because of the lack of L2 pronunciation accuracy and fluency. Phonetic research has shown that L1 interference caused the fluency lack of non-native L2 pronunciation (Best, 1991). As for the errors resulting in pronunciation inaccuracy, they can be categorized into three types: phoneme error, stress error, and intonation error (Liao, 2006). Studies focused on perception and production of vowels and consonants have been put into practice for quite a long period of time. However, due to Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) that has been quite popular in Taiwan, teachers underscore students' interaction, communication and problem solving more than correct grammar and pronunciation. They give students great encouragement for talking in English and endure grammar and pronunciation errors. What the teachers do sounds ideal, in fact it really bring about some problems. When teachers ignore the pronunciation instruction and correction, students can't learn the native-like L2 language. Lin (1995) ever punctuated the instruction of native-like pronunciation in second language learning by mentioning "how can you communicate with people successfully if your pronunciation is incorrect?" (p.2). The importance of phonetic instruction, especially for EFL learners has received wide support among researchers.

In a nutshell, phoneme articulation is the foundation of L2 pronunciation accuracy. An experienced English teacher should be competent to identify and evaluate students' pronunciation performance. For helping students enhance their accurate perception and production of English phonemes, to examine students' pronunciation difficulties is necessary. Much research attention has been paid to the foreign accent leading to mispronouncing English words (Ho, 2009). He stated that without target accuracy, successful communication and interaction would be blocked. Fogerty and Humes (2011) even concluded that vowels contributed greater to sentences utterances as compared to consonants. Thus, for successful communication with native speakers, teachers should attempt to find out students' problems in pronouncing English phonemes, especially for vowels. A vital starting point of vowel instruction was best to use a limited quantity of vowel contrasts and then gradually requested learners to differentiate the whole scope of vowels (Celce-Murcia, Briton, Goodwin, & Griner, 2010). From many previous vowel-contrast studies, a fairly common belief is that L2 learners have more difficulties with perception and production of front vowel pairs /ɛ /-/æ/ than /i/-/ɪ / (Bion, Escudero, Rauber, & Baptista, 2006) and L2 learners went through a higher degree of overreliance on duration in /ɛ /-/æ/ than in /i/-/ɪ / (Makarova, 2010). However, whether non-native speakers from different regions also have the same pronunciation problems should be examined and confirmed. Consequently, the current study focus on students' perception and production of front vowel contrasts /i/-/ɪ / and /ɛ /-/æ/ at the syllable level (CVC).

In light of these concerns above, the purpose of the study was to compare the extent of difficulties in perceiving and producing the two front vowel pairs /i/-/ɪ / and /ɛ /-/æ/by Taiwanese EFL learners. Moreover, the separated acoustic performance of /i/, /ɪ /, /ɛ / and /æ/ on perception and production was also explored. The current study also aimed to identify the extreme natures of /i/-/ɪ / and /ɛ /-/æ/ perception-production links by Taiwanese EFL learners through minimal-pair tests. Therefore, two aspects were probed: (a) the different performance of /i/-/ɪ / and /ɛ /-/æ/ on perception and production tasks; (b) the link between perception and production performance of /i/-/ɪ / and /ɛ /-/æ/.

The present study would contribute to English phonemes teaching and learning. Many previous researchers have explored the performance of distinct vowels and consonants perception and production. In this study, it was expected that the findings would help English teachers identify more pronunciation problems and provide better phonetic instruction for students. Apart from that, students' acoustic and auditory improvement would also be anticipated to directly and indirectly influence their English communication skills. However, very little work has been conducted to compare front vowel pairs. In order to determine the difficulties with and the relationship between /i/-/ɪ / and /ɛ /-/æ/ perception and production by EFL learners in Taiwan, the study was designed to answer the following questions：

1. How do EFL learners in Taiwan perform in their perception and production of English front vowel pairs /i/-/ɪ / and /ɛ /-/æ/?

2. How is the perception of the English vowel pairs /i/-/ɪ / and /ɛ /-/æ/ correlated with their accurate production?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Acoustic Properties of English Front Vowels

NAE (North American English) comprised at least fourteen stressed vowels in which eleven were simple or vowel-plus-glide vowels (/iy/, /ɪ /, /ey/, /ɛ /, /æ/, /ɑ/, /ʌ /, /ɔ /, /ow/, /ʊ /, /uw/) and three were diphthongs (/ay/, /aw/, /ɔ y/) (Celce-Murcia, Briton, Goodwin, & Griner, 2010). Four useful dimensions they mentioned to discriminate vowel sounds were: (1) the articulation degree of vowel-plus-glide vowel sounds; (2) the articulation place within the oral cavity of vowel sounds; (3) the articulation position of the tongue; (4) the articulation quality of vowel sounds. According to their vowel categorization, based on the 'NAE vowel quadrant', five front vowels were /iy/ (high front), /ɪ / (high front), /ey/ (mid front), /ɛ /(mid front) and /æ/ (low front). Among the front vowels, categorized by the extent of muscle tension, /iy/ and /ey/ were tense vowels which could take place in both stressed open and closed syllables. /ɪ /, /ɛ / and /æ/, however were lax vowels which could occur only in closed syllables. Another acoustic feature of tense vowels was with longer duration than lax vowels except /æ/ (Reetz & Jongman, 2009).

B. Acquisition of English Vowel Contrasts

The acquisition of vowel contrasts were probed from two domains: perception and production by Bion, Escudero, Rauber, and Baptista (2006). Seventeen English Language and Literature majors at a Brazilian university took part in the study. Besides, six female native English speakers participated as a comparison group. The study involved three main experiments. In the first experiment, four front vowels (/i/, /ɪ /, /ɛ /, /æ/) embedded in four monosyllabic words which began with one of [p, b, f, s, k, g, h], ended in [t], and were contextualized in sentences (e.g., The past tense of the verb bite is _____.) were employed to test learners' vowel production. In the second experiment, a Categorical Discrimination Test (CDT), in which native speakers pronounced the words formed by the insertion of one of the English vowels into a /bVt/ frame and articulated the words at the end of the carrier sentence "This is a _____" was utilized to test learners' category formation. Third, two edited-speech continua for /i/-/ɪ /and /ɛ /-/æ/ contrasts were used to test learners' spectral quality. From the results, it was concluded that for the speakers of Brazilian Portuguese, differentiating between the members of the vowel pair /ɛ /-/æ/ was more difficult than between those of /i/-/ɪ / whereas for English native speakers, discriminating both contrasts was performed in parallel. The results also suggested that a positive correlation was found between vowel perception scores and vowel production vowels (r = .5, p < .01), implying that vowel perception premised the accuracy of vowel production.

C. The Relationship between Perception and Production of English Vowels

L2 sound perception and production resembled a coin with two sides, for the scarcity of either domains would make communication difficult and incomplete (Ho, 2009). Many empirical studies had demonstrated a close link between perception and production. One study conducted by Baker and Trofimovich (2006) was to detect how perception and production of L2 vowels were correlated and what individual differences factors might influence the perception-production link. Forty Korean learners of English were engaged in the study. Besides, ten native English speakers participated as a comparison group. In the study, six vowels (/i/, /ɪ /, /u/, /ʊ /, /æ/, /ɛ /) placed in eighteen monosyllabic words with the English bilabial plosive /b/ and the glottal fricative /h/ were used for speech perception and production tasks. The results revealed that learners' AOA (age of arrival) had a better prediction on learners' perception and production performance than learners' LOR (length of residence). One vital finding was that a strong relationship between perception and production of L2 vowels was yielded (r (38) = .73, p < .001, two-tailed). Another study using comparisons of vowel pairs to examine whether individual perceptual variation could be correlated with their different production was administered by Fox (1982). In the study, three men and three women participated as the group of speakers. Moreover, sixteen nonlinguistic subjects took part in the study as the group of listeners. Experimental materials were thirty-six pairs from the vowel set /i/, /ɪ /, /u/, /ʊ /, /æ/, /ɛ /, /o/, /a/ and /ʌ /. The analysis data revealed that such perceptual variation was associated with individual's vowel articulation features, like the height of tongue and a systematic relationship could also be observed between perception and production of vowels in the study.

However, some divergence regarding the perception-production link has been expressed. A less consistency between perception and production of nonnative speakers than of native speakers was proven by Hoopingarner (2004). Eighty-

seven native speakers of English and twenty-seven Korean nonnative speakers of English took part in the study. Internet and a computer-based instrument were used for the data collection. All of the tasks were performed by the participants in the same order. The first task was related to vowel sounds identification. These vowel sounds which needed to be identified were /i/, /ɪ /, /u/, /ʊ /, /æ/, /ɛ /, /o/, /a/, /ʌ /, /ə/ and /e/. The second task was related to word lists articulation. These listed words were *heat, hit, hate, pet*, and so on. From the study, one important finding was that for the nonnative groups, /ɪ / sound was statistically indistinguishable from /i/. It was concluded that the closer perception-production link occurred in native speakers than in nonnative speakers, due to new L2 vowel categories never formed by nonnative speakers.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Subjects

In the elementary school at which the researcher taught, there were three Grade 6th classes. Twenty students among them were randomly chosen to take part in the study. Of these twenty students whose average age was eleven, ten were female and ten were male. One additional 45-year-old male native speaker was employed to produce the stimuli.

B. Instruments

Based on the research design, there were three instruments used in the study. The stimuli, perception and production tests were administered for all participants in the study. Finally, in the data analyzing phase, paired sample t-tests and correlation analyses were used. The stimuli of the four front vowels (/i/, /ɪ /, /ɛ /, /æ/) embedded in ten monosyllabic words respectively for perception and production tests were used. The stimuli of front vowel pairs /i/-/ɪ / and /ɛ /-/æ/ were provided through minimal pairs (e.g., beat /bit/- bit /bɪ t/) to highlight the only one different phonological element for participants to perceive and produce. The perception test included forty question items. Each question item was involved in two alternatives of /i/ and /ɪ / or /ɛ / and /æ/ for participants to choose. Among them, twenty items from question one to question twenty were related to /i/-/ɪ / pair and other twenty items from question twenty-one to question forty were related to /ɛ /-/æ/ pair. Each question item values one point. Thus, the highest points that the participants could get were forty points. With regard to the production test, it included twenty question items. Each question item was involved in two monosyllabic words of /i/ and /ɪ / or /ɛ / and /æ/ for participants to produce. Among them, ten items from question one to question twenty were related to /i/-/ɪ / pair and another twenty items from question twenty-one to forty were related to /ɛ /-/æ/ pair. Each question item was worthy of two points. In other words, in each question item although the participants pronounce a word incorrectly first, they could still get one point if they pronounce the next word correctly. Thus, the highest points that the participants could get were forty points.

C. Procedures

The entire procedures administered in the study included two primary phases: perception test and production test. In the preparatory stage of the study, selecting the monosyllabic words of front vowel pairs and assigning participants randomly were required. All the participants were given the perception test for the first phase. For the perception test, twenty minutes were needed. The second phase was to broadcast the stimuli recorded in advance and ask participants to select the right vowel in each question item on the answer sheet. The production test too twenty minutes. For the detailed procedure, its overall outline was presented in Fig. 1.
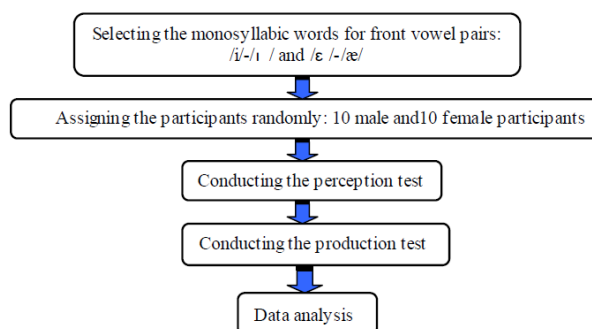
Figure 1. The procedure of the study design

D. Data Analysis

To investigate the research questions, the researcher used the statistical package SPSS to analyze the data collected from the perception and production tests. First, paired sample t-tests were administered for the perception and production tests scores respectively to see if there was a significant difference between these two front pairs /i/-/ɪ / and /ɛ /-/æ/. Second, paired sample t-tests were conducted for the perception and production tests scores to see if there was a

significant difference between /i/ and /ɪ / or /ɛ / and /æ/. Third, correlation analyses were employed for the evaluation of the relationships between front vowel perception and production.

IV. RESULTS

1. How do EFL learners in Taiwan perform in their perception and production of English front vowel pairs /i/-/ɪ / and /ɛ /-/æ/?

In order to determine the performance on perceiving and producing front vowel pairs, a paired sample t-test was administered at a selected probability level (α < .05). The data in Table 1 showed that the perception test scores means of /i/-/ɪ / (M= 16.85) was higher than that of /ɛ /-/æ/ (M= 14.60). A statistical significant difference between /i/-/ɪ / perception and /ɛ /-/æ/ perception was inspected (t (19) = 2.408, p =.026 < .05). Moreover, the means of the production test scores of /i/-/ɪ / (M= 16.90) was also higher than that of /ɛ /-/æ/ (M= 15.25). There was a significant production difference between /i/-/ɪ / and /ɛ /-/æ/ (t (19) = 3.343, p =.003 < .05). The statistical data were presented in Table 2. The results indicated that /ɛ /-/æ/ pair was more difficult than /i/-/ɪ / pair for Taiwanese EFL learners in terms of perception and production.

TABLE 1
PERFORMANCE ON THE PERCEPTION OF FRONT VOWEL PAIRS (N = 20)

Categories	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
/i/-/ɪ /	20	16.85	2.54	2.408	19	.026
/ɛ /-/æ/	20	14.60	3.89			

NOTE. * P < .05.

TABLE 2
PERFORMANCE ON THE PRODUCTION OF FRONT VOWEL PAIRS (N = 20)

Categories	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
/i/-/ɪ /	20	16.90	1.92	3.343	19	.003
/ɛ /-/æ/	20	15.25	2.95			

NOTE. * P < .05.

In more detail, to explore students' performance of /i/, /ɪ /, /ɛ / and /æ/ in the /i/-/ɪ / and /ɛ /-/æ/ pairs, scores of the perception and production tests were computed and compared separately. In terms of perception, the score means of /i/ (M = 8.7) was higher than that of /ɪ / (M=8.15) while the score means of /ɛ / (M = 7.05) was lower than that of /æ/ (M = 7.45). A significant difference between /i/ and /ɪ / (t (19) = 2.463, p = .024 < .05) was inspected. However, no significant difference yielded between /ɛ / and /æ/ (t (19) = -.954, p = .352 > .05) in the perception tests. The detailed results were presented in Table 3 and Table 4.

TABLE 3
COMPARISONS OF THE PERCEPTION BETWEEN /I/ AND /ɪ / (N = 20)

Categories	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
/i/	20	8.7	1.42	2.463	19	.024
/ɪ /	20	8.15	1.31			

NOTE. * P < .05.

TABLE 4
COMPARISONS OF THE PERCEPTION BETWEEN /ɛ / AND /Æ/ (N = 20)

Categories	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
/ɛ /	20	7.05	1.93	- .954	19	.352
/æ/	20	7.45	2.28			

NOTE. * P < .05.

Besides, in terms of production, the /i/ score means (M = 9.05) was higher than the /ɪ / score means (M = 7.85) while the /ɛ / score means (M = 8.70) was higher than /æ/ score means (M = 6.55). There were significant production differences between /i/ and /ɪ / (t (19) = 4.06, p =.001 < .05) and between /ɛ / and /æ/ (t (19) = 5.386, p =.001 < .05). Table 5 and Table 6 displayed the detailed results.

TABLE 5
COMPARISONS OF THE PRODUCTION BETWEEN /I/ AND /ɪ / (N = 20)

Categories	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
/i/	20	9.05	.945	4.06	19	.001
/ɪ /	20	7.85	1.348			

NOTE. * P < .05.

TABLE 6
COMPARISONS OF THE PRODUCTION BETWEEN /ɛ / AND /Æ/ (N = 20)

Categories	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
/ɛ /	20	8.70	1.218	5.386	19	.000
/æ/	20	6.55	2.114			

NOTE. * P < .05.

2. How is the perception of the English vowel pairs /i/-/ɪ / and /ɛ /-/æ/ correlated with their accurate production?

In order to examine the relationship between perception and production of front vowel pairs, correlational analyses were conducted. First, from the statistical data described in Table 7, a stronger linear relationship between perception and production of front vowel pairs was detected (r = .661, p < .01). However, a weaker relationships between perception and production of /i/-/ɪ / (r = .354, p = .126) and a stronger relationship between perception and production of /ɛ /-/æ/ (r = .541, p = .014) were inspected. The statistical data was revealed in Table 8 and Table 9.

TABLE 7
CORRELATION MATRIX SUMMARY OF //ɪ/-/ɪ / AND /ɛ /-/Æ/ IN TERMS OF PERCEPTION AND PRODUCTION (N = 20)

Categories	N	Mean	SD	r	p	r ²
/i/-/ɪ / and /ɛ /-/æ/ Perception	20	31.45	5.06	.661*	.002	.437
/i/-/ɪ / and /ɛ /-/æ/ Production	20	32.15	4.46			

NOTE. **CORRELATION IS SIGNIFICANT AT THE 0.01 LEVEL (2-TAILED)

TABLE 8
CORRELATION MATRIX SUMMARY OF /ɪ/-/ɪ / IN TERMS OF PERCEPTION AND PRODUCTION (N = 20)

	N	Mean	SD	r	p	r ²
/i/-/ɪ / Perception	20	16.85	2.54	.354	.126	.125
/i/-/ɪ / Production	20	16.90	1.92			

NOTE. **CORRELATION IS SIGNIFICANT AT THE 0.01 LEVEL (2-TAILED)

TABLE 9
CORRELATION MATRIX SUMMARY OF /ɛ/-/Æ/ IN TERMS OF PERCEPTION AND PRODUCTION (N = 20)

	N	Mean	SD	r	p	r ²
/ɛ /-/æ/ Perception	20	14.60	3.89	.541*	.014	.293
/ɛ /-/æ/ Production	20	15.25	2.95			

NOTE. **CORRELATION IS SIGNIFICANT AT THE 0.05 LEVEL (2-TAILED)

V. DISCUSSION

A. Performance on Two English Front Vowel Pairs

The study sought to detect the different performance and difficulties in perceiving and producing front vowel pairs /i/-/ɪ / and /ɛ /-/æ/. To be more specific, the separated sound performance of /i/, /ɪ /, /ɛ / and /æ/ by Taiwanese EFL learners was also explored individually. The results revealed that there was a significant mean difference between the /i/-/ɪ / pair and the /ɛ /-/æ/ pair. Such findings indicated that the participants significantly perceived and produced better /i/-/ɪ / pair than /ɛ /-/æ/ pair. In other words, the results suggested that for Taiwanese EFL learners, making discrimination between the members of the vowel pair /ɛ /-/æ/ was more difficult than those of /i/-/ɪ /. This result was accordant with the findings of Bion, Escudero, Rauber, & Baptista (2006) in which the difference in a correct discrimination between these two vowels contrasts /i/-/ɪ / and /ɛ /-/æ/ was highly significant. Another interesting finding was observed that more than half participants attempted to underscore the distinctions between /i/ and /ɪ / or /ɛ / and /æ/ by using vowel over-duration, especially for /ɛ /-/æ/ pair more than /i/-/ɪ / pair. The finding was consistent with the results of Makarova's study (2010). The possible reason was that learners had greater difficulties with the perception and the production of /ɛ /-/æ/ pair than that of /i/-/ɪ / pair. Therefore, they overused the duration skill of vowels. This study also aimed to explore students' performance of reception and production on individual front vowels: /i/, /ɪ /, /ɛ / and /æ/. As the results indicated, the participants perceive and produce significantly better /i/ sound than /ɪ / sound. In addition, the participants had significant better performance in producing /ɛ / sound than /æ/ sound, however the same performance was not found in perceiving /ɛ / sound and /æ/ sound. Conversely, the perception of /ɛ / was slightly worse than that of /æ/. The reason could be due to that learners should spread and lower their lips to articulate /æ/ sound more than /ɛ / sound. Thus, for EFL learners, /æ/ sound was more difficult to pronounce, but was easier to perceive because of the lip-spreading feature of the specific sound. On the other hand, the results of worse /ɪ / performance on perception and production than /i/ support the view of Hoopingarner (2004) that /ɪ / sound was statistically indistinguishable from /i/. Another direct distinction between /i/ and /ɪ / was that /i/ was a tense vowel with more muscle tension for making perception and production more distinguishable.

B. *Perception-production Link of English Front Vowel Pairs*

The study tried to explore how the perception of English vowel pairs /i/-/ɪ / and /ɛ /-/æ/ correlated with their accurate production. For confirming the exact nature of the relationship, correlational analyses were administered in detail to detect it. The results of the current study revealed a positive relationship between perception and production test scores. In other words, the positive nature showed there was a closer correlation between perception and production of English vowels, corresponding to the previous research results (Baker & Trofimovich, 2006; Fox, 1982). However, although the perception had a positively stronger correlation with the production in terms of these two front vowel pairs, the separated perception-production link of /i/-/ɪ / was weaker. That is to say, for /i/-/ɪ /, the prediction of perception on its accurate production could not be powerfully expected, directly surporting the validity of the results of research question one. However, the computation of perception-production link of /ɛ /-/æ/ yielded differential outcome. The perception and production of /ɛ /-/æ/ possesses a stronger link. In other words, students who have higher scores on /ɛ /-/æ/perception tests tend to get higher scores on /ɛ /-/æ/ production tests.

VI. CONCLUSION

For Taiwanese EFL learners, the performance on the /ɛ /-/æ/ pair was worse than that on the /i/-/ɪ / pair. That is, /ɛ /-/æ/ pair was more difficult for EFL Taiwanese learners to acquire not only in perception but also in production. For the performance on the individual sound of these four front vowels, the perception of /i/ was significantly better than that of /ɪ /. The perception of /æ/ was slightly better than that of /ɛ / although no significant difference between them was detected. The participants significantly produced more correct pronunciation of /i/ than /ɪ / and /ɛ / than /æ/. More importantly, a stronger positive relationship between perception and production of these two front vowel pairs was proven although the perception-production link was weaker in terms of /i/-/ɪ / pair while it was stronger in terms of /ɛ /-/æ/ pair.

VII. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

From the study, two pedagogical implications were provided. First, for the instruction of these two front vowel pairs, English teachers should pay more attention to teach students how to discriminate both pairs, especially for the /ɛ /-/æ/ pair. The findings of the current study implied that among the four front vowels, /ɛ / was the most difficult sound in terms of perception and /æ/ was the most difficult sound in terms of production. The instructors should notice these vital findings and involve students in the instruction about how to distinguish the involvement and the height of tongue position when perceiving and producing the vowels for successful EFL learning. Second, as we know, a positive correlation existed between English vowel perception and production. During the acquisition of the phonetic system, no matter for instructors or learners, these two language skills perception and production should be emphasized and acquired, not merely for communication goals. Instructors should duly modulate their teaching method and procedure when necessary to provide learners with more articulation practice to overcome perception and production difficulties for language enhancement.

VIII. SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES

Further researches should enlarge the sample size to detect the performance of these two front vowel pairs more precisely. Furthermore, the research scope of English vowels should contain other pairs, such as /u/-/ʊ /, or other simple vowels and diphthongs to examine whether different outcomes exist.

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Should 4th Grade ELL Students Read Aloud or Silently? Empirical Implications from Subsets of Data Taken from Two Large Databases

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Abstract—This study addresses the predictive effects of reading aloud and silent reading on the fourth grade level English language learner (ELL) children. Reading aloud was recommended as a teaching practice to develop phonological awareness, an essential skill for meaningful reading comprehension. However, according to the theories of second language acquisition, ELL children at intermediate grade may transfer their first language reading skills in English reading and they may have outgrown the intensive training of phonological awareness by the fourth grade. Therefore, I contend that silent reading is more effective for intermediate grade level ELL children to develop English reading comprehension. The quantitative analyses of data collected from two large datasets, PIRLS and NAEP, indicate that reading aloud predicts negative effect while silent reading predicts positive predictive effect on ELL children' reading performance at fourth grade. My study suggests that at intermediate or higher grades ELL children should be encouraged to read silently.

Index Terms—reading aloud, reading silently, ELL children, large database

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading aloud as a practice to develop oral fluency is recommended in the U.S. educational policy to help ELL students develop phonological awareness, which is identified as one of the major obstacles for ELL children in English reading development (Gersten et al, 2007). Because ELL students do not develop English phonological awareness naturally, practicing reading aloud is assumed to be necessary for beginning readers to establish sound-symbol relationship that will lay the foundation for cognitive processing in reading comprehension (Griffin, 1992).

However, the current US policy recommendations to improve reading instruction for ELL students were developed based on research on reading development of students who speak English as their first language (L1). In the field of second language acquisition, ELL students' reading development in English is often assumed different from the developmental pattern of English monolingual or native English speaking children (Koda, 2005). English monolingual children follow a bottom-up pattern. They develop their reading proficiency by first identifying letters, recognizing phonemes, learning vocabulary, and then they process meaningful reading comprehension using the skills that they have developed initially (Paris & Hamilton, 2009; Chall, 1996). Such pattern is seen as not a true reflection of English as a second language (L2) reading development (Johnson & Afflerbach, 1985). L2 readers, especially those who have already been exposed to their native language learning and teaching, may have developed certain level of reading proficiency in their first language. With some first language reading experience, even if ELL readers do not have a strong phonological awareness in English, they can transfer the skills developed in their first language as support (Adams 1994; Hamada & Koda, 2010).

Because of different reading developmental patterns, reading instruction effective for L1 reading is not necessarily equally effective for L2 reading development. Consequently, it is reasonable to question whether ELL students need to repeat the natural reading developmental pattern like English monolingual students regardless of their age and in particular, whether reading aloud that aligns with English monolingual children's reading development can be equally effective for the ELL students who have developed some first language literacy experience before they learn English (Jacobs & Farrell, 2001).

In contrast to reading aloud, silent reading allows ELL children, especially those who have developed some reading proficiency in their native language, to develop a sense of control and ownership by making use of their existing reading skills and background knowledge developed in their first language (Meyer, Wardrop, Linn & Hastings, 1993) and to focus their attention to content words for reading comprehension rather than every word for correct pronunciation in reading aloud practice (Gabrielatos, 2002).

Because reading aloud and silent reading have different functions when ELL students process reading comprehension, it is necessary to examine whether it is reading aloud or silent reading that is more effective for ELL students, especially those at intermediate grades who have developed some reading and cultural experiences in their first language environments. In particular, the fourth grade level is the turning point for ELL students to change from learning to read to reading to learn (Chall, 1996). Thus, to examine the different predictive effects of the two reading activities on this age group of ELL students, I raise the following two research questions:

1. Will reading aloud activity have predictive effect on the reading proficiency of fourth grade ELL students? If yes, how big is the predictive effect on ELL students' reading proficiency?

2. Will silent reading have predictive effect on the reading proficiency of fourth grade ELL students? If yes, how big is the predictive effect on ELL students' reading proficiency?

Answers to the above questions will first help offer direct empirical bases that may support, enrich, and challenge the policy regarding ELL student reading development (Gersten et al, 2007). They will also help verify indirectly the theoretical assumptions about L1 and L2 reading development and their differences by providing necessary and more reliable empirical evidences (Koda, 2007). These assumptions have been used as the important conceptual bases for the reading instruction policy for English monolingual and ELL students alike (Cummins, 1979).

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

My study is directly motivated by the following theoretical assumptions about reading development emerging from the literature of L1 reading development and the challenges from the theoretical perspectives of L2 reading development. The two research questions nested in these theoretical contentions are designed to examine directly the two reading activities based on these theoretical assumptions and also to examine indirectly each of assumptions themselves.

Reading aloud activity is seen to be critical for developing children's reading comprehension because of its potential in developing their phonological awareness. Phonological awareness is defined as "the ability to perceive and manipulate the sounds of spoken words" and it is seen to be fundamental for a child to process reading comprehension (Castles & Coltheart, 2004, p. 73). In particular, to learn to read, children need to understand how words are segmented into sequences of phonemes and the phonemic constituents by analyzing the internal structure of words (Liberman, Shankweiler & Liberman, 1989; Ball & Blachman, 1991).

In the literature of L1 reading research, the positive relationship between phonological awareness and reading is richly documented (Adams, 1990; Bryant, MacLean and Bradley, 1990; Brady & Shankweiler, 1991; Goswami & Bryant, 1990; Caravolas & Bruck, 1993; Durgunoglu & Oney, 1999). These studies confirmed that the level of phonological awareness could predict how successfully one could read in his or her first language. With this understanding of the role of phonological awareness in reading development, researchers (e.g., Nation & Cocksey, 2009; Griffin, 1992) suggested a possible link between readers' phonological knowledge and their practice of reading words aloud. As Griffin (1992) explained, when learning to read, children cannot predict the pronunciation of words in a text, and therefore to practice reading aloud is a good way to increase their "auditory experiences with the target language by exposing them to words that they would not ordinarily hear in spoken form" (p. 784).

Similar to English monolingual children, phonological awareness is also assumed important in developing L2 reading. Koda (2007) and Nassaji and Geva (1999) contended that the development of L2 reading proficiency followed the identical trend of L1 reading. The reason for ELL children who could not develop efficient reading comprehension in English was that they did not have reliable English phonological stock in the working memory that stored phonological information (Walter, 2008). With sufficient phonological stock, ELL children are capable of converting visually presented words phonologically, and this capability is one of the essential skills for L2 reading comprehension (Hamada & Koda, 2010). The above assumption of the role of phonological awareness in L2 reading development leads to the suggestion that reading aloud can be equally necessary to help ELL students learn to read effectively (Koda, 2007; Nagy & Anderson, 1999).

Such assumption can be important for younger ELL children who have no or little reading experience in either English or their first language. However, it can be problematic for ELL children at intermediate or higher grade level when they can transfer the relevant phonological awareness of their first languages to English reading, especially when both languages are in alphabetic writing system (Bruck, Genesee & Caravolas, 1997; Caravolas & Brack, 1993; Jiménez González & García, 1995). Such transfer is built on ELL children's ability to rehearse the stored phonological information subvocally in first language "as a means of silently maintaining the contents of the phonological store" useful for L2 reading development (Baddeley, Gathercole & Papagno, 1998, p. 167). Besides, the natural oral English environment also helps develop ELL children's English phonological knowledge subconsciously (Hamada & Koda, 2010). In this sense, the assumption that ELL students have little phonological awareness for their L2 reading development can be inaccurate and reading aloud activity in English only based on such an assumption can be questionable.

Another challenge for the assumption that ELL students need to read aloud first to develop reading comprehension is the misunderstanding that ELL students have little L2 reading experience in supporting their reading development and thus, they simply need to learn to read and cannot read to learn or both (Chall, 1996). This assumption again can be problematic in that although ELL students have little L2 reading experience, many, especially older ELL students, may have acquired some or even substantial reading experience and skills in their first language, which is assumed useful for them to process reading materials in L2 reading (Adams 1994). This means that like L1 children, older ELL children may also use top-down approach to facilitate their reading comprehension as their relevant first language reading skills are more likely to help them read to learn than their weak oral reading accuracy in English (Goodman, 1976). Fuchs, Fuchs, Hosp, and Jenkins (2001) posited that "the typical developmental trajectory of oral reading fluency involves the

greatest growth in the primary grades, with a negatively accelerating curve through the intermediate grades and perhaps into junior high school" (p. 242). Following this assumption, it is reasonable to question whether it is reading aloud or silent reading that is more effective in helping ELL children, especially older ones, in developing their L2 reading comprehension (Chall, 1996).

III. Empirical Literature Review

A. Reading Aloud

My review of three available empirical studies cannot sustain the relationship between reading aloud and reading comprehension for intermediate grade level ELL students.

Two empirical studies I reviewed focused on how reading aloud helped young children develop phonological awareness. The first study was based on the data collected from 659 kindergarten children who were divided into group of English only, group of bilingual, and group of ELL students. Chiappe, Siegel and Gottardo (2002), the authors of the first study, found that constant reading aloud was a strong predictor for the development of phonological awareness for all groups of children regardless of their different first language literacy backgrounds. In the second study, Lafrance and Gottardo (2005) examined longitudinally how 40 English as second language children from kindergarten to first grade classes developed phonological awareness through reading aloud. Based on multiple regression analysis of the data collected at interval from kindergarten to first grade, the authors found that reading aloud was a strong predicator of the development of phonological awareness. The only study (Amer, 1997) I found addressing higher grade level elementary school students focused on students who learned English as a foreign language (EFL). The study found that 75 sixth grade Egyptian EFL students' performance in phonological awareness in the experimental group who listened to their teacher reading aloud every day in a 50-minute class was significantly higher than those in the control group who read on their own.

In summary, my review did not find sufficient empirical evidence to support the positive predictive effect of reading aloud on the development of ELL students' reading proficiency, especially intermediate grade level students who may have developed some first language reading skills and who have the experience of being exposed to oral English in natural English environment. Thus, an empirical study involving well represented ELL population and using more standard measurement of the relationship between reading aloud teaching activity and student reading comprehension is still necessary.

B. Silent Reading

The search for empirical studies on the relationship between silent reading and ELL student reading development came with no empirical studies addressing ELL students at intermediate grade level. Therefore, I included in the review the studies addressing older and adult ELL learners, who are assumed to share similarity with intermediate grade ELL students in terms of first language literacy experience.

The review of empirical research on the relationship between silent reading and L2 reading development for older ELL students supported the theoretical assumption that silent reading helped improve ELL students' reading comprehension (Wallace, 1992). Based on the answers to a survey question collected from 43 international undergraduates studying in the United States, Constantino, Lee, Cho, and Krashen (1997) found that the amount of silent reading significantly differentiated the participants' TOEFL scores. Those who read more than 50 English books scored 613 and those who did not read English books scored 543. Silent reading was also found to be positively related to L2 vocabulary development. Kweon and Kim (2008) asked 12 second language undergraduates read three unsimplified chapter books over five weeks. Students' performance between pretest and posttest indicated 40% pure word acquisition increase, which supported the argument that silent reading had a powerful influence on incidental vocabulary acquisition. Finally, silent reading was found to be more effective than teacher-taught reading. To compare the effects of extensive silent reading and teacher-taught intensive reading on reading comprehension of seventeen 13- to 18-years-old ELL students, Al-Homoud and Schmitt (2009) divided the participants into one group receiving extensive reading treatment and the other receiving intensive reading treatment. After four 50-minute treatment each week for 10 weeks, the result showed that the extensive group outperformed the intensive group in reading comprehension. A subsequent questionnaire showed that the extensive group held a more positive attitude towards their learning experience than the intensive one.

The above reviewed studies showed a positive relationship between silent reading and English vocabulary growth and reading comprehension, which may indicate that older ELL students might be able to take the advantage of their first language experience and knowledge in their L2 reading development. However, because none of the studies addressed elementary school ELL students at intermediate grade level, it is still necessary to verify the assumption that silent reading helps ELL students at this level develop reading comprehension.

IV. Methods

A. Data Source

To address the limitations in the literature reviewed for the research on the reading development of intermediate

grade level ELL students, I draw data from two large scale databases, i.e., the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), an international database and the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), a US national database. The two databases are selected based on several considerations about their similarities and differences as shown on Table 1.

TABLE 1
SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PIRLS AND NAEP

Items	PIRLS	NAEP
Sample students' grade level	Fourth	Fourth
Sampling method	Probability proportional to size	Probability proportional to size
Identification of ELL students	Students' response to survey questions	Principal's response survey questions
Independent variables	Students' response to survey questions	Students' response to survey questions
Definition of reading comprehension	Literary experience and gaining information	Literary experience and gaining information
Score range	0-1000	0-500
Subjects to measure	Reading	Multiple
Availability of data	One administration	Multiple administrations
Analysis	Regression	Correlation

In terms of similarity, PIRLS and NAEP are large scale assessment studies providing large and well represented ELL population at fourth grade level in the United States (Binkley & Kelly, 2003). The probability-proportional-to-size sampling used in the two databases guarantee the chances of selecting a member from a smaller subgroup is more than from a large subgroup (Rutkowski, Gonzalez, Joncas & von Davier, 2010). With this sampling strategy, PIRLS secured an average sample size of 5,190 US fourth grade students in its most recent available data, i.e., the 2006 PIRLS (Baer, Baldi, Ayotte & Green, 2007). NAEP randomly selected its sampling students, and each state in US had approximately 2,500 to 3,000 students at fourth grade for NAEP reading test (NCES, 2010).

PIRLS and NAEP identified ELL student status with survey questions attached to their reading tests. The participant students on PIRLS responded to the question whether they speak a different language other than English before they start school and whether they have developed some literacy experience in their home language. Based on their answers, I identified 351 ELL students in 2006 PIRLS and used them as the representative sample in my study (Joncas, 2007). Based on the principals' response to the survey question whether the selected students on NAEP were ELL students and whether they could read in their home language, I identified about 5% of them as appropriate sample for my study (Nation's Report Card, 2009). I also construct the independent variables based on PIRLS and NAEP survey questions asking the participant students how often their teachers asked them to read aloud and read silently.

I construct the dependent variable based on the participant ELL students' reading performance, which is built on the shared definition of PIRLS and NEAP that reading is a constructive and interactive process involving interaction between readers and texts and reading is involved with two purposes, reading for a literary experience and reading for information (Rutkowski, Gonzalez, Joncas & von Davier, 2010; von Davier, Sinharay, Oranje & Beaton, 2006). The PIRLS students' average score was 500 and the NAEP students' average score was 220 (Ogle et al., 2003; NCES, 2010).

The differences between PIRLS and NAEP are also useful in helping examine the research questions. Targeting exclusively at fourth grade students, PIRLS provides a clearly defined population at this level (Campbell, Kelly, Mullis, Martin, & Sainsbury, 2001, p. 3). NAEP is suitable for long-term trend analysis because its data on ELL student reading aloud and silent reading are available for three to four NAEP administrations in a row (NAGB, 2003).

Another difference is the availability of data for analysis, which is one of the important reasons for me to include both PIRLS and NAEP. PIRLS data are open to public for various levels of analyses including regression but the sample size of ELL students is not big compared with NAEP (Mullis, Kennedy, Martin & Sainsbury, 2006). As a US national assessment, NAEP takes into account of students' ethnical and racial backgrounds based on US students' composition (NABG, 2008). Thus it includes a large ELL student sample size. But NAEP restricts personal access to its data within basic analysis. Due to this restriction, I can only analyze correlation between the selected variables and student reading performance. The use of both databases provides wider representative samples and compensates for the constraints that each of the databases may incur.

B. Data Analysis

The simple linear regression I use to analyze PIRLS data aims to examine the predictive effect of each of the independent variables on the dependent variable. The following regression equation is used to address the research questions. The null hypotheses is $Y' = \alpha + \beta X_i$, where Y' is the predicted value of ELL students' reading performance on PIRLS, α is the Y intercept, β is the unstandardized coefficient for the predictor variable calculated from the regression analysis, and X_i is the raw value for a predictor variable. The simple linear regression determines the statistical significance of each of the predictor variables of the reading activities on the dependent variable of ELL students' reading composite score in the equation. To analyze NAEP data, I examine the correlation between the two reading activities and fourth grade ELL students' overall reading performance.

V. RESULTS

My analysis led to two findings relevant to the predictive effect of reading aloud on the participant ELL students' reading comprehension performance. First, instead of helping improve ELL students' reading performance, reading aloud, no matter teachers read aloud in class or students read aloud at home, negatively influenced ELL students' reading performance.

As shown on Table 2 below based on the analysis of data from PIRLS, the coefficient output between teachers' reading aloud and ELL students' reading performance was significantly negative. The unstandardized regression coefficient for reading aloud, $b = -13.135$, $t_{(346)} = -3.314$, $p < .001$, indicated that when the participants listened to their teachers reading aloud one unit higher, their reading performance on PIRLS decreased by 13.135 points, e.g., from reading aloud once or twice a week to every day or almost every day.

TABLE 2.
READING-ALOUD AND ELL STUDENT READING ACHIEVEMENT IN PIRLS DATA ($N = 347$)

Model	Unstandardized Coeficents		Standarized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	494.357	7.704	-	64.170	.000
TCH READ ALOUD IN CLS	-13.135	3.963	-.175	-3.314	.001*
(Constant)	489.3118	9.293	-	52.656	.000
OUTSIDE SCH/READ ALOUD	-10.879	3.363	-.172	-3.235	.001*

*$p < .01$

Still shown on Table 2, the relationship between the participants' reading aloud on their own and their reading performance is also significantly negative. The unstandardized regression coefficient for reading aloud, $b = -10.879$, $t_{(346)} = 3.235$, $p < .001$, indicated when ELL students practiced reading aloud at home one unit higher, their predicated reading performance on PIRLS decreased by 10.879 points, e.g., from once or twice a week to every day or almost every day.

TABLE 3
MEAN SCORE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN VARIABLES FOR READING ALOUD IN NEAP DATA

2011	Never or hardly ever (226)	Once or twice a month (229)	Once or twice a week (224)	Almost every day (219)
Never or hardly ever (226)				> Diff = 7**
Once or twice a month (229)			> Diff = 5***	> Diff = 10***
Once or twice a week (224)				> Diff = 5***
Almost every day (219)				
2009	Never or hardly ever (224)	Once or twice a month (228)	Once or twice a week (223)	Almost every day (219)
Never or hardly ever (224)				> Diff = 5**
Once or twice a month (228)			> Diff = 4**	> Diff = 8***
Once or twice a week (223)				> Diff = 4***
Almost every day (219)				
2007	Never or hardly ever (224)	Once or twice a month (228)	Once or twice a week (223)	Almost every day (220)
Never or hardly ever (224)				> Diff = 4**
Once or twice a month (228)			> Diff = 5**	> Diff = 8***
Once or twice a week (223)				> Diff = 4***
Almost every day (220)				
2005	Never or hardly ever (223)	Once or twice a month (225)	Once or twice a week (221)	Almost every day (218)
Never or hardly ever (223)				> Diff = 5**
Once or twice a month (225)			> Diff = 4***	> Diff = 7***
Once or twice a week (221)				> Diff = 3***
Almost every day (218)				

* p<.05 ** p<.01 *** p<.00

Next, over the four years in which NAEP was administrated, ELL students who practiced reading aloud almost every day had the lowest reading score compared with those who practiced reading aloud less frequently, such as, once or twice a week, once or twice a month and never or hardly ever. As shown on Table 3 above, the participants who practiced reading aloud almost every day had an average of 219 points for the 2011, 2009, 2007, and 2005 NAEP years, which was significantly lower than the average scores of those who practiced reading aloud once or twice a week (223 pts), once or twice a month (228 pts), and never or hardly ever (225 pts) in each of the corresponding years. The differences between the average score of those who practiced reading aloud almost every day and the three average scores of those who practiced reading aloud less frequently were -4, -9 and -6 points respectively. But it should be noticed that the partcipants who practiced reading aloud once or twice a month had highest average reading score.

Based on the same NAEP data on Table 3, Figure 1 presented a general trend of the predictive effect of reading aloud on ELL students' reading performance. Paticipants' reading scores in those four years were lowest when their teachers used reading aloud practice almost everyday.
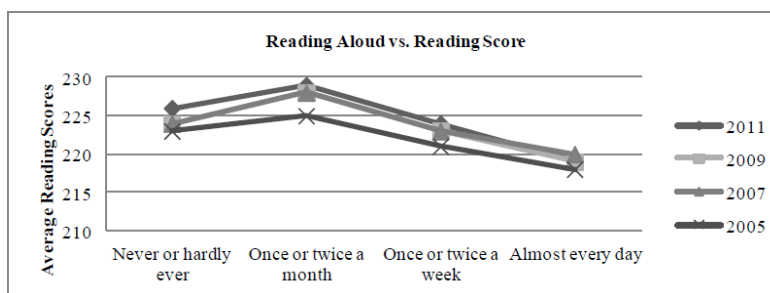
Figure 1 The trend in mean scores between variables for reading aloud instruction

My analysis of PIRLS data led to significant positive predictive effect of silent reading on ELL students' reading performance. On Table 4, the regression coefficient output, $b = 28.423$, $t(344) = 4.334$, p < .001, indicated that the more frequently ELL students read silently, the higher their reading score was. Their reading score increased by 28.423 points per unit, e.g. from once to twice a week to almost every day.

TABLE 4.
SILENT READING INSTRUCTION AND ELL STUDENT READING ACHIEVEMENT IN PIRLS DATA ($N = 345$).

Model	Unstandardized Coefficents		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1 (Constant)	551.719	8.889	-	62.065	.000
SCH/READ SILENTLY ALONE	28.423	6.558	.228	4.334	.000*

*$p < .001$; **$p < .01$

Also, based on the data over the three NAEP administrations, the more frequently the participants were engaged in silent reading, the more likely they had higher reading performance. For example, the participants who read silently almost every day had the highest reading score compared with those who read silently once or twice a week, once or twice a month, and never or hardly ever. Table 5 showed that those who read silently almost every day had an average of 221 points for the 1994, 1998 and 2000 NAEP years, which was significantly higher than the average scores of those who read silently once or twice a week (215 pts), once or twice a month (191 pts) and never or hardly ever (193 pts) in these three correspondent years. The average score differences between reading silently almost every day and once or twice a week, once or twice a month and never or hardly ever were 6, 30 and 28 points respectively.

TABLE 5
MEAN SCORE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN VARIABLES FOR SILENT READING INSTRUCTION IN NAEP DATA

2000	Never or hardly ever (194)	1-2 times a month (191)	1-2 times a week (215)	Almost every day (220)
Never or hardly ever (194)		< Diff = 5*	< Diff = 21***	< Diff = 26***
1-2 times a month (191)			< Diff = 24***	< Diff = 29***
1-2 times a week (215)				< Diff = 5*
Almost every day (220)				
1998	Never or hardly ever (196)	1-2 times a month (196)	1-2 times a week (216)	Almost every day (221)
Never or hardly ever (194)			< Diff = 22***	< Diff = 27***
1-2 times a month (191)			< Diff = 25***	< Diff = 30***
1-2 times a week (215)				< Diff = 6**
Almost every day (220)				
1994	Never or hardly ever (190)	1-2 times a month (191)	1-2 times a week (216)	Almost every day (222)
Never or hardly ever (190)			< Diff = 26***	< Diff = 32***
1-2 times a month (191)			< Diff = 28***	< Diff = 31***
1-2 times a week (216)				< Diff = 6**
Almost every day (222)				

* p<.05 ** p<.01 *** p<.001

In addition, based on the same data on Table 5, Figure 2 showed that the participant ELL students' reading scores presented an increasing trend. Those who read silently almost every day achieved the highest score.

Figure 2 The trend in mean scores between variables for silent reading
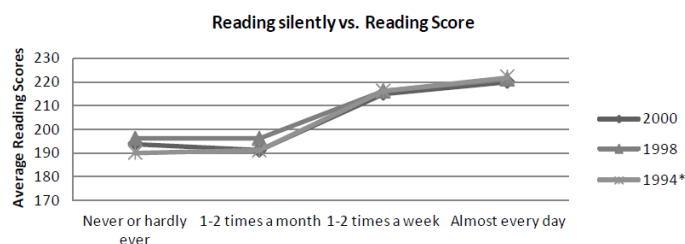
In summary, the analyses of the two large scale databases in my study generally indicated that the more frequently ELL students at intermediate grade level practiced reading aloud as recommended by the policy, the poorer they tended to perform in their reading proficiency. This pattern was consistent throughout the data in several NAEP administrations. In contrast, the more frequently ELL students read silently, the higher their reading score was on both PIRLS and NAEP. Again this pattern was consistent throughout three NAEP administrations.

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The analyses of the two relevant large scale databases help develop the following understanding about the research questions in my study.

First, based on the analyses of both PIRLS and NAEP data, my study helps understand the relationship between reading aloud and ELL students' reading performance by showing consistently and repeatedly that by the fourth grade, no matter how ELL students practice reading aloud, it is no longer useful as assumed in improving their reading development. On the contrary, more frequent use of reading aloud actually hinders ELL students' reading development.

This finding is consistent with the findings of the existing studies. For example, based on 650 children's test performance and classroom observation, Meyer, Wardrop, Linn, and Hastings (1993) found that the amount of time teachers spent on reading aloud was negatively correlated with their reading achievement because the children had already developed oral fluency at earlier childhood. It suggested a developmental trajectory of oral reading fluency for ELL students, which involved the dramatic growth in the early years but a "negatively accelerating curve through the intermediate grades and perhaps into junior high school" (Fuchs, Fuchs, Hosp, and Jenkins, 2001, p. 242).

My finding challenges the rationale behind the assumption that reading aloud helps ELL students develop correspondence between the written representation and the phonological structure of words regardless of their age and first language literacy experience (Liberman, Shankweiler & Liberman, 1989) and support that the intermediate grade level ELL students may not develop their reading comprehension by only relying on the skills of grapheme-phoneme correspondences (Torgesen & Morgan, 1990). Thus, it may support indirectly the assumption that ELL students at fourth grade level may have stored essential linguistic knowledge in their first language environment, which may help and facilitate their English reading development (Koda, 2007).

Alternatively, it may suggest that by the fourth grade, ELL students may have had continuous exposure to oral English through their several years of schooling, which means that they have developed some "auditory experience with the target language" (Griffin, 1992, p. 784). Such experience can improve their phonological loop, a component in working memory (Hamada & Koda, 2010). The improved phonological loop eventually helps ELL children develop "more reliable L2 phonological inventories" that facilitate their English reading comprehension (Walter, 2008, p. 455). As a result, frequent reading aloud practice is no longer useful for these ELL students.

Second, my study helps understand that by the fourth grade, silent reading can help improve the fourth grade ELL students' reading performance positively and consistently. This finding is consistent with a number of empirical studies that showed a positive relationship between silent reading and the improvement of ELL reading comprehension (Constantino, Lee, Cho & Krashen, 1997; Kweon & Kim, 2008; Al-Homoud & Schmitt, 2009). What's more, it extends the existing literature that only addressed adult ESL learners who had rich first language experience and higher cognitive development.

My study further supports indirectly the theoretical assumption of the reciprocity between silent reading experience and the automaticity of basic skills. Following this assumption, silent reading helps automate ELL students' lower-order mental operations within the limited phonological awareness, which means that they do not need to process simultaneously all the amount of information and interactions in their working memory during reading (Bryant, MacLean & Bradley, 1990; Bradley and Bryant, 1991; Stahl and Murray, 1994). Once the limited phonological awareness is automated, more attentional capacity is available. Thus, it is likely for ELL students to activate their reading experiences and skills developed in their first languages and to facilitate comprehensible input (Wallace, 1992; Krashen, 2004). When their first language reading experience and reading skills are activated, intermediate grade level ELL students are more likely to use top down approach to focus on text meaning while they pay less attention to linguistic and phonological information. In addition, through sustained silent reading, ELL students are more highly motivated to read, which creates a spiral effect of *rich-get-richer* (Loh, 2009). The result is the overall development of

ELL students' reading comprehension and more competent readers who are ready for reading to learn at higher grade level (Chall, 1987).

My study and its findings offer several implications for the policy makers and practitioners in reading teaching and development for ELL learners. First, the reading development for the L1 learners, younger ELL learners, and older ELL learners may follow different patterns and the resources for their reading development can be different. Thus, it is important and necessary for policy makers as well as teachers to pay attention to these differences when making policy suggestions for reading teaching for different age groups of learners. In specific, to teach reading to older ELL learners, special attention needs be paid to their already developed first language experiences, skills, and relevant knowledge for their L2 reading development as these ELL students do not necessarily develop English reading proficiency in a similar manner as their English monolingual counterparts do. Also, teachers involved in teaching older ELL students should encourage more silent reading both at school and at home.

Because of the constraints of the data in PIRLS and NAEP, my study is unable to do in-depth analyses. However, it raises questions for future studies. These questions include 1) why reading aloud is no longer effective for intermediate grade level ELL students; 2) why occasional reading aloud has the higher effects on ELL students than either more or less frequent reading aloud practice; 3) how ELL students use their prior literacy experience and skills in silent reading; 4) whether there is difference between new immigrant ELL children and ELL children who have stayed in US for some years. To answer these questions, future studies need to rely more on qualitative methods such as interviews with ELL students and class observation.

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A Corpus Study of Politeness Principle in *Desperate Housewife*[*]

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Abstract—**Since it was broadcast, the pragmatic studies of the American TV series *Desperate Housewife* (DH) have become popular. But a majority of those studies focused on Cooperation Principle and the Theory of Conversational Implication; only a few scholars studied Politeness Principle (PP). Besides, most of the pragmatic studies used the qualitative, instead of the quantitative, approach. To solve these problems, this research builds up a corpus based on Leech's definition of PP, with the first season of DH as the object, the PP as the theoretical basis. Then, the PP conversations in the corpus is researched with the quantitative method. Finally, the conclusion is reached that Tact Maxim is the most frequently used maxim while Modesty Maximis the least.**

Index Terms—**PP, quantitative study, corpus, *Desperate Housewife***

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the American TV series *Desperate Housewife* (*DH*) was broadcast, it has caught many linguists' attention. It is made up of eight seasons and each season has twenty-three episodes. As a representative of the modern American daily life with lots of conversations in each episode, it can be regarded as a plentiful corpus for language scholars to study. Therefore, to some pragmatic scholars, it is a good studying material.

Among all the relevant studies, most pragmatic scholars focus on the meanings of conversations in this series, which means, the Cooperation Principle and the Theory of Conversational Implication are the main theories in their studies. Only a minority of scholars do their researches on the application of expressions in it, which is they study the Politeness Principle (PP) in this TV series. Besides, among the minority studies, the Principle is always in a subordinate place. Nearly none of them regard the PP as an independent theory to do researches. Hence, the researches on the application of expressions in *DH* are not enough and the studies about the Principle as an independent theory are almost blank. Also, the majority of the pragmatic scholars are using the qualitative approach, seldom using the quantitative approach. As the quantitative approach is a necessary supplement to qualitative approach and also is more objective than qualitative approach; therefore, using quantitative approach to study PP in *DH* is another blank.

The PP will be the independent theory in this paper, and the quantitative approach will be used as the researching method in this study. These are also the original points in this research. But, the quantitative approach is a generalized cognition, so choosing a specific approach is more feasible in that case. Since the corpus study is one of the quantitative approaches and it is a more objective approach, the corpus study method as a specific quantitative approach will be chosen as the researching method. In conclusion, this research will use corpus study method to study the PP in *DH*.

Through the study, a statistic result of the frequency of PP used in *DH* will come out, and the result will be made a proportion after that. Finally, the objective of this research is to use appropriate reasons to explain why such results come out and to explore how often people express their politeness in their daily life in modern American culture.

When it comes to the feasibility of this research, there are several evidences. Firstly, there are lots of conversations in *DH* and those conversations can be regarded as a plentiful corpus. Thus, it can easily provide study materials for this study. Secondly, the PP is a mature theory and is has been applied in many conversations in *DH*. Hence, it is also feasible to do researches about PP in that TV series. Thirdly, there are existed some former relevant studies about PP in *DH* and about using corpus study method to do researches, though not much but enough to be the reference in this study. Finally, the statistic skill is very helpful while doing the statistic work and the proportion making work. In a word, it is definitely feasible to carry out this research.

As for the significance of this study, it has both theoretical and practical significances. In the theoretical part, this study as a part of the pragmatic study about *DH*, it will enrich this study field to some extent. Through this study, the above mentioned two research blanks will be filled and the pragmatic research areas will be broadened to some extent. Thus, it will be much helpful to know more about PP. While in the practical part, we can understand more about

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American culture and how the PP is applied in their daily expressions.

In short, this research is going to use corpus study method to study the PP in *DH*. Since it has a clear objective and useful methods, this study will be a feasible one. After the result of this study comes out, the significance of this study will be clearly presented.

II. A CRITIQUE OF PP

PP becomes important because it is a broader, socially and psychologically oriented application of pragmatic principle. (Leech, 1983, p. 80)

Brief Introduction to PP

The PP was first officially put forward by Geoffrey Leech, but the study of this principle began in earlier years. Before Leech's study, Goffman, Brown & Levinson, Lakoff and other scholars have already begun their researches.

Later, Goffman's Face Theory has been heavily utilized by Brown & Levinson (Gerard, 2012, p. 102). They divided the notion of face into two parts. One is called positive face, another is called negative face. They claimed that in doing politeness, people have both negative face needs and positive face needs (Gerard, 2012, p. 102), which means people have the desire to protect one's positive face and negative face (Sharon & Caroline, 2011, p. 120). Thus, certain behaviors are required in order to satisfy the need of people's face. "The term 'Politeness' should be applied beyond the prescriptions of etiquette manuals to cover a whole range of pragmatic strategies aimed at the reduction of fact-threats (Jary, 1998, p. 18)."

Finally, based on all the above opinions, the cognition of PP was put forward by Leech. "According to Leech (1983), there is a PP with conversational maxims. He lists six maxims: tact, generosity, approbation, modesty, agreement and sympathy. The first and second form a pair, as do the third and fourth." (Cutting, 2007, p. 49)

The Achievements and Limitations of Former Studies

Many studies focus on the meanings of conversations in *DH*. Those scholars have already studied lots of conversations in *DH*, and have found out a common phenomenon, namely, the characters in *DH* often violate the Cooperation Principle deliberately when they are in conversations. This kind of common phenomenon will produce implications while in conversations, which means the characters' conversations follow the Theory of Conversational Implication. These study results are just in coincidence with Grice's opinion, which is "the implicature is not carried by what is said, but only by the saying of what is said" (Grice, 1975, p. 58).

However, about the researches of PP in *DH*, the situation is complicated. The studies of PP are often combined with other studies, or always being a part of other researches. Only a few scholars study the PP only in their researches. In other words, since the PP was put forward originally in order to make the Cooperation Principle more perfect, many scholars take PP as a part of the Conversational Implication Theory studies.

Since the studies about PP as an independent theory in *DH* can hardly find, this research field is almost in blank now. So the problems about the PP in *DH* are still unsolved. This is one of the limitations of all the already existing pragmatic studies essays about *DH*. In addition, quite a few of the studies are using the qualitative approach, seldom using the quantitative approach. As the quantitative approach is more objective than the qualitative approach sometimes, the quantitative approach is also needed while doing researches, in order to get more appropriate study results. The two approaches will be discussed more in details later. Hence, lack of using the quantitative approach to study *DH* is another limitation of the existed studies.

Leech's Theory and Definitions of PP

The study about PP has gone through many years and lots of scholars have done researches on it. Among those scholars, Goffman, Brown & Levinson, Lakoff and Leech are the famous representatives, especially Leech, who was the first person to put forward the cognition of PP and gave the clear definition. After Leech's theory came out, other scholars also did many researches on this study field, but none of them has achieved the success as Leech did. Therefore, Leech's theory is considered as the authority of this study field now. What's more, Leech's theory is more completed than others' theories. Not only he gave better definitions in his theory but also classified his theory into six maxims which can explain many conversational situations. In a word, Leech's theory can explain conversational situations more in details than others' theories. Hence, choosing Leech's theory as the criterion to study is a good choice.

About the six maxims, they are defined respectively as Tact Maxim, Generosity Maxim, Approbation Maxim, Modesty Maxim, Agreement Maxim and Sympathy Maxim. The definitions of those maxims are as following.

(1) Tact Maxim
  (a) Minimize cost to others
  (b) Maximize benefit to others
(2) Generosity Maxim
  (a) Minimize benefit to self
  (b) Maximize cost to self.
(3) Approbation maxim
  (a) Minimize dispraise of others
  (b) Maximize praise of others
(4) Modesty Maxim

    (a) Minimize praise of self
    (b) Maximize dispraise of self
 (5) Agreement Maxim
    (a) Disagreement between self and others
    (b) Maximize agreement between self and others
 (6) Sympathy Maxim
    (a) Minimize antipathy between self and others
    (b) Maximize sympathy between self and others." (Ma, 1995; Zhu, 2012)

III. Methodology

Since the theory in this study has been discussed, the study methods also need to be mentioned. Among the researches about *DH*, quantitative approach studies are rare. So as a typical quantitative approach, corpus study method will be introduced and how to use it to do this study will also be talked about.

As the statement above, there are existing two common researching methods. One is qualitative approach, the other is the quantitative approach. In order to have a clear idea about the qualitative approach and the quantitative approach, these two approaches will be analyzed in a contrast as follows:

"The qualitative approach has been widely adopted in the study of linguistics. In the process of qualitative analysis, qualitative researches aim to study individuals and events in their natural settings. (Tetnowski & Damico, 2001) That is to say, rather than attempting to control contextual factors (extraneous variables) through the use of laboratories or other artificial environments, it is often process-oriented, or open ended.

As we can see from the above, the quantitative approach is an obtrusive and generalizable method, involving controlled measurement and replicable data, which makes it more objective than the qualitative approach. So the quantitative approach will be chosen in this study.

But, the quantitative approach is a generalized cognition. Thus, a specific approach will be more feasible in that circumstance. So the corpus study method will be a good choice. Reasons for chose this method is that, corpus study emphasizes on language data collection and analysis, which has the ability to manage and analysis the study object systematically. Thus, it can be viewed as a typical quantitative approach in language study. Besides, it is a sum of all the words which are used by certain language users. And those certain language users have some common characteristics in using their language. So the corpus study method is a good way to study those common characteristics. In conclusion, this study is going to use the corpus study method to do the research.

As for the object of this study, it will be the script of the first season in *DH*. The first season is selected randomly, which helps reduce the error and makes the study more objective. Besides, there are lots of polite sentences in the first season, which provide enough language materials for this study.

According to the corpus study method, to build up a corpus, data selecting criteria and language materials are two necessary conditions. As we have mentioned before that Leech's theory will be the corpus data selecting criteria and the script of the first season will be the study object. Thus, based on the definitions of Leech's six maxims strictly, each sentence will be read and checked to find out if it fits the criteria. Then, collecting all the qualified sentences and the corpus will be built up.

When the corpus building work is finished, the statistic work will begin according to the data in the corpus. The frequency of each maxim applied will be counted and will be made a proportion. After analyzing the results, we will find the reasons why such results come out and how often people express their politeness in modern American daily life.

In a word, in this study, the definition of the PP and the six maxims will be the criterion to build a corpus. The sentences in which PP is applied in the first season of *DH* are selected as the language data in the corpus, and those data are selected from the script of the first season of *DH*. After the corpus build up, the data in the corpus will be counted and later analyzed.

IV. Results

As we have mentioned before that we will use corpus study method to do the research on the first season of *DH* in this study. Thus, a corpus whose data are selected from the script of the first season should be built up at first. The corpus in this study will be seen in the later appendix part and its name is "The Corpus of PP in *DH Season I*".

Because the data of this corpus should be selected from the script of the first season of *DH*, the script should be studied first. As the script checking result shows, there are about 13333 segments of conversations in the script of the first season, each episode having about more than 500 to more than 600 segments. Due to the fact that the segments are not the completed sentences or conversations, they should be reorganized into the completed in order to be more convenient in doing research. Also, the reorganization work will be much helpful in following statistic work, which will make the statistic result more precise. Hence, a reorganization work is necessary before doing statistic work.

Following the above stated methods and steps, the author did the selecting data work first based on the above mentioned standard. Later, the author reorganized all those selected data into 966 conversations, and there are about

more than 30 to more than 50 conversations in each episode. Each conversation contains at least one complete sentence and applies at least one of Leech's six maxims. Then, the author did the statistic work and the statistic result can be seen as following. Table 1 shows the frequency of each maxim applied in *DH Season One* respectively, and a total number of all will also be displayed.

TABLE 1.
THE STATISTIC RESULT OF LEECH'S SIX MAXIM APPLY IN DH (SEASON ONE)

Name of Maxim	Abbreviation of Maxim	Frequency
Tact Maxim	TM	778
Generosity Maxim	GM	97
Approbation Maxim	ApM	504
Modesty Maxim	MM	3
Agreement Maxim	AgM	95
Sympathy Maxim	SM	156
Total	T	1633

After the statistic result came out, the author did the final work, which was making the proportion according to the frequency numbers. The proportion making result can also be seen in the following. Table 2 show the frequency numbers, the precise proportion result and the approximately proportion result. The approximately results will be more useful than the precise results when discussing the reasons why such numbers and proportions appear. But this kind of discussion will be discussed in the next part.

TABLE 2.
THE PROPORTIONS OF LEECH'S SIX MAXIMS APPLY IN DH

Name	TM	GM	ApM	MM	AgM	SM	T
Frequency	778	97	504	3	95	156	1633
Proportion	778 : 97 : 504 : 3 : 95 : 156						
Approximately Proportion	750 : 100 : 500 : 1 : 100 : 150						

Obviously, we can see from the above two Tables that the PP is applied in conversations of DH (Season One) very often, because the total number is large. And Tact Maxim is the most useful maxim among six maxims, followed by Approbation Maxim, which is the second welcomed maxim. Then Sympathy Maxim takes the third place. Next are Generosity Maxim and Agreement Maxim. Those two have almost the same frequency. Finally, Modesty Maxim is the least used maxim, whose frequency is much less than any other five maxims.

V. DISCUSSION

Leech pointed out that "not all of the maxims are equally important" (Zhu, 2012, p. 9), which means some maxims will be used more and some will be used less. In this study, the statistic result is in coincidence with Leech's opinion. As we can see from the former Tables, Tact Maxim is the most useful maxim, followed by Approbation Maxim. These two maxims are used much more than the other four maxims. Besides, Generosity Maxim, Agreement Maxim and Sympathy Maxim are used about the same. But Modesty Maxim is the least useful maxim, which is nearly none. Thus, we may draw a conclusion that Tact Maxim and Approbation Maxim are used very frequently when people show their politeness. Other three maxims are in the middle place. But Modesty Maxim is not welcomed when expressing politeness.

As for the reasons why some maxims are used more and some used less, we need to discuss each maxim in details.

The first one which should be discussed is Tact Maxim. Because Tact Maxim is related to benefit and cost, in order to show politeness, people prefer to use Tact Maxim to benefit others most or to cost others least. So Tact Maxim can bring people most benefits and people like this maxim a lot. That's why Tact Maxim is used so widely and its frequency is the top one in this study. The second one that would be talked about is Generosity Maxim. Generosity Maxim is also concerned about benefit and cost, but different from Tact Maxim, it considers about oneself. To show politeness, people have to cost themselves most and benefit themselves least. However, this is a kind of behavior which is against human's nature. Thus, people prefer to use it less than to use Tact Maxim when expressing politeness. In this study, the proportion shows the frequency of using Tact Maxim is about more than seven times as the frequency of using Generosity Maxim, which is coincidence with the analysis result.

The third one which should be mentioned is Approbation Maxim, which is the second most popular maxim among the six. Approbation Maxim is concerned about praising and dispraising others. It seems a nature that people like to praise by others and don't like to be dispraised. Therefore, when showing politeness, praise others is an excellent way. But if the situation is not allowed to praise, then dispraise others the least is also another good way to show politeness. That's the reason for Approbation Maxim is so welcomed by people. Then Modesty Maxim will be put forward. It is amazing that the frequency of Modesty Maxim is such low. The Modesty Maxim is also related to praise and dispraise, but different from Approbation Maxim, it is concerned about self. Normally, when people dispraise themselves, it may have the same effect to praise others. That is why that Modesty Maxim has the effect to express politeness. But

surprisingly, this maxim is used barely in this study, which means people don't like to dispraise themselves to show politeness. From the proportion we can see the frequency of Modesty Maxim is nearly none, but the Approbation Maxim is about five hundred times as the frequency of Modesty Maxim, which is coincidence with the above analysis result again.

Next is Agreement Maxim. Agreement Maxim is focused on agreeing and disagreeing between self and others. It is also a kind of nature that people like others who have the same or similar opinions, they usually don't like others who against them. Hence, making self and others similarity the most and making the difference least are good ways to show politeness. That's why Agreement Maxim is a useful maxim to show politeness. But people cannot hold the same opinions all the time, and differences are necessary sometimes. Therefore, Agreement Maxim used less than the Tact Maxim and Approbation Maxim. As we can see from the proportion, the frequency of Tact Maxim and Approbation Maxim is more than seven times and five times as the Agreement Maxim.

Lastly, Sympathy Maxim should be proposed. Sympathy Maxim is concerned with showing sympathy or antipathy to others. When others are faced with bad situations, showing sympathy can be a good way to show politeness. But sometimes, some people don't like others to show sympathy to them when they face troubles. Thus, the Sympathy Maxim is also used limitedly and less than Tact Maxim and Approbation Maxim, though it is a useful maxim to show politeness. According to the proportion, the frequency of Tact Maxim and Approbation Maxim is about five times and more than three times as the frequency of Sympathy Maxim, which is suitable to the analysis result.

Apart from all the reasons stated above, several points to explain some maxims in details should also be noticed.

Firstly, Tact Maxim occupies the most important position among the six maxims, because other maxims can be thought as part of Tact Maxim. No matter how generate to cost self's benefit, how humbly to dispraise self, how work hard to praise others, to show similarities and to show sympathy, all these behaviors are aimed at benefiting others to the most degree. Their final goals are the same as the goal of Tact Maxim. Hence, Tact Maxim is the most important maxim in Leech's PP theory and other maxims can be viewed as part of it.

Secondly, Modesty Maxim is sort of related to the cultural background. Because the western culture advocates the idea which people should not dispraise themselves, people living in western culture don't like use Modesty Maxim. But the situation could be much different if the research did in other cultural backgrounds. Thus, Modesty Maxim is not welcomed among people from western cultural background to express politeness.

Thirdly, as mentioned above that the other five maxims can be viewed as part of Tact Maxim. Thus, the identification criterion is not so clear, sometimes it is vague, which makes some sentences hard to identify to which maixm they belong, or leads to the result that some sentences belong to both standard sometimes. Therefore, the six maxims can be used overlapped sometimes.

In a word, why the frequency of each maxim is used differently is because of the benefit. People like gaining benefit the most and costing the least. No matter which maxim is used to show politeness, the purpose of using it is to benefit others the most. Besides, people in the western culture don't like to cost themselves to express politeness. Instead they prefer to benefit others the most. Though Modesty Maxim is related to culture and is not welcomed by people in the western culture, it may have great effect in other cultural backgrounds.

VI. Conclusion

Based on the above results and analysis, the objective of this research will be achieved. Reasons for why such results come out and how often people express their politeness in their daily life in modern American culture will be found. Besides, some limitations and suggestions will also be mentioned.

Findings of the Study

This research is aimed at using corpus study method to study the PP in *DH*. As the study results show, Tact Maxim is the most useful maxim, followed by Approbation Maxim and Sympathy Maxim. Then Generosity Maxim and Agreement Maxim follow and finally is Modesty Maxim. As for the result of proportion, we can see the number is about 750:100:500:1:100:150.

After viewing the results of this study, we can draw a conclusion that PP is widely used in modern American daily life. But the frequency of each maxim is used differently, because people like benefiting the most and costing the least. So Tact Maxim is used most frequently and is the core conception of PP. Modesty Maxim used the least and is related to the culture effect. Therefore, people in the western culture don't like to cost themselves to show their politeness. Instead they prefer to benefit others the most.

Limitations

This study has some limitations as follows:

First, the reliability of this study is limited. This research studies the PP only in one TV series, whether this TV series can be a representative of other language materials has not been effectively proved. Besides, only the first season has been chosen to be the study materials, other seasons are not studied yet.

Second, this is an American TV series, which means it has the cultural background limitation. The research is only used in western cultural background, other cultures may not be applied. Apart from what is stated above, this TV series is only related to the daily life conversations, whether the result of this study is suitable for conversations in other situations is not clearly known.

Third, about PP, different scholars have different opinions. But this study only chooses Leech's theory as the definition of PP, which does not include other scholars' theories.

Finally, the corpus building up work is not entirely objective. Though the criterion is strictly ruled, judge the sentences is a subjective work. Whether the sentences are suitable for the criterion or not sometime depends on personal standards. Thus, it is inevitable that the results of this study affected by some subjective effects.

Suggestions

Based on the above limitations, further studies should be done in the following aspects.

To begin with, this study can be completed by using the same method and procedure to study other seasons of *DH*. In that case, the researched materials will be enriched and the results will be more precise and complete.

Then, considering that the subjective effects may affect the final results, it is necessary to test the reliability of this study. The further studies can follow the methods and procedure to repeat the study, but the corpus should use the same study material to build up again. In that circumstance, if the result stays unchanged, then the further studies can prove the reliability of this study, otherwise, this study will lose its reliability.

Next, in order to test the reliability of this study, the study materials will be replaced by others, such as conversations in work instead of in daily life, in other cultures instead of in western culture, in websites rather than in TV series. Thus, if study materials are changed and the results stay the same, the reliability can be proved to be high, otherwise this study has a low reliability.

Lastly, the study about PP can be further enriched, no matter what the study material it is. Leech's theory is not perfect; further studies should improve it. What's more, other scholars' PP theories are not considered in this study; further studies can redefine the definition of PP and change the criterion of corpus data selected to do studies.

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Teacher-student Interaction in Novel and Poetry Classrooms in the Hong Kong Tertiary Setting

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Abstract—This paper was designed to investigate the linguistic characteristics of the teacher-student interaction in novel and poetry classrooms in the Hong Kong tertiary setting by means of the Sinclair and Coulthard Model (1975), with audio data collected via non-participant classroom observation in two Hong Kong tertiary institutions. Underpinned by the characteristics derived and a comparison undertaken, it can be seen that teacher-student interaction in the free teaching exchange of teacher elicit is in conformity with the exchange structure of IRF in both literature classrooms, to which other free and bound exchanges are complementary. However, the application of the acts varies considerably, implying that distinct learning outcomes are yielded by the different literary genres, with the cultivation of critical thinking emphasized in the novel classroom, and the understanding of technical terms and the enlargement of vocabulary stressed in the poetry classroom.

Index Terms—classroom interaction, literature education, spoken discourse analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

With a combination of both linguistics and education, classroom research has been laid strong emphasis on for the reason that "the process of learning and teaching is realized through language to a significant extent, and can be studied" (Sinclair, 1987, p.1). With the value of classroom research having been recognized, it has undergone a sustainable development which can be traced back to the late 1940's when there was "a growing interest in studies of language interaction inside the classroom" (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975, p.15), while modern classroom research came into being in the 1950s, during which teachers became engaged in investigating the constitution of effective teaching in the classroom (Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p.6). In the early 1970s, classroom discourse started to gain tremendous attention (Van Dijk, 1985). Teacher-student interaction, as opposed to the teacher-centered instruction, has been attached great importance to in language classrooms (Chaudron, 1988; Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Wu, 1993; Bailey & Nunan, 1996; Walsh, 2002), in content classrooms (Chaudron, 1983; Schinke-Llano, 1983, Tsui, 2004), and in content and language integrated learning classrooms (Dalton-Puffer, 2007).

However, classroom interaction in literature teaching can be difficult in L2 tertiary context in the sense that teacher-centered mode of instruction has taken its dominant position mainly due to the disparity of power and knowledge between teachers and students (Parkinson & Thomas, 2000). This impediment aroused my interest in conducting research into the teacher-student interaction in the literature classroom instructed by professional English literature teachers to track down how literature is taught by English native speakers. Through preliminary classroom observation, it has been found out that discourse in the literature classroom cannot be generalized affected by distinct interactive structures within different literary genres. Hence, the research focuses on the description of how different literary genres can affect the spoken discourse of teacher-student interaction which is premised on the assumption that discourse in the literature classroom cannot be generalized. It would be reflected by an insight into the teacher-student interaction in the literature classroom with the interactive structure as well as the interactive distinction in both novel and poetry classrooms being revealed, which could enable literature teachers to obtain an in-depth comprehension of the teacher-student interaction in the literature classrooms, and at the meantime provide a solid theoretical reference for their literature teaching.

Based on the analysis of teacher-student interaction in literature classrooms, distinct learning outcomes yielded by different literary genres can be unfolded. Accordingly, this paper aims to identify the linguistic characteristics of teacher-student interaction in novel and poetry classrooms in the Hong Kong tertiary setting with the application of the Sinclair-Coulthard Model (1975), with the second section centering on undertaking a comparison of spoken discourse in novel and poetry classrooms with regard to exchange structure, teaching exchanges and acts used by virtue of the features explored. Qualitative approach has been conducted by means of classroom observation in two Hong Kong tertiary institutions with a view to obtaining an in-depth comprehension of the nature of the classroom interaction in these literature classrooms, as well as to stimulating appropriate application of different literary genres to promote cultural enrichment as well as language proficiency through literature teaching.

II. SINCLAIR & COULTHARD MODEL (1975) REVISITED

The model adopted in this paper can be referred to as the Sinclair-Coulthard Model (1975) which aims to "examine

the linguistic aspects of teacher and student interaction" (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975, p.1). This descriptive model is composed of five hierarchical ingredients with an application of a "rank scale", in which the structure of each rank above the lowest can be represented by the rank below (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975, p.20). The term of the five ranks first coined by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), i.e. "act", "move", "exchange", "transaction", and "lesson", have been widely employed in the analysis of linguistic features of the spoken discourse in the classroom (p.24).

Most classroom research carried out with the application of the Sinclair and Coulthard Model (1975) has been mainly underpinned by the third rank, in which the structure of the free exchange I R F has been attached great importance.

Hellermann (2003) laid emphasis on the third turn of the I R F exchange to examine "the interactive import of prosody from a perspective of participants' orientation to talk in interaction" (p.79), and the data were obtained from two different secondary classrooms in US Midwest (p.84), while another research article composed by Basturkmen (2000) was designed to investigate "the sequential patterns of talk in discussion" in UK university classes applying the exchange structure (p.249). Moreover, in the same year, Nassaji and Wells (2000) elucidated the diverse forms and functions of the I R F structure in the teacher-student interaction as well as the influence that the follow-up move has exerted on the students' participation (p.382). It can be seen that all the model-based classroom research types, to a certain extent, focus on the third rank of exchange elaborated by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) in the native institutional setting.

Classroom research based on I R F exchange has also been undertaken in non-native second language learning classrooms. The two main roles that the follow-up move in I R F exchange plays in EFL or ESL classroom discourse have been elaborated (Cullen, 2002, p.117). The third turn in I R F exchange has been explicated by Lee (2007) as well from the perspective of "local contingency" with data attained from ESL classroom interactions (p.1204). It can be pointed out that the third turn, i.e. the follow-up move, in the I R F exchange has exerted a strong influence on second language learning. By contrast, this paper aims to identify the characteristics of teacher-student interaction based on three ranks, i.e. acts, moves, and exchanges.

III.   NON-PARTICIPANT CLASSROOM OBSERVATION BASED DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

In Hong Kong tertiary education, English is the major medium of instruction. For English majors studying in Hong Kong tertiary institutions, English is not only considered as a second language in which language skills need to be well mastered, but also as a study tool, by virtue of which knowledge regarding English culture and humanities can be better grasped. It is on account of this aspect that English majors are distinct from non-English majors who consider English only as a communicative tool. Though non-English majors are capable of speaking English, yet they lack a systematic education in other content knowledge associated with the language of English. Therefore, the subjects of this research are within the range of English majors in Hong Kong tertiary institutions.

Permissions were obtained from two literature teachers to both audit and audio record the classes for the research purpose. Both of them are both native speakers of English and have accumulated a wealth of teaching experience in novel and poetry in Hong Kong tertiary institutions. The detailed background information is shown in Table 1. In this study, an audio recording was made in the course of non-participant observation in two literature classrooms at two universities in Hong Kong. When undertaking non-participant observation, notes were taken as well in terms of the content of the lessons and the interaction between teacher and students to aid the transcription. Having been audio recorded, the teacher and student interaction in the target literature classrooms was transcribed and analyzed using the Sinclair and Coulthard Model (1975), where the nature of teacher-student interaction has been unveiled facilitated by the perception of interactive features for pedagogical implications.

TABLE 1
AN OUTLINE OF THE LITERATURE CLASSROOMS OBSERVED

Tertiary Institutions	Teachers (Native speaker)	Subjects	Classes (Sizes)	Grade
University 1	Teacher 1	Novel	15	Second-year undergraduates
University 2	Teacher 2	Poetry	24	Second-year undergraduates

IV.   FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A.   Teacher-student Interaction in the Novel Classroom

TABLE 2
TEACHER-STUDENT INTERACTION IN THE NOVEL CLASSROOM

Teaching Exchange	Opening (I) Act, Move Structure	Answering (R) Act, Move Structure	Follow-up (F) Act, MS
Teacher Elicit	Now, (*marker, signal*) The way we are going to do this is each going to pick a passage and talk about them… (*elicitation, head*)	It's on page 85, about the middle of the page. This quote is quite interesting, as it explores the relation between lie and truth. Truth in this novel, I think, is a lie. Because, um, even Paul Auster in this novel is fictional. In reality, he does not really have a conversation with Quinn, and also by the, by the first or third meeting between Stillmam and also Quinn. He speaks his real name. He discloses it, but um we can not say that it is really true, and it is also interesting um when he said, when Stillman says that, um…so, I am wondering, m, what does living mean exactly? (*reply, head*)	Wow what does life mean? (*accept, pre-head*)

The Table 2 shows a typical spoken discourse concerned with the teacher-student interaction taking place in the novel classroom. The act of marker serving as signal was applied to signify that the teacher's previous lecture on post-modernism has come to a halt and another phase of students' discussion of the novel was scheduled to commence in this lesson, where students were required to pick a passage from the designated novel and talk about it. Without being nominated, one of the students took the initiative in providing a reply with a lengthy statement. Having made clear the location of the chosen passage, the student set out her own point of view in detail and ended her statement with a rather abstract and profound question of what life means. The reply of the student was likely to represent her inner feeling towards what has been portrayed in the novel and combine it with her own experience as well, leading to the generation of a final rhetorical question. Having heard and understood the reply made by the student, the teacher accepted it by the repetition of the last question without any evaluation having being given in view of no common ground existing for the explanation of the meaning of life.

From the analysis above, it can be derived that the structure of I R F in teacher elicit has been basically conformed to in this interaction between teacher and students. However, unique features have come into being as well in this example. Plenty of space was provided by the teacher in posing questions, with the reply characterized by a long statement given by the student followed by the feedback realized via the act of accept. However, evaluation was not expressed by the teacher on the grounds that the understanding of literary texts varies considerably among readers according to their personal experience and knowledge. Therefore, the unfixed answer elicited by the open questions posed in the novel classroom normally cannot be evaluated by the right or wrong dichotomy.

TABLE 3
TEACHER-STUDENT INTERACTION IN THE NOVEL CLASSROOM

Teaching Exchange	Opening (I) Act, Move Structure	Answering (R) Act, Move Structure	Follow-up (F) Act, MS
Teacher Elicit	Are fictions always lies? (*elicitation, head*)	P1: No, (*reply, head*) this point should depend on the reality, believe ourselves. Through some lies, the author rebuild something true or something necessarily or ultimately real, like the fictional, like the fictional natural of all our …because the author is quite conscious of all this fictions. (*comment, post-head*)	
Bound exchange (Listing)	Anybody else? (*nomination, select*) Truth? Lies? (*clue, post-head*)	P2: Maybe, maybe the author is playing with some…our expectation that sometimes I mean fictions are made to lies. Because it is fiction, it has to make stories, but we as readers, enjoy the lies, the stories, the fictional construction. So but in this story here, the lie are not entertaining at all, boring…(*reply, head*)	I'm not sure whether it is entertaining. (*evaluate, head*)

Teaching Exchange	Opening (I) Act, Move Structure	Answering (R) Act, MS	Follow-up (F) Act, MS
Teacher Inform	I just think that what, you know, the fiction is a lie, right? On what level? Um, we said that the fiction is a lie, so we are in the fiction. It seems to possess truth. We accept that as a truth because it is in the context…maybe we are in the fiction, you've got lies as well, but almost end up with double negatives, so the lie will be in the lie actually becomes a truth…(*informative, head*)	P1: It is a lie paradox. (*comment, post-head*)	That's right. A lie paradox… (*evaluate, head*)

Teaching Exchange	Opening (I) Act, Move Structure		Follow-up (F) Act, Move structure
Student Inform	There is a hierarchy there. It is the phenomenal world and also the fictional world and he plays with his boundaries without introducing the boundary into language. Because in natural language, natural language is semantically closed. We can indicate this is fiction, this is our real world. But in fiction, but in, year, but in fiction or in logic, everything is mixed together and one way of dealing with in formal logic is to introduce some hierarchy like true one or true two. (*informative, head*)		Yeah (*accept, pre-head*) That is a very neat solution. (*evaluate, head*) In the way, we have to impose those hierarchies in order to enjoy fiction. (*comment, post-head*)

The second discourse begins with the teacher's elicitation about whether fictions are always lies, in which a yes-or-no question has been posed (See Table 3). Without nomination, equal chances of answering the question were granted to all

students in the classroom, who were eligible to express their viewpoints without any restriction. In the answering move, apart from the reply of a "no" being provided by one of the students, the comment with a long statement pertaining to how the reply "no" was drawn was contributed in order to provide additional information as well as to support her viewpoint. However, feedback was not given by the teacher immediately, with an intention to gain a more comprehensive view of student's understanding from enquiring more students before contributing his own opinion. Having obtained two students' responses, each of which was expressed with a long statement, the teacher provided his feedback in hedging for the students engaged in the interaction. Since no definite answer can be drawn from the open questions posed in this novel classroom, neither right nor wrong can be used to measure the responses suggested by the students. Any explanation was acceptable as long as it was reasonable and relevant.

To further expound on his own understanding, the teacher started lecturing in the third teaching exchange of teacher inform. Instead of the head of acknowledge employed corresponding to that of informative, the act of comment functioning as post-head was used not only to show the student's understanding but also to generalize from what had been instructed. In accordance with the teacher's sharing on the relationship between fictions and lies, one of the students was capable of summarizing what the teacher has just stated into a concise noun phrase, being equivalent to the long statement delivered by the teacher. In the phase of tertiary education, students have gradually developed the capability of inductive reasoning, enabling them to be able to engage in critical thinking, which was well epitomized by this student's formulation of "a lie paradox". In this novel classroom, students were permitted to contribute to the discourse the moment a new idea emerged, with a highly positive evaluation of the comment given by the teacher, forming a pattern of I R F distinct from the standard structure of I (R).

Furthermore, the students were also found to take the initiative in launching an opening move. During the discussion, one of the students proposed a solution to the ways of enjoying fiction, which was characterized by a long statement with abstract diction resulted from his critical thinking. Confronted with this logical and reasonable viewpoint, the teacher not only accepted the information provided by the student, but also evaluated it as "a very neat solution", and made comments on how to apply it to enjoying fiction as well. Therefore, in the free teaching exchange of student inform, the structure of initiation was directly followed by the feedback without the occurrence of response, based on which the structure of this teaching exchange is I F.

B. Teacher-student Interaction in the Poetry Classroom

TABLE 4
TEACHER-STUDENT INTERACTION IN THE POETRY CLASSROOM

Teaching Exchange	Opening (I) Act, Move Structure	Answering (R) Act, MS	Fellow-up (F) Act, Move Structure
Teacher Elicit	Ok (*marker, signal*) Let's go through this and see how we are doing? So Dulce et Decorum Est by Wilfred Owen. Line 5 (*starter, pre-head*) where is this? Page 11 (*aides*) "Men marched asleep. Many had lost their boots". So "their" refers to? (*elicitation, head*) Let's ask Jamie. (*nomination, select*)	Soldiers (*reply, head*)	Soldiers, ok (*evaluate, head*)
Teacher Elicit	What particular soldiers are we talking about? What the soldiers are doing right now? (*elicitation, head*)	Marching asleep. (*reply, head*)	Ok, the soldiers are marching asleep. Yes (*evaluate, head*) The more specific you can be with your description, the better. So the soldiers who are marching asleep is better than the soldiers. (*comment, post-head*)
Teacher Elicit	No. ten, with the light out, I was? (*elicitation, head*) Let's ask Lily, Lily (*nomination, select*)	Ardent (*reply, head*)	No, no, no. (*evaluate, head*) Ardent is an, um, adjective. (*comment, post-head*)
Bound Exchange	We need a verb form, don't we? (*clue, post-head*)	Enmeshed (*reply, head*)	No. (*evaluate, head*) Fumbling ok? Fumbling means you try to find, but you can't find, fumbling for the light switch. (*comment, post-head*)
Teacher Elicit	No. eleven (*elicitation, head*) Windy (*nomination, select*)	Smothered (*reply, head*)	Smothered, yes (*evaluate, head*) a mother who kills her child by smothering with a pillow. (*comment, post head*)

In the poetry class, students were required to do a poetry preparation test designed by the teacher to check whether the students have studied the designated poems before class (See Table 4). The test was divided into two parts, with one part assessing students' capability of identifying the reference words in the poems, and the other evaluating the usage of the new vocabulary that has been come across when reading the poems. The spoken discourse in Table 4 was extracted from the part of the lesson when the teacher was about to check the answer with the students after the test was completed. The questions posed were designed and prepared in advance before the class, to which the key answers were

known by the teacher with a view to assessing student's capability of their off-campus independent study.

The first two teaching exchanges took place when reference words were assessed, while the vocabulary was examined in the following three exchanges. In the first teaching exchange, the act of marker was perceived as a signal of the discourse boundary, followed by a short introduction indicating what would be conducted in the next phase. Attention was then attracted by the occurrence of the act of the aides, with the acts of elicitation and nomination ensuing to constitute the initiating move, based on which a fixed definite answer was provided by the student, which was affirmed in the follow-up move by the teacher's repetition of the reply. It was surprising to find that same interactive pattern was enacted in the second teaching exchange as well. Thus, it can be suggested that the structure of the teaching exchange was strictly in conformity with the combination of initiation, response and feedback (I R F), with certain fixed acts involved in each move characterized by the act of nomination following that of elicitation realizing the opening move, and by the act of reply, which was usually very brief, being the only act engaged in the answering move, as well as by the act of evaluate granted in the way of repeating what was stated by the student.

In the third teaching exchange, the usage of new vocabulary was examined, requiring students to fill in the blank with the most appropriate word to have the meaning completed in the sentence. The teaching exchange structure of I R F was clearly shown in Table 4 resting on the combination of both elicitation and nomination to motivate the students to contribute to the discourse, followed by a brief reply and the act of evaluate, which can be measured by a yes or no response. Since a wrong answer was generated, the bound exchange of re-initiation with the act of clue given by the teacher was designed to elicit an accurate response. However, another inaccurate answer emerged, explicitly reflected by the negative evaluate "no", in responding to which the teacher preferred to disclose the key answer serving as comment in the move of follow-up rather than initiating another bound exchange.

From this part, it can be seen that the reply to the question was, to some extent, fixed and brief, which can be evaluated as right or wrong, or even as yes or no in the follow-up move. When an inaccurate answer was elicited, the bound exchange of re-initiating was employed with the occurrence of initiating move realized by the act of clue, the structure of which tends to be I R F Ib R F. By contrast, if an accurate answer was given, the structure involved can often be perceived as I R F, with the response preceded by both elicitation and nomination and followed by the evaluate of right or wrong in conjunction with the act of comment.

TABLE 5
TEACHER-STUDENT INTERACTION IN THE POETRY CLASSROOM

Teaching Exchange	Opening (I) Act, Move Structure	Answering (R) Act, MS	Follow-up (F) Act, Move Structure
Teacher Elicit	How about John Masefield's Cargoes? Is the persona inside the poem or outside the poem? (*elicitation, head*) Jamie (*nomination, select*)	Outside (*reply, head*)	Outside the poem. (*evaluate, head*) There is no I or me in that poem, you don't actually see the persona inside a poem and again the persona is observing three different images, three different historical periods but outside the poem. (*comment, post-head*)
Teacher Elicit	How about Dulce et Decorum Est? Is the persona inside or outside the poem? (*elicitation, head*)	Inside (*reply, head*)	Inside the poem. Yes. (*evaluate, head*) Persona is there, and it talks about my dream. (*comment, post-head*)
Teacher Elicit	Ok (*marker, signal*) Claire, where is Claire? Claire (nomination, select) can you say, can you describe the persona? What do you think Wilfred will be? (*elicitation, head*)	He could be one of the survivors in the war. (*reply, head*)	Ok, he could be one of the survivors. (*evaluate, head*). He must be the survivor he wrote the poem. (*comment, post-head*)
Teacher Elicit	Ok (*marker, signal*) So the persona is someone who has survived. (*starter, pre-head*) What's specifically what has he survived? He has survived what? (*elicitation, head*)	Some, I guess there are some poisons that on top of the air, and gas. (*reply, head*)	All right, he survived a gas attack. He survived an attack by poison and gas, all right? So the persona is someone who survived an attack by poison and gas. (*evaluate, head*)

Apart from the assessment of the reference words and vocabulary, here comes the introduction to the technical terms and practices of poetry analysis in the poem classroom (See Table 5). Poetic technical terms were taught with the help of an introductory handout listing both their names and their explanations. In the course of the pedagogic practice, the content in the introductory handouts was introduced first, which was then applied to the poems the students were learning. In this chosen episode, the term "persona" was introduced to better help students understand the poems.

Having finished introducing the theoretical concept of the term, the teacher initiated a discussion among the students to identify whether the persona was situated inside or outside the poems that they were reading. Closed questions posed by the teacher in the first two teaching exchanges for responses elicitation provided two choices for the students to answer, among which one of them was chosen by the student as a reply without any additional information added. Accordingly, positive feedback was granted by the teacher repeating the reply once again serving as the act of evaluate, facilitated by commenting on the reason why the reply was viewed as being accurate. Hence, it was evident that the teaching structure of I R F still exerted a strong influence on the teacher-student interaction in this poetry classroom.

In the last two teaching exchanges, the most conspicuous feature was retrieved to be the application of the act of the marker, which was used at the beginning of a new teaching exchange, followed by the act of nomination and elicitation in the initiating move to signal an alteration of the discussion topic. Without being distracted from what was being discussed, the students' attention can be kept concentrated on what was being taught. Having identified the persona, the students were required to describe the persona by means of intensive reading and personal understanding. Following the act of elicitation in the opening move, within the routine, a verbal reply was given by the students with the act of evaluate being provided by the teacher by means of either repeating the reply or paraphrasing and summarizing what the student has responded, which realizes the follow-up move. Thus, the basic structure of teaching exchange of I R F has been conformed as well. Judging from what is displayed in Table 5, it was indicative that the teacher elicit has achieved a dominant position in the teaching exchange in this poetry classroom in the Hong Kong tertiary setting.

Given the above dissection, three distinctive features can be elaborated on here. In the first place, teacher-student interaction in this poetry classroom was highly affected by the basic structure of I R F, with questions containing choices having been posed, one of which can be chosen by the students perceived as the reply, followed by teacher's positive feedback by means of either repeating the answer or paraphrasing and summarizing the reply. In the second place, the act of marker was commonly employed by the teacher to signal the discourse boundary to keep the students concentrated on the lesson. Finally, the free teaching exchange of teacher elicit was placed in a dominant position in this poetry classroom in the Hong Kong tertiary setting.

V.   A COMPARISON OF THE TEACHING EXCHANGES IN THE NOVEL AND POETRY CLASSROOMS

A.   Teacher Elicit versus Student Inform

Teacher elicit and student inform belong to the sub-categories of the free teaching exchange with one characterized by the consistency of the typical structure of I R F beginning with the teacher's elicitation, and with the other commencing with the student's informative and ending with the feedback, without the occurrence of the answering move characterized by the structure of I F. In the novel classroom, the free teaching exchange of student inform has been presented in the last exchange shown in Table 4, in which the student takes the initiative in launching an interaction with the teacher. Having made a statement pertaining to the relevant topic serving as the act of informative, the student has won praise from the teacher with the inclusion of not only the head of evaluate, but also the pre-head of accept as well as the post-head of comment in the move of follow-up.

B.   Teacher Inform I (R) versus Teacher Inform I R F

Succeeding the teacher's instruction functioning as the act of informative in the opening move, response was provided by the student with only the act of comment being engaged in in the answering move, replacing the head of acknowledge, followed by the occurrence of the act of evaluate or accept in the follow-up move. The most contrasting difference between the standard pattern and the variation generated in the novel classrooms lies in the occurrence of feedback in the follow-up move. Based on the teacher's instruction, students in the novel classroom tended to make comment on what had been taught with a view to not only showing their understanding, but also to displaying their critical thinking by expressing their own viewpoint. Once the standpoint has been presented by the student, it is the teacher's responsibility to convey feedback, keeping the students informed of authority's opinion towards what they have contributed, from which they can benefit.

By contrast, this variation did not occur in the poetry classroom in the course of teacher's instruction, during which the students, situated in a relatively passive position in the classroom with the teacher-student interaction being launched primarily by the free teaching exchange of teacher elicit, tended to keep silent without contributing any verbal responses to the classroom discourse. Thus, the standard structure of teacher inform I (R) was conformed to only in the poetry classroom, with the variation coming into use in the novel classroom.

VI.   A COMPARISON OF THE ACTS USED IN THE NOVEL AND POETRY CLASSROOMS

A.   Open Elicitation versus Closed Elicitation

As stated by Goody (1978), open questions can be referred to as "incomplete propositions, for which the answer provides the missing clause", while closed questions are "complete propositions which are answered simply yes or no" (p. 22). Accordingly, the open elicitation can be referred to as the questions which are initiated by the teacher requiring diverse answers with a long statement, which cannot be measured simply by right or wrong, and for the most part can be accepted as long as it is relevant and reasonable, while the closed elicitation can be considered as the questions which are posed needing to be worked out by particularly fixed and definite answers, which can be assessed by a right or wrong response.

In the novel classroom, the acts of elicitation applied were open and not constrained to produce a fixed answer, and accordingly the responses elicited from the students showed great diversity and sometimes took the form of long statements. Moreover, one distinctive feature could be noticed in the novel classroom different from another two classrooms in that the students were inclined to express their standpoint with a specified and detailed comment ensuing in responding to the yes-or-no questions. In the poetry classroom, the questions, being thought of as closed, related to

the understanding of literary technical terms and the familiarity with vocabulary, and the responses elicited from the students were not only fixed, but also brief. It can also be seen from the spoken discourse that the questions in the poetry classroom tended to contain choices with one chosen by the students as a reply. In most cases, the key answers to the questions, which had been prepared in advance before the class, were known by the teacher, and were used to examine the learning outcome of the students.

B. Diverse Reply versus Fixed Reply

The act of the reply functioning as the head in the answering move was attached great importance to by all three teachers. Both open and closed elicitations from the teachers gave rise to the dichotomy between diverse reply and fixed reply. A diverse reply was usually characterized by the expression of a personal viewpoint on certain controversial issues with a long and detailed statement which could be understood from different perspectives, while the fixed reply corresponding to the closed questions was characterized by the formation of a rigid key answer with a short and brief utterance, with other deviant answers being repelled by the authority.

Another distinction between them lay in whether they could be measured by right or wrong. A diverse reply, to some extent, could not be evaluated by the dichotomy and could be approved by the teacher as long as the answer was relevant, reasonable, and logical, while in the case of a fixed reply, it could only be assessed by right or wrong in accordance with the key answer established. In the novel classroom, the act of reply contributed by the student was normally diverse with a high proportion of the open elicitations launched in the opening move. By comparison, the replies were relatively fixed and brief in the poetry classroom in accordance with the closed elicitations posed.

C. Positive Evaluate versus Negative Evaluate

Feedback, the last phase of the structure of the free exchange I R F, was of great importance in the classroom exchange, on which interactive teaching and learning largely hinge, realized by the acts of accept, evaluate and comment. The act of evaluate as the head realizing the follow-up move plays a crucial role in the improvement and enhancement of the learning outcome. Having received responses proposed by the students, the teacher is responsible for evaluating the reply, which is compulsory in other words. Through evaluation, on the one hand, the consciousness of the learning inadequacy has been raised by keeping the students informed of what mistakes have been made in their responses. On the other hand, the students tend to be stimulated and motivated in study by the positive evaluation granted by the teacher. The expression of positive and negative evaluation displayed differences in the spoken discourse of teacher-student interaction in the novel and poetry classrooms.

In the novel classroom, the positive evaluation was expressed in a direct and explicit manner, while the negative evaluation was presented in a more objective and roundabout way. By comparison, in the poetry classroom, the act of positive evaluate was, for the most part, characterized by the repetition of the reply made by the students with comment ensuing at the end. With respect to the expression of the act of negative evaluate, it has been voiced by a direct and rather straightforward negation of "no" in contrast to a roundabout verbal expression in the novel classroom. However, it seems that the individual teaching style counts in engendering this distinction as well.

VII. Pedagogical Implications

The characteristics of the teacher-student interaction in the novel and poetry classrooms have been identified, based on which the distinction among these three literary genres has been explicated. In the novel classroom, critical thinking was cultivated, with the foreign language of English being perceived as a medium or a tool for sending the message regarding the understanding of the novel. It is the literary message that was focused on in the novel classroom, in which students were required to express their own viewpoints from a certain perspective and the discourse was characterized by teacher's open elicitation and students' diverse reply with long statements.

In the poetry classroom, the enlargement of the vocabulary, which was considered as an essential prerequisite for the comprehension of a poem, was attached great importance, with the instruction being characterized by a closed elicitation followed by a fixed reply that could be evaluated by the right or wrong dichotomy. More often than not, vocabulary drills were held in the poetry classroom prior to the systematic introduction to the poetic technical terms and the poem itself. With the absence of a good command of the necessary English vocabulary, the understanding of a poem tends to be insufficient. With the explanation of the unfamiliar vocabulary being a prerequisite for poetry teaching, the introduction to poetic technical terms are integrated with certain selected poems by means of building recognizable relations between them. In that case, poems were counted as the supplementary samples assisting the students in understanding the poetic technical terms.

VIII. Potential Applications of the Research

An insight into the teacher-student interaction in the literature classroom has been provided by this study, with the interactive structure as well as the interactive distinction in the novel and poetry classrooms being revealed, which could enable literature teachers to maximize the potential of literature classrooms in the Hong Kong tertiary setting.

Specifically speaking, in the first place, literature teaching with respect to different literary genres tends to enable students to acquire knowledge of more than one area, with the skills of text appreciation, critical thinking, the

enlargement of the vocabulary, and the command of technical terms being further enhanced.

In the second place, it could be useful for literature teachers to bear in mind that the structure of the teacher-student interaction can vary considerably from one sub-genre to another, which will contribute to distinct learning outcomes yielded by different literary genres. Thus, special attention to the different interactive focus constructing distinct interactive structure in literature teaching should be paid, with a view to realizing the optimum effect of literature learning.

Finally, different internal linguistic constructions of the classroom interaction between teachers and students derived from the instruction of the native speaking teachers in the sub-genres of the literature classroom have been explored. It can, on the one hand, stimulate and reinforce the non-native teachers' consciousness of the benefit that different literary genres bring for students' all-round development with respect to language and literature. On the other hand, it can provide a solid theoretical teaching reference for the non-native literature teachers.

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The Killers: Nick's Initiation into Adulthood[*]

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Abstract—Hemingway's world as widely agreed is a more disordered, a more violent, brutal mess, hard to find any sure scale of values, resulting from tremendous social upheaval and economic and political devastation in the post-war Western society. His short story "The Killers", from *Men Without Women* (1927), exposed harshly such a kind of world; rather in it he successfully portrayed a young boy's initiation into adulthood through hazardous circumstances.

Index Terms—code hero, Hemingway, violence, normality, bildungsroman

I. INTRODUCTION

Ernest Hemingway, one spokesman of "the Lost Generation", is primarily known for his keen observation of the post-war waste land and concise portrayal of characters gasping in that world of chaos. He holds a pessimistic attitude toward life, as shown by his heroes. He sees life in terms of battles and tension. He thinks life is dangerous and ready to defeat or destroy men, but if men keep calm and try their best, they can win a spiritual victory. His stories deal with the question "how to live with pain", "how human beings live gracefully under pressure". In addition, his style is laconic but expressive, for his application of Iceberg Principle and some unique narrative methods.

Ernest Hemingway's personal involvement in the wars and his participation in such violently masculine activities as boxing, bull fighting, deep-sea fishing, big-game hunting, allowed him enough materials to portray the great sufferings physically and spiritually conditioned by those. *The Killers*, from the collection of short stories, *Men Without Women* (1927), exposed harshly a world stripped of certainties, values, meanings.

The story, set in Henry's lunchroom in Summit, Illinois, right outside of Chicago during a 1920's winter, begins with two gangsters, Max and Al, walking into the lunchroom. They were not happy with the serving schedule. When ordering dinner, they poked fun maliciously at George and Nick Adams, the two servants. After finishing his meal, Al tied Nick and Sam—the Black cook, in the kitchen; while Max bragged to George about their purpose to eat here—to kill Ole Andreson, an aging boxer, also a frequent guest of this lunchroom. Since the boxer failed to show up in the diner, the gangsters left, and George hurried to untie Nick and Sam. He then suggested that Nick warn Andreson, who lived in a nearby boarding house. But to Nick's surprise, when hearing about Al and Max's plan to kill him, the boxer said he was tired of running. Nick returned to the diner, where he told George and Sam that he's leaving Summit because he could not bear to think about a man waiting, passively, to be killed by a couple of hired killers.

In this story the focus is not the gangers or George or Sam, or Ole Andreson, but Nick Adams. It is Nick, the young boy, who combines the whole story: as a witness and participant of all incidents, he is seen from the beginning to the end with his movement from Henry's lunchroom to Hirsch's house and then back to lunchroom again; he is the only one who is changed by what he sees, hears and feels; he is not one of the silent majority like his workmates, but one in action, to depart, to grow maturely. It is Nick, after being tied, seeing the violence, giving the message to Ole at the risk of his life, comes to realize the fact that the world is brutal, unstable, fragmented and chaotic. Nick's changes fit in the bildungsroman, "novel of formation" or "novel of education". "The subject is the development of the protagonist's mind and character, in the passage from childhood through varied experiences—and often through a spiritual crisis—into maturity, which usually involves recognition of one's identity and role in the world" (Abraham, 2010, 229).

II. NICK ADAMS' LIVING ENVIRONMENT: A WORLD OF VIOLENCE

The Killers is set in Henry's lunchroom from evening to night, a commonplace restaurant and an ordinary day. However, it is the calm before storm: something evil and unlawful is about to show. And Nick, the young boy, will begin his journey of growth from 5: 30 that evening and finishes it at night the same day, from his being tied by two gangsters, to being released after their departure, to informing Ole of his forthcoming death, until his own departure after the epiphany—the world is a messy, evil place in which men's fate seems to be doomed.

A. The Killers

The two killers Max and Al, are described as stereotyped gangsters as seen in films or TV series, who live by a code. Firstly their appearance and dressing style showcase conspicuously their identity. Al's face "had tight lips. He wore a silk muffler and gloves". "Tight lips" usually means that a person is in the state of tension: determined or merciless. They

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wore "derby hats, black overcoats buttoned across the chest...too tight to them" like "twins". They wore the standard uniforms of gangsters as seen in thrillers. Secondly they talk like gangsters as well. They teased George and Nick, complained and swore. Their speech is crude and not meaningful enough, yet characterized with mechanized gag and wisecrack from newspapers and films.

"You are a pretty right boy, aren't you?"

"Sure," said George. "Well, you are not," said the other little man. "Is he, Al?"

"He is dumb," said Al. He turned to Nick. "What's your name?"

"Nick Adams."

"Another bright boy," Al said. "Ain't he a bright boy, Max?"

"The town's full of bright boys," Max said.

...

And "What are you looking at?" Max looked at George.

"Nothing."

"The hell you were. You were looking at me".

...

"You ought to go to the movies more. The movies are fine for a bright boy like you."

These talks are full of naughty words and stereotyped banter. The final words about "the movies" are spoken when they have made their arrangement in the lunchroom to tie Sam and Nick. The words point to thrillers, in which reasons for murder, procedure for gang killings are self-evident to the audience. This is understood by George.

"What are you going to kill Ole Andreson for? What did he ever do to you?"

"He never had a chance to do anything to us. He never even seen us."

"And he's only going to see us once," Al said from the kitchen.

"What are you going to kill him for, then?" George asked.

"We're killing him for a friend. Just to oblige a friend, bright boy".

Max and Al are both cold-blooded professional gangsters, who kill the people not because of personal hostilities or animosities, but because of their "professional" code. As killing machines, they have little sense of justice and humanity. The unreal clichés from movies and newspapers spoken by them now have come into reality.

Thirdly when they tie Nick and the cook in the kitchen, instead of feeling guilty for their brutality, they are still joking frivolously like playing a funny game. Al said, "The nigger and my bright boy are amused by themselves. I got them tied up like a couple of girl friends in the convent". "We got to keep amused, haven't we?" Obviously, murder, for them, is not a crime, but something very entertaining.

Finally their doings and gestures demonstrate their professional training and practice. Both of them ate with their gloves on in case they would be caught because of their fingerprints. They kept their eyes on the mirror that "ran along back of the counter", by which they were able to carry out their action the moment their target turned up. As professional killers they are alert, sensitive, sinister, diabolic, but more purposeful and well-prepared, regardless of the life of innocent people. "Inside the kitchen, George saw Al, his derby hat tipped back, sitting on a stool beside the wicket with the muzzle of a sawed-off shotgun resting on the ledge. Nick and the cook were back to back in the corner, a towel tied in each of their mouths". In riot and terror, the innocents were exposed to danger and anxiety, which serves as a window to the calamity and influence caused by the war.

The post-war American society was indeed a dark world. Organized crimes in the 1920s were rampant. Partly because of President Warren Gamaliel Harding's "return to normalcy" policies and the enactment of the 18th Amendment of prohibition, such illegal activities as bootlegging, gambling, prostitution worsened the social order and devastated the peace beneath the happy faces of "Jazz Age". The Mafia, an offshoot of a Sicilian criminal organization, managed to exploit the loopholes in the law and succeeded in controlling bootlegging together with gambling and prostitution in the major cities. The most celebrated gangster was "Scarface" Al Capone. In 1927 his Chicago-based bootlegging, prostitution, and gambling empire brought him an income of $60 million. *The Killers* coincides with this famous gangster, in his name Al and the setting Chicago. Whether the story had the factual source or not, it strongly alluded to the temperament of that age. This period also witnessed the renewed growth of the Ku Klux Klan throughout the South; then it migrated northward and established itself in many northern states. In Washington high officials' corruption reached the unprecedented level. At the top was the President himself, Harding, who fortunately died a timely death (Tindall, 2007). In such a dark age, danger, crime and horror, loom over the world where many innocent people are suffering. Consequently, the two killers epitomize the invisible forces, heartless, ferocious, in the darkness or in the twilight (this story was set in the evening, beginning at 5 o'clock) to threaten the ordinary life. By committing murder and other serious crimes, they seek pleasure like those frenzied party-goers in the "Jazz Age". By the depiction of the killers, Hemingway pictured the violent and disordered post-war world where the daily life for the average people like George and Sam in Henry's lunchroom, was a meaningless mess but the two respond to this criminal incident in different ways.

B.   George and Sam

George, is a sophisticated and intelligent boy. When faced up with the maneuver of the two gangsters, George is not frightened; instead, he develops calmly dialogues with them: to answer their empty questions and ask about their

purpose of coming here. When Max found fault with him, he was not surprised; he "laughed" and said "all right". He kept calm when his workmates were tied up in the kitchen: he did what he was demanded by gangsters to do—to lie and prepare dinner for customers. He could discern the horror behind the teasing mask of Max and Al. More important, after being told about their plan of murder, he did not take actions right away bluntly but wait patiently and cautiously for the chance to save Ole Andreson as soon as possible. It was not until the two gangsters left, that he immediately instructed Nick to inform Ole. George's responses reflect a man's courage and wisdom under pressure.

While it is not difficult to find that George is not the idealistic hero worthy of one hundred percent worship. With no doubt, he, perhaps serving in this lunchroom for long, has seen and heard kinds of individuals and sorts of violent occurrences day by day, which makes him present a composed and wise image when coerced by the criminals. He understands profoundly that the real society is not a peaceful arena, but one full of horror, unrest, turbulence, etc. Fully aware of the dark facades of the real life in which he is a weak, lonely, insignificant atom, he just comes to terms with the state quo rather than behave as a heroic fighter against the existent evil forces. In this story, his experience and conscience work together to propel him to save Ole's life by informing him of the forthcoming death the moment the gangsters depart. This is all he could do and has done. After Nick came back, in his speech with Nick his was brief, repetitive of Nick's except that he answered Nick about the reason for Ole's being killed: "Double-crossed somebody. That's what they kill him for". As for Nick's decision to get out of the city, he only commented: "That's a good thing to do". The story ends with his suggestion that Nick not think about the gangster killing. This is one who holds a detached attitude toward life. He does what he is able to do and what is under his control. He does not bother to think or worry about what is beyond his grasp.

To Hemingway, George represents a large portion of the ordinary people in the 1920s. They are courageous, kind-hearted and well-intended who embrace peace, love and order. WWI was over, however, unfortunately the peace did not come in the real sense. If the intellectuals, writers and artists felt disillusioned in the post-war era and could exile voluntarily in Europe, the ordinary Americans had nowhere to go except to be operated by social violence and widespread crimes in the prosperous consumer society. Now the mundane existence had been reduced to a nightmare. Powerless as they were, they came to realize that no one could escape from their destiny; it was pointless to try too hard but just to do what they could do.

Sam is another type of ordinary people. He is "the nigger" cook. His colored identity dooms him to suffer factual hardships even in the North, which, in turn, tames him as one coward, meek, obedient and self-centered. He automatically replied the gangsters' demand with "Yes, sir". He accepts the reality, living in a very cautious way to be far way from any troubles in life. After untied by George, he said, "I don't want any more of that", "I don't like any of it at all". His personal traumatic past and the stressful present have taught him not so much to be a trouble-maker, as an undetached passer-by in life. When Nick and George were talking about informing Ole, Sam turned away. When Nick returned and told George something about Ole, Sam said: "I don't even listen to it". He was, however, not neutral-minded or cold-blooded because he also advised Nick to "stay way out of it".

Sam, an inferior, deprived of many equal rights to the white, may represent another larger portion of people who are deaf-and-dumb to practical brutality. These people, struggling hard at the lower strata of society for survival, took it for granted that life went on as usual, neither better nor worse than before. When violence struck them, they suffered, tolerated and let it go. They are the silent majority, tamed, self-protective, the vulnerable creatures.

If George and Sam could be aloof from dangers, some could not. Ole Andreson, an aging prizefighter, who is going to be killed, arouses people's great anxiety and worry about the actual life.

III. NICK ADAMS' HERO: THE CODE HERO OLE ANDRESON

Ole is an embodiment of Hemingway's code hero, a man maintaining his dignity under threat, awaiting his doomed destiny in the world devoid of meaning and purpose. When Nick told him that the killers would kill him, Ole said: "There isn't anything I can do about it." "I'm through with all that running around". "Don't you want me to go and see the police?" "No." Ole Andreson said. "That wouldn't do any good." "Isn't there something I could do?" "No. There isn't anything to do". These dialogues portray a man who is in danger and in despair, too. In the past, much before the twentieth century, man's despair could be a way awaiting God's grace for salvation. The "Supreme Being", as the absolute spirit, is always there to give men a helping hand to redeem them. Man prays, and then the godly light sedately projects into man's mind and releases him from the earthly sufferings. Pitifully Ole is a man in the modern age, when the events of the first half of the twentieth century caused a loss of confidence in the eternal truths, including faith in a Supreme Being. Atomic physics changed dramatically man's sense of time and space. The universe was not a rational one governed by definite laws of nature but an uncertain and chaotic cosmos whose operations seemed to lie beyond predictability or control. The sense of estrangement from God and reason produced a condition of anxious withdrawal that has been called "alienation". There is no exception to Ole. He believed in nothing, neither his own efforts nor the authority like the police. Equally important is the fact that he had no fears of death or anything because he had resigned himself to death.

Ole fits into Hemingway's "the code hero", who is an ordinary man, physically strong and intellectually wise, with masculine tastes. He is reserved, self-disciplined, struggling alone with firm decisiveness and stubborn determination for a doomed battle. He is a man of action, of few words, even in front of ruin and death. In this short story, Ole is a

"big man", a heavyweight prize fighter. He "was lying on the bed with all his clothes on". Throughout his dialogue with Nick, he never looked at Nick, just "talking toward the wall" and "in the same flat voice". There is not any further description of his appearance, his room or his everything. In front of the readers is an old man with all masculinity and experience, insensitive, simple, but aware of pathos or tragedy. He is bit of world weary ("I'm through with all that running around"). Mrs. Bell, the one to look after the house where Old inhabits, says that day was "a nice fall day". "Fall", a season of maturity, is not fine for Ole. It alludes to his decaying age, his worsened physical state, and certainly his approaching death.

Ole, however, holds firm his honor. In front of destruction he did not escape in frenzy or surrender to the malice willingly. Although he was still hesitant to get out of his room, he told Nick he would go out to meet his doom. He expressed his gratitude to Nick twice for coming to tell him about it. He is not unlike the Cuban fisherman Santiago in *The Old Man and the Sea* who fought a losing battle in loneliness with his "honor" kept intact. He is also the old man in *A Well-lighted Place* (1933) who drank heavily the strong alcohol Brandy during lonely nights in a Spanish café, thinking to end his life but failing to do it. He has many other companions in Hemingway's stories or novels. They, who are in their decay, even not physically decaying sometimes, are homeless, friendless. Afflicted with unknown forces, they choose to wait for their doom, to face death with stoicism, dignity, bravery (physical courage) and a detached attitude. Cleanth Brooks sums up Hemingway hero: "though he is aware of the claims of this spontaneous human emotion, is afraid to yield to those claims because he has learned that the only way to hold on to 'honor', to individuality, to the human order as against the brute chaos of the world, is to live by his code….Hemingway's heroes are aristocrats in the sense that they are the initiate, and practice a lonely virtue." (Brooks, 2005, 199) Ole exemplifies the state of mind of those in the turbulent world, who destroyed but not defeated, prevail at last.

IV. NICK ADAMS' ATTAINMENT OF MATURITY

It is from Ole that Nick learns to shake off his naivety and moves into maturity. Nick, a kind and innocent teenager, incarnates younger generation who are compelled to be dragged into troubles and thus make their own discoveries about a society which is full of brutality, disorder, and fragmentation and people in desperation. By the application of "The Theory of Windows", that is, the plots and action are arranged in specific time and spots, which, like windows, displays readers concrete tableaus and scenes and develops along with the mobile narration clues (Herman, 2002), Hemingway manages to move Nick from one mobile window scene to another, i.e., from Henry's lunchroom to Hirsch's house and from Hirsch's house to Henry's lunchroom, finally succeeds in fulfilling Nick's awakening about the world he lives in. In the scenes, as a thriller film showed, "the characters become actors, everyone of whom is free to express himself and to act, and correspondingly readers become audience who are seemingly appreciating a good film or play by the camera acted by the narrator" (Wang, 1994, 201). The windows' changes, in fact, resemble the collage of the fragmentations, and what this broken form reflects is incomplete content and information, the carrier of the disintegrated world. Thus what opens before Nick's eyes during his movement in these window scenes is not only a world of violence, but also one of fragmentation and meaninglessness.

At the onset in Henry's lunchroom, Nick looked innocent of evil and crime of the society. He is not so experienced as George. He could be shocked at the killers when with the black cook, tied up in the kitchen with a towel stuffed in the mouth. When the killers left, as simple and inexperienced as he was, he was irrigated and very indignant. Learning from George that a man named Ole Anderson was going to be shot, he immediately agreed to go to inform him despite Sam's warning of possible danger. Different from George and Sam, he was the one to do, to act and to articulate. In his dialogue with Ole, the latter was disinterested and brief in his replies. It was Nick that was the one to lead the conversation and develop it. He informed, asked questions, and gave suggestions ("Don't you want me to go and see the police?" "Isn't there something I could do?"). A younger boy as he was, he simply could not figure out the reason why Ole refused to escape. His limited years of growth were not able for him enough to probe much deep into the affair. Such an experience, whereas, could be a beginning point of his understanding to the world. Back to the lunchroom it had already dawned on him that "it's an awful thing." He decided to "get out of this town" instead of accepting George's advice "not (to) think about it". Nick's discovery of evil and violence renews his naive and simple opinions about the fragmented world. In this sense Nick is a typical Hemingway hero who is learning "the code", namely "his awareness of life, a manly love of danger and adventure, with a natural admiration of every individual who fights the good fight in a world of reality overshadowed by violence and death" (The defensive statement of Nobel Prize in 1954).

V. CONCLUSION

In *The Killers*, Hemingway, by portraying a world of instability and characters in it, successfully completes a bildungsroman, a boy's initiation into maturity under messy, and haphazard circumstances. The gangster murder epitomizes a sinister world which is glutted with blood and peril. Those involved have responded to it in their different ways, most passively, "broken physically by the brutality of war and depressed by the insensitivity and hollowness of civilized society" (Hu, 1995, 343). Nick, following the example of Ole, has a renewed sense of the world and of himself. The "code" he has learnt may not redeem himself and the world, but at least casts some light on belief in humanity and compassion. Another telling evidence is Mrs. Bell, who typifies a world of normality. To her, Ole Andreson is just a nice

and gentle man, whether he is a prize fighter or somebody else. She points to ordinary individuals and her life continues to flow on its usual course even if the unreal horror of the film thriller has come real.

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A Look into the Triggering of Presuppositions in Chinese and English

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Abstract—The paper discusses the essential properties of presupposition and then makes a comparative analysis of Chinese and English presupposition triggers. The paper finds that while many presupposition-carrying expressions are semantically and pragmatically the same in English and Chinese, the realization of presupposition expressions may differ in the two languages.

Index Terms—presupposition, essential properties, presupposition triggers, English, Chinese

I. INTRODUCTION

Presupposition is a topic widely studied in the field of linguistics. It originated in the tradition of philosophy and then came into the field of linguistics. In this paper I will mainly discuss the properties of presupposition, and attempt to make a comparison between Chinese and English presupposition triggers. The organization of the article is as follows. Section 1 introduces the definition and three conceptions of presupposition; Section 2 discusses the properties of presupposition, covering constancy under negation, defeasibility, context sensitivity and culture sensitivity. Section 3 presents a comparative analysis of Chinese and English presupposition triggers.

II. WHAT IS PRESUPPOSITION?

A simple and informal definition for presupposition can be seen in Huang (2009, p.65), where it is defined as "an inference or proposition whose truth is taken for granted in the utterance of a sentence. The main function of presupposition is to act as a precondition of some sort for the appropriate use of the sentence. This background assumption will remain in force when the sentence that contains it is negated".

In some respects, presupposition seems free of contextual effects; in other respects, though, presupposition seems sensitive to facts about the context of utterance (Saeed, 2000, p.93). Theretofore, some linguists (for example Leech, 1981) have divided presupposition into two types: semantic presupposition and pragmatic presupposition. The former analyzes presupposition from the aspect of logic and semantics, amenable to truth-relations approach; the latter requires an interactional description. Stalnaker (1974) and Sperber and Wilson (1995) contend that presupposition is essentially a pragmatic phenomenon: part of the set of assumptions made by participants in a conversation (see Levinson, 1983; Saeed, 2000). Besides the above-mentioned two conceptions, there is a third version of presupposition which stands between the two: the view that presupposition involving both linguistic forms (i.e. sentences) and language users (i.e. speakers) should be called semantic-pragmatic (Karttunen, 1973, 1974; Soames, 1982)[1].

Let us now take a look at the sources of presuppositions, i.e. the presupposition triggers. As for the number of triggers in our language, different linguists may offer different lists. For instance, Karttunen has collected thirty-one kinds of such triggers (Levinson, 1983, p.181), Levinson (1983, p.181-184) offered a list of 13 major types, and Huang (2009, p.65-67) distinguished two types of presupposition triggers: lexical triggers (e.g. definite descriptions, factive predicates, aspectual/change of state predicates, iteratives and implicative predicates) and constructional triggers (e.g. temporal clauses, cleft sentences and counterfactual conditionals). Besides what has already been mentioned, Levinson (1983, p.184) proposes other triggers of presupposition which seem to receive less attention. For example, manner adverbs generally trigger presuppositions. *The little girl smiled / didn't smile cautiously* will presuppose *The little girl smiled.* Presupposition triggers may show differences across languages. A detailed comparative analysis of Chinese and English presupposition triggers will be made in Section 3.

III. PROPERTIES OF PRESUPPOSITION

The most notable properties of presupposition are: (i) constancy under negation and (ii) defeasibility (Huang, 2009, p.67). In addition, sometimes presupposition is (iii) context sensitive and (iv) culture sensitive (i.e. the same utterance may contain different presuppositions for people in different cultures). In what follows, I'll detail the four properties.

A. Constancy under Negation

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[1] Also see Huang Yan (2009, p.90).

By constancy of negation we mean a presupposition generated by the use of a lexical item or a syntactic structure remains true when the sentence containing that lexical item or syntactic structure is negated (Huang, 2009, p.67). This property of presupposition can be expressed in the following truth relation:

a. If *p* (the presupposing sentence) is true then *q* (the presupposed sentence) is true.

b. If *p* is false, then *q* is still true.

Representative examples are given below:

(3.1) The Martians are welcome / are not welcome here[2].

>> There exist Martians.

(3.2) If I were in charge of the universe, I would / wouldn't arrange for my family to receive free Super Bowl tickets. (COCA[3])

>> I am not in charge of the universe.

The positive and negative versions of (3.1) and (3.2) contain the same presupposition, so negating the presupposing sentence does not affect the presupposition.

There are, however, problems at the heart of the notion of constancy under negation (Huang, 2009, p.68). Firstly, there is a class of sentences which are hard to negate, as in (3.3), where constancy of negation may not be necessary; secondly, constancy under negation may not be sufficient (Huang, 2009, p.68), as in (3.4a) (3.4b) (3.5).

(3.3) May our friendship last long!

>> There is friendship between us.

(3.4a) Do / don't come and meet your guest. (COCA)

?>> Your guest is here.

(3.4b) Do / don't have another piece of banana bread. (COCA)

?>> There is banana bread here.

(3.5) **您**[4] 说 吧，我 这儿 有问必答。(CCL[5])

　　　Nin shuo ba, wo zher youwenbida.

　　　YOU say-BA, I here answer all the questions.

　　　I'll answer all the questions YOU ask.

?>> The addressee is socially superior to or distant from the speaker.

Although (3.4a) (3.4b) (3.5) satisfy the condition of constancy under negation, the inference in (3.4a) (3.4b) is analyzed as felicity condition on the speech act of requesting and in (3.5) as a conventional implicature (see Levinson, 1983, p.185; Huang, 2009, p.68).

B. Defeasibility

Like conversational implicatures, presuppositions are cancellable. They are annulled if they are in conflict with (i) back ground assumptions, (ii) conversational implicatures, (iii) certain discourse contexts, and furthermore (iv) certain intra-sentential contexts.

1. Inconsistency with background assumptions

Presuppositions are sensitive to background assumptions about the world. Compare (3.6) and (3.7).

(3.6) The situation worsened before it improved.

>> The situation improved.

(3.7) The toddler was caught by his mother before he fell down the stairs.

~>> The toddler fell down the stairs.

The temporal clause, here in sentence (3.6) *before it improved* presupposes *the situation improved*. But the temporal clause in (3.7) *before he fell down the stairs* does not make the sentence carry the presupposition that *the toddler fell down the stairs*. This is because the putative presupposition conflicts with our world knowledge that once a baby falling down the stairs is caught, he/she couldn't fall down. Consequently, the presupposition is cancelled.

Now let's compare (3.6) with (3.8). The use of modal verb '*may*' in (3.8) seems to make the presupposition impossible. The possible reason may be that the word '*may*' is a non-factive verb that just expresses the uncertainty of the speaker, thus reduces the truth value of the complement.

(3.8) The situation **may** worsen before it improves.

~>> The situation improves.

2. Inconsistency with conversational implicatures

Presuppositions can be defeated by inconsistent conversational implicatures, as is illustrated in (3.9).

(3.9) If he and his family can have a normal, free life in the United States with their safety ensured I will feel happy that they can achieve this.

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[2] This example and others without source of information are created by the author of the present article. Others with source of information are noted by putting the source in the parentheses immediately after the example.

[3] http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/

[4] A respectful form of address of the second singular personal pronoun "you".

[5] http://ccl.pku.edu.cn:8080/ccl_corpus/index.jsp?dir=xiandai

+> Perhaps he and his family can have a normal, free life in the United States with their safety ensured, perhaps they cannot.

~>> He and his family have a normal, free life in the United States with their safety ensured.

The use of the factive predicate *feel happy that* in (3.9) should give rise to the potential presupposition that *he and his family have a normal, free life in the United States with their safety ensured*. However, there is also a Q-clausal conversational implicature due to the conditional (if p then q), namely, *perhaps he and his family can have a normal, free life in the United States with their safety ensured, perhaps they cannot*. With such contradictory conversational implicature, the putative presupposition here is defeated.

3. Inconsistency with certain discourse contexts

Presuppositions are contextually defeasible.

(3.10) There are no Martians. Therefore, the Martians are not welcome here.

~>> There exist Martians.

(3.11) (**A** says to the three people living in the boarding house)

A: Mr. Wainwright was killed between ten minutes past eight and ten minutes past nine, so anyone who can prove his alibi during all that time should have no worry.

B: It wasn't me who killed him. At half past eight I had a cup of coffee at the coffee-stall in Junkers Street. That's over a mile away. It's not proof, I admit, but they know me there, you see, and it may help. And it wasn't Mr. Calthrop who killed him. He was helping Mrs. Mayton with the curtain of the landing window. It had come off some of its hooks. And it wasn't Mrs. Mayton who killed him because she was fixing the curtain together with Mr. Calthrop. And I think nobody in the boarding house killed Mr. Wainwright. (A short story from *Contemporary College English*: Book 3, with some change for the convenience of analysis)

~>> Someone in this boarding house killed Mr. Wainwright.

(3.12) **A**: Has Mary's brother got divorced with his sadistic wife?

B: We should ask Mary because she is the only person who would know for sure.

C: I've asked her and she didn't know that her brother got divorced. So I think her brother is still enduring the torment of his marriage.

(3.13a) I don't know that my sister got married.

?>> My sister got married.

(3.13b) You / they don't know that my sister got married.

>> My sister got married.

In (3.10), the second sentence should presuppose that *there are Martians*. However, this putative presupposition is in conflict with the preceding proposition, namely, *there are no Martians*. As a result, the putative presupposition dissolves in the discourse context.

In (3.11), the conversational implicature in A's utterance is that *someone in the boarding house killed Mr. Wainwright*. In B's utterances, he used a lot of cleft sentences that all bear the presupposition that *someone killed Mr. Wainwright*. But the actual purpose of B is to convince A that all people in the boarding house all had their alibi, thus nobody in the boarding house killed Mr. Wainwright. In this case, the presupposition is suspended by the reduction arguments—arguments that proceed by eliminating each of the possibilities in a discourse (Huang, 2009, p.70).

In (3.12), C's utterance that *she didn't know that her brother got divorced* contains the epistemic factive predicate *know*. As a presupposition trigger, factive predicates usually presuppose the truth of their complements, in this case, namely, that *her brother got divorced*. However, the use of factive predicates in this case does not. This is because the presupposition is inconsistent with the whole of C's argument that since Mary is the person who would know her brother's state of marriage for sure, and since she didn't know that her brother got divorced, her brother did not get divorced. The presupposition is canceled in this case because the evidence for its truth is weighted and rejected (Huang, 2009, p.71).

But note that (3.13a) and (3.13b) form a contrast. Though sentence (3.13a) and sentence (3.13b) are structurally the same, sentence (a) does not have the presupposition that *my sister got married* as (b) does, which is because the presupposed sentence is inconsistent with the entailment of (a), namely, "as far as I know it is not the case that my sister got married". According to Huang (2009, p.70), when the factive predicates are used together with second / third person subject, the presupposition can often get through, while when they are used with first-person subject, presupposition sometimes drops out.

4. Inconsistency with certain intra-sentential contexts

Presuppositions can be blocked in certain intra-sentential contexts, that is, they can be defeated by using another clause in the same complex sentence to increment the local, intra-sentential context. There are mainly three subtypes of intra-sentential block of presupposition: (i) overt denial in co-ordinate clauses without apparent contradiction (see examples 3.14a and 3.14b below), (ii) explicit suspension by an *if* clause that follows (see example 3.16 below), and (iii) by verbs of saying (e.g. *say, mention, tell, ask, announce*) and verbs expressing propositional attitude (e.g. *believe, think, imagine, dream, want*) (see example 3.17 and 3.18 below).

(i) overt denial in co-ordinate clauses without apparent contradiction

(3.14a) The water is not boiling, in fact it is not even hot.

~>> The water is hot.

(3.14b) The Martians are not welcome here—there are no Martians.

~>> There are Martians.

The negation involved in overt denial of presupposition in (3.14a) and (3.14b) are generally considered as metalinguistic negation. It should be noted that positive sentences are much harder, if not impossible, to be overtly denied. Contrast (3.14a) (3.14b) with (3.15a) (3.15b).

(3.15a) * The water is boiling, in fact it is not even hot.

(3.15b) * The Martians are welcome here—there are no Martians.

(ii) explicit suspension by an *if* clause that follows

(3.16) I bet 500 pounds that the German Football will win, if I have 500 pounds.

~>> I have 500 pounds.

(iii) by verbs of saying and verbs of propositional attitude

(3.17) He said / told / informed me that the seller convinced the customers of the products value.

~>> The seller tried to make the customers believe the products value.

(3.18) He imagined / dreamed that he is the master of the universe.

~>> There is a master of the universe.

As pointed by Green (1996), the verbs of saying and verbs of propositional attitude are "world-creating" words. They can define worlds other than the real world. The use of these words might lead to the block of presupposition (also see Huang 2009, p.73).

C. Context Sensitivity

The defeasibility character of presuppositions implies that often presuppositions seem sensitive to context. Different levels of context can cause fluctuations in presuppositional behavior[6] (Saeed, 2000, p.100). Presuppositions are likely to be cancelled under certain discourse and inter-sentential[7] contexts (see sections 3.2.3 and 3.2.4).

Take the English word *leak* as an example, semantically, *leak* is neutral, its negative meaning can only be derived from the context in which it is used, as shown in (3.19).

(3.19) As soon as the Times report appeared, Congressional leaders demanded a criminal probe, and president Obama said he had "zero tolerance" for "these kinds of **leaks**."

In this example, *leak* presupposes a criminal act.

In Chinese, however, there seems to be no such a neutral word, we can either use a positive *解密*(jiemi, decipher) or a negative *泄密*(xiemi, betray confidential matters). Interestingly, *WikiLeaks* is rendered into Chinese *维基解密* (wikijiemi), not *维基泄密* (wikixiemi) because *泄密*(xiemi, betray confidential matters) usually presupposes a crime or an immoral act.

Furthermore, context sensitivity can be seen in the use of intonation in English and other languages, where the stress on different elements of the sentence can yield different presuppositions. Using capitals to show the stress, we can produce different presuppositions with examples (3.20a-c).

(3.20a) JACK loves Jill.

>> Someone loves Jill.

(3.20b) Jack loves JILL.

>> Jack loves someone.

(3.20c) Jack LOVES Jill.

>> Jack holds certain emotion toward Jill.

D. Culture Sensitivity

Culture can also be regarded as a contextual factor in its broadest sense. Here we separate it from other contextual factors and treat it as an independent property of presuppositions. Culture plays an important role in the understanding of presuppositions. Presuppositions about the reality familiar to one language community may be strange and new to another community, which may cause a gap in cross-cultural communication.

(3.21) She wore dark **Cleopatra** eyeliner and blue eye shadow and ironed her long blonde hair. (COCA)

Here in (3.21), a proper name *Cleopatra* was used. A proper name has many associations and it is culture-specific. As far as *Cleopatra* is concerned, she was the last pharaoh of Ancient Egypt. She remains a popular figure in Western culture. In most depictions, Cleopatra is portrayed as a great beauty, and her successive conquests of the world's most powerful men are taken as proof of her aesthetic and sexual appeal. So if we don't know the cultural presupposition of *Cleopatra*, we can't understand the presupposition in (3.21).

In the same way, a Chinese expression like *杜鹃花被人们誉为花中**西施*** (*Rhododendron is regarded as Xi Shi[8] of flowers*) also triggers such presupposition peculiar to Chinese culture.

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[6] At the most general level, the context provided by background knowledge; then, the context provided by the topic of conversation; and the narrower linguistic context of the surrounding syntactic structures—all can affect the production of presuppositions Saeed (1997, p.100-101).

[7] The inter-sentential contextual feature is traditionally called the projection problem, and is discussed in Gazdar (1979) and Levinson (1983); also see Saeed (1997).

IV.   A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH AND CHINESE PRESUPPOSITIONS

According to He (1988, p.119), presupposition-triggers which include most of the presupposition-carrying expressions are essentially the same in English and Chinese. But the specific linguistic forms of presuppositional expressions may differ in the two languages. Below is a brief list of their similarities and differences in presupposition triggering.

(i) Definite descriptions
Like English, Chinese definite descriptions can also trigger presuppositions (see example 4.1).
(4.1a) Qufu is the birthplace of Confucius.
>> There is a place called Qufu.
(4.1b) *上海*   是 / 不是   时尚的   城市。
        Shanghai shi / bushi   shishangde   chengshi.
        Shanghai is / isn't   modern   city.
        Shanghai is/isn't a modern city.
>> 上海   这个 城市   是 存在 的。
        Shanghai zhege chengshi shi cunzai de.
        Shanghai, this   city,   exist -DE.
        There is a city called Shanghai.

In English, the commonly used definite descriptions involve singular demonstrative pronouns *this, that*; proper names e.g. *Paris, Caesar, John*, singular personal pronouns or impersonal pronouns *he, she, I, you, it*, singular noun phrases like *the table, the old man, the king of France*. In Chinese, we can find their translational pairs such as: 这，那；巴黎，凯撒，约翰；他，她，我，你，它；这(那)张桌子，这(那)位老人，法国国王. They all presuppose the existence of the definite descriptions themselves.

(ii) Factive predicates
Chinese has the factive predicates 知道，明白，意识到，后悔，自豪，高兴，难过 etc. which correspond respectively with the English *know, understand, realize,, regret, be proud, be glad, be sad* (see example 4.2a-b).
(4.2a) I regretted telling him the truth.
>> I told him the truth.
(4.2b) 我   *高兴 /不高兴*   她 通过了   面试。
        Wo gaxing / bugaixing   ta tongguole   mianshi.
        I   happy / not happy she pass-LE   interview.
        I'm happy that she passed the interview.
>> 她   通过了   面试。
        Ta   tongguole   mianshi.
        She pass-LE   interview.
        She passed the interview.

(iii) Aspectual / change of state predicates
Chang of state predicates involve the starting or stopping of an action. In English we have *stop, start, begin, quit / give up, continue, resume, finish*. In Chinese, there are also numerous change of state verbs such as 停止, 开始, 放弃, 继续, 重新开始, 结束,离开，进来.
(4.3a) The search is expected to resume early today.
>> The search had begun and then stopped sometime before.
(4.3b) 他 *放弃了/没有放弃*   到   地铁口   唱歌。
        Ta fangqile/meifangqi   dao   ditiekou   changge.
        He give up-LE / not give up   go to   subway entrance   sing.
        He gave up/didn't give up singing at the subway entrance.
>> 他 在 地铁口   唱过   歌。
        Ta zai ditiehou   changguo   ge.
        He in subway entrance   sing-GUO song.
        He once sang at the subway entrance.

In Chinese, the change of state can also be manifested through some markers like X-起来 (become more…than before) or X-下去(become less…than before) (e.g. 胖起来 *become fat/become fatter than before*、瘦下去 *become slim/become less fat than before*，活跃起来 *become active/become more active than before*，沉静下来 *become calm/become less active than before*，沸腾起来 *become excited/become more excited than before*，强壮起来 *become*

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robust/become more robust than before，热闹起来 *become lively/become more lively than before*) which are termed as inchoative by Wang Li (Zhao, 2001, p.71) as in the following sentences (4.4).

(4.4) 这个　城镇　　　**繁荣起来了**。
Zhege　chengzhen　　fanrongqilai-LE.
This　　town　　　　prosperous-LE.
This town became prosperous.

>> 这个　城镇　　原来　　不　　繁荣。
Zhege　chengzhen yuanlai　bu　　fanrong.
This　　town　　　in the past not　prosperous.
This town was not prosperous in the past.

The change of state in Chinese can also take the form of X(dynamic adjective)-了(LE), indicating that the original situation has changed and the new state has come into being (Lv, 1980, p.260). In this way, the structure as *X-* 了 can also be regarded as a type of change of state verbs. See example (4.5).

(4.5) 他　　老了，　身体　　差了。(cited from Lv, 1980, p.260)
Ta　　lao-LE,　shenti　cha-LE.
He　　old-LE, health　bad-LE.
He became old and his health became bad.

>> 他　之前　　　不老，身体　之前　　　　不差。
Ta　zhiqian　　bulao, shenti　zhiqian　　　bucha.
He　in the past　not old, health　in the past　not poor.
He was not old and his health was not poor.

Unlike English, in Chinese, besides the commonly used change of state verbs, the change of state can be formed by adding change of state markers like *X-起来 /X- 下去, X-* 了 to show the change in the original state.

(iv) Iteratives

Like English, there are iteratives in that Chinese also trigger presuppositions. These words include 再*(zai, agian)*，再（一）次*(zaiyici, again)*，又*(you, again)*，依旧*(yijiu, still)*，依然*(yiran, still)*，回到*(huidao, return)*，不再*(buzai, no longer)*etc.

(4.6a) John is late **again**.
>> John was late before.

(4.6b) 女儿　**又**　给她　　买了　一件　新　衣裳。
Never　you　geita　　mai-LE　yijian　xin　yishang.
Daughter more for her　buy-LE　one　new　dress.
Her daughter bought her one more new dress.

>> 女儿　曾经　　给她　买过　　　新　衣裳。
Never　cengjing　geita　maiguo　　xin　　yishang.
Daughter once　for her　buy-GUO　new　　dress.
Her daughter once bought her new dresses before.

(v) Implicative predicates

In Chinese, there is a kind of words whose function in presupposing is similar to that of the implicative verbs in English (like *manage* indicates *try*; *convince* indicates *try to make believe*; *persuade* indicates *try to make do*). These Chinese words are usually made of two semantic components (Bao, 2005), such as 睡着 *(shui zhao)*，喝醉*(he zui)*，赶上*(gan shang)*，考砸*(kao za)*，抓到*(zhua dao)*，看完*(kan wan)*，洗净*(xi jing)*, where the former component denotes an action and the latter an resultative state. This kind of words asserts the result of some action and presupposes the action, as we can see in the following example.

(4.7) 战士们　　　把　　饭　**吃光了**/没把饭吃光。
Zhanshimen　ba　　fan　chiguang-LE/mei ba fan chiguang.
Soldiers　　BA- meal　eat up/not BA-meal eat up.
The soldiers ate up the meal/didn't eat up the meal.

>> 战士们　　　吃饭　了。
Zhanshimen chifan- LE.
Soldiers　　　eat meal-LE.
The soldiers ate their meal.

In English, there are a lot of such implicative verbs like *break, crash, crack* denoting both action and result. In Chinese, however, except some dialectical expressions, like Beijing dialect 碎 (here pronounced as /cei/ in Chinese phonetic alphabet, meaning 打破 *break*), there are fewer single words that can function like English implicative verbs. One possible explanation for this phenomenon is that Chinese is an analytic language. For the lack of inflectional morphemes, Chinese has to use compound words to express action and result of the action. English, on the other hand, though has lost much of the inflectional morphology over the centuries, still conserves many inflectional forms to

indicate result of action, for example, *drunk* indicates the result of the verb *drink*, *boiled* indicates the result of the verb *boil*. Here I need to acknowledge that this is only a tentative explanation, which cannot fully account for the phenomenon we talk about here.

(vi) Temporal clauses

Temporal clauses are those headed by *before*, *after*, *since*, *while* etc. In Chinese we have the equivalents 之前 *(before)*，之后*(after)*，自从*(since)*，在...时*(when)*.

(4.8a) I've been here ***since*** I graduated from college.

   >> I graduated from college.

(4.8b) 没入　　　　　这行　　***之前***，我　只 觉得 做 模特 挺 好玩。(CCL)
    Meiru　　　　zhehang zhiqian, wo zhi juede zuo mote ting haowan.
    Not come into this career before, I　just think be model fairly interesting.
    Before I came into this career, I just thought that being a model was fairly interesting.

   >> 我做了模特。
    Wo zuo-LE　　mote.
    I　become-LE model.
    I became a model.

(vii) Cleft sentences

There are two kinds of cleft constructions in English. Cleft (see 4.9) and pseudo-cleft (see 4.10).

(4.9) ***It is*** / isn't Aya who handles the finances.

   >> Someone handles the finances.

(4.10) ***What*** Aya handles is / isn't finances.

   >> Aya handles something.

In Chinese, the corresponding structures are "是某人做了某事/某人是在何时何地以何种方式做的某事 (it is sb who does sth/ it is at a certain time when / at a certain place where / in which way that sb does sth) and 某人做的某事是……(what sb does is…)." (Lan, 1999, p.13). See example (4.11a-d)

(4.11a) 是 班长　　　从 老师 那儿 借的 这 本 书。
    Shi banzhang　cong laoshi na'er　jie de zhe ben shu.
    Is　monitor　　from teacher there borrow this CL book.
    It is the monitor who borrowed the book from the teacher.

   >> 有人　　从 老师　那儿 借了　　这　本　书。
    Youren　　cong laoshi na'er jie-LE　zhe ben　shu.
    Somebody from teacher there　borrow-LE this　CL　book.
    Somebody borrowed this book from the teacher.

(4.11b) 班长　　是 从 老师 那儿 借的　　这　本　书。
    Banzhang shi cong laoshi　na'er　jiede　　zhe　bens hu.
    Monitor　is　from teacher there　borrow-DE this　CL　book.
    It is from the teacher where the monitor borrowed this book.

   >> 班长　从　某个人　那儿 借了　　这　本　书。
    Banzhang cong　mougeren na'er jiele　　zhe　ben shu.
    Monitor　from　somebody there borrow-LE this　CL　book.
    The monitor borrowed this book from somebody.

(4.11c) 班长　　从 老师 那儿 借的　　是 这 本 书。
    Banzhang cong laoshi　na'er jiede　　shi zhe ben shu.
    Monitor　from teacher there borrow-DE is　this CL book.
    It is this book that the monitor borrowed from the teacher.

   >> 班长　　从　老师 那儿 借了　某个 东西。
    Banzhang cong laoshi　na'er jiele　　mouge dongxi.
    Monitor　from teacher there borrow-LE some　thing.
    The monitor borrowed something from the teacher.

(4.11d) 班长　做的　事　　　是 从　老师　那儿 借了 这 本 书。
    Banzhang zuode shi　　shi cong laoshi　na'er　jiele　zhe ben shu.
    Monitor do-DE something is from teacher there borrow-LE this CL book.
    What the monitor did is borrowing a book from the teacher.

   >> 班长　　做了　某件事。
    Banzhang zuole　moujianshi.
    Monitor　do-LE something.
    The monitor did something.

(viii) Counterfactual conditions

In English, subjunctive conditionals generally headed by *if*, *unless* are typical counterfactual conditionals.

(4. 12) *If* Earth were a flat disk, the shadow would sometimes be oval. (COCA)

>> The earth is not a flat disk.

Note that not all if-clause are counterfactual conditionals. *If it snows tomorrow, I'll stay at home* does not presuppose that *it will not snow tomorrow*.

Besides subjunctive conditionals, there are some verbs and constructions in English that function to trigger similar presuppositions as illustrated in examples (4.13-4.15).

(4.13) I *wish* I'd been clever enough to figure out on my own how to lock down. (COCA)

>> I am not clever enough to figure out on my own how to lock down.

(4.14) The students *pretended* to be interested in the speech.

>>The students were not interested in the speech.

(4.15) They behaved *as if* they themselves were running for office.

>> They were not running for office.

In Chinese, there are the corresponding adverbial clauses introduced by *要是(if)，如果(if)，假如(if)*. See example (4.16).

(4.16) *如果 (要是/假如)* 我 是 导演， 我 会 选 他 演 男主角。

Ruguo (yaoshi/jiaru) wo shi daoyan, wo hui xuan ta yan nanzhujue.

If I am director, I will choose him play hero.

If I were the director, I would choose him to play the hero.

>> 我 不是 导演。

Wo bushi daoyan.

I not am director.

I'm not director.

V. CONCLUSION

In this essay, I first talked the definition of presupposition and then proceeded to discuss the properties of presupposition. Besides the two most widely discussed properties, i.e. constancy under negation and defeasibility, I also addressed two other properties of presupposition: context sensitivity and culture sensitivity. In Section IV, I made a tentative comparative analysis of English and Chinese presupposition triggers, from which we found that while many presupposition-carrying expressions are semantically and pragmatically the same in English and Chinese, the realization of presupposition expression may differ in the two languages. I hope this analysis helps deepen our understanding of the use and interpretation of presupposition.

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Iranian EFL Learners' Preferences toward Classroom Oral Error Correction: With a Main Focus on Their Proficiency Level

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Abstract—There are many problems associated with oral error correction in the EFL classrooms. One of these common problems is the student and teacher disagreement on the amount of error correction, type, and techniques of correcting errors. This study based on the findings of a questionnaire administered to 90 female EFL students in Pardisan Language Institute investigates: 1) Whether or not learners' (with different proficiency levels) prefer classroom oral error correction; 2) learners' prefer which types of oral error correction; and 3) Which techniques of correcting oral errors do the learners prefer. The findings of this study manifest that the majority of the students in three different levels (elementary, intermediate, and advanced) had strongly preferred that their oral errors should be corrected and they preferred to receive constant error correction. Also the majority of the students preferred vocabulary error correction over the other types of errors. Also the least favored oral error correction technique was the technique in which the teacher ignores the students' errors as for as the most favored techniques by students of three different levels were the ones in which teacher repeats the original question, asks students to repeat the utterance, explain why the response is incorrect, and finally the teacher gives students a hint which might enable them to notice the error and self-correct.

Index Terms—error, mistake, error correction, learner preferences

I. INTRODUCTION

Various factors influence student's success in foreign language (FL) learning. Top among these is the guidance, teachers provide while correcting student's oral errors. For this reason the teachers need to know learners' beliefs about language teaching and learning because a mismatch between students' expectations and the realities they encounter in the classroom can prevent improvement in the language acquisition (Horwitz, 1988). Nunan (1987) beliefs that one of the most serious blocks to learning is the mismatch between teacher and learner expectations about what should happen in the classroom. Moreover, concerning the preferences of Iranian EFL learners' at different proficiency levels there is still a need for determining which error correction techniques are the most successful at dealing with learners' errors. To sum up, this paper, deeply focusing on oral error correction among Iranian EFL learners' may provide appropriate answers to many of the English teachers' questions about how to deal and correct students oral errors in the classrooms.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Researches have investigated teachers' and students' perceptions of error correction and found mismatches between them. For example, Schulz's (1996, 2001) studies revealed that students' attitudes and preferences toward grammar instruction and error correction were more favorable than their teachers' preferences; that is, learners want more error correction. Katayama (2007) investigated Japanese students' preferences toward classroom oral error correction. The results indicated that students preferred teacher correction and having their 'pragmatic errors' corrected over the other types of errors. Yet, one would readily admit that it is important for learners to feel that their perceived needs are being catered to if they are to develop a positive attitude toward what they are learning.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESIS

This study sought to find out answers to the following research questions:
1. Whether or not the Iranian EFL learners' at different proficiency levels prefer classroom oral error correction?
2. Learners prefer which types of oral error correction? (e.g. pronunciation and grammar)
3. Which techniques of correcting oral errors do the learners' prefer?

Accordingly, the following hypotheses were formulated:

1. There is a positive preference among Iranian EFL learner's with different proficiency levels regarding oral error correction.

2. There is a positive preference in pronunciation correction among Iranian EFL learners.

3. Learners prefer self-correction over other correction techniques.

IV. METHODOLOGY

Participants

90 female students enrolled at Pardisan English language institution participated in this study. The student participant's proficiency levels varied from elementary to advance. These participants were chosen among 150 female students by the institution's placement tests which is approved to be a standard test between all language institutions which teach new Interchange books, including reading, grammar, and oral interview components. The testers were MA or PHD professors whom taught English at universities and institutions. The total number of 150 population were divided into three groups of 50 elementary, 50 intermediate, and 50 advanced level students after the placement tests. Among 50 elementary students, 30 students with the closest scores were chosen. Similarly among 50 intermediate students, 30 students with the closest scores were chosen, and likewise 30 students from 50 advanced students with the closest scores were chosen and participated in the survey. Consequently, all the classes in three different levels were homogeneous. These 90 female students were divided into 6 classes: (2 elementary, 2 intermediate, and 2 advanced level classes).All student participants were EFL learners with nearly the same background knowledge and their ages ranged from 14 to 36 years old.

Instruments

A questionnaire (shown in the Appendix) was developed based on a literature review of previous studies of learner errors and teacher feedback on errors (Katayama, 2007) in order to elicit information on student's preferences regarding oral error correction. For student's better understanding the original questionnaire in English was translated into Persian. The Persian version of the questionnaire was checked out by three PHD professors to remove any suspicion on the translation matter. The questionnaire contains four sections. The first section contained questions eliciting demographic information, including the student's age, level of study, if ever they have lived in an English speaking country before, whether they speak English outside the classroom context or not?, and if they wish to improve their learning skills? The second section addressed Research Question1 and asked the student's general opinions about the correction of oral errors in the classroom. The section contained four statements illustrating certain views that have been controversial among language researchers and educators for decades. These views included: whether or not learner errors should be corrected; when learner errors should be corrected (i.e., constantly or selectively); and who should correct errors, teachers or peers. The students were asked to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement with four different statements. Response options were coded to 5-point scales, with 1 representing *strongly disagree* and 5 representing *strongly agree*. The students were given the option of explaining the reasons for their rating in order to provide this research with "useful" qualitative data. The third section addressed Research Question2 and asked about student's preferences for classroom error correction of different aspects of the language. The students were asked how often they wanted classroom error correction of different types of grammar; vocabulary, pragmatics, and discourse were used in the questionnaire. Participants rated each time on 5-point scale, with 1 representing *never* and 5 representing *always* with respect to frequency of correction. The last section addressed Research Question3 and asked about student's preferences for particular types of error correction techniques. The students were asked to rate ten different techniques of error correction (shown in section D of the questionnaire in the Appendix) provided by teachers, first as feedback to student's grammatical errors, and then as feedback to student's pronunciation errors for each technique. Examples of errors were presented in the questionnaire. The rating for student's opinions about each technique was measured on a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 representing *bad* to 5 representing *very good*(katayama,2007).

Procedure

For the main study, a total number of 90 female students were chosen among 150 female students from Pardisan English language institution. They were divided into 6 classes of elementary, intermediate and advanced levels by standard placement tests. The researcher was the teacher of those 6 classes for about a semester and during this period the student's oral errors were corrected by the 10 different techniques stated in the questionnaire. In order to ensure that the questionnaire was reliable and did not have any parts causing misunderstanding a pilot study was conducted with 50 students out of the same 90 students (8 elementary, 24 intermediate, and 18 advanced students) which were chosen randomly. After conducting the piloting of the questionnaire, Cronbach Alpha value was calculated for the different sections of the questionnaire. The Cronbachs' Alpha value calculated for each section items are as follows:

Section (B): $\alpha = 0.53$

Section (Da): $\alpha = 0.77$ (ten rated feedbacks to student's grammatical errors).

Section (Db): $\alpha = 0.8$ (ten rated feedbacks to student's phonological errors).

The overall estimated α for the whole questionnaire was 0/88 which indicated that the questionnaire was reliable. Having piloted the instrument, the researcher conducted the main course of the study. At the end of semester the total

number of 90 students were gathered and supplied with the questionnaire. After that the sheets were scored according to the rating of the students and for the final result were analyzed by SPSS software.

V. DATA ANALYSIS

The data reported were analyzed by using descriptive statistical techniques by SPSS software including percentages and frequencies. The calculations of frequencies and percentages provided the findings about whether or not the Iranian EFL learners' prefer classroom oral error correction based on their level of proficiency.

VI. RESULTS AND CONCLUSION

The results obtained, addressing the first research question manifest that almost all of the learners in three different levels had a strong positive preference toward error correction and the students favored to receive constant error correction rather than the selective one. As for peer correction in group works a total number of 86.7% of elementary students , 60% of intermediate students , and 43.4% of advanced level students agreed and strongly agreed .(shown in Tables 1, 2, 3).

TABLE 1:
ELEMENTARY STUDENTS' PREFERENCES TOWARD ERROR CORRECTION (KATAYAMA, 2007)

Item	N	Strongly disagree 1 (%)	Disagree 2 (%)	Neutral 3 (%)	Agree 4 (%)	strongly agree 5 (%)	Mean	SD
I want teachers to correct my errors in speaking English.	30	3/3	0	0	6/7	90	4/8	0/76
Teacher should correct all errors that learners make in speaking English.	30	0	3/3	0	0	96/7	4/9	0/54
Teacher should correct only the error that interferes with communication.	30	76/7	6/7	10	3/3	3/3	1/5	1/04
I want my classmates to correct my oral errors in group work.	30	10	3/3	0	26/7	60	4/2	1/27

TABLE 2:
INTERMEDIATE STUDENTS' PREFERENCES TOWARD ERROR CORRECTION (KATAYAMA, 2007)

Item	N	Strongly disagree 1 (%)	disagree 2 (%)	Neutral 3 (%)	agree 4 (%)	strongly agree 5 (%)	Mean	SD
I want teachers to correct my errors in speaking English.	30	0	3/3	0	16/7	80	4/7	0/63
Teacher should correct all errors that learners make in speaking English.	30	0	3/3	3/3	33/3	60	4/5	0/73
Teacher should correct only the error that interferes with communication.	30	50	36/7	3/3	3/3	6/7	1/8	1/12
I want my classmates to correct my oral errors in group work.	30	13/3	10	16/7	26/7	33/3	3/5	1/40

TABLE 3:
ADVANCED STUDENTS' PREFERENCES TOWARD ERROR CORRECTION (KATAYAMA, 2007)

Item	N	Strongly disagree 1 (%)	disagree 2 (%)	Neutral 3 (%)	agree 4 (%)	strongly agree 5 (%)	Mean	SD
I want teachers to correct my errors in speaking English.	30	0	0	0	30	70	4/7	0/46
Teacher should correct all errors that learners make in speaking English.	30	0	6/7	16/7	20	56/7	4/2	0/98
Teacher should correct only the errors that interfere with communication.	30	20	40	20	13/3	6/7	2/4	1/16
I want my classmates to correct my oral errors in group work.	30	10	20	26/7	26/7	16/7	3/2	1/24

Consequently, the lower level students favored peer correction in group works more than the higher level ones. Considering students preferences toward peer correction, we reach to a point that there are some variables such as age differences, self-confidence, personality style, maturation development, and … that indicated such differences between lower level and higher level students preferences toward peer correction in group works.

As for the types of errors students wanted to have corrected (second research question), the majority of the students in the three different levels expressed their preference in grammatical and vocabulary error correction over the other types (Shown in Tables 4, 5, 6.).

TABLE 4:
TYPES OF ERRORS ELEMENTARY STUDENTS WANTED TO HAVE CORRECTED (KATAYAMA, 2007)

Item	N	never 1 (%)	often 2 (%)	neutral 3 (%)	sometimes 4 (%)	always 5 (%)	Mean	SD
Grammar	30	0	0	0	6/7	93/3	4/9	0/25
Phonology	30	0	6/7	0	10	83/3	4/7	0/79
Vocabulary	30	0	0	3/3	13/3	83/3	4/8	0/48
Pragmatics	30	0	3/3	6/7	6/7	83/3	4/7	0/74
Discourse	30	13/3	3/3	6/7	16/7	60	4	1/43

TABLE 5:
TYPES OF ERRORS INTERMEDIATE STUDENTS WANTED TO HAVE CORRECTED (KATAYAMA, 2007)

Item	N	never 1 (%)	often 2 (%)	neutral 3 (%)	sometimes 4 (%)	always 5 (%)	Mean	SD
Grammar	30	0	3/3	0	10	86/7	4/8	0/61
Phonology	30	0	6/7	10	20	63/3	4/4	0/93
Vocabulary	30	0	6/7	3/3	20	70	4/5	0/86
Pragmatics	30	6/7	0	6/7	30	56/7	4/3	1/08
Discourse	30	0	13/3	13/3	40	33/3	3/9	1/01

TABLE 6:
TYPES OF ERRORS ADVANCED STUDENTS WANTED TO HAVE CORRECTED (KATAYAMA, 2007)

Item	N	never 1 (%)	often 2 (%)	neutral 3 (%)	sometimes 4 (%)	always 5 (%)	Mean	SD
Grammar	30	0	3/3	0	23/3	73/3	4/6	0/66
Phonology	30	0	3/3	3/3	36/7	56/7	4/4	0/73
Vocabulary	30	0	0	6/7	26/7	66/7	4/6	0/62
Pragmatics	30	0	0	10	36/7	53/3	4/4	0/67
Discourse	30	0	0	13/3	40	46/7	4/3	0/71

And finally the results obtained in the process of responding to the third research question demonstrated that, the technique of classroom error correction mostly preferred by the elementary students for both the grammatical and phonological errors was the one in which the teacher repeats the original question. As for the intermediate students most favored correction technique for both the grammatical and phonological errors was the one in which the teacher explains why the response is incorrect.

Lastly, the advanced students favored correction technique for grammatical errors was the one in which the teacher explains why the response is incorrect, and for phonological errors was the one in which the teacher gives student a hint which might enable student to notice the error and self-correct (Shown in Tables 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12).

TABLE 7:
ELEMENTARY STUDENTS FAVORED CORRECTION TECHNIQUES FOR GRAMMATICAL ERRORS (KATAYAMA, 2007)

Correction technique	N	Bad (%)	no Good (%)	Neutral (%)	Good (%)	Very good (%)	Mean	SD
T repeats the original question.	30	0	6/7	0	13/3	80	3/7	0/58
T asks S' to repeat the utterance.	30	3/3	0	6/7	13/3	76/7	3/5	1/13
T repeats S' utterance up to the error and waits for self-correction.	30	10	0	3/3	16/7	70	3/4	1/13
T gives S' a hint which might enable S to notice the error and self-correct.	30	6/7	0	6/7	13/3	73/3	3/4	1/22
T points out the error and provides the correct response.	30	10	3/3	3/3	6/7	76/7	3/4	1/16
T indicates that an error occurred by nonverbal behavior, such as gesture and facial expressions.	30	16/7	3/3	0	10	70	3/3	1/15
T explains why the response is incorrect.	30	26/7	0	0	6/7	66/7	3/1	1/33
T presents the correct response or part of the response.	30	16/7	0	10	6/7	66/7	3	1/51
T indicates the error.	30	53/3	3/3	10	10	23/3	1/8	1/41
T ignores S' error.	30	86/7	6/7	0	6/7	0	3/8	0/55

TABLE 8:
INTERMEDIATE STUDENTS FAVORED CORRECTION TECHNIQUES FOR GRAMMATICAL ERRORS (KATAYAMA, 2007)

Correction technique	N	Bad (%)	no Good (%)	Neutral (%)	Good (%)	Very good (%)	Mean	SD
T explains why the response is incorrect.	30	0	0	6/7	13/3	80	3/6	1/03
T gives S' a hint which might enable S to notice the error and self-correct.	30	0	3/3	3/3	40	53/3	3/4	0/85
T asks S' to repeat the utterance.	30	3/3	6/7	6/7	36/7	46/7	3/1	1/13
T repeats S' utterance up to the error and waits for self-correction.	30	3/3	10	6/7	26/7	53/3	3/1	1/17
T points out the error and provides the correct re-sponse.	30	6/7	13/3	6/7	10	63/3	3/1	1/28
T repeats the original question.	30	0	10	16/7	30	43/3	2/8	1/44
T indicates the error.	30	6/7	13/3	10	43/3	26/7	2/7	1/23
T presents the correct response or part of the re-sponse.	30	13/3	10	13/3	26/7	36/7	2/6	1/45
T indicates that an error occurred by nonverbal behavior, such as gesture and facial expressions.	30	13/3	10	20	20	36/7	2/4	1/58
T ignores S' error.	30	76/7	3/3	3/3	6/7	10	3/4	1/19

TABLE 9:
ADVANCED STUDENTS FAVORED CORRECTION TECHNIQUES FOR GRAMMATICAL ERRORS (KATAYAMA, 2007)

Correction technique	N	Bad (%)	no Good (%)	Neutral (%)	Good (%)	Very good (%)	Mean	SD
T explains why the response is incorrect.	30	13/3	3/3	6/7	20	56/7	3	1/33
T gives S' a hint which might enable S to notice the error and self-correct.	30	3/3	13/3	6/7	43/3	33/3	2/9	1/11
T points out the error and provides the correct response.	30	6/7	13/3	6/7	23/3	50	3	1/24
T asks S' to repeat the utterance.	30	10	23/3	3/3	43/3	20	2/6	1/02
T repeats the original question.	30	3/3	20	16/7	43/3	16/7	2/4	1/30
T presents the correct response or part of the response.	30	3/3	30	13/3	23/3	30	2/5	1/33
T repeats S' utterance up to the error and waits for self-correction.	30	3/3	20	23/3	30	23/3	2/2	1/48
T indicates the error.	30	26/7	6/7	26/7	33/3	6/7	1/6	1/37
T indicates that an error occurred by nonverbal behavior, such as gesture and facial expressions.	30	16/7	20	30	23/3	10	1/6	1/39
T ignores S' error.	30	96/7	0	3/3	0	0	3/8	0/73

TABLE 10:
ELEMENTARY STUDENTS FAVORED CORRECTION TECHNIQUES FOR PHONOLOGICAL ERRORS (KATAYAMA, 2007)

Correction technique	N	Bad (%)	no Good (%)	Neutral (%)	Good (%)	Very good (%)	Mean	SD
T repeats the original question.	30	0	3/3	3/3	16/7	76/7	3/6	0/85
T asks S' to repeat the utterance.	30	3/3	0	6/7	10	80	3/5	1/13
T repeats S' utterance up to the error and waits for self-correction.	30	10	0	0	20	70	3/5	0/93
T points out the error and provides the correct re-sponse.	30	10	3/3	0	10	76/7	3/5	0/97
T gives S' a hint which might enable S to notice the error and self-correct.	30	10	0	3/3	10	76/7	3/4	1/13
T indicates that an error occurred by nonverbal behavior, such as gesture and facial expressions.	30	16/7	3/3	3/3	10	66/7	3/2	1/29
T presents the correct response or part of the re-sponse.	30	16/7	6/7	6/7	6/7	63/3	3	1/42
T explains why the response is incorrect.	30	26/7	0	3/3	6/7	63/3	3	1/43
T indicates the error.	30	53/3	0	10	6/7	30	1/9	1/50
T ignores S' error.	30	93/3	3/3	0	0	3/3	3/8	0/57

TABLE 11:
INTERMEDIATE STUDENTS FAVORED CORRECTION TECHNIQUES FOR PHONOLOGICAL ERRORS (KATAYAMA, 2007)

Correction technique	N	Bad (%)	no Good (%)	Neutral (%)	Good (%)	Very good (%)	Mean	SD
T explains why the response is incorrect.	30	0	0	10	6/7	83/3	3/5	1/22
T asks S' to repeat the utterance.	30	3/3	6/7	3/3	40	46/7	3/2	0/97
T gives S' a hint which might enable S to notice the error and self-correct.	30	0	3/3	13/3	36/7	46/7	3	1/32
T repeats the original question.	30	0	10	16/7	26/7	46/7	2/8	1/45
T points out the error and provides the correct response.	30	6/7	6/7	16/7	13/3	56/7	2/8	1/56
T repeats S' utterance up to the error and waits for self-correction.	30	3/3	10	16/7	30	40	2/7	1/46
T presents the correct response or part of the response.	30	10	10	13/3	20	46/7	2/7	1/47
T indicates the error.	30	6/7	13/3	13/3	40	26/7	2/6	1/32
T indicates that an error occurred by nonverbal behavior, such as gesture and facial expressions.	30	16/7	6/7	20	13/3	43/3	2/4	651/
T ignores S' error.	30	76/7	3/3	10	0	10	3/2	1/43

TABLE 12:
ADVANCED STUDENTS FAVORED CORRECTION TECHNIQUES FOR PHONOLOGICAL ERRORS (KATAYAMA, 2007)

Correction technique	N	Bad (%)	no Good (%)	Neutral (%)	Good (%)	Very good (%)	Mean	SD
T gives S' a hint which might enable S to notice the error and self-correct.	30	3/3	16/7	3/3	46/7	30	2/9	0/96
T points out the error and provides the correct response.	30	6/7	13/3	10	16/7	53/3	2/9	1/37
T explains why the response is incorrect.	30	13/3	10	10	20	46/7	2/8	1/42
T asks S' to repeat the utterance.	30	13/3	20	6/7	40	20	2/5	1/16
T repeats the original question.	30	10	23/3	10	/343	13/3	2/4	1/16
T presents the correct response or part of the response.	30	3/3	30	13/3	26/7	26/7	2/5	1/30
T repeats S' utterance up to the error and waits for self-correction.	30	6/7	16/7	23/3	30	23/3	2/2	1/50
T indicates that an error occurred by nonverbal behavior, such as gesture and facial expressions.	30	16/7	16/7	26/7	30	10	1/8	1/39
T indicates the error.	30	26/7	6/7	26/7	36/7	3/3	1/6	1/32
T ignores S' error.	30	76/7	6/7	13/3	0	3/3	3/3	1/44

Of course these results are based on the percentage of the respondents who gave scores of 4 and 5 in the last section of the questionnaire. Over all the current results emphasize the importance of teachers being familiar with a variety of oral correction strategies so as to cater for students' individual factors such as learning styles, personalities, preferences, attitudes, and aptitudes. Moreover, teachers should be able to create a classroom environment which is unthreatening and conducive to effective learning. Further, students opinions should be taken into account and their preferences should be taken seriously because error correction is provided for their sake, and thus they should have a say in who, when, how, and what of their error correction. Additionally, the teachers should take the opportunity to find out their students opinions and preferences toward the pedagogical practice.

VII. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS AND APPLICATIONS

The results obtained in the current study may provide useful insights regarding the Iranian EFL learner's preferences toward classroom oral error correction with a main focus on their proficiency level. The results of the research also give important hints about the Iranian EFL learner's preferences on the correction of errors regarding not only grammar and vocabulary usage but also peer-correction, teacher-feedback techniques and self-correction. Thus, instructors and teachers at institutions or schools may focus on the preferences of the learners regarding their oral errors and the learners may also become more conscious about error correction in general. Firstly, the Iranian EFL learners do not prefer direct error correction especially in elementary and intermediate levels for grammatical error correction. Thus, the teachers should be sensitive about not providing direct feedback to them. In addition, advanced learners tend to prefer direct error correction more than other levels. The Iranian elementary, intermediate, and advanced level students are sensitive about the correction of grammar and vocabulary and phonological errors more than the other errors. For this reason, the teachers should provide feedback about their oral grammatical, lexicon, and pronunciation errors without hurting their feelings. Secondly, the elementary (86/7%) and intermediate (60%) students prefer peer-correction in group works because they feel more comfortable with their friends and by peer-correction they feel that they could enhance their self-confidence. Thus, the teachers should tolerate peer correction. However, the learners expect teacher confirmation after peer-correction. All these may suggest that all level learners are not ready to be corrected by their peers as they are still teacher-dependent. Elementary learners are more sensitive and conscious about peer-correction and the intermediate and advanced level learners should be more trained and motivated for peer-correction. Thirdly, the Iranian learners pre-

fer constant error correction over the selective one. When circumstances do not allow the teachers to modify their class-room practices, they should explain their rationale to their students. Such explanations could at least partially minimize conflict in preferences between teachers and students. Both the learners and the teachers should have more opportunities to learn more about the correction of oral errors. Conferences, workshops and seminars should be organized so that teachers and students can be more conscious. Fourthly, the EFL teachers should be trained for various correction techniques regarding their students' level of proficiency, age, preference. Fifthly, the EFL learners should be motivated and trained to correct their oral errors by themselves. Thus the EFL teachers need to be trained for various self-correction strategies. Sixthly, it can be suggested that material developers, while writing Iranian school text books for different grades, can benefit from the findings of this study. They can develop the text books in a way that more attention should be paid to communication rather than strict grammar and lexicon. This indicates a significant change in our educational system and removing the entrance examinations of universities. Therefore without only enhancing the students' grammar and vocabulary knowledge at schools, we can improve their abilities in communication, allowing them to be able to be good speakers in daily-life conversations. And lastly, the material writers can focus on more group working activities, consequently, the teachers should develop peer-correction in group works.

VIII. Suggestions for Further Research

Based on the limitations of the current study, further studies may be carried out with more participants including both male and female learners in different EFL contexts. It is recommended to extend such studies by involving EFL learners involved in schools or universities to see whether the same or different findings are resulted. Attending to this suggestion and conducting similar studies may make it easier to generalize the findings to larger contexts. In addition to using a single questionnaire for the learners, likewise a questionnaire may be handed out to the Iranian EFL teachers in order to elicit information on their preferences toward the oral error correction. In addition, teacher's preferences and student's preferences may be compared with each other to analyze the similarities and differences of their viewpoints. Even the learners and the teachers may be interviewed and classroom observation can be carried out. Classroom observations and interviews may broaden the perspectives of the research. Another recommendation is research that addresses the reasons for the student's preferences for particular correction techniques as well as preferences for classroom error corrections of different types of errors. Another recommendation is investigating cross-cultural differences to find out whether learner's perceptions differ across cultures. Lastly, in a likewise study we can find out about the time of error correction or in other words whether learners prefer immediate or delayed correction of their errors.

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The Effect of Meta-cognitive Learning Strategies on English Learning

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Abstract—**It is generally recognized that success in language learning lies partly in the possession of certain skills or learning strategies which will make language leaning more successful, autonomous, pleasurable, efficient and transferable to new situation. Based on an empirical study, this paper aims to illustrate to what degree learning strategies will affect language learning and how strategies are used among high-achieving students and lower scoring ones. The findings of the study reveals the positive effect of learning strategies as well as the importance and necessity of applying strategies training to English teaching.**

Index Terms—**meta-cognitive learning strategies, autonomous learning, CET-4**

I. INTRODUCTION

College English should be a teaching system that is based not only on linguistic knowledge and skills, but also on learning strategies. Learning strategies are "behaviors and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that are intended to influence the learner's encoding process" (Weinstein and Mayer, 1986, p. 315). Lack of learning strategies results in the fact that English for a long time upset most of Chinese students.

Learning strategies refers to knowledge about when and how to use particular strategies to learn or to solve problem. These learning strategies are important elements in the realization of autonomous learning—the key to learning English well. Oxford (1990) refers to learning strategy as behaviors or actions learners employ to make language leaning more "successful, self-directed, enjoyable, effective and transferable to new situation" (p. 8).

Of all the learning strategies, meta-cognitive strategies play the most significant role in the success of independent learning. O'Malley & Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1990) refers to meta-cognitive strategies as the thoughts and activities that can help learners think about their learning process, make plan for learning, monitor how learning is taking place, and appraise the learning outcome. By practicing and applying meta-cognitive strategies, students will become good learners, capable of handling any problem across an English curriculum.

However, teachers might have the misconception that university students must have already been familiar with these strategies and experienced in using them. The truth is that most students have no ideas about the meta-cognitive process. Yet only through "thinking about thinking" and using meta-cognitive strategies students do truly learn. In view of this, this study aims to examine the frequency of meta-cognitive strategies use in English learning at university level and their relationship with the university students' English performances.

II. THEORETICAL BASES

Meta-cognitive strategy is based on the notion of meta-cognition. According to Flavell (1976), meta-cognition refers to one's knowledge of his or her own cognitive processes and products and anything that is related to them, such as learning-relevant properties of data or other useful information. Briefly, meta-cognition refers to "a person's awareness of his or her own level of knowledge and thought processes" (Chew, cited by Lang, 2012), which is regarded as a higher level of cognition. "In education, it has to do with students' awareness of their actual level of understanding of a topic" (Chew, cited by Lang, 2012).

Flavell (1979, 1987) states that meta-cognition includes both meta-cognitive knowledge and experiences. Meta-cognitive knowledge is the knowledge learner has gained about cognitive processes, knowledge that can be used to regulate cognitive processes. Meta-cognitive knowledge can be divided into three categories, one of which is knowledge of strategy variables, including knowledge about both cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies, and conditional knowledge about when and where it is proper to employ such strategies (Flavell, 1979, 1987). Meta-cognitive experiences refer to the use of meta-cognitive strategies or meta-cognitive regulation (Brown, 1987). Meta-cognitive strategies are successive processes to manage or regulate cognitive activities, thus ensuring that a cognitive goal will be gained. These processes contribute to regulation and managing of learning, and include planning and monitoring cognitive activities, as well as evaluating the outcomes of those activities.

Similar to meta-cognitive knowledge, meta-cognitive regulation or "regulation of cognition" involves three important skills—planning, monitoring and evaluating. (Schraw, 1998; Jacobs & Paris, 1987).

Planning: refers to choosing the proper learning strategies and make sensible use of resources that can have an effect on performing the learning task. Planning includes goal setting, material reading, and questioning and task analysis.

Planning or preparation is one of most important meta-cognitive strategies one can use to improve learning. Taking planning strategy, students are thinking about what their goals are and how they can accomplish those goals efficiently and effectively.

Monitoring: refers to supervision of activities in progress to ensure that everything is under control, thus performance goal can be met. Monitoring is what we take to keep track of how learning process is going. These strategies help learners notice that they may have problems on comprehension and concentration, so that they can find problems out and correct them.

Evaluating: refers to evaluating the outcome of a task, how well the task was accomplished, and the strategies used during the learning process. Evaluating is connected with monitoring. For instance, when the learner realize the fact that he doesn't understand a part of reading material, he would go back reading that paragraph again; when confused about a question, they would skip it and finish the easier ones first. Students' learning behaviors can be corrected through evaluating so that they can have better comprehension.

It is recognized that students tend to perform better on exams and complete work more efficiently if they possess a wide range of meta-cognitive skills. These students tend to be more self-regulated, who can use the "right tool for the job" and they can change learning strategies and skills when necessary to ensure learning efficiency. Those who have a high level of meta-cognitive knowledge and skill can notice obstacles to learning timely and change strategies to ensure goal achievement. After studying the students' ability to solve problems in the fifth and sixth grade, Swanson (1990) concluded that meta-cognitive knowledge can make up for IQ and lack of prior knowledge. Students with a high meta-cognition tended to have used fewer strategies, but could solve problems more effectively than low meta-cognition students, without regard to IQ or previously-required knowledge. Those who have high meta-cognition know clearly about their own advantages and disadvantages, the nature of the task they are performing, and available "tools" or skills, all of which will help to attain the learning goal. These tools or skills are probably more useful in different learning situations if they are general, universal, and independent of circumstances.

Usually, several meta-cognitive processes may work together simultaneously during English learning task and various strategies should be combined to facilitate the improvement of learning outcome. Meta-cognitive strategies instruction can involve training students in thinking skills helpful to regulate their own learning. For Examples, strategies that students can be trained to practice include schedule-making skills, "active reading strategies, listening skills, organizational skills and creating mnemonic devices" (Thompson, L & Thompson, M, 1998, p. 243). Chamot and Rubin (1994) also point out that it is not a particular strategy that leads to improved performance, but rather the executive management of a repertoire of strategies. Undoubtedly, when those strategies take effect harmoniously, they do correlate to improve learners' performance.

It is generally recognized that learners use meta-cognitive strategies to monitor, evaluate, regulate or manage his or her learning. O'Malley and Chamot (1990, p. 227) points out the conviction that students without mastering meta-cognitive strategies do not have direction and ability to evaluate their progress, achievements and to determine their own future direction of learning. Clearly, the meta-cognitive strategies are to enable learners to take on their responsibility for learning advanced management methods or tools. They are closely linked with autonomous learning skills such as planning, monitoring, evaluating, reflecting, decision-making, accessing and organizing information. They have also been proved to best predict the success in learning English. Wenden (1991) maintains that it is necessary to introduce strategy training into plans of developing learner autonomy. She described the autonomous learners as those who have gained the strategies and knowledge to assume some responsibility for her own language learning on a willing and self-confident basis (Wenden, 1991, p. 163).

Therefore, meta-cognitive strategies, the most universal and applicable to all kinds of learning, should be developed first (Oxford, 1990, p. 202). It is of great significance to make learners aware of meta-cognitive strategies that play a fundamental part in learner autonomy. For university students, to become aware of meta-cognitive strategies and integrate them into their daily learning process is more important than ever. Therefore, teachers are responsible to make students familiar with mate-cognitive strategies and cultivate their abilities to manage their own learning and be an autonomous learner.

III. CORRELATION BETWEEN META-COGNITIVE STRATEGIES AND CET-4[1] SCORES

A. Research Questions

The research will focus on the frequency of college students' application of meta-cognitive strategies; the correlation between college students' English levels and their use of meta-cognitive strategies; comparison of the frequency difference between high-achieving students and lower-scoring ones.

B. Participants

Two groups of non-English major sophomore students are chosen as participants in Beijing Information Science and Technology University. The first group consists of 30 students with grades higher than 560 gained in the CET-band 4 examination and the rest 30 students constitute the second group with grades lower than 450.

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[1] CET-4 (College English Test band 4) is one of the most important national English examinations in China.

C. Research Instruments

The instrument used for collecting data on meta-cognitive strategy use is a questionnaire based on Oxford's *Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)* (1989), which is designed mainly for testing the level of meta-cognitive strategy use. Some modification has to be made to meet the needs of the study. In order to ensure the reliability of the questionnaire, it was used on a small scale before the study and made necessary changes to the items. Finally, the Cronbach's Alpha for each part reached a high level (0.798), confirming the reliability for the items.

The students' performance in CET- band 4 is used as a measurement of their proficiency in English because it is a comprehensive national examination testing the major English skills including listening, reading and writing.

D. Procedure

The questionnaires were handed out in the class and all attendants were told before doing the questionnaires that there was no wrong or right for their answers and their choices are totally anonymous, so they should make choice honestly. The data obtained from the questionnaires were analyzed by SPSS 18.0.

E. Results and Discussions

Table 1 shows the general description of meta-cognitive strategies use among all the students. According to Oxford (1990, p. 300), mean sores that fall between 1.0 and 2.4 are defined as "low strategy use", 2.5 and 3.4 as "medium strategy use", and 3.5 and 5.0 as "high strategy use".

It is revealed in Table 1 that the mean value of 11 items ranges from 2.541 to 3.460, indicating that the students use meta-cognitive strategies in a medium level. Thus, it can be concluded that most participants don't use meta-cognitive strategies on a frequent and satisfying basis.

Among all the 11 questions, item 3 shows the highest mean value of 3.4595, while item 5 and 6 present the same mean value of 2.5405 which are also the lowest. This shows that most college students have the ability to be aware of their mistakes and tend to improve learning based on mistake analysis, but they are weak in making plans in learning languages and less active in practicing English in daily life, perhaps mostly because the mother-tongue environment prevent them from finding opportunities to do that. However, as far as those good independent learners who have strong awareness of meta-cognitive strategies, it is by no means an obstacle to language learning, because learning opportunities can be created on a conscious basis.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF META-COGNITIVE STRATEGIES

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
N	Valid	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		2.649	2.973	3.460	2.838	2.541	2.541	2.811	2.649	2.703	2.676	2.784
Std. Deviation		.978	.763	1.016	.928	1.016	.960	.908	.716	.777	.974	.917

Table 2 shows that the high-achieving group scores higher than lower-scoring group in almost all of the 11 items (9 items with P<0.05, indicating that the scores of the 9 items are significantly different). As a whole, the mean value of total 11 items of group A is 3.0682, while that of group B is only 2.3636.

TABLE 2
A COMPARISON OF MEAN VALUE BETWEEN DIFFERENT PROFICIENCY GROUPS

Questions	High-achieving group	Lower-scoring group	Sig. (2-tailed)
1	2.500	2.500	1.00
2	3.083	2.750	.004
3	4.167	3.000	.000
4	2.833	2.875	.871
5	2.667	2.375	.310
6	2.583	1.750	.001
7	3.417	2.000	.000
8	3.000	2.000	.000
9	3.083	1.875	.000
10	3.167	2.250	.000
11	3.250	2.625	.001
Total	3.068	2.364	.001

Table 3 shows that the difference between mean values of two groups are significant with p=0.011＜0.05, indicating that high-achieving group use meta-cognitive strategies more frequently than lower-scoring group.

TABLE 3
DIFFERENCE OF MEAN VALUE BETWEEN TWO GROUPS

Group	N	Mean value	Std. Deviation	(Independent sample test) Sig. (2-tailed)
High-achieving group	30	3.068	0.831	0.011
Lower-scoring group	30	2.364	0.794	

It is shown in Table 4 that correlations between CET-4 scores and use of meta-cognitive strategies is significant greatly and positively, which reveals that the more frequently the students use meta-cognitive strategies, the better they will perform in the examination and vise versa. This further confirms the claim that frequent use of learning strategies will improve learning ability and in the long run English proficiency will be increased as well.

TABLE 4
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN CET-4 SCORES AND USE OF META-COGNITIVE STRATEGIES

		Score of CET-4	Score of questionnaire
Score of CET-4	Pearson Correlation	1	.457[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.004
	N	60	60
Score of questionnaire	Pearson Correlation	.457[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	
	N	60	60
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

To sum up, we find in the study that high-archiving students use meta-cognitive learning strategies more frequently than lower-scoring students and the correlation between CET-4 scores and employment of meta-cognitive strategies are significant greatly and positively, thus we can draw the conclusion that employment of learning strategies, consciously or unconsciously, leads to enhancement of learning efficiency and thus improving English performance in the exam.

Since meta-cognitive strategies have a significant effect on language learners' proficiency, it is of importance to train students how to use meta-cognitive strategies to plan, monitor and evaluate their language learning. It is proved that effective independent learners always set the appropriate goals, know how to arrange time in order to learn effectively and can evaluate their learning regularly to get prompt feedback.

Furthermore, being engaged in meta-cognition is a striking feature of good language learners. They know in what aspects they are strong or weak; they know how to deal with the learning task in an effective way by using the available tools or skills. They use the proper tool for the task and adjust learning strategies and skills on the basis of their understanding of effectiveness. Individuals with a good mastery of meta-cognitive knowledge and skills can be aware of difficulties in learning as early and quickly as possible and change strategies timely to ensure goal achievement.

Therefore, it is crucial to make students have the concept of meta-cognitive strategies and improve their skills of using meta-cognitive strategies instead of just teaching them grammar and words.

On one hand, instructions on meta-cognitive learning strategies can be carried out both in class and after class. Nunan (1999, p. 62) points out that strategy training should be included in the regular language teaching plans rather than regarding it as independent learning process. In class, teacher illustrates the meanings and functions of learning strategies, especially meta-cognitive strategies, and then students can have discussions by themselves to get solid understanding about learning strategies. After class, teachers must encourage students to apply learning strategies into practice by means of assigning specific learning tasks to do. In the long run, students will benefit from learning these useful strategies as long as they keep using them in language learning.

On the other hand, the best way to minimize the impact of poor meta-cognition is to apply formative assessment to teaching. Formative assessment refers to "frequent, interactive assessments of student progress and understanding to identify learning needs and adjust teaching appropriately" (OECD, 2005, p. 21). It is a series of assessment processes adopted by teachers during the learning process to adjust teaching and learning activities in order to improve student achievement (Crooks, 2001). It mainly focuses on "qualitative feedback" instead of test scores for both student and teacher to evaluate teaching content and performance (Huhta, 2010). It usually contrasts with summative assessment aiming to monitor educational outcomes, often for purposes of external accountability (Shepard, 2005).

A 10-minute formative-assessment activity after a 40-minute lecture may be helpful for students to learn much more effectively. However, students tend not to ask questions precisely due to their poor meta-cognitive skills which have made them believe that they have understood the lecture perfectly, so it is necessary for us to get familiar with another concept called "minute paper" (Angelo and Cross, 1993) . At the end of each class, students can be asked to answer the two questions as follows: "what was the most important concept you learned in class today?" and "what concept did you find the most difficult or confusing?" These two questions can force students to evaluate their study after a lecture and cultivate their ability of self-awareness so that they can improve their meta-cognitive skills gradually. In this way, only when the teacher act as a guide, as a counselor instead of a commander or an initiator, can learner autonomy be achieved and students have a better grasp of English learning.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

This study examined the frequency of meta-cognitive strategy use in English learning process of non-English major college students in China. The questionnaire which is based on Oxford's *Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)* (1989) was used in the research. Data were collected and analyzed by SPSS, then the relevant information about the frequency of college students' application of meta-cognitive strategies and correlation between strategy use and CET-4 performance was given respectively in the study.

The study reveals that frequency of meta-cognitive strategies use correlate with English proficiency of students. The more frequently the learners use strategies, the more greatly their autonomous learning ability will be improved, thus the more achievements they can gain in the examination. In general, high proficiency students tend to use more meta-cognitive strategies in English learning process, though generally the frequency is not a satisfying one and there is still room for improvement. All the findings of this study strongly confirm what we have known from previous theoretical and empirical studies, which claim that meta-cognitive strategy can enhance learner autonomy and language proficiency (Wenden, 1991; Oxford, 1990; Guo and Yan, 2007 and Knowles, 1986; etc).

In view of this, it is of necessity to awaken students to the learning process and different styles and strategies for learning. What is more, learning strategies instruction should be included in the regular classroom teaching. Teachers can design some form of assignments to be done in self-access mode without disrupting the syllabus with the aim to encourage students to apply meta-cognitive strategies into practice.

Although many language teachers have already realized the importance of learning strategies, it is not a common practice for them to carry out systematically some effective learning instruction to help students learn more effectively. As a matter of fact, lack of learning techniques and necessary incentive mechanism is the major obstacle to improvement of learning efficiency both in and out of classroom. Therefore, it is highly recommended that teachers and learners should make full use of available resources to practice learning strategies, make the most of students' potential to learn and exercise their brains to the fullest extent, thus achieving the goal of shifting the responsibility of learning from teachers to learners.

APPENDIX.   QUESTIONNAIRE FOR META-COGNITIVE LEARNING STRATEGIES

Please read every statement carefully and choose the responses (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) that tell how true of you the statement is. There is no right or wrong answers. Just answer as accurately as possible.

1—never or almost never true of me
2—usually not true of me
3—somewhat true of me
4—usually true of me
5—always or almost always true of me

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR META-COGNITIVE LEARNING STRATEGIES

Number	Questions	Choices
Q1	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	1 2 3 4 5
Q2	I notice my English mistakes and I use that information to help me do better.	1 2 3 4 5
Q3	I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	1 2 3 4 5
Q4	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	1 2 3 4 5
Q5	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.	1 2 3 4 5
Q6	I look for people I can talk to in English.	1 2 3 4 5
Q7	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	1 2 3 4 5
Q8	I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	1 2 3 4 5
Q9	I think about my progress in learning English.	1 2 3 4 5
Q10	I give myself a reward when I do well in English.	1 2 3 4 5
Q11	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	1 2 3 4 5

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The Adaptative Studies on Teacher's Roles in Bilingual Classroom Teaching

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Abstract—**Based on Jef Verschueren's, Yu Guodong localizes it into the Adaptation Model to analyze and explain the English-Chinese code-switching indicating that the reason why communicators choose two or more languages in the same communicative discourse is that they want to adapt to the linguistic reality, the social conventions, or the psychological motivations so as to reach the particular communicative goal. This echoes with the teaching practice language use in bilingual education and can help bilingual teachers to clarify their roles in classroom teaching to enhance the teaching effect.**

Index Terms—**adaptation theory, code-switching, bilingual teachers, roles**

I. INTRODUCTION

Bilingual education has been implemented for nearly one decade in many Chinese universities and colleges ever since the issue of the Bilingual Teaching Course Reform Plan in 2001 striving to cultivate students' faculty to acquire expertise and skills and to strengthen their language application (Zhou Zhenzhong, 2004). Bilingual courses in China are instructed completely or partially in foreign languages, mainly English, aiming to make the students competent for international communication in academic activities (Zhang Zongrang, 2004). With the stimulus of The Curriculum Reform for Undergraduate Education in 11th Five -Year Plan, bilingual education has developed rapidly and continuously in China. However, the current study and implementation of bilingual teaching is not adequate yet, for researches on bilingual education mainly focused on the connotations and essentials of bilingual teaching, bilingual teaching material compilation and selection, bilingual teaching surroundings and resources, etc. The relevant research on bilingual classroom teaching has not been conducted sufficiently.

As the standardization goes, bilingual teachers should possess the fluency in English and expertise in the subjects. Since bilingual education in China is just in its early stage, it is impossible to train great numbers of proficient bilingual teachers to meet the professional qualifications in a short time. In reality, the bilingual teachers are from two fields: teachers who used to teach English majors and subject teachers with higher English level. The former ones are capable of language teaching, but unfamiliar with specialized knowledge, while some subject teachers are professional in their domains but with comparatively low language proficiency. Therefore, teachers who can meet both the linguistic and the professional demands are quite few. Great numbers of problems mainly related to the bilingual teachers remain unsolved, including a severe shortage of competent bilingual teachers, the gap of proper teaching methodology, the random use of teaching language on class, no switch between two languages, the ignorance of the students' response caused by their different language levels and that many bilingual teachers conduct their teaching only by translating the English texts or explaining grammar and vocabulary to students.

Hence, bilingual education and bilingual teachers are in urgent need of practical and specific pedagogic methodologies and perspectives which can help eliminate the bottleneck of bilingual teaching development.

II. THE ADAPTATION THEORY AND ADAPTATION MODEL

On bilingual classroom, the teachers have to alternate between Chinese and English frequently, which is very close to the term code-switching defined by Auer in 1998 that the alternating use of two or more languages by bilingual or multilingual speakers within one conversational episode, either in the same conversational turn or in consecutive turns. Thus, the practice in bilingual class is much the same as the code-switching as far as language application is concerned.

Among the linguistic approaches including sociolinguistics, grammatical, conversational analysis, psycholinguistics and pragmatics which have tried to explore code- switching since 1970s, pragmatic approach in 1980s explains the process of code-switching in a dynamic context taking into account the full complexity of the linguistic, social, psychological, cognitive and cultural factors, and thus may explain the problems of the systematical and functional aspects of code-switching comprehensively and satisfactorily (He Ziran & Yu Guodong, 2001).

And in 1999, Jef Verschueren put forward a Linguistic Adaptation Theory in his book Understanding Pragmatics from the pragmatic approach, which further developed his theory in Pragmatics as a Theory of Linguistic Adaptation in

1987. He took the process of language use as a dynamic choosing process. Language use must consist of the continuous making of linguistic choices, consciously or subconsciously, for language-internal (i.e. structural) and language-external reasons. That kind of choices can be understood in three hierarchically related characteristics: variability, negotiability and adaptability which are the basic properties of all human natural languages. Adaptability is the property which enables human beings to make negotiable linguistic choices from a variable range of possibilities in such a way as to approach points of satisfaction for communicative needs. To explain the notion of adaptability, four aspects must be taken into consideration: contextual correlates of adaptability, structural objects of adaptability, and dynamics of adaptability and salience of adaptation process. Thus, pragmatic approach is needed to explain the process of code-switching comprehensively not only from the aspects of social factors, psychological conceptual factors and linguistic ones separately but combine these factors together.

The linguistic adaptation theory means that using language must consist of the continuous making of linguistic choices, consciously or unconsciously, for language- internal (i.e. structural) and language-external reasons (Verschueren, 1999). Some characteristics in the process of choice making are: (1) Choices are made at every possible level of structure which ranges from phonetic, phonological, morphological, syntactic, lexical and semantics, etc.; (2) The language users do not only choose forms but also language strategies; (3) The term "making choices" may be misleading in the sense that it may invariably suggest a conscious act. In other words, the process of choice making may happen with different degrees of consciousness; (4) Choices are made both in producing and in interpreting an utterance, and both types of choice-making are of equal importance for the communication flow and the way in which meaning is generated; (5) Language users have no freedom of choice between choosing and not choosing, for once involved in the language process, the language user has to choose the most eligible and needed communication elements; (6) Choices are not equivalent for language users, because choice making is influenced and restricted by social and cultural factors; (7) Choices evoke or carry along their alternatives.

The process of 'making of choices' can be understood in terms of the three hierarchically related properties which language possesses: variability, negotiability and adaptability. Among the three properties of language, variability is the language property which defines the range of possibilities from which choices can be made (Verschueren, 1999). Negotiability is the property responsible for the fact that choices are not made mechanically or according to strict rules or fixed form-function relationships, but rather on the basis of highly flexible principles and strategies. Adaptability is the property which enables human beings to make negotiable linguistic choices from a variable range of possibilities in such a way as to approach points of satisfaction for communicative needs (Verschueren, 1999). The three notions do not represent topics of investigation, but merely interrelated properties of the overall object of investigation for linguistic pragmatics and the meaningful functioning of language. Their hierarchical ranking serves as a concept tool to understanding pragmatic phenomena.

1. Contextual Correlates of Adaptability

First, contextual correlates of adaptability have to be identified. This means that language choices must adapt the communicative context (Verschueren, 1999). The contextual correlates of adaptation could be sketched as the following figure:

Contextual Correlates of Adaptability
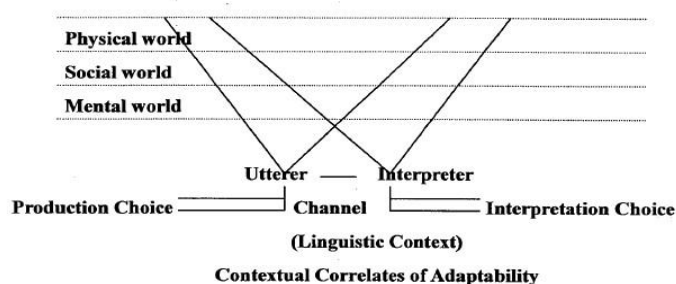
Utterer (U) and interpreter (I) are the focal points of the context. Without utterers' and interpreters' participation, and the functioning of their minds, there is no language use. The lines in the figure converging in U and I can be seen as forming "lines of vision". Every aspect of context within the lines of vision can function as a correlate of adaptability. U and I are presented as focal points because the contextual aspects of the physical, social and mental worlds do not usually start to play a role in language use until they have somehow been activated by the language users' cognitive process. U and I inhabit different worlds, but there are some overlaps between those worlds. The perspective differs, and the common background formed by the overlapping area looks different from each different perspectives. It also shows that communicators make different choices to adapt to contexts, with U making production choices while the interpreter is making interpretation choices.

The mental world mainly includes utterers' and interpreters' personality, emotions, beliefs, desires, intentions, and motivations. It is includes utterer voice and interpreter roles and that is why "mental world" at the base. Social world refers to principles and rules of social situation, social surroundings and situation-surroundings combinations. Communicators must obey them in communication activities. Among all the factors in the social world, culture is of

great importance. Time and space are the most visible features in the physical world. Temporal reference is useful to make a distinction between event time, time of utterance and reference time (Verschueren, 1999). While spatial reference is usually relative to perspective, which can be either utterer space or reference space (the latter defined as having a deictic center distinct from the perspective of the utterer). Therefore, the range of all the ingredients of the communicative context goes from aspects of physical surroundings to social relationships between speakers and hearers and aspects of interlocutors' state of mind. In conclusion, the communicators will be affected by all the factors mentioned above when choosing communication types and language. The context here is not a fixed type. According to Verschueren, "contexts are generated in language use", therefore, his perspective about context is dynamic.

2. Structural Objects of Adaptability

"Structural objects of adaptability include structures, in the strict sense, at various layers or levels of organization as well as principles of structuring" (Verschueren, 1999: 115). These two parts are always interdependent and inter-adaptable. In a word, structural objects of adaptability involve the making of choices at the overarching structural levels of languages, codes and styles. Codes refer to the distinguishable variants of a language, involving sets of choices which are geographically, socially or situation ally based. Styles are the dimensions of formality and informality.

From the entire range of utterance-building ingredients, the process can be indicated in every layer which includes sound structure (intonation, rhythm, stress, voice quality, etc.), morphemes and vocabulary, clauses and sentences, propositions and supra-sentential units, etc.

From the entire range of utterance and utterance clusters, the two types of speech acts and discourse types are included.

"In the light of utterance-building principles, choices are at the levels of sentential and supra-sentential utterance building and utterance clusters, which are guided by some strategies to establish and maintain coherence " (Verschueren, 1999:145).

3. Dynamics of Adaptation

The dynamics of adaptation is central to the process of (inter) adaptation in language use or to the meaningful functioning of language (Verschueren, 1999). Concerning with impact of contextual correlates and structural objects of adaptability, no doubt, the dynamics of adaptation is the central task of most specific pragmatic investigations. Questions also have to be answered about the ways in which communication principles and strategies are used in the making and negotiating choices of production and interpretation. Three particular factors should be mentioned:

The first one is the correlation between dynamics and the temporal dimension. At the micro level, the interlocutors' memory imposes the considerable time-related processing constrains and the communicative processing itself involves planning. At the macro level, earlier stages of development of languages and linguistic conventions are no longer readily accessible to the language user. Language, as time changes, is not accidental, but with the dynamic adaptation in language use.

The second one is the correlation between dynamics and context since the communication takes place between human beings for social relationship. In order to maintain their social status, some factors impact their language use: the group identities, the pace at which information is exchanged, the types of information and the social status, etc.

The third one is the correlation between dynamics and structure is linearity, a powerful constraint in communication phenomenon which does not fully determine the shape of the dynamics of language use. The interlocutors can move back and forth along the basic linear dimension at any stage in the process of meaning generation.

4. Salience of Adaptation

The salience of the adaptation process is that all linguistic choices are made with equal degree of consciousness, but some are highly motivated while others are rather automatic with the functioning of human cultural mind (Verschueren, 1999). Considering that the present study on bilingual classroom code-switching is from the teacher's point of view, the contextual correlates will focus on the utterer's perspective. The four tasks of adaptability can be seen as necessary ingredients in all adequate pragmatic perspectives on any given linguistic phenomenon. However, these four tasks for pragmatic investigation are not to be considered on a par with each other. A combination of contextual correlates and structural objects of adaptability can be used to define the locus of adaptation phenomena; the dynamics of adaptability unfolds the adaptive processes between context and structure; the salience of adaptation processes refers to the status of the making of those processes in relation to the cognitive apparatus.

As mentioned above, both language use and understanding are the process of choosing unceasingly made by the communicators. The contextual correlates show the language instructors what language choice they should adapt to, while the dynamics of the adaptability shows that the teaching process is a dynamic not a static one and that the structure of language and the context is a dynamic process.

As Yu Guodong (2001) claims that pragmatic model is intended to offer a better answer to the question of what people do when switching codes, or what they do by means of switching codes. Therefore, the characteristic of pragmatics is that all the language processes are dynamic, and it combines the phenomena of language description and explanation and it reveals the language dynamic process.

Based on Verschueren's adaptation theory, Yu Guodong (2001) localizes the adaptability of Chinese and English code-switching and creatively came up with the Adaptation Model. According to Yu Guodong's Adaptation Model for Chinese/English code-switching, the reason why communicators choose two or more languages in the same

communicative discourse is that they want to adapt to the linguistic reality, the social conventions, or the psychological motivations so as to reach the particular communicative goal. Moreover, this model can provide a stronger explanatory power to code-switching with full complexity of language factors. It can be chosen as a linguistic strategy to realize a certain communicative goal, since no other linguistic or non-linguistic means can function in the same way or achieve the same communicative effects. The Adaptation Model of code-switching can be summarized as follows:
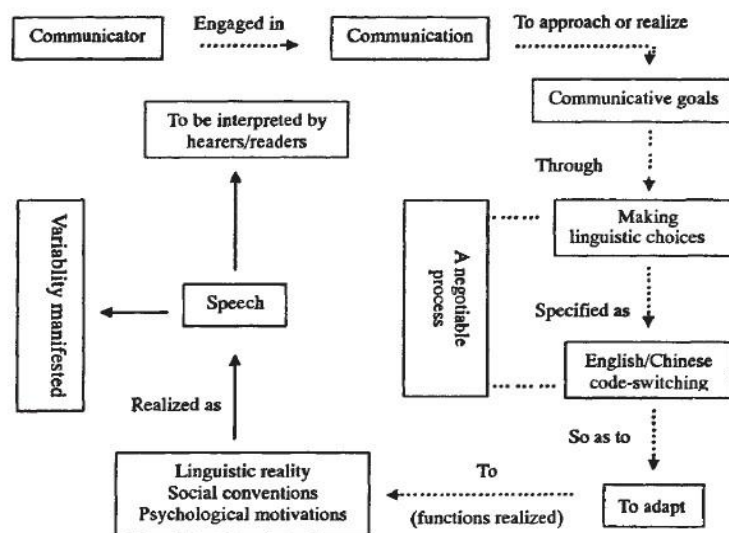
The Adaptation Model of code-switching (Yu Guodong, 2001)

Communicators switch codes in their communication to adapt to three objects: the linguistic reality, social conventions and psychological motivations. Communicator's adaptation and choice making are realized in speech, which is featured by the property of variability in terms of both linguistic elements and structures and discourse types. Ultimately, it will be interpreted by the hearer/reader. The success of the communication is up to the speaker and hearer's mutual involvement in communication, that is, from the time when the utterer/writer produces his or her utterance with specific intentions to the time when the hearer/writer perceives and interprets them (Yu Guodong, 2001).

III.   TEACHER'S ROLES IN BINLINGUAL CLASSROOM TEACHING

As far as Bilingual teaching is concerned, the communicative process involves two key factors that greatly affect the effect of the communication---bilingual teachers and students. On bilingual classrooms, teachers are multifunctional in the teaching practice. Harmar (1991) has given one kind of categorization: teachers in classroom can play the roles of a controller (in complete charge of the class); an assessor (for example, to see how well they are performing or how well they performed); an organizer (for example, to organize an activity, to tell or give instructions); a promoter (for example, to encourage students to participate or to make suggestions); a participant (to participate as an equal in an activity). And from the perspective of adaptability, bilingual teachers play their roles in the dynamic process of interactions to adapt to the classroom context.

1. "Linguistic reality refers to the real existence and nature of a certain language. The real existence of a language refers to the linguistic elements and linguistic structures of that language, and the real nature of a language refers to the features and properties of those linguistic elements and linguistic structures of that language in its own right and/or compared with other natural languages." (Yu, 1999)

Code-switching as the adaptation to linguistic reality refers to the use of two or more languages or language varieties that only occurs for linguistic reasons and its performance is based on the language-internal reasons completely. Therefore, code- switching is considered as the means of linguistic adaptation in general. It is a goal -directed dynamic process, in which language choices are made to adapt to certain objects in order to realize their communicative aims in a given context.

At present, most bilingual programs are carried out in science subjects, some of the textbooks were written by Chinese scholars in English containing the latest information in their fields and some of the textbooks are brought in from world famous universities. For non-English major students, the academic language may be difficult to understand. Consequently, students are overloaded by the large reading tasks which affect their speed and effect of learning. To this degree, the most important communicative function that code-switching has is filling the linguistic gap between the languages involved and makes the communication smooth. Code-switching tends to be a good choice as the communicative strategy. The teachers should promptly adapt to the linguistic reality in classroom context. Specifically, bilingual teachers should create a real bilingual environment and demonstrate standard pronunciation and idiomatic expressions on the one hand to help students immerse in the linguistic environment, and on the other, utilize

code-switching, mainly from English to Chinese to facilitate students' understanding and to wipe out the hindrance in students' learning by making elaborate illustrations of the obscure expressions in the textbooks.

As a good communicator, when confusion-causing terminologies appear for instance, bilingual teachers should quickly notice students' reaction to the unclear expressions and explain the terminologies first in English and then switch to Chinese to give its equivalence so as to eliminate misunderstanding and misinterpretation of the professional terminologies. This will obviously enhance students' acquisition of professional vocabulary especially for those who are carrying out scientific research and writing papers.

Therefore, bilingual teachers in such contexts function as conscious language-demonstrators to show language norms to standardize students' linguistic performance on class and try to avoid random or substandard use of language so as to adapt to the requirements of bilingual education to enhance students' English proficiency; and meanwhile dynamic translators/interpreters mainly from English into Chinese to help clarify the contents and solidify the comprehension of the content necessarily, especially for those students with low English levels to strengthen their professional learning.

2. Social settings and institutions impose many types of linguistic acts; they can be performed, or even can determine the 'performability' of certain acts under specified circumstances (Verschueren, 1999). Code-switching as the adaptation to the social conventions stands for the use of code-switching related to the communicator's consideration of social culture, customs and conventions, which means the common way of thinking and behavior that are socially normal and acceptable by the majority of a given society.

Social convention seems to be a huge net which restraining people's behavioral and mental activities, therefore, communicators have to pay enough attention to it in communicative process, and code-switching is a practical strategy (Yu, 1999).The roles teachers play on class can be categorized into two types according to social consensus: the respected role in society mainly owing to the possession of civilized minds and wide professional knowledge and the instructive role in class teaching. These are the two roles the teachers have to adapt to. Hence, the bilingual teachers have to use polite and civilized language in teaching and switch from Chinese to English to avoid some embarrassing or impolite words in the classroom to adapt to their social role especially when some sensitive topics are referred to---sex and politics for instance.

In the process of classroom teaching, bilingual teachers have to adapt to their social role to preserve the positive image of teachers, meanwhile, a knowledge-spreader to transmit knowledge, an evaluator commenting on students' performance, an organizer and participant when carrying out an activity to adapt to their teaching role.

3. Compared with the two objects of adaptation mentioned above, the adaptation to psychological motivations is more active, for communicators have to passively realize their intentions through adapting to linguistic reality and social conventions which are accepted by the majority of society, however, the communicative psychological motivations are more private and variable. In bilingual classrooms, the teachers' motivations influence or even determine not only what to say but also how to say, namely, how to construct teachers' discourse to realize certain purpose (Wang, 2003). The motivations consist of giving examples, making explanations, providing thinking strategy, enlivening atmosphere, giving emphasis, facilitating understanding, making generalization, etc. When the bilingual teachers want to emphasize on some important content, they should switch from one language to another to arouse students' attention and repeat it for times. When the bilingual teachers want to facilitate understanding of the obscure English expressions appearing in reading or speaking, they should switch to Chinese language to explain it completely and exhaustively. When the bilingual teachers want to generalize some points and give examples, they could have a stop and switch to some non-linguistic behavior, clear their throats for instance to reach a satisfactory communicative goal. To this degree, the motivations of the teachers are complex and changeable, during the teaching process, bilingual teachers have to utilize code-switching as a linguistic strategy dialectically to adapt to their motivations by playing a comprehensive and dynamic role. Hence, bilingual teachers are the real controllers and coordinators who take charge of the whole class in the teaching process.

IV. CONCLUSION

In classroom teaching, bilingual teachers have to intentionally realize their teaching purposes by making choices of language and communicative strategies. They may switch code to adapt to one or more objects either consciously or subconsciously. Only by making linguistic and communicative choices with salient consciousness, could the bilingual teachers reach ideal and satisfactory effects. And the bilingual teachers should utilize code-switching variably and negotiably in the dynamic process to adapt to the roles they should take in bilingual classroom teaching. It may enhance the language application ability of bilingual teachers so as to achieve a better effect of bilingual classroom teaching, and hence to reach the goal of improving the bilingual teaching quality.

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A Study on Myside Bias and the Iranian EFL Students

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Abstract—**As Leki and Carson (1994) emphasize: "ability to write well is necessary both to achieve academic success and to demonstrate that achievement" (p. 83). However, how the information is presented in a piece of writing is also important. Myside bias is mainly concerned with objectivity in argumentative writing. It is generally believed that by including counterarguments, the overall coherence of the writing will improve. With the growing number of Iranian students studying overseas, it is necessary to see whether these students' argumentative essays pay attention to both sides of an argument. 80 Iranian higher intermediate EFL Students were asked to write two argumentative essays. To further probe into participants' perception, an interview was held with 30 participants. Whether the participants' gender and age played a role in the presence of myside bias was also considered. The results revealed that 55% of the participants used myside bias in their English essays, but on 37.5% could be accused of myside bias in their Persian essays.**

Index Terms—**contrastive rhetoric, English argumentative writing, myside bias, Persian argumentative writing**

I. INTRODUCTION

Effective written English is an essential tool for any academic and professional career (Liu & You, 2008). The concept of writing has a very rich history dating back in time. Writing began in ancient Greece and has always received a great deal of attention from scholars of all time (Villasenor, 2003). As Wolfe, Britt and Butler (2009) emphasize, "the ability to comprehend and construct written arguments is an important skill for academic learning as well as for pursuits outside of school" (p. 183).

In Iran, English is considered a foreign language which is taught from junior high school onward. Learning English as a foreign language has become very popular during the past years. The increased number of English language institutes all over Iran along with the parents' elevated interest in enrolling their children in extra curricular English classes can be evidence to support this claim. Vaezi (2009) believes the main causes for this popularity are "the growth of international relations of Iran with other nations and the extended interest towards today's growing technology and science throughout the world" (p. 82). Vaezi (2009) and Sadighi and Maghsudi (2000) found Iranian students to be highly motivated in learning English. This was the case in both English major and non English major students studying at various universities in Iran.

Myside bias generally refers to a phenomenon where a writer only pays attention to his/her own point of view in an argumentative essay and does not include references to the other side of the argument. The main danger in the presence of myside bias in an argumentative essay is in producing texts which are no longer objective and are therefore biased towards one side of an argument. It is believed that myside bias undermines the coherence of the writing.

Therefore, it was important to see whether the Iranian EFL students in this study paid attention to objectivity while writing or whether they only focused on proving their own point of views in the argumentative essays they wrote. It was also important to check whether the results would be different for the students' native language essays as compared with their English ones. The 80 argumentative essays were evaluated by two bilingual (Persian/English) raters to insure interrater reliability (0.90). The idea of myside bias was initially checked in the written argumentative essays and also triangulated in the questionnaire items and also in the interviews with the same participants. The purpose of the present investigation was to examine the presence of myside bias in the Persian and English argumentative essays of 40 Higher-intermediate Iranian EFL students and also to test the association between gender/age and the presence of myside bias.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

A. Myside Bias

Myside bias was first introduced by Perkins and his colleagues in 1985. This phenomenon has been the topic of research for well over 20 years. Myside Bias can be generally defined as "the tendency to evaluate evidence, generate evidence, and test hypotheses in a manner biased toward one's own opinions" (Macpherson & Stanovich, 2007, p. 115). Wolfe and Britt (2008) define the Myside bias in a more restricted manner and they believe that myside bias in argumentation is "the failure to include any references to other-side arguments or positions in written essays" (p. 3).

In a study focused on abortion conducted by Baron (1995), it was realized that the participants favored those arguments that were on one side over those that presented both sides which showed the presence of myside bias. In

searching for the reason of such findings Baron suggests that "people's standards – their beliefs about the nature of good thinking – affect the conduct of their own thinking" (p.228). Of course, it should be mentioned that one possibility for such results might have been the controversial idea of abortion due to its ethical and religious backgrounds.

Nussbaum and Kardash (2005) studied the effect of instruction manipulation on an essay writing task. They divided the students into two groups, and in one group they changed the neutral argumentative topic to the following: 'discuss two or three reasons why others might disagree with you and why those reasons are wrong' and they found out that this change generated more counterclaims than in the control group with a neutral topic. This shows that myside instruction on a writing task can stimulate more counterarguments in students.

In 2007, Stanovich and West studied over 1400 university students. They conducted two experiments on these participants and compared the participants' intelligence and the presence of myside bias; their results showed no correlation between intelligence and myside bias. On the results of the present research, Stanovich and West (2007) report that "In the two experiments reported here we found very little evidence that individuals higher in cognitive ability were better able to avoid myside bias" (p. 239).

In 2005, Wolfe and Britt (cited in Wolfe and Britt, 2008) analyzed 35 published essays including 13 longer essays from the Hookie Awards, and 22 editorials and Opposing Opinion pieces from USA Today; after a content analysis they came to conclude that 93 % of the Hookie Awards essays, 100% of the USA Today editorials, and 70% of the USA Opposing Opinion pieces included other side information which shows the importance of paying attention to the other side of the arguments.

In 2008, Wolfe and Britt found that half of the undergraduates excluded the other side information from their arguments. Therefore, they gave a group of undergraduates a booklet on the importance of including both sides of an argument, and later they still found that 33% of the students still only paid attention to their idea on the argument.

Wolfe, Britt and Butler (2009) sum up their findings related to their experimental work on myside bias in 2008. They outline the various reasons why myside bias occurs. They write:

First was a failure to fully evoke an argumentation schema that encourages participants to consider both pro side and con side information. Second, some participants read both pro and con side arguments but "mined" them only for information on their side of an issue. Finally, some participants provided evidence of a fact-based argumentation schema, a tendency to view argumentation as a simple matter of arraying facts (p. 188).

In their study in 2009, Wolfe, Britt and Butler concentrated on reducing myside bias in students' argumentative essays in order to improve the quality of the essays. With this aim, they divided their 60 American students into two groups and asked them to write an argumentative essay. In the tutorial class, they taught some pointers in order to help the students' argumentative essay writing. Then they asked the students to write another argumentative essay and after analysis they found that while only 60% of the control group participants made a precise claim, 90% of the members in the tutorial class made the precise claims. This showed the effect of the tutorial session and awareness raising among students regarding argumentative essay writing.

B. Argumentative Writing

In recent years, a great deal of attention is being concentrated on argumentative writing and this has brought with it research in this area. In the past, most contrastive rhetoric studies consisted of expository essays, but recently, the focus of attention is being diverted to other genres such as argumentative and persuasive essays (Connor, 1996). Rozakis (2000) defines argumentation as a type of writing which:

Appeals specifically to reason. When you argue a point in writing, you analyze a subject, topic, or issue in order to persuade your readers to think or act a certain way (p.24-25).

As for the differences between various cultures regarding argumentative writing, Oliver (1971) and Eemeren and Houtlosser (2005) assert that the aim of argumentation in the Western culture is mainly to influence the audience and also to try to get the audience to agree with the writer's point of view. This has been mentioned by Mason and Otte (1994) when they say: "rational argument is our chief way of winning allies and converts to our way of thinking" (p. 179). In contrast to the Western method, the Asian writers aim at getting their ideas accepted by the reader and they do not go beyond this level so as to get the audience to agree with them. So, the purpose is to enlighten the audience and not to go beyond this level and aim at convincing them.

Some shocking results from past research on argumentation and argumentative writing tend to stand out; for example, Wolfe, Britt, and Butler (2009) announce that according to the National Assessment of Educational Progress in U.S.A., only 15% of twelfth graders are adequately prepared to write arguments. This would mean that the other 85 % of these students lack the required skill to perform such a task.

In another study, conducted in two separate phases, initially Oi (1984) found out that English argumentative writing which is linear generally follows a general to specific pattern while the Japanese argumentative pattern seems to be the exact opposite of moving from specific to general. From this finding, Oi suggested using a tool which she called the inner argumentative analysis in order to improve the Japanese argumentative style of writing. In her method, the students would first learn to analyze argumentative texts and find out which ones were "for" and which were "neutral" and which "against" the presented argument. In the second phase of the study done by both Oi and Kamimura (1995), 87 students were divided into two groups and they were given 40 minutes to write an argumentative essay. In the next session, one group was taught how to use Oi's tool on two passages and also examined their own essays from the first session. In the

final session, all the students were asked to write another argumentative essay. The researchers then compared the two argumentative essays written by each student and found out that the instructions given to the group of students helped them to improve their argumentative essay writing.

Although argumentative style of writing is very popular in English it is not, however, a part of the writing courses offered to students at schools in many languages including Russian, Japanese, Korean, Chinese, Thai, Hindi, and Arabic (Petric, 2005; Hinds, 1990; Kachru, 1999; Liebman, 1992) . A possible reason for not including argumentative style of writing in Russian is that they believe this style is related to journalism and not academic writing. After a great deal of research, Saneh (2009) also admits that there is "very scant literature" (p. 179) when it comes to the structure of argumentation in Persian language.

In her study, Saneh (2009) interviewed some university professors in order to find the root of the problem in Iranian students' argumentative writing. One of the bilingual (Persian/English) professors mentioned that the Iranian students failed to incorporate rebuttals in their argumentative writings and he believed the reason for this was the attitude differences between the Iranian and American society and educational context:

You know, one of the flaws of the arguments of my Iranian students and I think the logic in Persian language is that you never give the light of day to the person you oppose. You even falsify them and you think you're in the right in doing so. I keep telling my students that they need to tone down the claims they are making and the position they're offering through appropriate hedging, through speaking tentatively rather than deterministically. But their attitude is different. You see that they [Iranian students] come from a background of accepting rather than questioning. (p. 134).

According to Givi, Hakemi, Shokri, and Tabatabaee (2006), one important feature to keep in mind in Persian argumentative writing is objectivity. They believe this is one of the pointers that most students do not take into consideration when writing. This objectivity is a topic that has not received its due attention in the Iranian EFL setting.

Regarding the above mentioned points, the present study aims to answer the following questions:

1. Does the myside bias exist in the Persian argumentative writings of Iranian EFL students?
2. Does the myside bias exist in the English argumentative writings of Iranian EFL students?
3. Does gender play any role in the presence of myside bias in the Higher-intermediate Iranian EFL students' English and Persian argumentative writing?
4. Does age play any role in the presence of myside bias in the Higher-intermediate Iranian EFL students' English and Persian argumentative writing?

III. MATERIAL AND METHODS

To testify the truth or falsity of the research questions, the researcher initially decided to collect and analyze data. In pursuing an answer to the first two research questions, the researcher turned to Wolfe, and Britt's (2008) definition of the Myside bias in which they believe myside bias in argumentation is "the failure to include any references to other-side arguments or positions in written essays" (p. 3). The answers to the third and fourth research questions were checked in SPSS and the data provided from the demographics of the questionnaire.

A. Participants

80 Higher-intermediate Iranian EFL students were asked to fill out a demographic form (See Appendix 1) and write two argumentative essays. These students were chosen from a well known college in Mashhad, Iran. The 80 students who participated in the main section of the present study were all university students. They were majoring in foreign languages, engineering, basic sciences. Their ages ranged from 20 to 40, (Mean= 27, SD= 5.124). Overall, 33 males (Mean= 26.85, SD= 4.079) and 47 females (Mean= 26.81, SD= 4.962) took part in this section. All the participants had studied English for at least 3 years in College. This was necessary in order to make sure the participants have a good command of English in order to make good judgments regarding their English writing problems. These students were at a Higher-intermediate level of proficiency in English based on a TOEFL (Test Of English as a Foreign Language) exam. The single stage sampling of participants was conducted based on these students' availability as "potential respondents in the population" (Creswell, 2009; p. 148).

After signing the consent form and filling out the demographic section the 80 students composed two essays. This made an overall 160 essays written by the participants.

B. Argumentative Writing Task

According to Kim (2008), most cross-cultural studies based on rhetorical patterns suffer from 2 weaknesses. First, they only take into account the English texts that the ESL/EFL student has written with the belief that "the ESL compositions would reflect the rhetorical patterns of the students' first language" (p.1). Second, Kim (2008) believes that when the ESL/EFL students are asked to write only in English, they might be "primed by English culture and may try to adopt English rhetorical patterns rather than follow the rhetorical styles preferred in their native culture" (p. 2). In order to get a better perspective when studying the rhetoric of any specific culture, it is necessary to "investigate the texts written in the speakers' native language in order to determine whether the rhetorical pattern is transferred from the native language" (p.3).

In order to avoid translation from one language to another, participants were not informed in the beginning that they would be writing about the same topic in both Persian and English, and the second essay writing task was given one week after the first task was introduced. Writing was done outside the class to ensure sufficient time for writing. All the essays were typed in order to facilitate text analysis and avoid illegible handwriting. All errors remained unchanged in the typed texts.

A total of 80 Iranian Higher-intermediate EFL Students were asked to write two 300-350 word Persian and English argumentative essays. The students were instructed to write an essay arguing for or against the idea of establishing coeducational elementary schools in Iran. This was translated into Persian as ''ایجاد دبستان های مختلط در ایران باید تشویق گردد''. A week later, the same instructions were given to the students but this time round they were asked to write an English essay with the same topic. Since the researcher wanted to check whether the students would transfer Persian structures and expressions to their English essays, the Persian essay was appointed to the participants first [Reid (1984); Saneh (2009)].This topic was chosen because it is a controversial issue that has been debated in Iran.

The main reason for choosing this number of words for the essays was that the students' writing tasks generally ask for 300-350 words and so the students are acquainted with this for their writing activities. Also, since the argumentative essays were going to be a part of the students' class writing activity, the researcher needed to follow the classes' normal procedures. There was no time restriction as many scholars (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2008; Zia Houseini & Derakhshan, 2006; Raimes, 1983) believe time restriction can hinder the true performance of students.

C. Interview

The interviews were mainly used as a secondary source of information in order to confirm what the students had produced in the argumentative essays. The interview was used more as "a medium for guided reflections" (Buckingham, 2008, p. 5) in this study.

The interview questions (See Appendix 2) aimed at uncovering whether the students used myside bias in their writing. The interview was conducted in English as the participants had a good command over English. The interview lasted 7 to 15 minutes to keep it manageable. A total of 30 participants (15 Male, 15 Female) were randomly selected to take part in the interview.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This section provides us with a report and a discussion regarding the research findings in response to the research question.

A. Argumentative Writing Task

The argumentative writing tasks were the essence of the present study. In the final stage SPSS was employed to obtain the results and also the inter rater reliability. In order to be objective in presenting the results of the study, it was essential that more than one rater analyze the essays (Connor, 1996). Cohen's Kappa was calculated (See Table 1.) for myside bias in order to report the inter rater reliability.

TABLE 1.
KAPPA INTER RATER RELIABILITY RESULT FOR MYSIDE BIAS

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error(a)	Approx. T(b)	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement Kappa	.900	.049	8.058	.000
N of Valid Cases	80			

a Not assuming the null hypothesis.
b Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

As one of the pioneering works on Kappa-type statistics, Landis and Koch (1977) successfully categorized the various ranges of Kappa statistics results according to their strength of agreement.

TABLE 2.
CATEGORIZATION OF KAPPA STATISTICS RESULTS ACCORDING TO STRENGTH OF AGREEMENT
(ADOPTED FROM LANDIS AND KOCH, 1977, P. 165)

Kappa Statistic	Strength of Agreement
<0.00	Poor
0.00-0.20	Slight
0.21-0.40	Fair
0.41-0.60	Moderate
0.61-0.80	Substantial
0.81-1.00	Almost Perfect

According to this categorization, the overall inter rater reliability (0.90) shows that the agreement between the two raters was "almost perfect" in this study.

1. English Essays
1.1. Myside Bias Feature

This feature was present in order to check whether the participants paid attention to both sides of the argument in the argumentative essays or whether they just focused on proving their own point of views. The results are as follows (Table 3).

TABLE 3.
FREQUENCY RESULTS FOR MYSIDE BIAS FEATURE (ENGLISH ESSAYS)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes (Myside bias present)	44	55.0	55.0	55.0
	No	36	45.0	45.0	100.0
	Total	80	100.0	100.0	

The results obtained from the essays and the interviews all pointed to the participants' desire to focus and prove their point of views. Many interviewees also referred to their support of myside bias in their writing. When asked about whether they paid attention to both sides of an argument in their argumentative writing, interviewee 27 maintained: "Most of the time I write what I think and sometimes what I think about something is more important than what people think".

1.2. Myside bias and Gender

The comparison between males and females (gender as independent variable) in regards to their use of myside bias in writing (dependent variable) showed that there is no significant difference in this regard (t= 0.766, P>.05). This was also what Stanovich and West (2007) reported.

TABLE 4.
THE RESULTS OF T-TEST FOR GENDER AND THE MYSIDE BIAS

		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
Degree of Home Culture Attachment	Equal variances assumed	0.277	0.602	0.766	38	0.448	0.13	0.171	-0.215	0.477
	Equal variances not assumed			0.757	23.036	0.457	0.13	0.173	-0.227	0.489

This in turn means that no relationship was found between the gender of the participants and the presence of myside bias in their English writings.

1.3. Myside bias and Age

Here, initially the participants' ages were divided into three pairs. These three age pairs included pair one: 20-26 year- old participants, pair two: 27-33 year-old participants, and pair three: 34-40 year-old participants. To determine whether there was a significant relationship between age and the myside bias a One-way ANOVA was run. The results from the One-way ANOVA illustrated that the findings were not statistically significant (Table 5).

TABLE 5.
THE RESULTS OF ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR AGE PAIRS AND MYSIDE BIAS

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.026	2	.013	.049	.952
Within Groups	9.874	77	.267		
Total	9.900	79			

According to the above table, no specific age group was specifically more biased towards proving their own point of view in the English argumentative writings.

2. Persian Essays

2.1 Myside Bias Feature

The result can be seen in Table 6.

TABLE 6.
FREQUENCY RESULTS FOR MYSIDE BIAS FEATURE (PERSIAN ESSAYS)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	30	37.5	37.5	37.5
	No (Myside bias)	50	62.5	62.5	100.0
	Total	80	100.0	100.0	

The results obtained from the essays show that 62.5% of the Higher-intermediate Iranian EFL students paid attention to both sides of the argument and were therefore more objective when they wrote their Persian essays. One reason for this might be the participants' overall better command over their mother tongue as compared to the foreign language (English) which in turn assists them in focusing on both sides of the argument.

2.2 Myside bias and Gender

The comparison between males and females in regards to their use of myside bias showed that there is no significant difference in this regard (t= 0.597, P>.05).

		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
Degree of Home Culture Attachment	Equal variances assumed	1.700	.200	0.597	38	0.554	0.10	0.167	-0.238	0.438
	Equal variances not assumed			0.606	24.716	0.550	0.10	0.164	-0.239	0.439

This means that no relationship was found between the gender of the participants and the presence of myside bias in their Persian writings.

2.3 Myside bias and Age

In this phase, the ages were grouped similar to the English essays. To determine whether there was a significant relationship between age and the myside bias, a One-way ANOVA was run. The results from the One-way ANOVA illustrated that the findings were not statistically significant (Table 8).

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.496	2	.248	1.033	.366
Within Groups	8.879	77	.240		
Total	9.375	79			

According to the above table, no difference was found among the age groups present in the study regarding the presence of myside bias.

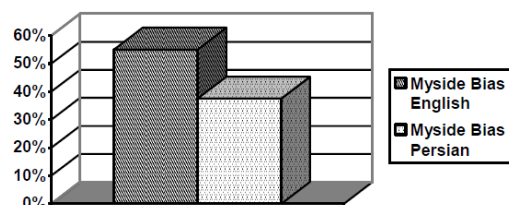### B. Comparison and Contrast between Participants' English and Persian Argumentative Essays

Figure 1. Percentage of English Myside Bias Vs. Persian Myside Bias

Myside bias -the author's failure to present the other side of the argument in an argumentative essay- was observed numerously in the Higher-intermediate Iranian EFL students written argumentative essays. According to Figure 1, the presence of myside bias was felt more in the English argumentative essays (55%). The Persian argumentative essays only showed 37.5% for the presence of myside bias. This means that the Higher-intermediate Iranian EFL students in this study focused more on being objective when writing their Persian argumentative essays.

C. Interview

Although the information obtained through interviews is considered to be subjective in nature and can at best show certain aspects and experiences of each individual, "it nevertheless sheds light on what is usually a long-term, private process of skill development" (Buckingham, 2008). Each interview was confidential and it was conducted on an individual basis.

Through using the first interview question (have you been formally taught argumentative writing?), it was determined that none of the Higher-intermediate Iranian EFL interviewees had received any formal training in argumentative writing. In order to have more authentic essays and avoid formulaic writing, the researcher decided to base her study on the Higher-intermediate Iranian EFL students who had not yet at this stage received the English argumentative writing framework in their English classes.

Interview question 2 was related to myside bias (Do you concentrate on both sides of an argument or do you just address your point of view in argumentative writing? Why?). About 63% of the interviewees pointed out they only paid attention to their own point of view when writing. After hearing this from the interviewees, the researcher decided to ask them why they believed this to be true. Here are the most common replies.

When I recognize what I think is more important, but sometimes it is very important and maybe somebody doesn't realize that (Interviewee 7).

My idea is more important than that of others (interviewee 18).

I just address at on my point of view because in that time, I believe in it (interviewee 26).

As for the other 37%, they also had their own ideas on why they should consider both sides of the argument.

I think (eh) when for example we say (eh) we write, (um) we write an argumentative writing we should be fair and (eh) we should (eh) mention something which might be against what we think (eh), but (eh) and I try to concentrate on both sides (Interviewee 1).

Because (eh) if it's just (eh) I don't want to be a stubborn person and try to pay attention to the both sides of the argument and (eh), for example (eh) take up reasonable, rational idea and then (eh) choose my (eh) for example final decide (Interviewee 24).

Interview questions 3 (Do you believe that the English and Persian argumentative styles of writing are the same?) showed that although 55% of the interviewees believed that Persian and English argumentative styles were different, they could not elaborate on how the two differed from one another.

The last interview question (Do you think it is necessary to formulate counter arguments in English argumentative writing?) shed light on the gravity of the problem. In this part, 83% of the interviewees declared that it was indeed unnecessary to formulate counter arguments and that their perspective regarding the argument only needed to be focused on.

V. Conclusion and Suggestions

The results of this study can influence EFL students, EFL teachers, and syllabus designers. It can help EFL students realize that they need to write more objectively in English; and this in turn can aid them to write closer to the standards required by international conventions and the academic community. The results can also encourage awareness raising among the EFL teachers to include pointers on avoiding myside bias by their EFL students. According to Barron (1995) it is important to teach the students that "typically, no single argument is decisive, and we must consider the total weight of evidence and the possibility of even stronger arguments on the other side (p.3).

The students need to be directly taught that the presence of myside bias in their writings can bring about several problems. Toplak and Stanovich (2003) believe that the presence of myside bias has a negative relationship with rational thinking. This means the less the presence of myside in an argumentative task, the more rational the result would be evaluated by the reader. Students need to be made aware that by bringing counter arguments into their writings they can create a more favorable impression of themselves and increase their credibility in the eyes of the readers (Wolfe & Britt, 2008). Also they can "minimize the impact of other side points by framing them in the best possible light" (Wolfe & Britt, 2008; p. 2). In addition to the above, by including counterarguments into an argumentative text, the writer can assist the reader since through this "readers are less likely to expend additional cognitive effort themselves generating counterarguments" (Wolfe, Britt, Butler, 2009; p. 188).

It is very important to keep in mind that the instructions on myside bias need to be given directly to the students and that passive teaching can not be effective. As Wolfe, Britt and Butler (2009) found while initially 50% of the undergraduate research students they studied did not make any references to the other side, after reviewing a booklet on the importance of referring to arguments on both sides of an issue found that still 33% of these participants exhibited myside bias in their work. For example using pre-writing worksheets for students going through the steps one by one can be of great assistance to the students. The pre-writing worksheets are designed to plan the key parts of the students' essays. Wolfe, Britt and Butler (2009) found that by using such worksheets the students paid more attention to including counterarguments in their argumentative writings. In fact, while only 60% of their control group mentioned counterarguments, 90% the tutorial group focused on them. This shows how effective the use of pre-writing worksheets can be.

The results from the present study can assist syllabus designers to generate some guidelines for EFL programs used for teaching Iranian students. Syllabus designers can use the results to make possible changes to the already existing syllabuses for English language textbooks taught at language institutes. They can try to add some pointers that help EFL students become aware of the presence of myside bias and its harmful effect on their composition. It is with the collaboration of teachers and syllabus designers that the students can be made aware of the harmful effects of myside bias in their writing.

Appendix1. Participants' Demographic

Part 1: Please fill in the background information section below.

Gender: □Male   □Female   **Age**:

Field of Study: **Mother tongue**:

Languages I speak:

□English   □Persian□Turkish

□German   □Italian □Other……………

How long have you studied English?
Have you lived abroad?
□Yes…………… □No
(If you answered yes, where and how long?)
Academic qualifications:
□Diploma □Bachelor or Bachelor student
□Master or Master student □PhD or PhD student
Have you had formal training in English writing (such as report writing, essay writing, formal letter writing,…)?
□Yes……………□No
(If you answered yes, where and how long?)

APPENDIX2. INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Have you been formally taught argumentative writing?
2. Do you concentrate on both sides of an argument or do you just address your point of view in argumentative writing? Why?
3. Do you believe that the English and Persian argumentative styles of writing are the same?
4. Do you think it is necessary to formulate counter arguments in English argumentative writing?

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Implications on a Designed Questionnaire about English Teachers' In-class Example Designs

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Abstract—How to give examples is an important class behavior of college EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers. This paper adopted the macrostrategies claimed by Kumaravadivelu in his Postmethod Theory. Through the analysis of questionnaires, the paper explored students' opinions about English EFL teachers' in-class example designs. The research results indicate that students prefer the sentences loaded with some cultural or social knowledge; teachers don't need to write the whole sentence on the blackboard or in PowerPoint; only the structure or the key words of the sentence need to be provided; the sentences could help students review the previous language points etc. These remind the teachers, when giving examples, should pay attention to the cultural input, in-class interaction and strategy teaching, which are coherent with macrostrategies in Postmethod era. In a word, the analysis of language teachers' in-class example sentence giving behavior could help teachers improve their teaching quality, thus help improve EFL learners' English proficiency.

Index Terms—example design, macrostrategies, postmethod, teachers' behavior

I. INTRODUCTION

How to design example sentences in EFL class may be a cliché but unavoidable topic. English is considered as a foreign language instead of second language in China. In such teaching and learning environment, students have very few chances to practice their English in their daily life. Therefore, it is very important to enhance English input in the classroom, and EFL teachers should try to provide students with more authentic language materials in the limited in-class time.

As early as the 1930s, Vygotsky (1978), the Russian and Soviet psychologist, and the founder of cultural-historical psychology, proposed the theory of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). According to Vygotsky, there is a distance between language learners' background knowledge and the new knowledge when the language learner tries to learn a new language. However, this distance could be eliminated with language teacher's help and the individual learning as well. This distance is called the Zone of Proximal Development (Liang, 2010). In the 1980s, American linguist Krashen (1982) put forward the famous language input hypothesis. Krashen defined the learner's current learning state as "i" and the next stage of language development as "i+1". The number 1 means the distance between learner's current learning state and the next stage. This distance, or the "gap", could be established with learner's own learning or the teacher's scaffolding function (Vacca, 2000; Echevarria, Vogt and Short, 2013). Some researchers argued whether the ZPD theory and the language input hypothesis are essentially the same (Kinginger, 2001). However, no matter these two theories are essentially the same or not, both mentioned language teachers' important role during learner's learning process.

Kumaravadivedu (2003) proposed the ten macrostrategies in the postmehtod era. These ten macrostrategies are: Maximize learning opportunities; facilitate negotiated interaction; minimize perceptual mismatches; activate intuitive heuristics; foster language awareness; contextualize linguistic input; integrate language skills; promote learner autonomy; ensure social relevance; and raise cultural consciousness. (Tao, 2007; Zheng and Chen, 2007). The researcher believes that these ten macrostrategies raise higher requirements for language teachers, for teachers need not only to impart knowledge, but also to build a scaffold and think about how to maximize students' learning opportunities and how to make students' self-learning more strategically effective and efficient. This paper focuses only on the English teachers' example sentence design behavior. Questionnaires are used to understand students' need toward teachers' example design behavior and to what extent teachers could help students to achieve these mentioned macrostrategies.

In the previous studies, many researchers focused on the principles of in-class teachers' example design behavior. For example, Liu and Xu (2005) claimed that when English teachers selected sentences as examples, whether these sentences are typical, practical, and interesting should be considered. Liu (2010) discussed the example sentence teaching from the perspective of in-class interaction. She mentioned that the sentence should be dynamically generated in the class. The teacher should combine the prepared sentences and students' in-class performance to arouse students' interest. The form of giving examples should also be diversified. The teacher could use both blackboard and multimedia tools to create a relaxing learning environment for students. All the above mentioned research are mostly based on language teachers' experience and the in-class observation, which have great value for designing the examples before

the class (Guo, 2012), however, none of these studies are empirical analysis based on students' need, thus the discussions are not deep enough.

This paper adopted the questionnaire toward language teachers' example giving behavior designed by Guo (2012). This questionnaire followed the four principles raised by Krashen about language input: truthfulness, understandability, relevance and moderation (Liang, 2010). The whole questionnaire was designed from two perspectives: content and form. The investigation subjects are undergraduate students majoring in teaching Chinese as a second language in a university. This paper tries to fully consider students' need and analyze English teachers' in-class example giving behavior in a detailed way.

II. RESEARCH METHOD

A. Research Questions

This paper attempts to solve these two questions: 1) whether English teachers' example-giving behavior conforms to the requirements of macrostrategies claimed by Kumaravadivelu. 2) Whether there are any relations between students' attitude towards teachers' example-giving behavior and their English proficiency.

B. Research Design

The subjects are 68 undergraduate students including 6 males and 62 female students, majoring in teaching Chinese to foreigners in a university. Questionnaires were designed and sent to them. When doing the questionnaire, these subjects were sophomores. They have learned English for one and half years with four hours each week. This period is in fact the longest time they could learn English in class during their whole university time. Meanwhile, all of these students took part in the CET-4 (College English Test, Band -4). Therefore, the result of the questionnaire could be compared with their CET result as part of the current study.

C. Research Results

1. Results of the Questionnaire
Table 1 shows students' answers to the questionnaire.

TABLE I.
STUDENTS' ANSWERS TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Questions	Contents	Mean
(1)	The teacher just needs to speak out the sentences, instead of writing it down.	2.5909
(2)	The teacher should write down the sentence on the blackboard while explaining.	2.9091
(3)	The teacher just needs to write down the structure and the key words of the sentence instead of the whole one.	*1.8182*
(4)	After explaining it, the teacher should read the sentence with students together.	*3.1212*
(5)	The sentence should be related with students' daily life.	2.3030
(6)	The sentence should be interesting and humorous.	2.5909
(7)	Quite simple words should be used in the sentence.	2.9697
(8)	Besides the words meaning, the sentence should also convey the culture information to us.	*1.8030*
(9)	The sentence should help me to review the words I've learned.	*1.5000*
(10)	The sentence should be in the textbook.	*3.6818*
(11)	The teacher should teach the sentence first, and then the text in the book.	*3.1212*
(12)	The teacher should use colorful chalks when writing the sentence down.	2.5455
(13)	The teacher should use PPT to show the sentence.	2.2273
(14)	The teacher should use some pictures when explaining the sentence.	2.5758
(15)	After explaining it, the teacher should let us imitate the sentence and make two or three sentences by ourselves.	2.4394
(16)	One sentence is enough for one language point.	*3.1818*
(17)	For one language point, teacher should use two or three sentences to explain.	2.1212
(18)	The more sentences, the better, for each language point.	*3.5077*
(19)	The meaning of the sentence should be positive, not negative.	2.7121
(20)	Oral words instead of written words should be used in sentence.	2.8788
(21)	I prefer the impromptu sentences the teacher gives in the class.	2.1818

Note: 1-strongly agree; 2-agree; 3-just so so; 4-disagree; 5-strongly disagree

As can be seen from the table, the means of all these 21 questions are less than 4, which indicate that students' attitudes toward English teacher's in-class example-giving behavior are positive in general, no matter the question is about the example-giving format or the sentence meaning, which also means that teacher's example-giving behavior is very necessary in English class.

2. Analysis to Students' Answers towards the Questionnaire
Through the detailed analysis of the students' questionnaire, students' needs towards English teachers' in-class example-giving behavior could be classified into three types: students' needs towards cultural input; students' needs towards interaction with teachers; and students' needs towards learning strategies. All of these three needs are consistent with the ten macrostrategies claimed by Kumaravadivelu.

a. Students' Needs towards Cultural Input

Question 8 is about whether the sentence could convey both the sentence meaning and the cultural and social knowledge. Students' need towards understanding cultural and social knowledge was understood through this question. This is one of the ten macrostrategies claimed by Kumaravadivelu, that is, language teacher should raise students' cultural consciousness. College students in China lack the necessary cultural and social environment to learn English; most students try to understand the cultures in English speaking countries only through books and Internet etc. Therefore, English class is very important. Teachers should consider cultural and social factors when selecting the sentence examples. For example, the researcher used to mention 'subway' when talking about American fast-food culture. At that time, many students were very confused, because besides the name of the famous fast food, subway could also mean 'subway', the literal meaning. Students do not know this fast-food brand, so they felt confused. How to satisfy students' cultural needs is a challenge for English teachers, but it is also a requirement of the English teachers. As regard for question 10, the students hope that the teacher could find more materials besides the textbook for the reading practice, which also reflects students' need for a large number of language input.

b. Students' Needs towards Interactions with Teachers

There is one strategy called negotiable interaction among these ten macrostrategies, which means to enhance the teacher-student and student-student interaction. Students' need towards inaction is reflected in question 3. Question 3 is about whether the teacher only needs to write down the structure and key words of the sentence. Many students believe that teachers do not need to write down the whole sentence; in other words, only sentence structure or key words are necessary to write down. The status quo is that in the college English class, many teachers use the prepared PPT, while students are busy taking notes. Students are in fact only the passive acceptors. They have no time to think and obviously no interaction with the teachers. There are objective reasons for taking the PPT form. In China nowadays, it is still very common to have more than 40 students in each English class. Therefore, if the teacher writes too often on the blackboard, some students who sit at the back of the classroom could not see the blackboard clearly. PPT is much clearer than that on the blackboard. Question 1, 2, 12, 13 and 14 shows that students do not have a preference towards the format: whether writing on blackboard or the PPT slides. In current situation, PPT is a more effective and much clearer way. If the sentence adopts the blank filling method: only the sentence structure or some key words are given and students are supposed to fill these blanks, then students' activeness can be activated. Besides, the teacher-student relationship is changed from teacher's conveying to a double-direction interaction (Wright, 2010). In this way, the negotiable interaction could be facilitated and the students' learning opportunities could be maximized.

c. Students' Needs towards Learning Strategies

One of the ten macrostrategies Kumaravadivelu mentioned is to cultivate learner's learning autonomy. On how to cultivate students' learning autonomy, he claimed that students learning strategies such as memorizing strategy, cognitive strategy and communicate strategy should be cultivated (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, 2006). Question 9 is about whether the sentence should help students to review the learned words. Most students hold the opinion that the example sentences should help them review the learned words. This belongs to the 'review' strategy. This requirement of students seems easy, but in fact in the current English class, it fails to be carried out very well. Take the textbook the researcher is using for example, each unit has a fixed and relatively independent topic with no obvious progressive relation with the previous unit. Therefore, when preparing the examples, it requires the English teachers consciously to combine the learned words with the new examples to deepen students' memory. This conforms to the cognitive principle (MaLaughlin & Allen, 2002). Question 11 refers to the teacher's teaching method. Students hold the opinion that it is not necessary to explain the sentence in the textbook individually before teacher's explanation of the whole text. It is plausible because without the context, it is usually hard to understand the sentence, but within the context, students could use some reading strategies to figure out the meaning of the words.

Generally speaking, regarding these 21 questions the researcher found that students did not have many comments on the example showing format, that is, the students did not care too much about whether teacher uses the blackboard or pictures or PPT, whether the teacher uses the colored chalk or not. What the students care is the content of the examples, whether the sentence could convey the cultural and social knowledge, whether the previous knowledge could be reviewed etc. Essentially, these reflect students' needs towards the learning strategies, the cultural input and the interactions, which are very consistent with the macrostrategies in the Postmethod era.

3. Comparison between Students' Answers to the Questionnaire and Their CET Scores

In order to further understand whether there is any relationship between students' attitudes towards teachers' in-class giving behavior and their English proficiency, the researcher did a comparison between their answers to the questionnaire and their CET scores, since CET has a high reliability and high validity, which could be used as a parameter to measure students' English proficiency.

Statistics show that in these two classes, the highest CET score is 643, while the lowest is 390. The mean is 522, which is basically conforming to the normal distribution. Because of the limited number of the samples, students were divided into two groups (high group and low group) instead of three, with 522 as the cutting point. T-test was used to distinguish whether there is any difference existing between these two groups and their attitudes towards teachers' in-class example-giving behavior. T-test shows that in terms of question 8 and 11, there are significant differences. For all the other questions, no significant difference exists.

TABLE II.
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN STUDENTS' ENGLISH PROFICIENCY AND THEIR ATTITUDES TOWARDS TEACHERS' IN-CLASS EXAMPLE-GIVING BEHAVIOR

Questions	Mean High group	Mean Low group	P-value
8. Besides the words meaning, the sentence should also convey the culture information to us.	2.00	1.60	.03
11. The teacher should teach the sentence first, and then the text in the book.	3.52	2.73	.00

For question 8, as mentioned above, students hope that the teacher could involve the cultural or social knowledge into the class. However, for the low group students, the data shows that they are more eager to learn more about the social and cultural knowledge. This is unexpected somehow. Usually, the better students' English proficiency is, the stronger their English-learning motivation is, and the more they want to learn the related cultural and social background knowledge. What the data shows is however the opposite. The researcher believes that the reason is related with the features of the college English class. As mentioned, because of the class size, many teachers have no choice but choose to teach with PPT, without enough interaction with students. Therefore, some students who are not good at English may gradually lose their interest in learning English since they have few chances to ask questions. The cultural and social issues are more interesting to them rather than the language points. This may be one of the reasons why they would like the teachers to teach more about the related social and cultural issues. Kumaravadivelu (2003) claimed that no classroom teaching is isolated. In other words, classroom teaching should be related with the social and cultural issues. Question 11 shows that students of different English levels have different learning strategies. For students in high group, they prefer the teachers to teach the text first, then the difficult sentences, while the students in low group prefer to learn the sentences first, then the text. Obviously, to learn sentence first and then the text, this down-top learning strategy has some advantages (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2011). However, the researcher holds the opinion that the top-down strategy is more beneficial since students could learn how to read and guess the word meaning within the context.

All in all, it is hard to judge whether students' English proficiency is positively related with their teachers' in-class example-giving behavior or not based on these 21 questions in the questionnaire. When interviewing students, some students commented that they did not care much about what kind of sentences the teacher used in the class, what they really cared was how many chances they could have to speak and communicate in the class with their partners and the teacher. They complained that they were too negative in the classroom. Shu (2010) claimed that the effective classroom teaching should be reflected by students' activeness and appropriate learning opportunities. Therefore, when teachers design example sentences, they should focus more on whether students' activeness is activated and whether interaction is facilitated.

III. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

Through the investigation on the English teachers' in-class example-giving behavior, the researcher found that the students' needs were totally consistent with the ten macrostrategies claimed by Kumaravadivelu. Students hope the sentences could convey the cultural and social knowledge; they think the sentences with only the structure and key words are fine; and they hope teachers could help them review the learned knowledge with the given examples. All of these remind the teachers of paying attention to the cultural input, the interaction and the cultivation of students' learning strategies.

(1) The cultural input. Sentences with cultural factors involved can become more interesting. For example, when explaining the word "overwhelm", the given sentence "Sheldon was overwhelmed by great joy when he got the news that he was allowed to meet Mr. Hawking" is more effective than a simple one "He was overwhelmed by great joy". First of all, Sheldon is a very popular character among college students in China now. He is a character in the American sitcom "The big bang theory". One episode is about how Sheldon meets Professor Hawking. This sentence activated students' interest and it is easier to understand and memorize. Meanwhile, as English teachers, they also need to accumulate many related knowledge to satisfy students' needs.

(2) The interaction with students. No matter how well prepared, if the teacher just explains and let students take notes, it is still not very effective. The successful classroom teaching needs students' involvement. For example, when explaining the words "fat, obese, stout, pudgy, plump, and chubby", if the teacher gives some blank fillings instead of the whole sentences, it could be more effective. Sentences such as "Doctors suggest people have less fast food, in order not to be _____./ There was a time when the _____ figure caught on" could be finished by students' group discussion, which is a better way to teach and learn.

(3) Cultivation of students' learning strategies. When explaining example sentences, the teacher should pay attention to the connection of the new and previous language points, to let students make progress through the repetition and review. Oxford (1990) divided the learning strategies into two categories, direct and indirect ways. These two classes are subdivided into a total of six groups: memory, cognitive and compensation under the direct class; meta-cognitive, affective, and social under the indirect class. The researcher thinks that strategies should be used in each step of the classroom teaching, such as review, preview, note-taking, guessing, induction and deduction etc. Besides, how to make plan, how to self-evaluate, how to reduce the anxiety, how to cooperate should all be considered when the English teachers teach students.

To sum up, in order to design good example sentences in EFL class, English teachers should first improve their own language proficiency. Besides, teachers should observe students' behavior in the class to better satisfy students' need. In addition, we should be aware that teachers' in-class example-giving behavior is only one of the important teachers' in-class behaviors. In order to improve the teaching quality, EFL teachers still have a long way to go.

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The Application of Semantic Field Theory to English Vocabulary Learning

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Abstract—This paper explores the application of the semantic field theory in English vocabulary learning. It first investigates classifications of various semantic relations, including hyponym, antonymy, synonymy, etc. Then it illustrates with abundant examples how to employ each sense relation in learning vocabulary with the application of the semantic field theory. The study is of non-neglectable significance in that it helps to enlarge learners' vocabulary by constructing sense relations of new words and to help learners' mastery of vocabulary, so that they can learn English vocabulary more efficiently and systematically.

Index Terms—semantic field theory, hyponymy, antonymy, synonymy, English vocabulary learning

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Significance of the Present Study

Without doubt, English language plays a very important role in almost every field of modern world. It is a vital tool in communication. In the long history of English language, it has developed its individual uniqueness and has been widely used in most nations. Thus, it has become a true global language. At present, about 300 million people are learning English in China, and there are still more and more people joining the group of English learners. The number of English learners is rapidly increasing.

It is well known that vocabulary is of vital importance in language study because it is the essence of a language. Linguist D. A. Wilkins (1972) has the famous line "Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed. (p.111)" Truly, without vocabulary, there will be no sentence, no text and no language. Vocabulary is central to language and of crucial importance to the common language learner. The prominent role of vocabulary mastery in foreign language learning has been widely accepted and increasingly recognized. If we compare English to a giant architecture, then the bricks and concrete that made up the building will be English vocabulary. Obviously it is a common sense to us that the more concrete and bricks we use, the more stout and durable the architecture will be. Hence, if we have a great mastery of English vocabulary, we can surely win the first campaign of conquering English.

Basically, the history of English language can be divided into three periods: Old English, Middle English and Modern English. Through its development, English has gathered a considerable glossary which contains over a million words. However, most of these words are not widely used; many of them are even forgotten or solely banished. The English vocabulary that can be used in daily life is about twenty thousand, which to most English learners is still a large number to remember. In order to learn English more efficiently and gain a vocabulary that can meet the needs of normal communication, we should adopt an effective way to remember English words. Semantic field theory plays a surprisingly big part in learning English vocabulary effectively and systematically.

In recent years, more and more linguistic researchers start to pay close attention to the importance of semantic field theory for developing the language abilities and efficiency. Students find it difficult to remember all the English words at the same time because some words look very alike, such as *considerate* and *considerable, temptation* and *temporary, geology* and *geometry,* etc. Since semantic field theory studies the relationship between a series of words in a certain group, appropriate use of semantic field theory will make English vocabulary learning much easier.

B. Theoretical Review of Semantic Field

Before componential analysis emerged as a first concrete approach to describe word meaning, linguists distinguished and analyzed "semantic fields", that is, groups of words of which meanings are closely interrelated. Originally, "field" is a concept applied in physics which describes the layout condition of a certain object, such as electric field, magnetic field and gravitational field, which separately shows the layout principles of electricity, magnesium and gravity in a certain space. This concept was later applied into linguistics to describe the inter-relationship between different words. Gradually, it turned into a new linguistic approach called semantic field theory.

The study of semantic field theory is traced back to the very first idea of the founder of common linguistics, known as the famous German linguist from the middle of 19th century, W. Humbodt. However, linguists who proposed the idea of

semantic field theory on a real sense were some German and Swiss structuralism linguists from 1930s, such as Ipsen, Jolls, Porzig and J. Trier. Among all these brilliant linguists, J. Trier's idea is accepted most widely. People believe that his idea has brought semantics to a new level. Structuralist linguists abandoned the traditional research methods which are considered as isolated. Instead, a new research approach which studies semantics with relational and developmental viewpoints is widely accepted so as to focus on the unity of language system and the influence of contexts towards senses. (Zhou, 1997)

What is semantic field theory exactly? The core of semantic field theory is to analyze the relationship between genus and species of lexical study. (Mei, 1987) It suggests that the words of a language system are related with each other and they form a complete lexical system. In this system, certain words could form a semantic field under a common concept. For example, under the concept of *stationery*, *pen, eraser, pencil, ruler and etc.* could form a semantic field. In this semantic field, *stationery* represents the genus, or in other words, general concept; *pen, eraser, pencil, and ruler* represent species, or specific concept. In short, semantic field is a combination of a group of words that interact, dominate, distinguish and depend on with each other. The semantic range of the combination is called the field range of the semantic field.

Semantic field can be also called lexical field or domain, which refers to the combination of a bunch of words with interrelated meanings and dominated under a same concept. (Zhou, 2001) It has two folds of meanings. Some words, from a language, which were dominated under one certain concept, combined together and formed a semantic field. This certain concept may be represented by a superordinate, while the semantic field is formed from either hyponyms or semantic features. For example, under the common concept of *furniture*, words like *table, closet, bed, bookshelf, couch, sofa, chairs,* etc., could be gathered as a semantic field. Another example, *burgundy, purple, pink, green, yellow, blue, orange, white* and *black,* these words go to a common concept of *color*. On the other hand, words that belong to the same semantic field are not only semantically related, but also interact with each other. That is to say, when checking the meaning of a word, the first step is to compare the semantic meaning of the other words under the same semantic field. Take the antonymous semantic field formed by the word *"fast"* and *slow/sober/loose/disloyal/faded/slowly/eat* as an example, before determining the meaning of the word "fast", we will have to figure out the antonymous relations between *fast* and other words. For instance, *fast* means *quick* against *slow*, while it means *fadeless* against *faded*.

II. Classifications of Semantic Field

The semantic field theory was brought into its puberty by German scholar J. Trier in the 1930s, whose version is seen as a new phase in the history of semantics. Wu (1988, p.94-95) summarized Trier's semantic field theory as follows:

① The vocabulary in a language system is semantically related and builds up a complete lexical system. This system is unsteady and changing constantly. ② Since the vocabulary of a language is semantically related, we are not supposed to study the semantic change of individual words in isolation, but to study vocabulary as an integrated system. ③ Since lexemes are interrelated in sense, we can only determine the connotation of a word by analyzing and comparing its semantic relationship with other words. A word is meaningful only in its own semantic field.

Trier's semantic field is generally considered paradigmatic. It deals with paradigmatic relations between words such as hyponymy, synonymy and antonymy. (Guo, p.51) This study follows this classification.

A. Hyponymy

Hyponymy is the most common branch of semantic field theory. It contains all objects that belong to the same category. The most fundamental category is dualistic, for example, *paddy field* and *upland field*, *autorotation* and *revolution*, etc. Another category is diversified, for example, na*vy, marine, air force*, etc. Hyponymy can be multileveled, which means the basic level could be divided into more specific levels, and even more specific ones. For instance, we could divide *animals* into *human being* and *birds* and *beasts*, yet *birds* and *beasts* could be further divided into *birds, fishes, insects* and *mammals*, etc. And the *mammals* could also be specifically divided into *pigs, dogs, cows, wolves* and *horses*, etc. And finally, for example, *horses* can be further divided into *broncos, stallions, ponies* and so on. These divisions implicate the system of hyponymy, which is basically the superordinate-hyponym semantic field, also called general terms and specific terms. Take the example above for instance, if *animals* are the superordinate, *human being, birds* and *beasts* will be the hyponyms. On the other hand, if *birds and beasts* are taken as the superordinate, then *birds, fishes, insects and mammals* will be the hyponyms.

Hyponymy is featured as being relative. The relativity of this semantic field has two-fold meanings. On the one hand, it means that the superordinate-hyponym relations are not relative instead of absolute or unchanged. Take an example as the Graph 2-1-1 shows below:
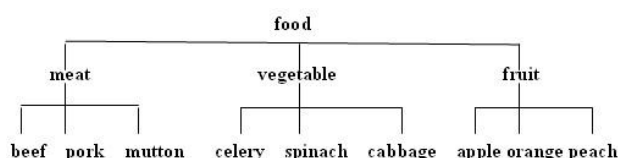
Graph 2-1-1 (Zhang, 2004, p.142)

As the graph listed above, to *food, meet* is a hyponym and it locates at a lower level; while to *beef, pork* and *mutton, meat* is a superordinate and locates at a higher level. The same way works with *vegetable*, it is a superordinate towards *celery*, *spinach* and *cabbage*, yet it is a hyponym towards *vegetable*. On the other hand, when a semantic field was applied to describe different objects, the consulting standards are different and relative. For example, among the semantic field of *big* and *small,* the size is relative because sometimes the small ones are bigger than the big ones. For example, a small elephant is much bigger than a big mouse, and a small dog is bigger than a big butterfly.

B.   Antonymy

Antonymy is another branch of semantic field which is formed by words with the same roots and range. Antonymy is usually formed with opposed, inconsistent and opposite meanings and therefore could be divided into three categories as follows:

(1) Polar Antonymy

Polar antonymy refers to the semantic field formed with the words of opposed and polar meanings. For example, hot-cold, rich-poor, etc. This type of semantic field has two features, semantic polarity and semantic relativity, which indicates that the semantic polarity only exists on the base of the semantic relativity. For example, we might say, *A man may be rich or very rich. One man may be richer than another.* On the other hand, semantic relativity is gradual, which means we can insert words with different degrees between the two polars of the polar antonymy to show the hierarchy of the semantic relativity. For example, between *hot* and *cold,* we can insert *warm, tepid, lukewarm* and *cool.* Also, we can change the polar words from a polar semantic field to other words with different degrees to show the hierarchy of the semantic relativity. Take the same example; we could change *hot* or *cold* to *boiling, sweltering, chilly* or *freezing.* (Zhou, 2001)

(2) Complementary Antonymy

Complementary antonymy refers to the semantic field formed by words with complementary meanings. For example, *dead-alive, If he is not dead, he is alive. / If he is not alive, he is dead.* There are other such complementary antonymies, such as *male-female, single-married, present-absent, etc.* Differentiated with polar antonymy, normally speaking, there are no words which could be inserted between the pair of complementary words.

(3) Transpositional Antonymy

Transpositional antonymy is formed by a pair of words with both opposed and dependant meanings, the two words combined into an opposed unit which exists based on each other's existence. For example, *buy-sell, lend-borrow, husband-wife, employer-employee, etc.* Hence, If A lends $100 to B, then we can say B borrows $100 from A; If A is B' wife, then B is A's husband.

C.   Synonymy

Synonymy refers to the semantic fields which are formed by the words with relatively same meanings so that they could be inter-changed in some degree yet irreplaceable in most cases. Synonymy could be further classified into absolute synonymy and relative synonymy. Absolute synonymy is relatively rare, and it mainly indicates the word groups with absolute same meaning and could be replaced with each other in any contexts. For instance, *mother tongue* and *native language*, *malnutrition* and *undernourishment*, *breathed consonant* and *voiceless consonant*, etc. While compared to absolute synonymy, relative synonymies are more affluent. It refers to the synonymies which are formed by words with relatively same meaning yet are different in degrees, emotions, styles and collocations. Thus, in reference to what Zhang yunfei (2004) made in her book *An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology*, relative synoynym could be further classified into such categories as following.

(1) Synonymy with Different Degrees

Words that constitute this type of semantic fields have same extended meanings yet different in degrees. For example, *anger, rage* and *fury* are all about the emotional excitement induced by intense displeasure, while *anger* is used normally without definite degree of intensity; *rage* focuses on a loss of self-control; and *fury* emphasizes a rage is so violent that it may approach madness.

(2) Synonymy with Different Emotions

This type of synonymy is mainly formed by words with basically same meaning yet with different emotions. For example, *philanthropist* and *do-gooder* can both means charity and sympathy, while *philanthropist* usually means charitarians who aid people in sufferings and donate for the poor, yet *do-gooders* refer to those unrealistic humanists who would dream of doing good recklessly and vainly. Another example, *statesman* and *politician* both means people who take part in social politics, while *statesman* refers to those who could do well in controlling and governing the sates yet *politician* mainly means people who play political tricks for their own interests. In both of the examples, the formers are all commendatory; the latters derogatory.

(3) Synonymy with Different Styles

This type of semantic field mainly consists of the words with relatively same meaning yet different styles. American linguist Martin Joos (1962) listed five different styles of words in his book *Five Clocks* as *frozen, formal, consultative, casual and intimate.* According to these five styles, we can label the word *horse* with five different tags, *charger* is frozen, *steed* is formal, *horse* is consultative, *nag* is casual, and *plug* is intimate.
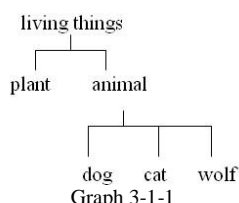
(4) Synonymy with Different Collocations

This type of synonymous semantic field is formed by words with relatively same meaning yet different collocations. For example, the words that could indicate the meaning of *accuse* are *charge, rebuke, reproach and accuse itself.* While the prepositions that collocate with them are different. That is to say, *accuse* collocates with *of*, *charge* collocates with *with*, *rebuke* collocates with *for*, and *reproach* with *for* or *with*.

III. THE APPLICATION OF SEMANTIC FIELD THEORY TO VOCABULARY LEARNING

A. The Application of Hyponymy

Semantic fields are obviously hierarchical. They could be observed from the top to the bottom. The higher level of a semantic field is more general, the lower level is more specific. For example:

```
                    living things
            ┌──────────┴──────────┐
          plant               animal
                        ┌────────┼────────┐
                       dog      cat      wolf
```
Graph 3-1-1

The hierarchy of semantic field is based on the systematization of objective substances. Meanwhile, it also reflects the consequences of the cognition of human being towards nature. Obviously, hierarchy is mostly seen in hyponymy. With this characteristic, we could learn new words more easily by studying the hyponyms or superordinates of the word we learn from a certain semantic field.

Another feature of semantic field is transitivity. That is to say, if *A* belongs to *B*, and *B* belongs to *C*, we can say that *A* belongs to *C*. Transitivity is mainly reflected from two aspects, one of which could be found in the superordinate-hyponym semantic field that if *B* is one type of *A*, and *C* is one type of *B*, then we can say that *C* is one type of *A*. For example, *animal* is one of the *living things*, and *dog* is one of the *animals*, then we can say *dog* is one of *living things*. On the other hand, transitivity could be found in part/whole relationship that if *B* is part of *A*, *C* is part of *B*, and then we can say *C* is part of *A*. For example, *season* is a part of a *year*, *month* is a part of *season*, that makes *month* a part of a *year*.

Semantic fields usually tend to be complicated, that is why they have crisscross as one of the features. It mainly reflects from two aspects. On the one hand, a word with just one meaning could form different semantic fields with different words. For example, *parent* could form a hyponymy with *father or mother*; it could also form an antonymy with *child*. On the other hand, a word with different meanings could form various semantic fields with various words. For example, *fast* could form an antonymy with *slow;* meanwhile, it could also form a synonymy with words like *quick, rapid and speedy, etc.* and form another synonymy with *firm* and *fixed.* Another example, the word *cow* could not only refer the generic term of the semantic field of *cattle* in the higher level, but also could refer to simply the *female cattle* at a lower level in the same semantic field.

From the characteristics listed above, we can say that we could use the superordinates to sum up the words that belong to the same hyponymy and describe all other words that belong to the same hyponymy with the superordinates to make the context concise and clear as it is necessary. This approach also applies when it is unnecessary to list all the hyponyms. For example, we can use *stationery* to cover *pens, pencils, rulers and paper,* etc. when it is not necessary to list all these words. We can also use *furniture* to include *chairs, tables, desks and beds,* etc.

When learning about *Jupiter*, one of the planets of the solar system, English learners could expand the learning list to other names of planets of the solar system, such as *Mars*, *Mercury*, *Saturn*, *Venus* and so on. In an interestingly similar way, when learn about *Mars*, we might also learn that it is also the name of god of the war in ancient Roman legendaries, and *Jupiter* is the name of the king of all gods in the same system. This way, English learners could remember words much easily and systematically.

B. The Application of Antonymy

Generally, antonyms are used to indicate contrast and highlight the features of objects. Successful writers even use antonymy in the titles of their writings. Jane Austen is particularly fond of adopting this technique in her novels, such as Sense and Sensability, Pride and Prejudice. Antonymy helps form a sharp contrast and makes the works fascinating so that readers could continue reading with great interest.

Meanwhile, antonymy is often used to explain lexical meanings. Some words are difficult to explain directly, however, it will be easier to paraphrase using its antonym. For example, *muscular, disgraceful, mediocre,* and *impoverishment* might be unfamiliar to most students and make it difficult to explain in English, yet we can use *not weak, not honored, not outstanding,* and *enrichment* to directly explain them. Also, antonymy could be used to enlarge the vocabulary through covering pairs of semantically opposed antonyms. For example, when learning about *employer, trainer* and *sender,* we can simultaneously memorize *employee, trainee* and *recipient.*

G. Leech (1981) recognizes seven types of meaning in his *Semantics.* One is collocative meaning referring to what is communicated through association with words which tend to occur in the environment of another word. Linguistic

context is just the collocation of one word with another. Some words are of polesemy. In different contexts, they have different meanings. Therefore, these words have different collocations respectively. Meanwhile, each word has different antonyms when its collocation changes.

Take *fresh* for example. The basic meaning of *fresh* is "newly coming out". Its antonym is "old". That is, the antonym of "fresh problem" is "old problem". When the meaning of *fresh* turns to "newly-made", its antonym turns to "state", that is, "no longer fresh". The antonym of "fresh bread" is "state bread". "Fresh fruit" means "newly gathered fruit", the fruit that are "not preserved" and "not dried". In this situation, the antonym of *fresh* becomes "preserved" or "dried". When *fresh* collocates with "flower", it means "newly gathered". The antonym of "*fresh*" is "faded" or "withered" accordingly. And when *fresh* collocates with "air", it refers to "clean and refreshing". Accordingly, its antonym is "foul" or "polluted". It is self-evident how vocabulary is easily enlarged from a single word "fresh" to about ten words or phrases by way of putting words in their semantic field of antonymy.

C.   The Application of Synonymy

Seeing from a historical perspective, any language is always changing as time passes. Among all the changes of a language, the change of vocabulary is spectacular. It does not only indicate the vanishing of old words and the emergence of new words, but also could represent the change of the lexical meaning. Thus this change must have caused the change of semantic field. For example, the word *nice* used to mean *stupid*, which made it possible to form a synonymy with *foolish* and *moronic*; while in modern English, *nice* changes its meaning into *good* and *fine*, which makes them a new synonymy. Another example, the word *bird* used to mean *squab*, while nowadays becomes a generic term of *all birds*. Due to the change of meaning, a word would transfer from one semantic field to another.

Vagueness is another characteristic of semantic field. It indicates that due to the uncertain cognition of some objects or concepts from the external world of modern people and makes them vague. For example, it is still vague to decide whether to put the word *olive* in the semantic field of fruits or vegetables. Also, it is uncertain whether to put the word *sled* into the semantic filed of transportation or sport equipment.

In general, the application of synonymy could be used in describing the unfamiliar words. We could use the relativity and synonymy semantic field to enlarge vocabulary like what hyponymy and antonymy do; besides, vagueness of semantic fields could also help English learners distinguish different synonymy. As for synonymy itself, during learning process, there are a lot of words that are difficult to explain directly in English, in that case, we can use the synonyms to paraphrase them and acquire an easier access to learning their meanings. For example, we could use *native language* to directly paraphrase *mother tongue*.

During the vocabulary learning process, we can list up and compare the words that have similar semantic meaning and slight difference in general usage. For example, when learning about the word *raise*, we can list *rise* and *arise* as well. The three words share basic same meaning yet they are slightly different in grammar usage. Through this way, English learners could memorize both the spellings and specific usage of similar yet different words.

IV.   CONCLUSION

Vocabulary is one of the important elements in a language. English language is no exception. The efficiency of vocabulary learning greatly determines the success of language learning. English words are over a million in number and they constitute the core of language learning. The size of one's vocabulary directly affects the development of his/her linguistic competence. Therefore, the first task of vocabulary instruction is to enlarge learners' vocabulary. (Guo, 2010) Thus lots of vocabulary learning strategies have been recommended. However, the most systematic and scientific strategy should be the one based on semantic field theory.

This paper studies English vocabulary learning based on semantic field theory. In introduction, the paper presents the significance of the study and the theoretical review of semantic field. Words do not stand alone, rather, they form numerous dependently interrelated networks, either superordinate-hyponym, or antonymous, or synonymous, etc. Thus, the paper classifies the semantic field theory into three major categories, i.e., hyponymy, antonymy and synonymy, each of which are illustrated with abundant examples. Then the body of the paper is to apply each category of semantic relations to English vocabulary learning respectively with detailed elaboration. Meanwhile, the characteristics of each semantic field are summarized during the illustration, which include hierarchy, transitivity, crisscross, relativity, variability, vagueness, etc.

In conclusion, the paper only covers three major semantic relations, hyponymy, antonymy and synonymy. As for other semantic relations like polysemy, homonymy, taxonymy, partonymy, they do play vital roles in semantic field study as well as in vocabulary learning and teaching, and deserve researchers' further exploration.

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The Effect of Shyness on Iranian EFL Learners' Language Learning Motivation and Willingness to Communicate

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Abstract—**The present study intends to investigate the effect of shyness on Iranian EFL learners' language learning motivation and willingness to communicate. In western countries shyness has been considered as an undesirable personality trait that may interfere with one's interpersonal interactions and affect life satisfaction. However, shyness is viewed differently in Iranian cultures. In Iranian society, people are encouraged to control their personal desires. Among the variables that influence L2 learning, shyness and language learning motivation are two critical predictors, whereas willingness to communicate also often influences learners' performance in L2 communication. This study was conducted with 60 EFL learners who were taking English courses at a private English institute in Shiraz. They were asked to fill out self-report questionnaires about their shyness, motivations in their English studies, and their willingness to communicate. Results indicated that intrinsic motivation to accomplish appears to be the most important predictor among all motivation regulations for all students. Results also indicated that shyness and language learning motivations were positively correlated.**

Index Terms—**shyness, motivation, willingness to communicate**

I. INTRODUCTION

The experience of learning a foreign language is both mentally and emotionally demanding for most learners. Most second or foreign languages are learned in classrooms, where there is constant performance evaluation by the teachers and peers. This situation can be frightening for most learners, especially those who are shy, due to their desire for approval from others and fear of negative evaluation.

In an English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) class, especially a class that emphasizes speaking and listening, shy students seem to be at a great disadvantage since they do not draw attention to themselves, either by not volunteering to answer questions in class, or by avoiding opportunities for oral communication. In fact, some research has revealed that extroverts are a lot better in formal situations or interpersonal encounters when compared to their introverted counterparts (Dewaele & Furnham, 2000). However, there are examples of shy EFL learners becoming proficient regardless of their timidity in language classes (Anthony, 1963; Entwistle, 1972; Morris, 1979).

The nature of shyness has been already researched in the literature (e.g., Buss, 1980; Cheek & Buss, 1981; Jones & Russell, 1982; Leary & Schlenker, 1981; Chuh, 2008). Experience of feeling shy is a common experience that most of us have experienced; however, the frequency and the magnitude of feelings of shyness vary from person to person. Individuals who are terribly shy may pass up opportunities to form intimate relationships with peers and the opposite sex or meet other like-minded people. (Caspi, Elder, & Bem, 1988). They may lose the opportunity to be heard by their teachers or professors at school (Friedman, 1980), or even to show their employers their usefulness at work.

Researches on second language acquisition show that affective factors like motivation and willingness to communicate play an important role in language achievement (Yashima, 2002). Gardner and Lambert (1959) identify two categories of motivation: first, integrative motivation which is a positive tendency towards the second language group and desire to interact with and become a member of that group, and second, instrumental motivation which is related to pragmatic goals of learning a second language. The importance of motivation in language learning is intertwined with the importance and role of motivation in learning a second language. Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972) suggested that a person's motivation for learning a second language is affected by motivation for acquisition of the second language and the attitude towards second language group.(Zarinabadi, 2011)

In recent years, researchers in both fields of psychology and second language learning have used motivation theories such as *Self-Determination Theory* (Deci & Ryan, 2002) to explain the motivation of L2 learners. The process of learning a new language is often lengthy and complicated, so it is not difficult to imagine that learners need to maintain motivation in order to learn the language. Lack of motivation can prevent a learner from obtaining the necessary information needed to perform a task. When this is paired up with extreme shyness, it can lead to failure in the L2 learning process.

Another affective factor is willingness to communicate (WTC), a variable which influences authentic communication in L2 and has been considered as an important predictor of frequency of communication.(Zarinabadi, 2011). Dörnyei

(2003) argues that many L2 learners stay away from second language communication. Kang (2005) states many L2 learners may not use the opportunities to learn language through authentic communication. MacIntyre et al. (1998) believe that producing WTC is an important component of modern language instruction. They argue that recent emphasis on communicative competence may produce students who are capable of communication inside the classroom, but "may not be amenable to do so outside the classroom."(p. 549) Kang (2005) reports teachers can have more active learners by making them more willing to communicate. Kang states that students with high WTC are more likely to use L2 in authentic communication. He also believes that students with high WTC will become involved in learning activities both inside and especially outside the classrooms. Scholars like Dörnyei (2005) consider WTC as the ultimate goal of instruction. (Zarinabadi, 2011) Researchers have conducted studies on the influence of an individual's variables on WTC. Shyness was found to be as one of the important factors.

Now we know that shy students can be at a serious disadvantage in class in comparison with more extrovert students. As a result, they might get less attention from the instructors and their abilities might be underestimated. So if shy students, their motivation, and their level of willingness to communicate are identified, instructors can use special techniques and strategies to modify their instructions in handling these types of students.

This study investigates how shy learners, who are likely low in extroversion, manage their language learning tasks, drawing on the literature of language learning motivation, and willingness to communicate.

In the present study, an attempt is made to examine the effects of shyness on language learning orientation and willingness to communicate among Iranian EFL learners. Most specifically, the study aims to know if there is any relationship between language learning orientation and willingness to communicate and whether they are affected by shyness. Thus, the following research questions are to be answered:

1. Do shy and non-shy students report having different types of motivation in EFL learning?

2. Do shy and non-shy learners show different levels of willingness to communicate?

3. Is there a relationship between Iranian EFL learners' language learning motivation and their willingness to communicate?

4. Is there a relationship among Iranian EFL learners shyness, their language learning motivation and their willingness to communicate?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Nature of Shyness

The nature of shyness has been widely researched in literature. There seems to be a discrepancy among the ideas of researchers: a group of scholars believe that it is a form of social anxiety (Buss, 1980), others believe it is a avoidant behavior (Phillips, 1980), still others view it as both, a manifestation of feelings of anxiety along with inhibited or avoidant behavior (Polman et al. 2004) Shyness has also been associated with other types of social anxiety, such as, stage fright, embarrassment, and shame.

B. Second Language Learning Motivation Theories

1. The Canadian Socio-Psychological Camp

The most important work conducted in the area of motivation in language study is a series of studies conducted by Robert Gardner and his colleagues (earlier with Wallace Lambert, and later with research associates at the University of Western Ontario). The original theory was derived from Mowrer's ideas (1950) on how identification with a valued person could influence one's development (cited in Skehan, 1989). Building on this idea, Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972) considered the extent to which people regard and want to identify with not only particular individuals but also foreign people and culture, and proposed two types of motivation, integrative and instrumental, for learners who make attempts at learning a foreign language. Learners who have integrative orientation generally identify with the people in the target language group, have the curiosity to understand its culture, and may even want to be accepted as a member by the language community. On the other hand, learners with instrumental orientation are those who learn a foreign language with a utilitarian perspective, i.e., for their career advancement or survival in the society of the target language. Gardner and Lambert (1972) hypothesized that having an instrumental motive is less effective for a language learner because, unlike integrative motivation, it is not based on the personality of a learner and therefore, more contingent on fallible external pressures. Consequently, a learner with instrumental motivation may not expend as much effort to achieve cumulative progress over time.

Following a series of studies, Gardner and Smythe (1975) put forth a prototype of the Socio-Educational Model. In the model, they identified possible motivational characteristics in terms of four categories, Group Specific Attitudes, Course Related Characteristics, Motivational Indices, and Generalized Attitudes. Later, Gardner (1979) proposed a modification of this model in which he distinguished four components, the Social Milieu, Individual Differences, Second Language Acquisition Contexts, and Outcomes. In addition, he presented a schematic model in which attitudes were shown to affect motivation, which in turn influenced language achievement. In addition, Gardner asserted that achievement can be manifested in both linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes, which in turn had an impact on attitudes. Therefore, the model is seen as a positive feedback cycle in which attitudes and motivation influence language achievement, which in turn has an influence on subsequent attitudes and motivation. The model has undergone a

number of revisions since its first publication (see Gardner, 1985; Gardner, 2001; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). In the latest version, the category of External Influences replaces that of the Social Milieu of earlier versions. History (e.g., socio-cultural milieu in which the individual lives and personal background) and Motivators (e.g., the teacher's role in language learning) fall in this category. As for the other three categories, Individual Differences (e.g., integrativeness, attitude, aptitude, and motivation), Language Acquisition Contexts (i.e., formal vs. informal), and Outcomes (e.g., language proficiency or language anxiety) stay the same.

2. Self-Determination Theory

Self-determination theory was put forth by Deci and Ryan (1985, 2002) and is focused on various types of intrinsic and extrinsic motives and how those motives help people meet their needs for competence. Intrinsic motivation generally refers to the motivation to engage in an activity for its own sake because it is enjoyable. According to Deci and Ryan (1985), intrinsic motivation is based on one's need for competence and autonomy. They hypothesized that when people voluntarily choose to take part in an activity, they will look for possible interesting opportunities where they face the challenges that the activity brings forth. By trying to live up to the challenges, individuals develop a sense of competence in their ability. In recent years, (Vallerand et al., 1992, 1993) have presented a more fine-grained differentiation for the three subtypes of intrinsic motivation (IM). The first type is IM-Knowledge, the motivation to participate in an activity for the opportunities to acquire knowledge. The second type, IM-Accomplishment, refers to the feeling pertinent to mastering a task or achieving a goal. The third type, IM-Stimulation, concerns the sensations stimulated by performing a task, such as aesthetic appreciation or excitement.

The common ground for these three subtypes of intrinsic motivation is the satisfying sensations an individual experiences during the self-initiated challenging activity. By contrast, extrinsic motivation is a motive that prompts an individual to carry out a task simply to get a reward or to avoid punishment. This type of motivation does not necessarily imply the lack of self-determination in the behaviors performed. Instead, Deci and Ryan (1985) claimed that different types of extrinsic motivation (EM) can be categorized according to the extent to which they are internalized into the self-concept. According to Deci and Ryan, four levels of EM can be identified: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation. External regulation is defined as activities that are determined by sources external to the person, such as perceivable benefits or costs, echoing the definition of Gardner's instrumental motivation. The second type of extrinsic motivation is introjected regulation, which is more internalized into the self-concept than external regulation. It occurs when individuals undertake an activity due to some kind of pressure or beliefs that they have assimilated into their self-concept, such that they make themselves perform the activity.

Although the source of the pressure comes from within, it is not self-determined because individuals are reacting to a demand rather than acting on the basis of free will. Identified regulation is considered to be more self-determined than introjected regulation. When people have this type of motivation, they choose to participate in an activity for personally relevant reasons that they value. The most autonomous form of extrinsic motivation is integrated regulation, occurring when identified regulations are fully incorporated into the self, which means they have been evaluated and come into line with other values a person has (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

C. Willingness to Communicate

The importance of Willingness to Communicate (WTC) arises from the research of interaction-driven L2 development (Long, 1996; Mackey & Gass, 2006; Swain, 2005). Researchers in this area have contended that language learning is facilitated through meaningful interactions. With an increasing emphasis on authentic communication in L2 learning and instruction, a willingness to communicate on the part of learners is deemed to have multiple advantages such as an increase of exposure and practice in authentic L2 communication and development of learner autonomy (MacIntyre et al., 2001; Kang, 2005). In this section, I will present several models that researchers have put forth in the WTC literature and discuss factors that affect an individual's WTC behavior.

1. McCroskey's Willingness-To-Communicate Model

Originating from the early work of Philips (1965, 1968) on reticence, of Burgoon (1976) on unwillingness to communicate, and of Mortesen, Arntson, and Lustig (1977) on predisposition toward verbal behavior, the idea of Willingness to Communicate (WTC) was first put forth by McCroskey and his associates (McCroskey & Baer, 1985; McCroskey & Richmond, 1987) with reference to L1 use and speaking as its focus. WTC was considered as "an individual's predisposition to initiate communication with others" (McCroskey, 1997, p.77), and posited to remain stable across situations. McCroskey and McCroskey (1986a) found that L1 WTC was negatively associated with communication apprehension, introversion, alienation, and anomie. On the other hand, they also found WTC to be positively associated with self-esteem and self-perceived communication competence (McCroskey & McCroskey, 1986a, 1986b). In addition, Chan and McCroskey (1987) found that students who scored high on the WTC scale were more likely to participate verbally in class than those who scored low on WTC.

2. MacIntyre's and Clement's Willingness-To-Communicate Models

Despite what described above, some researchers believe that it is not a good idea to treat willingness to communicate (WTC) as a trait-like attribute, since WTC could be situation-specific and not transferable from L1 to L2. Clement and MacIntyre are two supporters of this view. In Clement's Social Context Model (Clement, 1980; Clement & Kruidenier, 1985), he described the correlations among intergroup contact, L2 confidence, L2 competence, and L2 identity. The

model suggested that the frequency and quality of contacts with the L2 community would eventually lead to variations in L2 confidence, which he saw as composed of perceived communicative competence and lower levels of L2 anxiety. In addition, L2 confidence was associated with an increase in communication competence in L2, identification with the L2 community, and assimilation motive. (Clement et al., 2003; Noels & Clement, 1996; Noels, Pon, & Clement, 1996). However, this model does not deal with L2 usage.

You may indicate that the previous literature described in the domain of shyness, motivation and willingness to communicate is inadequate and many new research questions can be raised in these fields. In general, there have been few studies investigating the relationship between shyness, motivation and willingness to communicate.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants recruited for this study were 60 students (30 males and 30 females) who were taking English as a foreign language courses at Management and Technology Institute in Shiraz. They were all native speakers of Persian, with an average age of 20.5 years. The youngest participant was 18 years of age, and the oldest was 44 (SD=2.12). They were chosen randomly, and since comprehension of the items in the questionnaire required a certain level of proficiency, advanced level students were chosen for the study.

B. Instruments

1. The Revised Cheek and Buss Shyness Scale (RCBS)

The shyness scale selected for this study was the 13-item Revised Cheek and Buss Shyness Scale (Cheek, 1983), first developed by Cheek and Buss in 1981 as a 9-item scale. The items are answered on a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 labeled as *very uncharacteristic or untrue* and 5 as *extremely characteristic or true*. The scale has been used frequently throughout the shyness literature for its sound psychometric properties (Bradshaw, 1998; Heiser et al., 2003; Paulhus & Trapnell, 1998; Schmidt & Riniolo, 1999; Van-Ameringen, Mancini, & Oakman, 1998). The alpha coefficient for the scale is .90, and the 45-day test-retest reliability is .88. Generally, moderate to strong correlations have been obtained between the RCBS and other measures of shyness: the SRS-II (Social Reticence Scale; Jones & Briggs, 1986), r = .77; the Shyness Questionnaire (Bortnik et al., 2002), r = .74; responses to the question, "How shy are you?" (Hopko et al., 2005), r = .56; the Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale (FNE) (Watson & Friend, 1969), r = .63; the Social Phobia Scale (SPS) (Mattick & Clarke, 1998), r = .56; and the Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS) (Mattick & Clarke, 1998), r = .84. Convergent validity of the RCBS was also supported via strong correlations with the above-mentioned measures (see Hopko et al., 2005, for a review). Moreover, the correlation with the original 9-item version was .96. In an attempt to discriminate the constructs of shyness and sociability, the items were written to measure affective and behavioral aspects of shyness without referring to the desire to seek out or avoid social interactions (r = -.30) (Leary, 1991). The negative but low to moderate correlations between shyness and sociability also indicate that shyness is something other than low sociability.

2. Language Learning Orientation Scale – Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation and Amotivation Subscales (LLOS-IEA)

The LLOS-IEA (Noels et al., 2000) was adapted from the Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) (Vallerand et al., 1989, 1992, 1993.) The AMS was translated from French into English through parallel back-translation procedure, using two independent back translation sequences. The AMS has 28 items measuring seven subscales: amotivation, external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and three dimensions of intrinsic motivation (i.e., knowledge, accomplishment, and stimulation). The latter dimensions were added to the original view of intrinsic motivation from *Self- Determination Theory* by Vallerand and his colleagues (Vallerand et al., 1989), indicating intrinsic motivation to know, to accomplish things, and to experience stimulation.

Intrinsic motivation to know can be defined as the feeling an individual experiences when he or she engages in an activity for the pleasure and fulfillment of learning and exploring something new, whereas intrinsic motivation to accomplish refers to a sensation that one would experience when attempting to accomplish or create something. Lastly, intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation refers to an emotion an individual undergoes when seeking out opportunities to gain sensory pleasures, aesthetic experiences, and excitement.

For these seven subscales, the LLOS-IEA has 21 items. The original LLOSIEA used a 7-point rating scale. However, to correspond with the scaling systems of the other measures used in the present study and in order not to confuse the participants, a 5-point scale was adopted, with 1 being strongly disagree and 5 being strongly agree. Each subscale consists of three items, thus, subscale scores can range from 3 to 15. A high score on a subscale denotes high endorsement of that particular academic motivation towards English learning

For the seven subscales that were used in the study, items on the amotivation subscale reveal the lack of motivation regarding English learning in respondents, and an example is, "I cannot see why I study English, and frankly, I don't care." Items on the external regulation subscale signal that a respondent would engage in English learning only because of outward rewards or punishment, and an example is, "I study English because I have the impression that it is expected of me." Items measuring introjected regulation indicate that respondents learn English to either avoid guilt or anxiety or to obtain an ego boost. An example is, "I study English to show myself that I am a good citizen because I can speak a

second language." Items measuring identified regulation show that a respondent identifies English learning as something he or she values, and an example is, "I study English because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak more than one language." As for the three dimensions of the intrinsic motivation subscale, a sample intrinsic motivation-knowledge item is, "I study English for the pleasure that I experience in knowing more about English literature." A sample intrinsic motivation accomplishment item is, "I study English for the pleasure I experience when surpassing myself in my English studies." Lastly, a sample intrinsic motivation-stimulation item is, "I study English for the 'high' I feel when hearing English spoken."

The Cronbach alpha index of internal consistency of the LLOS-IEA was acceptable for all subscales, ranging from .67 to .88 (Noels et al., 2003). In the current study the cronbach alpha index of internal consistency calculated is 76.9.

3. The Willingness-To-Communicate Scale (WTC)

The WTC scale was developed to measure a respondent's propensity toward approaching or avoiding the initiation of communication (McCroskey & Richmond, 1987). The scale has 20 items, eight of which are fillers and 12 that are scored as part of the scale. It yields a total score, three subscores based on the types of interlocutors (strangers, acquaintances, and friends), and four subscores based on the nature of communication contexts (public speaking, meeting, and group discussion, and interpersonal). Originally, the scale was scored on a 100-point scale. However, to be consistent with the scaling system of other measures used in this study and in order not to confuse the participants, a 5-point scale was adopted, with 1 being *I never do this*, and 5 being *I always do this*. The subscores were obtained by adding the scores of selected items on particular subscales and calculating an average, whereas the total score was computed by adding subscores for the contexts of communicating with strangers, acquaintances, and friends and dividing the sum by three.

Higher scores indicate a respondent's readiness to initiate conversations with others under the circumstance in which they find themselves.

Since the scale was developed in the 1980s based on the societal context of the United States, modern day Iranian students may not be able to relate themselves to the situation which was described in certain items. For example, with the item of "willing to communicate with a service station attendant," the receiver of the communication was changed to "salesperson who sells tickets in a booth at a local movie theater," because students could easily associate the statement with their experience and imagine themselves in the situation. Furthermore, additional examples were added to certain items to help students conceptualize the situation that was depicted.

Studies conducted by McCroskey and his colleagues have found estimates of internal reliability of the total score of the scale to range from .86 to .95. Reliability estimates for the context subscores ranged from .60 to .83, while estimates for the receiver subscores ranged from .70 to .91(Estimates obtained from data collected in other countries, such as Australia and Japan have been consistent with those generated from U.S. data (Barraclough, Christophel, & McCroskey, 1988; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004). In the current study the cronbach alpha index of internal consistency calculated is 88.9.

C. Data Collection Procedures

Before going into the classrooms, consent from the instructors was obtained. In addition, students were informed of the purpose of the study by their respective instructors. On the day of the questionnaire administration, instructors taught for the first half of the class time, one hour, and left one hour for the researcher to conduct the survey. To ensure consistency in the questionnaire administration, the researcher gave instructions and proctored the survey herself. At the beginning of each questionnaire administration, the instructor of each section introduced the researcher and left the room. The students were informed that participation in the study would be on a voluntary basis and that it would not by any means affect their grade in the course. Students who agreed to participate in the study were given 30 minutes to finish the questionnaire booklets that consisted of the above-mentioned instruments

D. Data Analysis

After the required data were collected, they were put into the spreadsheets and analyzed using SPSS, Version 16.0. Descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation and range were computed for each questionnaire. After that Pearson Product Moment Correlation was run to find out if there was a relationship between shyness and language learning orientation, learning motivation and willingness to communicate and, shyness and willingness to communicate. To answer the first and the second questions t-test (independent sample) was run.

IV. RESULTS

The analyses referred to in this chapter included the entire sample of 60 students. They provide a glimpse into Iranian EFL learners' shyness, their self-determined motivation regulations towards their English studies, and their level of willingness to communicate.

A. Descriptive Statistics of the Revised Cheek and Buss Shyness Scale

With the lowest possible score of 13 and highest possible score of 65, the mean of the total scores on the Revised Cheek and Buss Shyness Scale (RCBS) for the 60 participants was 35.08 (SD=6.31), which indicated that this group, as a whole, was somewhat shy. The lowest score in the group was 18 (n=1), while the highest was 51 (n=1). Using the cutoff score of 39 recommended by Cheek, the participants were divided into groups of shy and non-shy individuals. Seventy percent of the students were non-shy and 30% were shy.

B. Descriptive Statistics of the Language Learning Orientation Scale

Among the seven subscales of the Language Learning Orientation Scale – Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation and Amotivation Subscales (LLOS-IEA), intrinsic motivation to stimulate was the type of motivation that most participants reported having the most towards their English learning, followed by identified regulation, intrinsic motivation to accomplish, intrinsic motivation to know, external motivation, introjected motivation and amotivation. It is reasonable to see that the participants endorsed amotivation regulation the least.

C. Descriptive Statistics of the Willingness to Communicate Scale

When being asked how willing they are to communicate with others, the participants showed a preference for feeling more comfortable talking with friends, while they reported feeling least comfortable talking with strangers. They also reported more willingness to talk in groups and the least willingness to talk in meetings.

D. Shyness and Motivation

To determine if shy and non-shy students report having different types of motivation the statistical procedure of t-test (Independent sample) was run. The results show that shy and non-shy students do not show different types of motivation except for the intrinsic motivation to accomplish. The result in that part is significant (p< 0.01).

E. Shyness and Willingness to Communicate

To determine If shy and non-shy students report having different levels of willingness to communicate the statistical procedure of t-test (Independent sample) was run again. The results show that shy and non-shy students do not show different levels of willingness to communicate.

F. Motivation and Willingness to Communicate

To determine the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' motivation and their willingness to communicate the statistical procedure of Pearson correlation was run. The correlation was not significant.

G. Shyness, Motivation and Willingness to Communicate

Finally to determine the relationship among shyness, Iranian EFL learners' motivation and their willingness to communicate the statistical procedure of Pearson correlation was run. Correlation was significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

V. Discussion

According to the obtained results, Correlations between variables reveal that shyness has a relationship with language learning motivation. But, motivation does not show a relationship with willingness to communicate. Besides, shyness does not show a relationship with willingness to communicate either.

The results of the t-test analysis (independent sample) reveal that shy and non-shy students show different types of motivation, but they do not show different levels of willingness to communicate.

Discussion on the research questions

1. Do shy and non-shy students report having different types of motivation in EFL learning?

Unlike most of the studies in which the constructs of integrative and instrumental motivation were used to investigate the students' motivation to learn English (Gardner, 1985), in this study self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1995) was adopted, and the motivation continuum proposed by Deci and Ryan was used as a basis for measuring the learners' motivation. Non-shy students reported having more intrinsic motivation to accomplish than shy students.

2. Do shy and non-shy learners show different levels of willingness to communicate?

As for the relationship between shyness and willingness to communicate, a student who reports himself to be shy is expected to be less likely to initiate interactions with others. Among the four communication contexts (group discussions, meetings, interpersonal, and public speaking), students reported their preference to interact with others in group discussions the most and in meetings the least. This finding can be understood in the light of how a group discussion is carried out in Iranian classrooms, regardless of levels of education. When a group discussion occurs, not all of the participants are expected to participate. Some students may dominate the discussion and take the floor most of the time, whereas the timid ones can sit back and just nod in agreement without the need for saying much. Compared to the interaction occurring in interpersonal relationships in which each interlocutor has an equal share of keeping the conversation going, group discussion poses less demand on its participants, especially for shy ones. Therefore, it is not surprising that this mode of communication was most favored by shy students. However, it is somewhat puzzling to explain non-shy students' preference for talking in groups.

As for the preference for interacting with three types of interlocutors (strangers, acquaintances, and friends), speaking with friends was favored by most students, whereas talking to strangers was ranked as the least favorite. This finding is without a doubt intuitive because individuals are likely to feel most comfortable in interacting with those whom they are familiar with. However, Table 4.15 revealed that in the sample under study there was not a significant difference between shy and non-shy learners' level of willingness to communicate.

3. Is there a relationship between Iranian EFL learners' language learning motivation and their willingness to communicate?

The two variables did not show any relationship in the sample chosen for this study.

4. Is there a relationship among Iranian EFL learners' shyness, their language learning motivation and their willingness to communicate?

According to the results, there is a significant positive relationship between shyness and students' motivation ($p<0.01$)which means increase in shyness is associated with high motivation but motivation and willingness to communicate do not show any relationship ($p<0.01$). Besides, shyness and willingness to communicate do not have a significant correlation either. ($p<0.01$).

VI. CONCLUSION

As was already mentioned, the experience of learning a foreign language for most learners is both cognitively and emotionally demanding. Most learners learn a foreign language in classrooms, where there is constant performance evaluation by the instructor and peers. Such a situation can be frightening, especially for those learners who are shy, because they fear negative evaluation. By identifying these learners, teachers may become aware of the type of motivation they have toward EFL learning, estimate their level of willingness to communicate, and be able to identify strategies that match these students' study needs.

English instructors that have similar settings as the one sampled in this study may feel relieved to know that the majority of their students are relatively motivated to learn English in their required English courses. However, because the results reported in this study cannot be generalized to all students who are learning English in Iran, it is up to instructors to find out what encourages their students to practice English, given the variables that were investigated in this study. Using the information of students' personality trait (e.g. shyness), and willingness to communicate, an instructor can judge the participation in class activities that he or she may want to use and make modification to the curriculum accordingly. For example, if there were more shy students who were reluctant to speak up in class, pair work or individual activities can take up a larger portion of the curriculum, to help create a low-risk learning environment. On the other hand, if the majority of the students in class were non-shy and were willing to take risks in their English learning behavior, an instructor can implement activities that require them to experiment, whether it is with the new strategies they acquired or the new vocabulary they have just learned, or provide opportunities for them to explore the possibilities of learning English anytime, anywhere.

Nonetheless, despite students' personality, willingness to communicate, level of anxiety experienced in their English class, instructors need to bear in mind that in order to assist their students in becoming effective and adaptive learners, they need to stretch their students' English-learning muscles by presenting an array of possibilities, may it be a new way of memorizing vocabulary, a new medium with which students can learn English, or an alternative assessment of students' progress. By guiding students through multiple options, the instructors can help them make informed decisions regarding their English studies. Surely, the same principle can be very well extended to other disciplines of students' studies.

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A Relevance-theoretic Analysis of Conversational Silence

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Abstract—**Playing an important role in human communication, silence is worth exploring in great detail. The paper is written in an attempt to explore silence by drawing on relevance theory and taking some examples from especially the conversational silence in the film Waterloo Bridge. To sum up, the paper restates the positive applicability of relevance theory in interpreting conversational silence.**

Index Terms—**silence, communication, relevance theory**

I. INTRODUCTION

As an integral part and one characteristic feature of natural conversation, silence supplements verbal communication with its multiple informative and communicative functions. Therefore, studies on conversational silence occupy a significant position in conversation analysis.

Scholars abroad have begun to value studies on silence since late 1980s. Tannen & Saville-Troike (1985) try to present current research on silence from a number of disciplines while emphasizing its complex nature as a cultural phenomenon. Samovar & Porter (1991) adopt a cross-cultural perspective. In *Silence: Interdisciplinary Perspectives*, Jaworski (1997) approaches silence from many points of view, including sociology, anthropology, aesthetics and ethnography. Nakane (2006) conducts ethnographic studies on silence patterns and their cultural meanings in the EFL class especially in Mainland China. Each research above may focus on certain types or aspects of silence.

There have been relevant studies on silence at home as well, such as researches by Zuo Yan (1996); Gong & Wu (2003) and Liu & Zhong (2005). They are comparatively divisive and approach the issue from cross-cultural, pragmatic and ethnographic angles.

According to Sperber & Wilson (1986), silence as an ostensive-inferential act can convey the informative and communicative intentions of the communicator by sufficient processing efforts, from which contextual effect arises. The essay tries to approach conversational silence within the framework of relevance theory by elaborating its informative and communicative intentions and contextual effects: contextual implication, strengthening of contextual assumption and elimination of a previously held assumption.

II. RELEVANCE THEORY

Post-Gricean theorists modify and supplement cooperative principle in some aspects, and one of the most influential is Relevance Theory by Sperber & Wilson (He Zhaoxiong, 1999). Reducing all Gricean maxims to a single all-encompassing principle, relevance theory may be seen as an attempt to work out at length one of Grice's central claims, that is, an essential feature of most human communication, both verbal and nonverbal, is the expression and recognition of intentions (Grice, 1989).

A. Relevance and Communication

Traditionally, there are two models of communication: the code model (also called the message model) and the inferential model.

According to the code model, the basic mechanism of human communication is a coding-decoding one, and inference plays at best an ancillary role. When a person decides what to say, he uses a code system to put the thoughts into words, transmits the words to the other, who uses the same code system to translate the message into a thought. But communication is not like a code—the purpose of communicating is not to understand the meaning of the words or gestures or silence of the other person, but to understand what the communicator intends to do or what goal a speaker intends to accomplish using words, gestures or silence.

According to the inferential model initiated by Grice, a communicator provides evidence of his intention to convey a certain meaning, which is inferred by the audience on the basis of the evidence provided. The communicator must provide evidence of his meaning. This does not necessarily require the use of coded signals. Coding and decoding, therefore, is just one part of the communication process.

However, "the code model and the inferential model are not incompatible; they can be combined in various ways… Both the code and inferential models can contribute to communication." (Sperber &Wilson, 1986/1995: 52) They argue that communication involves both informative and communicative intention. The former is to inform an audience of

something and the communicative intention is the one to inform the audience of one's informative intention. Understanding is achieved when the communicative intention is fulfilled—that is, when the audience recognizes the informative intention.

To fulfill one's communicative intention requires an inferential process in addition to the linguistic encoding and decoding. It is especially needed for one to understand silence. Gong Weidong & Wu Xueyan (2003) summarize the interpreting process into the following steps:

①Perception of the signal (silence);

②Cognition of the conceptual meaning of the signal (silence): to form a relation between the new and old information on the part of the audience stimulated by the signal (silence);

③Cognition of the contextual meaning of the signal (silence): to involve the cognitive context and infer a series of assumptions;

④Fulfillment of the communicative intention: to choose some assumption and infer the implication guided by pragmatic knowledge.

Step① being a physical process, the rest are all cognitive. The cognitive process is the key to inference and the success in communication.

B.   Relevance and Cognition

According to relevance theory, utterances raise expectations of relevance not because speakers are expected to obey cooperative principle and maxims or some other specifically communicative convention, but because the search for relevance is a basic feature of human cognition, which communicators may exploit.

Relevance is a matter of degree. There is a host of potential inputs which might have at least some relevance for us, but there is no way to attend to them all. Relevance theory claims that what makes an input worth picking out from the mass of competing stimuli is not just that it is relevant, but that it is more relevant than any alternative input available at that time. Intuitively, an input (a sight, a sound, an utterance, a silence, a memory) is relevant to an individual when it connects with background information he has available to yield conclusions that matter to him. Other things being equal, the greater the positive cognitive effects achieved by processing an input, the less the processing effort required, the greater its relevance will be. Thus, relevance may be assessed in terms of cognitive effects and processing effort.

Sperber & Wilson intend to invoke intuitions of relevance. According to them, a proposition is relevant to a context if it interacts in a certain way with the (context's) existing assumptions about the world, i.e., if it has some contextual effects in some context that are accessible. These contextual effects include: (i) Contextual implication: A new assumption can be used together with the existing rules in the context to generate new assumptions; (ii) Strengthening an existing axiom: A new assumption can strengthen some of the existing assumptions of the context; and (iii) Contradicting or eliminating an existing assumption: A new assumption may change or eliminate some of the existing assumptions of the context.

Here, context is a psychological construct which represents an individual's assumptions about the world at any given time and place, and is supposed to include the following:

1. Logical information: The logical inference rules valid in the context that allow us to reason. According to Sperber & Wilson, these rules are deductive.

2. Encyclopedic information: Information about the objects, properties, and events that are instantiated in the context. This information in general will help us to form the inference rules of that context.

3. Lexical information: The lexical rules that allow us interpret the natural language utterances and sentences. (Ward & Horn, 2000: 635)

III.   DATA ANALYSIS

The phenomenon that one can make something out of silence has already been exploited and employed by writers, in particular playwrights, which is known as "pregnant silence". In this section, the author will take advantage of relevance theory to interpret the specific instances of silence in the film *Waterloo Bridge*.

A.   Silence as a Means to Convey Informative and Communicative Intentions

According to relevance theory, one tends to choose the most relevant stimuli in the environment and process them in order to attain the maximal relevance. Bearing this in mind, one may be able to produce a stimulus, e.g. a silence, which is likely to attract the other communicator's attention to lead to an intended conclusion; the other can then make certain contextual assumptions and reach the intended meaning and can also successfully fulfill the communicative intention. Silence in the film is designed to convey the informative and communicative intentions of the person who falls silent, not only for the characters on the screen but also for the audience.

1. Recognition of Intentions by the Performers

Look at the following episode:

1) (Waterloo Bridge. Night. Fog. Myra standing in one of the stone bays. A woman comes forward toward her.)

Woman: Is that you, Myra? Ello. Eard yo was married.

Myra: No.

Woman: That Kitty! She told me…said you'd got off with some toff! I know it was too good to be true!
Myra: Yes.
Woman: Oh, well, cheer up. Things can't be worse. Going down to the station?
Myra: (silence)
Woman: Oh, well…I'll be off on me lonesome, then. Toodloeoo. (*Waterloo Bridge*, 1940: ∮ 9)

It is the scene just before Myra's suicide. The woman tries to chat with Myra to prove whether what she has heard of is true or not. As one of the streetwalkers, she thinks it ridiculous for Myra to get married with some decent man. Her words stimulate Myra again as much as to shove her much closer to the self-destruction. The function of the silence here will be elaborated next. First, the woman assumes that Myra's silence is optimally relevant to her. Since she has offered an invitation, the absence of the second part in the "invitation-acceptance/refusal" adjacency pair stands out as a marked form. The information the silence intends to reveal is possibly that Myra is considering whether to go or not to go with this woman, and it can also be that Myra has denied her suggestion after consideration. The duration of the silence combined with the context, plus the message sent out from the heroine's performance on the screen make the woman eventually pick out the next information intended by Myra: "I am too heart-broken to go with you. But I hate to say no directly because I do not want to threaten your face". The woman helps recognize the information through certain cognitive efforts and the silence achieves Myra's communicative intention as well.

2. Recognition of Intentions by the Audience

Film, a form of visual art, is the channel through which message is conveyed from the director to the potential audience. Yet, the director-and-audience communication is different from daily communication to some degree. The question lies in what is the designed goal of the director. In the course of her/his work, on one hand, s/he cannot receive instant and frequent feedback from the audience; this type of communication concerning a piece of visual art is not an instant two-way communication. Usually only when it is completed can a film be watched. The audience's opinions may be varied individually. On the other hand, from the director's perspective, what s/he is making is something beautiful in itself, or satisfying to herself/himself, or something expressive or expected. Directors create a world of their own, or rather rearranges the things of their world in a new way. Film thereby is to some extent personal and individual, while longing for the potential appreciative audience. In the process of film directing during which the director creates a brand-new world, the employment of silent scenes acts as a way to promote the director-and-audience communication through the latter's efforts to infer the intended information. As a result, the director's communicative intention is brought home to the audience and a better understanding of the film can also be in anticipation.

The information in silence intended by the director is as follows: interpersonal relations in the film, either close or alienated; individual personality of a character; emotional state before a fierce breakout and the character's thoughtfulness.

Jenson (1973) remarks: "Silence can help to bind or sever relationships." The two lovers dance and dance to the tune of "Auld Lang Syne" with no words, bathed in the sweet-and-sorrowful melody of their romance. The frequent instances of Myra's silence after their chance meeting at the railway station indicate for the audience slight change from intimacy to invisible fracture at least on the side of Myra, the repression of the heroine's emotional pains, the intensity to which Roy rouses her, and the breakdown of the communication. The gap between them broadens as the plot proceeds to plan-making for the approaching marriage in Roy's birthplace.

Secondly, if one goes over the silence in the film carefully, it is easy to find most goes to Myra. Of 30 cases of turn silence, there are 22 for Myra. No matter what happens, the hero tends to settle it with strong determination and immediate action, while the heroine's reaction towards sudden changes looks very passive and pessimistic and she is liable to be bounded by traditional values. From their first encounter in the air raid to the development of their love to the reunion after so much suffering, Myra is always not so sure about the present or future happiness. It is typical of her to choose the strategy of silence, a vague but neutral and secure form to seek shelter from undesirable result. Myra's frequently turning to silence for protection reveals to the audience over again her passive and pessimistic temperament.

Thirdly, in human interaction, silence acts as a common strategy for the management of tense situations especially when people are highly emotional. The former part of the film witnesses the two lovers' first meeting, the development of their love and the determined commitment to each other, where silence serves to make clear the affection deep in heart and the ecstasy for finding the life partner. In the latter part silence is endowed with distinct functions. It helps characters to perform: to shield the emotions or evade confrontations, in spite of intense anger, bitterness, shame, or torture. Silence also helps the audience foresee the conflict and the delayed breakout.

B.   Silence as an Agency to Infer Contextual Effect

According to Sperber & Wilson (1986/1995), there arises a contextual effect when the stimulus can modify some element in one's cognitive context. There can be three types of contextual effect, which has been talked about in last section. To make it clear, the three types of contextual effect derived from 30 examples of turn silence will be demonstrated with the aid of the chart below:

A QUANTITATIVE COMPARISON OF THE CONTEXTUAL EFFECTS DERIVING FROM SILENCE

Contextual Effect	Contextual Implication	Strengthening	Abandoning
Cases of Turn Silence	16	6	8
Percentage	53%	20%	27%

It is obvious through the figure that among 30 cases of silence, 16 ones (accounting for 53 percent) get a contextual implication from silence; 6 ones (20 percent) make the former assumptions strengthened; and the effect achieved by 8 ones (27 percent) is eliminating the already held assumptions.

1. Contextual Implication

There arises contextual implication with the joint wok of the previous assumption and the input brought about by silence. The contextual effect of most silence in it falls into this category.

1) Margaret: Forgive me, my dear, but are you quite well?

Myra: Yes, yes, of course, I…I had a drink, that's all, it made me feel funny-queer. What's it like in Scotland? I've never been there. It always sounds so quaint, you know the heather and the peat. Peat comes from Ireland, doesn't it? I've never been there either. (seeing Lady Margaret stare at her, Myra shouts hysterically) Why do you stare at me like that?

Margaret: (silence) (Ibid.: ∮ 8)

This is Myra's first appearance before Roy's mother—her would-be mother-in-law. Approximately impoverished, Myra once expected much from this appointment and arranged it purposely in a restaurant. Before the lady's arrival, poor Myra read by coincidence a news thesis where Roy was listed as one casualty, which is nothing but a bolt from the blue. Too fragile to keep senses, Myra has no way to control herself. Judging from Myra's temperament, she will never turn to her lover's mother for help after she has learned the news. She is too sensitive with a strange mixture of self-respect and self-abasement. As a result, many unreasonable words are uttered when face to face with the kind and graceful lady. The problem is that Lady Margaret cannot know all this at a stroke. She meant well to talk with Myra, never anticipating such a situation. Is Roy's fiancé really so inherent and hysterical? Margaret asks herself in silence. Also this first impression prevents her from going further and possibly she has disallowed the girl. Myra's runaway remark intends to tell Margaret that she once hoped to be a member of a Scottish family but in torment at present, she would rather not talk about her "dead" lover's hometown or face the lady. In Margaret's silence, a new assumption forms in her mind: "The girl is so queer and impolite that she is not qualified to be Roy's wife."

2) Myra: Yes, he's back. … Kitty, he wants to marry me!

Kitty: Oh, no! Such things don't happen!

Myra: It's true! Oh, Kitty, it's going to be so wonderful! For you too! Nothing will be too good for you when I'm Roy's wife.

Kitty: (silence)

Myra: Oh, I know what you're thinking. I've been thinking too. You think that would be dreadful of me, don't you? (Ibid.: ∮ 6)

Kitty's first reaction toward Roy's coming back and the proposal is great suspension. On hearing Myra's delighted and cheerful blue print for both of them, she does not say anything. She knows the compelling force of the social consensus and worries about Myra who is too fragile to burden all this. Her silence attempts to convey this to Myra, and the latter receives it through certain cognitive efforts. She knows that her bosom friend means it still needs time to reconsider and make full preparation. Myra's following words tell Kitty that she has triumphantly recognized the contextual implication.

2. Strengthening of an Assumption

The assumption inferred from silence can also confirm the already held one. Let us see how it can do in the next example:

3) Kitty: Myra! Myra, darling, did he leave? Did you talk to him? Didn't you see him at all?

Myra: (silence)

Kitty: Oh, what a shame! (Ibid.: ∮ 5)

On the eve of their planed marriage in church, Roy is called away to the front. Myra gets the news and goes to the station in haste. Somehow, she does not arrive there in time, only catching a glimpse of him. Kitty, her best friend, is concerned for her. The moment Kitty enters the dressing room, she asks a series of questions. Seeing Myra sitting there alone and upset, she has made an assumption that the meeting at the station might not go smooth. Myra's silence confirms this assumption. That is why she expresses regret afterward.

3. Abandoning a Former Assumption

Another kind of contextual effect occurs when the assumption produced by silence changes or eliminates the former assumption. Observe the following case.

4) Roy: You're at school, aren't you?

Myra: (silence and laughing)

Roy: Am I being funny? (Ibid.: ∮ 1)

Roy and Myra meet each other on Waterloo Bridge, and then they seek shelter from the air raid at the underground station. Judging from Myra's naïve words and clumsy behavior face to face with dangers, Roy forms an assumption that

she must be a student far from social life. But Myra does not answer his question, which is out of his expectation. The girl's silence and laughter make him give up the former assumption. He knows he has made a mistake about Myra's identity.

5) Kitty: Myra, where have you been? Whatever made you go out on a night like this? You went and got caught in the rain, too! Now, you come on upstairs and get into bed!

Myra: (silence)

…

Kitty: Now you get those things off.

Myra: (silence) (Ibid.: ∮ 5)

This is a rainy night after Myra and Margaret's appointment. Seeing Myra is wet through, Kitty asks about her whereabouts and tries to persuade her into putting wet clothes off and going to have a rest. Kitty has expected that Myra who is very cooperative and easy-going will answer her questions and do as what she has said. But Myra does not say anything. It is impossible that Myra does not hear her. The only valid explanation will be that she refuses to tell Kitty and to undress herself. Here the two instances of Myra's silence contradict with Kitty's initial anticipation.

C.   Degrees of Relevance of Silence

According to Sperber & Wilson (1986/1995), the assessment of relevance is a matter of balancing contextual effect against processing effort. However, contextual effect cannot be too easily acquired. Even if one makes certain processing efforts, the acquisition of contextual effect will not be definitive. Relevance is thus a relative concept because it relies partially on the context and partially on the communicator's cognitive ability and the cognitive environment. It is a continuum ranging from "maximally relevant", "very relevant", and "weakly relevant" to "irrelevant". Among them "very relevant" and "weakly relevant" can be also classified into "incomplete relevance". Most of the silence in *Waterloo Bridge* requires the interpreters to search for a large amount of contextual knowledge and be capable of inferring the meaning in a short time. So it is not unsafe to say that most cases of silence are "incompletely relevant". Take the next exchanges for instance:

6) Myra: Oh, Roy! You're alive.

Roy: Yes, extravagantly.

Myra: (silence and crying)

Roy: Oh, my poor darling. Come on, we'll go sit down. (Ibid.: ∮ 6)

Having no way to get in touch with Myra in that unusual period, Roy only knows that since he was wounded and lost his identification disc in the battle, Myra must have learnt his "sacrifice" in some way. According to Myra's pessimistic character and the present surprising situation, Roy may interpret her silence as being too happy to believe this or too sad to utter anything. This is not completely the case on the part of Myra. So one can label the silence very relevant.

7) Myra: Roy, you must listen to me!

Roy: Myra, what is it?

Myra: I can't go to the country with you…it's quite out of the question.

…

Myra: No, Roy! I can't!

Myra: (silence)

Roy: Myra darling, I'm afraid I've been stupid. Because you've never been out of my thoughts, I-oh, I took it for granted that it was the same with you. There's someone else, isn't there, Myra? After all, you thought me…dead. There is someone else, isn't there? Don't be afraid. Tell me. (Ibid.: ∮ 6)

Myra has kept silent or refusing to go back with Roy to get married. It is strange enough for Roy to sense the abnormality. Based on the encyclopedic knowledge stored in his brains, Roy knows that Myra must have something embarrassing hiding behind her silence or verbal refusal. As far as he is concerned, if a woman's love is put on another man, possibly she will not go together with the "dead" man who she once loved. That is his newly formed assumption in silence, which is weakly, if not very, relevant. He touches "one-eighth of the iceberg" and does not know the exact reason until the end of the film.

IV. Conclusion

By analyzing the typical data in *Waterloo Bridge*, the author illustrates how to do things with silence: to convey some meanings beyond words. The essay makes an attempt to approach the specific cases of silence from the angle of relevance theory. It not only deals with the informative and communicative intentions conveyed by silence, the diverse types of contextual effect arising from silence, but also mentions the different degrees of relevance because of various factors involved in interpreting an ostensive-inferential act.

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Freedom in "The French Lieutenant's Woman"

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Abstract—**John Fowles (1926-2005), an outstanding English writer of 1960s, published "The French Lieutenant's Woman" in 1969. "Freedom" is the motif of John Fowles's fiction writing, one of his strategies, the important information that he wishes to disseminate to the readers who are expected to absorb, understand profoundly and comprehensively. As a postmodernist experimental writer, John Fowles's works infuse a new current for both English and American literature. This paper tries to combine the postmodernist and existential critic method with the element of freedom in Fowles's novel and writing process, although many researches and studies have been carried out by critics and scholars both home and abroad, the combination of postmodernism, existentialism and freedom element is a new perspective. Reading this paper, the readers are expected to gain a comprehensive knowledge of freedom, make their choice freely in their daily life as well as deepen their understanding of "The French Lieutenant's Woman".**

Index Terms—**John Fowles, freedom, postmodernism, metafiction, multiple ending**

I. INTRODUCTION

John Fowles was born on 31 March, 1926, in Leigh-on-Sea, Essex, a suburb of London at the mouth of the Thames River. During the Second World War, the Fowles moved to southwest of England, living in the Village of Ipplepen, South Devon. It was at that time that young Fowles was attracted by the mysterious nature and fell in live with it. After the war, John Fowles entered into Oxford University, majoring in French and German. Therefore, he was deeply influenced by French literature and existentialism, respectively represented by Flaubert (1821-1880) and Sartre (1905-1980), Camus (1913-1960). John Fowles is an amateur naturalist, admiring universal love and individual freedom. Once he said that he advocated fraternity, especially individual freedom due to English, French and Greek culture. In 1966, he moved to Underhill Farm near Lyme Regis, Dorset, which became the background of his "The French Lieutenant's Woman". John Fowles and his wife, Elizabeth, often walked along the beach, roamed around the forests, enjoying the tranquility and freedom provided by nature. Here, we can learn the reason why John Fowles regards freedom as an important element in his writing, especially in "The French Lieutenant's Woman", where he expounds that "There is only one good definition of God: the freedom that allows other freedom to exist".(John Fowles, 1992, P82)

In the 1940s and 1950s, the English writers worshiped their predecessors of the 18th and 19th century, which is an extreme in order to protest the Modernism. Traditional realistic narrative techniques designed to produce an illusion of reality and the related willing suspension of disbelief were widely felt in the 1960s and 1970s to be not only inadequate but falsifying in presenting life. Meanwhile, after the Second World War, there were new literary current and various schools in both Europe and American. For example, "Nouveau Roman" budded in France. Many critics censured the postwar England literature for their conservative, parochial sight and lack of creation, innovation. John Bath was the first in 1967 to announce that the traditional novelistic resources have been exhausted. Read his important essay "The Literature of Exhaustion" and there will be no doubt that change and innovation was inevitable. Under this circumstance, many English writers including John Fowles, was influenced by the new current abroad and began with their experimental works. After the publication of his three novels, "The Collector", "The Magus", "The French Lieutenant's Woman", John Fowles received many reviews and criticism. Quite a few critics labeled him as the postmodernist novelist.

So, what is a postmodernist novel? It is a general term hard to define, mainly consisting of the novel of the absurd, metaficton, avant-gardism, black humor, the Beat Generation and Magic Realism. Here, metafiction undermines the authority of the author, for unexpected narrative shifts to advance a story in a unique way, for emotional distance, or to comment on the act of storytelling. It not only describes the plot and character, but explains how the novel is made. Take "The French Lieutenant's Woman" as an example. John Fowles reproduces the Victorian novel by employing proper language, dialogues and style. While unabashedly copying the traditional writing, John Fowles ridicules and pokes fun at that and announces his novel a lie. In this sense, "The French Lieutenant's Woman" is a typical postmodernist work.

The story took place in Lyme Regis, England, in 1867. Charles Smithson, a Victorian gentleman, and his fiancée Ernestina Freeman, a traditional Victorian lady, were walking along the Cobb, a breakwater jutting into Lyme Bay,

when they met a mysterious woman in black. This woman, Sarah Woodruff, was called by the residents of Lyme, "the French lieutenant's woman". Charles was a man of 32 years old, an amateur paleontologist and a Darwinist; Ernestina, a successful draper's daughter, revealed to be a pretty but conventional young Victorian woman; Sarah was just Ernestina's opposite, who was a penniless governess and an outcast, reputed to be pining for the French lieutenant who had jilted her. Due to several encounters, Charles was drawn by Sarah's mysterious, melancholy, sexy, and wild quality. Thus, his passion towards her amounts to obsession. Charles was torn between his duty to Ernestina and his addiction to Sarah. One day Charles learnt that his aged uncle Robert was going to marry a widow young enough to produce him an heir. This marriage created the possibility of depriving Charles of inheriting the family estate, Winsyatt, and the baronetcy title. Therefore, Charles's future father-in-law, Mr. Freeman pressured him to join his retail business, which was what Charles considered vulgar. Then comes the first ending of the story: Charles accepted his fate passively and submissively, married Ernestina and entered into the business field. However, in the second ending, things happen in quite another way. Submitting and following to his passion, Charles headed for the Endicott's Family Hotel where Sarah inhabited at that time. He made love with her and found that she was actually a virgin. After that, Sarah disappeared; Charles broke up his engagement with Ernestina and began his two-year search for Sarah. Finally, it was through his former servant Sam that Sarah was found in London. As Sarah revealed their daughter, Lalage, the three were reunited and lived happily ever after. The last ending resumes from Charles turning angrily to leave. This time, Sarah did not reveal their daughter, but just stopped him, suggesting a Platonic friendship; however, Charles chose to reject Sarah, walking away alone in anguish and bitterness. The whole novel then comes to the end.

II.   METAFICTION

A.   What Is Metafiction

Postmodernism is characterized by contradiction, permutation, discontinuity, randomness, infinite regress, overobtrusive narrators, explicit dramatization of the reader, critical discussion of the form of narration, intertextuality, self-reflexive, parody, and soon. The common and frequent used techniques of postmodernism include irony, black humor, playfulness, intertextuality, and pastiche. Here, pastiche can be seen as a representation of the chaotic, pluralistic, or information-drenched aspects of postmodern society. It can be a combination of multiple genres to create a unique narrative or to comment on situations in postmodernity. Though pastiche commonly refers to the mixing of genres, many other elements are also included, for example, metafiction is common in the broader pastiche of the postmodern novel. Matafiction is essentially writing about writing or "foregrounding the apparatus", as its typical of deconstructionist approaches, making the artificiality of art or the fictionality of fiction apparent to the reader and generally disregards the necessity for "willful suspension of disbelief". That means that, according to Professor Chang Yaoxin, metafiction is a form of writing about fiction in the form of fiction. It is a style of fictive narrative that tries to tell the readers that fiction is fiction and is not an illusion of reality as the realists have tried to deceive into believing. For metafiction writers, traditional realists try to make their fiction look like reality, while metafiction writers feel differently about the idea of authentic representation of reality. They hold that all writing is a fabricated text manipulated by the author in accordance with his own values, and subject to the reading of the readers who have access of the work, already heavily saturated with their backgrounds and cultures. Therefore, novels are no more to raise and meet the traditional expectations of traditional readers and critics, but to shock and subvert those presuppositions and envisagements based on the willing suspension of disbelief as traditional realism has so far succeeded in generating. In this connection, they tend to employ burlesque and anachronism as a means of subverting the readers' sense of complacency. These two methods in metafiction are widely employed and we will deal with them in the next two chapters.

B.   Metafiction Method in the Text

Within the first twelve chapters, the story moved on naturally in the Victorian manner, when the author suddenly inserts his own opinion about modern writers and their authority, principles, and capacity. Here, readers are jotted ruthlessly from the story and made to face, confront the false, deceitful reality.

In Chapter Three, when giving description of Charles, John Fowles writes as thus, "Though Charles liked to think of himself as a scientific young man and would probably not have been too surprised had news reached him out of the future of the airplane, the jet engine, television, radar……" Charles may not be surprised, but we readers are shocked by those objects belonging to 20th century.

After Charles encountered Sarah at Ware Commons, he did not go back straightly to Lyme Regis. Instead, he went to the Dairy and met Sarah once more. The impotent narrator says as thus "I ordered him to walk straight back to Lyme Regis. But he gratuitously turned and went down to the Dairy" (John Fowles, 1992, P81). And the author even gives his own reason for failing in controlling Charles's behavior: but I "…that it might be more clever to have him stop and milk…and meet Sarah again. That is certainly one explanation of what happened; but I can only report—and I am the most reliable witness—that the idea seemed to me to come clearly from Charles, not myself. "(John Fowles, 1992, P81) Here, Charles became the decision-maker and has his own freedom of choices. The story moved forward partly depending on the character's choice instead of the plan of the author.

After having an affair with Sarah who then disappeared, Charles decided to find out Sarah and boarded on a train. He

came across the disguised narrator in their shared train compartment. "The latecomer muttered a "Pardon me, sir" and made his way to the far end of the compartment. He sat, a man of forty of so, his top hat firmly square, hid hands in his knees regaining his breath." (John Fowles, 1992, P317) No doubt, this middle-aged man is John Fowles himself. The author suddenly shows up in the story and becomes a character of it. It is a fantastic change from a narrator to a participating character. The author at that time did not what to do with Charles, and he asked "what the devil am I going to do with you?" (John Fowles, 1992, P317) Then, at the end of this chapter, Fowles tells his readers how story was continued: he toke a florin from his purse and flicked it, which has terminated Charles's fate.

Judging from the traits of the narratives, "The French Lieutenant's Woman" is a metafiction. Here, we get the conclusion that John Fowles is a pioneer of metafiction writing in which he constantly and in time reveals and derides the falseness and deceiveness of his narrative. While showing his fictive method, Fowles excavates the inherent values of narrative, making literature turn into a game of dallying with readers as well as reality and literary rules. Through this method, John Fowles has succeeded in protesting, revolting reality and thus, gained sufficient freedom.

III. BURLESQUE

A. About Burlesque

Burlesque or parody is a manner of writing where an effort is made to imitate original in order to poke fun at it or to reveal the discrepancy between the imitation and the original. Obviously, "The French Lieutenant's Woman" is a burlesque of the traditional Victorian realistic narrative method. At the beginning, the readers may fell at ease to follow the author and try to find the real story. However, when the author feels it is time to jerk his readers back, he mercilessly tells the readers that his novel is no more than a game of words. For example, at the end of chapter 12 and in the whole chapter of 13, the author confesses that "who is Sarah? Out of what shadows does she come? I do not know. This story I am telling is all imagination." (John Fowles, 1992, P80)

Fowles deploys burlesque and parody to reject the traditional referential of art so that they become self-referential of self-reflexive. John Fowles jumps freely between the proceeding attractive story and his rational comments, between the previous century and the modern time, between a third-person narrator and a character involved in the novel. In this sense, the author has the freedom of choosing material and events in his fiction, which is an essential trait of postmodernist writing.

B. The Victorian Age in the Novel

In the novel "The French Lieutenant's Woman", John Fowles makes a stunning yet admirable story in the method of Victorian realism. His language, dialogue, style and detail description, such as historical events, attire, decor, and furniture, convince us that the novel must be written by a Victorian writer. It is a vivid, graphic, and touching story took place one hundred years ago, about a triangle romance in England. The writer successfully employs the Victorian style and language from the height of a modern writer in 1960s. By using the conventions as a Victorian novelist might have, brief authorial comments, footnotes, essay materials and epigraphs foreshadowing the chapters they precede, John Fowles connects the past and the present. He compares the Victorian time and the modern time, in order to display the backwardness and hypocrisy of the former. On one hand, Fowles purposely make his narrator imitate the traditional realistic narrative, and on the other hand, he punctures and derides the falseness of this method. By burlesque, John Fowles display the Victorian time and two women characters to his readers. Among them, one was a conventional woman and the other was one who violated the conventions.

Now this paper will get a closer observation of the Victorian time described in "The French Lieutenant's Woman". The Victorian society was declining for the moral, religious, aristocratic traditions were fading away. The British Empire was losing its leading position in the world. While the bourgeoisie was ascending, the aristocracy was descending. Therefore, in order to keep the station in the society, the aristocrats had to form an alliance with the bourgeois, and the common form of the alliance was marriage as the betrothed Charles and Ernestina in the novel. According to Sarah, "… I live among people the world tells me are kind, pious, Christian people. And they seem to me crueler than the cruelest heathens, stupider than the stupidest animals." (John Fowles, 1992, P116)

The society was declining and people's religious belief is loosing and slackening. Usually, they did not believe in God, but would resort to Him when they shouldered the burden of sin and crime. Take Mrs. Poulteney as an example. On one hand, she was a very rich widow and donated a small sum, but on the other hand, she hoped God would never find her spurious behavior and bless her to go to paradise after her death. Besides, she is fussy about everything, extremely strict and cruel to her staff. "If the mistress was defective in more mundane matters where her staff was concerned, she took exceedingly good care of their spiritual welfare. There was mandatory double visit to church on Sundays; and there was also a daily morning service…"(John Fowles, 1992, P50-P51) It seems that she adopts Sarah out of kindness and sympathy. As a matter of fact, she does that for sake of redeeming herself from the sin and crime that she has committed to the poor. In addition, she was vehemently eager to supervise and control Sarah's behavior as well as her thoughts.

In terms of morality and ethic, there was a dismal and foul picture: "…the sanctity of marriage (and chastity before marriage) was proclaimed from every pulpit, in every newspaper editorial and public utterance; and where never—or hardly ever—have so many great public figures, from the future king down, led scandalous private loves… Where the

female body had never been so hidden from view; and where every sculptor was judged by his ability to carve naked women… and where the output of pornography has never been exceeded… Where it was universally maintained that women so not have orgasms; yet every prostitute was taught to simulate them…" (John Fowles, 1992, P211) The Victorians were no longer serious about their norm, belief, and values. While pretended to be a gentleman or a lady, they indulged in their private life that they themselves regarded vulgar, obscene.

In Victorian England, a woman should be a demure, elegant lady who is expected to be a future good mother as well as a good wife. Therefore, they suffocate the desire for sex and will never talk about it on formal, public occasion. They are "the female wounded in the battle for universal masculine purity". But, they will imagine the caress of the male or stealthily make love with their lovers. Ernestina even secretly admires her nude in the mirror in her bedroom. There were many recreational places where undone girls and women usually went to. And girls like Mary, although only nineteen years old, knows much about intercourse. E.g. "The hard—I would rather call it soft, but no matter—fact of Victorian rural England was that what a simpler age called "tasting before you buy"(premarital intercourse, in our current jargon) was the rule, not the exception." (John Fowles, 1992, P214) The Victorian women regard delicate, fragile, arched eyebrows as beautiful. If they are flattered by some gentlemen or shocked by some news, they will feign to faint.

A man should be a gallant and chivalric gentleman: to please, protect ladies, to control their temper and emotion, to be loyalty to their love. But the reality is that gentlemen are bored and annoyed by the shallow, pretentious ladies and they actually are not faithful to their love. They just have no other choice but endure the torture. Many a gentlemen will seek the prostitutes as a way of outlet. Here is the description in the novel "…An age where woman was sacred; and where you could buy a thirteen-year-old girl for a few pounds—a few shillings, if you wanted her for only an hour or two. Where more churches were built than in the whole previous history of the country; and where one in sixty houses in London was a brothel (the modern ratio would be nearer one in six thousand)". (John Fowles, 1992, P211)

Now, through John Fowles's burlesque of the previous age, we see that both men and women in the Victorian time had no freedom. Because of the hypocritical morality and practices, everyone should constrained, twisted their instinct and reasonable need.

C.   Ernestina—Symbol of Victorian Time

Apparently, Ernestina Freedom and Sarah Woodruff are respectively symbols of the two times.

Firstly, there is a detail analysis of Ernestina Freeman. She was a lady of Victorian, of declining Victorian, a product of that age, a spoiled daughter of a rich but contemptuous draper. She was the ideal, irresistible girl for a gentleman: young (only twenty-one years old), beautiful, tame, obedient, delicate. Ernestina's icy attitude and demeanor attracted Charles at the party where they met for the first time. Charles thought that he found the right girl and engaged with her within a short time. Ernestina tried her best to be an elegant lady; however, she was proved a selfish, shallow, secular girl.

As mentioned in the previous text, Ernestina desired for sex so anxious that she admired her own body in the mirror. Whenever the physical female implication of her body, sexual, menstrual, parturitional, tried to force an entry into her consciousness, she always said to herself "I must not". But, she would do it in her private room. "In her room that afternoon she unbuttoned her dress and stood before her mirror in her chemise and petticoats…she raised her arms and unloosed her hair, a thing she knew to be vaguely sinful, yet necessary…she suddenly stopped turning and admiring herself in profile…" (John Fowles, 1992, P29) As the other girls, she needed a husband (That was Charles). She felt there was a wolf of lust howling outside her heart.

Through contact with Sarah, Charles found he did not like Ernestina. "And yet once again it bore in upon him, as the concert, that there was something shallow in her—that her acuteness was largely constituted, intellectually as alphabetically, by a mere cuteness. Was there not, beneath the demure knowingness, something of the automaton about her, of one of those ingenious girl-machines from Hoffmann's Tales?" (John Fowles, 1992, P122) Ernestina's acuteness, intelligence, derived from her cuteness, physical beauty instead of her own minds and thoughts. She was only the rigid product of that age. She could not keep her air of a lady nor prevent from being selfish. After Charles told her that his uncle would marry a widow young enough to bear him a son as his heir, which meant that Charles would be deprived of the right to inherit the baronetcy title and the estate of Winsyatt, Ernestina became extremely angry, and cursed Charles's uncle. This was the behavor of unladylike, lacking of the imperturbability that fine aristocratic refusal to allow the setbacks of life ever to ruffle one's style.

"Ernestina and her like behaved always as if habited in glass: infinitely fragile, even when they threw books of poetry. They encouraged the mask, the safe distance…" (John Fowles, 1992, P119) Ernestina was fragile not only physically but mentally and emotionally. When Charles decided to broke up their engagement, she could not endure the pain and beseeched him to think twice. It seemed that she could not live without the comp any and protection of him. "Perhaps I am just a child. But under your love and protection…and your education… I believe I should become better. I learn to please you, I should learn to make you love me for what I had become." (John Fowles, 1992, P296) " "Charles, I beg you, I beg you to wait a little." (John Fowles, 1992, P297) Ernestina orientated herself as the appendage, subsidiary of a man as if her life would mean nothing if Charles abandoned her. She did not live for herself, for her own freedom but the others' influence, protection, even control.

D.   Sarah—Symbol of the Modern Time

Sarah Woodruff was exiled from normal Victorian society, but she exemplifies the growing breed of women gaining emancipation during the late 19th century. She suffered male discrimination, education isolation from native class. Her ancestor were nobles, but in her father's generation, they declined to the under world. In order to gain dignity and nobility, her father sent her to school in hoping of producing an educated, well-bred lady. However, Sarah had been ever since thrown between the lower and the upper class; she was reluctant to go back to her former social station and at the same time she was refused by the upper class, for her education was relatively poor and she has no money. After her father's death, she became an orphan. She has to take the job as a humble governess. But Sarah had her own consciousness and self-awareness. In this novel, she was thoroughly a modern character, and John Fowles strengthens her contemporary quality, along with her mystery and undedidability, by making her the only one whose mind he will not enter. In the Darwinian sense, she was the cultural "missing link" between the centuries—more modern than Victorian.

In the story, she has made three essential choices revealing her own definition of freedom: actively receiving the nickname of "the French Lieutenant's Woman" and the insult, bias, isolation of the local people in Lyme Regis; chasing after and imploring the love of Charles; refusing decisively the proposal of Charles.

1. The First Choice

Sarah's infamy was widely spread among the local people. It was said that she once nursed a French lieutenant, who was spared in a shipwreck, and had affaires with that foreign man. But, she did not care it and kept roaming and tarrying near the sea. She was adopted by Mrs. Poulteney out of "charity", who is the most conventional and strictest, the most cunning and hypocritical mistress in the little town. Regardless the ban of her mistress, Sarah went to the forests "Ware Commons", which ws the Eden for courting couples every summer. "It is sufficient to say that among the more respectable townsfolk one had only to speak of a boy or a girl as one of the Ware Commons kind to tar them for life. The boy must thenceforth be a satyr; and the girl, a hedge-prostitute." (John Fowles, 1992, P77) Therefore, in the eyes of the others, Sarah was a licentious and shameless woman. In fact, she was a woman born with sharp insight, loving poems and novels. Although she was proud of her own aloofness, she seriously remained her chasteness. Sarah knew exactly what she was doing and what she wanted.

"Why I sacrifice a woman's most precious possession for the transient gratification of a man I did not love. I did it so that I should never be the same again. I did it so that people should point at me, should say, there walks the French Lieutenant's Whore…What has kept me alive is my shame, my knowing that I am truly not like other women. I shall never have children, a husband, and those innocent happinesses they have…. I think I have a freedom they cannot understand. No insult, no blame, can touch me."(John Fowles, 1992, P142) Here, Sarah explains her philosophical reason to Charles for bearing the nickname and shame. She is not the conventional Victorian woman who toes the line. "Prostitute" or "whore" is an identity Sarah designs for herself. By use of this unique, circuitous, indirect method, she lets out her dissatisfied, resentful emotion resulting from the unfairness of the society. It is not only the silent protest to the secular environments, but the wise strategy to realize her freedom. Under the cover of the infamy, Sarah was able to be spared of the moral rules of that time, to shake off all kinds of bondages and pressures of the upper class, to become a total expatriate.

2. The Second Choice

Sarah fell in love with Charles at the first sight and she began her painstaking pursue of love. At the very beginning, she presented herself as a figure from myth", standing motionless and staring at the sea. Charles, he found that "There was no artifice there, no hypocrisy, no hysteria, no mask; and above all, no sign of madness". Therefore, she was, to some extent, attractive to Charles and she aroused his curiosity. Then, Sarah arranged carefully every meeting with Charles. She learnt that Charles was an amateur paleontologist, interested in collecting fossils. So she wandered in the forests where Charles sought for his precious fossils. Sarah depended on her sexual magnetism and took advantage of Charles's sympathy. In their first encounter, Charles "inadvertently" saw her sleeping under a cliff, and he was addicted in watching her. "There was something intensely tender and yet sexual in the way she lay; it awakened a dim echo of Charles of a moment from his time in Paris".(John Fowles, 1992, P61) Charles had been to the continent and lived a rake life, so having intercourse with some young lady or prostitute was not uncommon. But, when he came back home and got engaged with Ernestina, he decided to be a "gentleman". However, now Sarah was irresistible from carnal respect. Presently, Charles regained his rightness and showed his fraternity. "…and overcome by an equally strange feeling—not sexual, but fraternal" (John Fowles, 1992, P62) Sarah kept silent and remained her mysterious characteristics. Later, while Charles dropped at the Dairy on the way home, Sarah appeared on purpose put of the trees above him and the host of the Diary. She was successful, for Charles could never believe that Sarah was a whore.

In their second encounter, she still seemed very icy, but she slipped on her knees, showing her fragility. "She was totally like a wild animal, unable to look at him, trembling, dumb." Charles now is concerned about her safety and reputation. In addition, he admired, at least did not detest her intelligence and independence, because he was a Darwinism (this point will be discussed in the next chapter). He could not help thinking of Sarah or some emotion, some possibility she symbolized when he felt bored and frustrated by Ernestina.

At the third time, Sarah sought for Charles and got him into communication. She divulged part of her story and implored Charles another meeting to listen to her tragic story. Charles promised her although with reluctance. He

imagined himself a savor for the miserable, unfortunate of which Sarah was one.

In the following meeting, Charles was guided by Sarah onto a dell surrounded by dense thickets, where a make-up story as well as her reason to stay at Lyme as a whore was expounded. By that time, he could not resist or restrain any more. After Sarah was fired by Mrs. Poulteney, he was eager to find her. With the help of the address sent by some anonym, Charles met Sarah at the Endicott's Family Hotel. Sarah had prepared for his arrival, having feigned a sprained ankle so that the landlady sent Charles up to her room instead of calling her down. She was even wearing a newly bought shawl and nightgown for the occasion. Before he arrived, she had built a fresh mound in the coalgrate, and during their halting reunion, coals fell out and ignite the blanket around Sarah's legs. When Charles had smothered the fire and was replacing the blanket, she touched his hand. From that point on, nature took over Charles carried Sarah to bed. Until that moment, Charles realized he actually loved Sarah and he made up hid mind to breach his engagement and propose Sarah for a life-long marriage.

Unlike Ernestina, Sarah is a bold, brave woman who follows her will and pursues her love openly, indomitably. Regardless the Victorian conventions, she gives herself to Charles out of pure love. Here, we see a modern woman enjoying freedom.

3. The Third Choice

Sarah's third choice may disappoint those who expect a traditional happy ending. On the contrary, she chose to refuse Charles's proposal in order to continue her state of freedom and independence. After two years, Charles's love had turned into bondage for Sarah. She could not bear the man-chauvinist family life in which Charles would protect her and their daughter Lalage. Through their contact, Sarah helped Charles to realize his own being, his self-identity, to pursue his love, to explore the true meaning of life and freedom. After that, she did not want Charles to interfere in her life, nor did she want to interfere in Charles's life. Therefore, she even did not reveal their daughter Lalage (following the third ending) in the hope of a total separation. Here, Sarah instructed Charles to understand the meaning and importance of freedom.

All that Sarah has done indicates that freedom is part of justice and equality of the society, is a process of protesting and resisting the unfairness and persecution. In a word, Sarah is an independent modern woman with super insight, discernment. She regards the modern maxim of "I possess this now, therefore I am happy." as her motto. Every minute for her is counted; every decision for her is choice at her own will; every step for her is happy.

IV. ANACHRONISM

A. The Limitation of Freedom

Here is a diagram advocated by American narratologist Seymour Chatman: Real author—Implied author—(Narrator)—(Narratee)—Implied reader—Real reader. In this diagram, since the real author and real reader are real people, represented by the implied author and implied reader respectively, they are actually excluded from the narrative structure. The real author is the person living his worldly life; the implied author id the person with a certain emotion, idea, and belief while writing his works. Moreover, the implied author is constructed by the reader's imagination and made present in the text by the very components of fiction itself. The implied reader is the ideal reader in the eyes of the implied author or the fore-constructed reader whose thought conforms with that of the implied author and who can totally understand the work. The narrator differs from the implied author who has no direct means of communicating. It is the narrator who enunciates the narrative and disseminates the information. The narrator participating in the story is the "homodiegetic narrator"; the narrator not participating in the story is "heterodiegetic narrator". The narratee is the person receiving the information of the narrator.

Here, we can learn that the novel is manipulated by the implied author, and his readers have only one access of reading and understanding the novel—that is from the view and voice of the narrator. In "The French Lieutenant's Woman", John Fowles, represented by the implied author, is a man in the 20th century who has witnessed the history of the new time. Besides, he owns the technique of anachronism in writing. Therefore, the novel readers see is a product out of the author's manipulation. The reader and the characters have no freedom in this sense, at least only having the relative freedom. It seems that anachronism has broke the continuity of reading as well as the traditional narrative view about time and space, which enables the readers take an active part in the writing process of the narrative during the reading time. But, the narrative and the effect are still controlled by the implied author. After all, anachronism is a new method in postmodern narrative composition and it breaks the enclosure pattern of time and space, providing the readers a broader space of thinking and meditating.

B. About Anachronism

The postmodernist term—anachronism that is a chronological inconsistency in some arrangement, especially a juxtaposition of persons, events, objects, or customs from different periods of time. Often this item misplaced in time is an object, but it may be a verbal expression, a technology, a philosophical idea, a musical style, a material, a custom, or anything else associated with a particular period in time so that it is incorrect to place it outside its proper temporal domain. The narrator in the "The French Lieutenant's Woman" connects both centuries and constantly travels from one time to the other without any restrictions. The anachronism is embodied through installing, transplanting modern subjects into Victorian story. John Fowles gathers the story time and the narrative time in a entity, and alternatively

employs them according to his own idiosyncrasy. Therefore, the author gains the freedom of narrating, making his story overlapping and leaping.

Here are some examples:

Ernestina is introduced in Chapter 5, the narrator says that she"died on the day that Hitler invaded Poland" (John Fowles, 1992, P28) The reader know that the invasion took place in 1939, an element of the 20th century. When talking about the insight and discernment of Sarah's, the narrator says, "she was born with a computer in her heart". (John Fowles, 1992, P47) When narrating Sarah's sleeping with Millie, the narrator says that: "I doubt if Mrs. Poulteney had ever heard of the word lesbian." (John Fowles, 1992, P128) The narrator proclaims that he has bought the Toby cup. "…the Toby was cracked, and was to be recracked in the course of time, as I can testify, having bought it myself a year or two ago for a good deal more than the three pennies Sarah was charged."(John Fowles, 1992, P220) After their lovemaking, the narrator says Charles felt "like a city struck out of a quiet sky by an atom bomb". (John Fowles, 1992, P275) Also, in chapter fifty-seven, when Mary, the ex-maid of Ernestina's aunt, came into the spot, Fowles explains "…I am sure the young woman whom I should have liked to show pushing a perambulator (but can't, since they do not come into use for another decade) had never heard of Catullus,…"

The narrator knows clearly that some objects or scenes are impossible in the Victorian time, but he still insists their presentation at his free will. By taking the reader with present thought back to the 1860s, the narrator breaks the novel's Victorian features and jounces the reader into viewing the action historically, by revealing his novel is just a fictive work. Thus, the readers should not regard the novel as the reality, but the fiction. Fowles's narrator is part Fowles himself and part device. Since he is a modern novelist who slips his own created past, his time-linking effects appear deceptively anachronistic.

V. MULTIPLE ENDINGS

A. About the Multiple Endings in the Novel

Postmodernism is also featured by without the neatly tie-up endings or with multiple beginnings. Apparently, "The French Lieutenant's Woman" is furnitured with multiple endings. From its ancient beginning in magic, then religious, ritual and drama, fiction was characterized by closed endings: Victories, sacred marriages, births, and deaths. For centuries, fictions closed endings assured the accomplishment of divine justice. Even well into the Victorian Age, the novels' closed ending remained a function of the writer's divine intervention. The novelist in that epoch had no qualms about intervening in his story to affect the closed ending of his choice. To make his ending happen, they frequently relied upon the most improbable of coincidences. For instance, Lalage, the child of Charles and Sarah is such an improbable device to make the protagonists denounce their first decision.

Being no longer the fixer of the novel, Fowles gives his readers three endings for them to choose according to their own taste and conjecture. The first ending occurs in chapter 44 where Charles left Sarah, married Ernestina, and entered her father's business. It epitomizes the rejection of freedom, the obedience to duty and Victorian ideology. But this false, traditional ending is rejected by the narrator in chapter 45. The second ending occurs in chapter 60. Having broken his engagement with Ernestina, Charles returned to Sarah and reunited with her. This ending represents Charles's choice of freedom by uniting with Sarah, but Sarah herself refused to be inscribed, dominated by him. In other words, it is a kind of wish-fulfillment of Charles's fantasies of a happy life with Sarah. The third ending, in chapter 61, embodies Sarah's existential freedom: the two protagonists both rejected each other and Charles was left alone. It is in fact appropriate to the theme of freedom. Charles was left alone, but he was capable of change and could understand the implications of existentialism that Sarah tried to teach him.

The novel's open ending is a form of freedom to the readers, a fact that undermines authority in the narrative. The readers are free of manipulation, in the sense that they can maneuver their own position and stance in the narrative. In "The French Lieutenant's Woman", the narrator treats his readers as intelligent, independent beings who deserve more than the manipulative illusion of reality provided by a traditional novel. In the novel, the first ending has been toppled by the narrator; however, the second and third are of equal possibility. The readers have the freedom of adding more possible endings as well as choose one according to their own experience. This kind technique of ending a novel breaks the omniscient, omnipotent role of the narrator, provides the readers with the right of decision-making, expands the textual space. Also, John Fowles stimulates his readers' self-consciousness and invites them to compose the narrative with him. In this sense, readers are no longer passive consumers but co-authors with freedom.

The third ending is true to Fowles's biological view, in conformed to his sense of mystery. This thoroughly contemporary ending is the one supported by the vast thematic network which has woven into the novel the concepts of man's isolation and his survival through the centuries by evolving. Even we readers must choose whether to evolve: if one accepts the final ending, he has chosen evolution; if he takes the happy ending, he must take along with its Victorian intervening omnipotent, omniscient God, its biological, psychological improbability, and its heavy-handed rendering.

B. Existential Freedom and the Third Ending

As having been referred in the introduction part, John Fowles is influenced by French existentialism that he has employ in his writings. From the year 1947 to 1950, the French existentialism was in vogue when John Fowles was in

Oxford University. The novelist was deeply influenced by that theory system, especially the theory of "freedom", developed by Sartre. By combining the existentialism with his own unique understanding of freedom, Fowles inserts and saturates his thoughts into his works. When being interviewed, John Fowles declares that he has read almost all the works of Sartre and Camus.

Existentialism, which has gained momentum by invading virtually every form of human thought and expression, including the novel, theater, poetry, art, and theology, emerged in its contemporary form in Paris following the Second World War . In the sheer scope or its influence a far wider response than any other mode of philosophy in current times has been achieved by existentialism, and this influence does not appear to be waning. Rejecting systematic and schematic thought, existentialists concentrate their attention on human situation, in favor of a more spontaneous mode of expression in order to capture the authentic concerns of concrete existing individuals. They probe into the meaning of being through the deep recesses of man's anxious and restless soul and their concern is about man's active role in forging his own destiny and help cope with a given situation.

Individual responsibility, according to Sartre, is that man is what he makes of himself; he has no one to blame for what he is except himself. Freedom means that "there is nothing forcing me from behind to behave in any given way, nor is there a precise pattern luring me into the future". There are no guidelines guaranteed to us in this world and no rule of general morality can show us what we ought to do—"I am the only thing that exists and I am totally free." In addition, for Sartre, each agent is endowed with unlimited freedom. Freedom is not defined by an ability to act. Freedom is rather to be understood as characteristic of the nature of consciousness, i.e. as spontaneity.

As an existential writer, Fowles in concerned about how an individual under pressure keeps his own freedom, unique characteristics in order to materialize his self-identity. According to John Fowles, existentialism enables an individual to react, take actions against the odds, pressures, and ordeals around him. Fowles's novels are all devoted in how to realize the existing, potential freedom, especially self-awareness and the spirit of suspecting. Frequently, Fowles emphasizes the importance of pursuing limited freedom in quandary, and the positive aspects, such as searching, exploring, and improving.

Sartre says that man first of all exists, confronts himself, emerges in the world and defines himself afterward. Both the main characters in "The French Lieutenant's Woman", Sarah and Charles, are created according to this theory. At the beginning, they had to remain their roles in the society, a prostitute and a gentleman. Sarah had to confront the censure, curse of the others; Charles had to face the infamy and mental torture of breaking the marriage. At the end, the two of them both rejected each other: Charles chose to live alone after his two-year searching for Sarah, for the meaning of freedom in the world, especially in the US; Sarah, though still mysterious, chose to live in the community of the Pre-Raphael as a modern woman dressed in fashionable clothes, to raise her daughter, Lalage, alone if there were such little girl. Here they defined themselves in accordance with the philosophy of existentialism, avoiding being the object of the others. Charles achieved freedom through the violation of his age, ancestry, class, and country. Sarah promoted freedom though her sexuality, femininity, and psychological impact upon Charles, accepted her sexuality, as we have learnt because it led him to self-realization and to achieving whole sight. Sexuality embodies freedom, particularly when Sarah did not demand marriage from Charles after their sexual intercourse and refused his proposal after they met two years later.

By putting his existential philosophy into the figure of Charles, Fowles tries to enlighten readers how to arise from the social norms and convention to obtain an existentially free and happy life. Charles declared himself a Darwinist, but he indeed did not understand the meaning of Darwin's theory of evolution just as the Victorians around him. Instead, he was rescued by existentialism.

In the third ending, Charles was at the typical existential feeling of void, alienation, and isolation and he was totally free and responsible to decide where he was to go. By having Charles in "The French Lieutenant's Woman" as a model for readers, Fowles enables readers gain an inspiration for their own life. Charles's struggling to maintain his individuality and to pursue freedom, struggling to achieve a measure of self-realization amidst the undirected or misdirected masses, is an important unifying theme through out the entire novel. The choices Charles is facing, in a large extent, reflect the various choices that readers must face in their life. A different choice can make life all the difference, just as in Charles's case.

In fact, the whole novel is trying to enlighten readers that human beings are free and should have the endurance to pursue their own freedom, no matter how hard it is to obtain; otherwise their life will be fossilized. This existential theme of life-long quest of freedom is flowing out through the novel. For John Fowles, existentialism "is not a philosophy, but a way of looking at, and utilizing other philosophies".

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The Effect of Strategy Training on the Vocabulary Development of EFL Learners in Public High Schools of Iran

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Abstract—**This study aimed at comparing the differential effect of vocabulary strategy training and traditional mode of presenting vocabulary. To this end, it statistically sampled sixty EFL language learners form an accessible population of 700 students. The subjects were then randomly assigned to the experimental and control group. Prior to treatment, they were given a vocabulary test to account for the initial differences between the two groups and subsequently after the treatment they were given a parallel test to account for the differential effect of strategy training and traditional mode of presenting words. Student t-test for independent and non-independent samples was used to analyze the data. The results showed that strategy training produced significantly higher results (t=4.835, p=0.0001<0.05). The study has useful implications for syllabus designers, teachers and researchers.**

Index Terms—**strategy training, vocabulary, teaching vocabulary**

I. INTRODUCTION

Strategy training is one of the buzzwords of language teaching; nonetheless, it is rarely used in EFL contexts such as public high schools of Iran. The reason is that the syllabus is centrally imposed and as such determines what is to be taught. Moreover, uniform final exams and the university entrance exam (UEE) act as surveillance systems which guarantee that the teacher teaches nothing but the prescribed syllabus. Moreover, since teachers are always pressed for time, their main concern is covering the syllabus and preparing their students for the high stake UEE. This test ignores oral skills and focuses mainly on reading skills and vocabulary. In short success in this test depends on the breadth and depth of students' vocabulary. Despite the importance of vocabulary, this sub-skill is usually taught by bombarding students with long lists of de-contextualized bilingual words which are learned through repletion and memorization. This study aims at setting experimental conditions to compare the effect of vocabulary strategy training with that of traditional mode of presenting words and as such shed some lights on the feasibility of moving away from passive transmission of information towards strategy training in the language education system of Iran.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In what follows, first the researchers will present the most pertinent issues and options related to the importance of vocabulary development and how learners should tackle this task strategically. Then they will explain the shift away in language teaching towards learning strategies, the importance of learning strategies and the most pertinent empirical findings related to vocabulary strategy training will be reviewed to find out what has been done and as such find the gap in the knowledge base of vocabulary strategy training.

A. Vocabulary Development

Traditionally, syllabus designers marginalized the role of vocabulary. That is, textbooks were very specific about other aspects of language including reading, speaking and grammar but vocabulary had a peripheral role (Richards & Renandya, 2002, p. 255). Thus it can be said that curriculum has been derailed since as telegraphic speech clearly shows, it is quite possible to create a message without any resort to function words but it is totally impossible to create a message without content words. This tradition of marginalizing vocabulary is in sharp contrast with Wilkins's (1972) historical comment "while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" (p. 111) because vocabulary knowledge is instrumental in reading comprehension (Read, 2000; Qian, 2002). It is shown that knowledge of vocabulary is closely related to reading comprehension and Vermeer (2001) suggests vocabulary can be used as one of the best predictor of language proficiency at school. The results of a survey of L2 learners by Leki and Carson (1994) have also revealed that university students consider insufficient knowledge of vocabulary items as the most important factor impeding their progress in writing tasks.

Sokmen (1997) presents strategies for independent vocabulary learning by stating that it is "not possible for students to learn all the vocabulary they need in the classroom" (p. 225). To move students towards independence, it is essential that teachers take time and teach the process and the strategies of vocabulary development. Learning vocabulary in a foreign language is a five-step process: (a) having sources for encountering new words, (b) getting a clear image, either visual or auditory or both, of the forms of the new words, (c) learning the meaning of the words, (d) making a strong memory connection between the forms and the meanings of the words, and (e) using the words (Hamzah et al., 2009, citing Brown and Payne, 1994).

As for strategy development, Schmitt (2000) presents discovery and consolidation strategies to differentiate the strategies they use to clarify the meaning of unknown words from those they use which aim at consolidating the meaning of words they have already encountered. Cunningsworth (1995) considers teachers' role in vocabulary strategy training as "a powerful approach", which sensitizes learners to the systematic nature of vocabulary, encourages optimal use of dictionary, and motivates learners to reflect on their vocabulary learning techniques (p. 38).

B. Learning Strategies and Strategy Training

Brown (2007) stated that in 1970s teachers and researchers found that no single research finding and no single method of language teaching would guarantee universal success. They realized that irrespective of the method they follow some learners were successful. Along the same line, Rubin (1975) and stern (1975) described good learners in terms of personal traits, strategy use and learning styles; therefore, interests in learning strategies began with the publication of papers collectively known as the "good language learner" studies (Cohen & Weaver, 1998). Compared with other interested researchers, Chamot (1987), Cohen (1998) and Oxford (1990) have scrutinized language learning strategies more vigorously.

Scholars motivated by the desire to familiarize learners with language learning strategies have offered several definitions of strategies:

• the thought processes learners use in apprehending, learning and retaining new information (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 1).

• the actual techniques learners employ in systematically tacking input and output (Brown, 2007, p. 132).

• the behaviors learners employ in order to learn and regulate the learning of another language (Wenden, 1987).

• the actions they take to facilitate and catalyze learning and making it self-directed in terms of transfer objective (Oxford, 1990, p. 8).

• the mental and communicative procedures learners use in order to learn and use language (Nunan, 2001).

• a goal-oriented tactic used by a player in skilled performance (Williams & Burden (1997).

For nearly two decades researchers focused on analyzing related works to classify learning strategies. Different studies have identified different ways of categorizing strategies (Oxford, 1990). For instance O'Malley and Chamot (1990) classified strategies in three broad categories: cognitive, metacognitive, and socio-affective, each of which includes lots of sub-strategies. On the other hand, Oxford (1990a) developed a strategy system that contains six sets of L2 learning behaviors: *affective* (e.g., anxiety reduction through laughter and meditation); *social* (e.g., asking questions) ; *metacognitive* (e.g., planning for language tasks)*; memory- related* (e.g., grouping and imagery); *general cognitive* (e.g., summarizing and practicing); and *compensator*y (e.g., guessing meanings form the context). According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), learners use these strategies together in a synergistic mode, assuming that no single strategy can guarantee vocabulary development. Anderson (2002b) believes that "developing metacognitive awareness may also lead to the development of stronger cognitive skills" (p. 1).

Learning words without knowing how to do it is just like driving a car without knowing how to drive. Thus prior to learning, it is essential that learners develop a large repertoire of vocabulary learning strategies. Many scholars have underlined the importance of vocabulary learning strategies because they lead to:

• greater awareness of what you are doing (Nuuan,2001)

• active self-directed involvement in learning and greater self-confidence (Oxford, 1990)

• learner autonomy since they have guiding tools to be used both inside and outside of the class (Oxford & Scarcella, 1994)

• increased retention of the new vocabulary and increased availability of these items for active use (Gu & Johnson, 1996)

• active control over learning and more responsibility for studies ((Nation, 200

• learner autonomy, independence, and self-direction" (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989)

• better recall due to independence in choosing which words to learn (Ranalli, 2003).

• a significant increase in the number of words (Nation, 2001)

• significant reduction in vocabulary teaching time since strategies are readily teachable (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989).

Taking the importance vocabulary learning strategies into account, strategy training should be an inseparable part of vocabulary instruction. In effect, it is the strategy repertoire the students use that determines the breadth and depth of learners' vocabulary. Thus it is essential that language teaches move away from teaching towards strategy training because empirical findings clearly show that:

- there is a positive correlation between vocabulary learning strategies and vocabulary size on the one hand and reading comprehension on the other (Gu, 1999).
- the use of vocabulary learning strategies has a direct effect on vocabulary and an indirect effect on reading comprehension(Curtis,1987).
- compared with reading comprehension, vocabulary learning strategies better predicts vocabulary size (Cusen, 2005).
- metacognitive strategy training positively affects vocabulary development in EFL contexts (Eslami Rasekh & Ranjbary, 2003).
- vocabulary learning strategies significantly increases learners' vocabulary size (Kafipour, 2009).

According to Schmitt and Schmitt (1995) an effective teaching plan trains learners in a myriad of vocabulary learning strategies. Along these lines, this study aims at developing EFL learners' repertoire of vocabulary learning strategies through strategy training and testing the efficiency of this approach relative to the traditional mode under controlled experimental conditions. More specifically, this study was conducted to find out whether vocabulary strategy training and the traditional mode of presenting vocabulary produce the same effect or differential effects. To answer this question systematically, the researchers will test the following hypotheses:

1. There is a significant difference in performance between the vocabulary strategy training group and the group taught via the traditional mode prior to experimental treatment.

2. There is a significant difference in the performance of experimental group prior and after vocabulary strategy training.

3. There is no significant difference in performance between the vocabulary strategy training group and the group taught via the traditional mode after the experimental treatment.

III. Research Method

A. Research Context

This study was conducted in public high schools of Iran. In this context, teaching and learning are greatly overshadowed by the university entrance exam (UEE) which ignores oral skills and focuses mainly on reading comprehension, grammar and vocabulary. This is a norm-referenced test which aims at screening students, especially in terms of their knowledge of vocabulary. High performance on this test is contingent upon the breadth and depth of vocabulary. Under such conditions, vocabulary development is the main teaching and learning activity.

B. Subjects

The accessible population of this study was 700 students studying in grade one high schools of Gonabad, a major city in the Southern Khorasan. To statistically sample the subjects, the researchers followed cluster sampling, i.e. from the total high schools of Gonabad, the researchers randomly selected one high school and from that high school, they randomly selected two classes of thirty students. Finally, they randomly assigned the students into experimental and control groups. Thus all in all, the study sampled sixty high school male students in grade one aging between 13 and 15 years old. It is worth noting that the target population will be all students studying in grade one high schools of Iran since condition are uniform throughout the country. The design chosen for this study is Randomized Subjects, Pretest – Posttest Control Group Design.

C. Procedure

Prior to treatment, a pre-test was administered to identify any probable differences in performance between the control and experimental groups. During the treatment, the control group was taught using the traditional book-based approach by covering the exercises and activities in the textbook irrespective of vocabulary learning strategies; conversely, the experimental group was presented with different types of social, memory, cognitive and metacognitive strategies. After differential treatment both groups were given a post-test so as to identify the differential effect of treatment on the two groups.

D. Data Collection and Analysis

To collect the research data, the researchers used two parallel forms of teacher-made vocabulary tests. To ensure reliability of the instruments, the tests were administered to a similar group in another high school. Thus reliability was ensured through correlating two-maximally similar tests (Bachman, 1991) and the coefficient of correlation was found to be 0.84. To ensure content validity of the tests, they were given to two teachers to ensure the one-to-one correspondence between test content and textbook content. Both tests consisted of 40 multiple-choice items of vocabulary. One was used to account for the entry behavior, i.e. students' knowledge of vocabulary prior to the test and while the other was used to check the exit behavior, i.e. the differential effect of different modes of presenting vocabulary.

Since the researchers aimed at comparing two groups and the groups were taken independently from the population, student t-test for independent samples was used to analyze the data. However, to compare pretest posttest performance, t-test for non-independent samples was used. The data were analyzed using the SPSS.

IV. RESULTS

The study aimed at testing the following null hypotheses:

1. There is no significant difference in performance between the vocabulary strategy training group and the group taught via the traditional mode prior to experimental treatment.

2. There is no significant difference in the performance of experimental group prior and after vocabulary strategy training.

3. There is no significant difference in performance between the vocabulary strategy training group and the group taught via the traditional mode after the experimental treatment.

To test the first hypothesis, first the descriptive statistics related to the two groups were calculated. The results are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: PRE- TEST

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
control	30	34.6333	2.77282	.50624
experimental	30	34.8333	2.56076	.46753

Although the descriptive statistics show that the two groups performed almost equally, they are not dependable since they show sample characteristics, i.e. statistics. To estimate parameters or population characteristics, the data were analyzed using t-test for independent samples. The results are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference			
	f	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper		
sum1 Equal variances assumed	.079	.780	-.290	58	.773	-.20000	.68911	-1.57939	1.17939		
Equal Variances not Assumed			-.290	57.637	.773	-.20000	.68911	-1.57958	1.17958		

As table 2 clearly shows, the variance of the two groups is not significantly different ((F= 0.079, p=0.773 >0.05). Moreover, the mean scores related to the two groups are not significantly different (t=0.290, p= 0.773 > 0.05). Thus the first hypothesis is verified, i.e. there is no significant difference between the mean scores of two groups.

To test the second hypothesis, i.e. there is no significant difference in the performance of experimental group prior and after vocabulary strategy training, the researchers used matched t-test, or t-test for non-independent samples. The performance of the experimental group on the writing post-test is shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	sum1	34.6333	30	2.77282	.50624
	sum2	38.4000	30	1.27577	23292

The researchers then used matched t-test, or paired samples test, to go beyond sample characteristics and estimate population characteristics. The results are shown in table 4.

TABLE 4.
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST

	Paired Differences			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1 sum1 - sum2	-3.76667	2.52823	.46159	-4.71072	-2.82261	-8.160	29	.000

As Tables 4 clearly shows, there is a significant difference between experimental group's mean before and after treatment (P=0.001). Thus the chance explanation, i.e. the null hypothesis is rejected in favor of the research hypothesis. In other words, the vocabulary training strategies had a significant effect on vocabulary learning. This difference

becomes more evident if there is a basis for comparison, i.e. the control group's performance in the post test. To see the effect of placebo, i.e. traditional mode of presenting words, see table 5.

TABLE 5.
CONTROL GROUP: PRE-TEST POST-TEST

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 sum1 - sum2	-.06667	2.43443	.44446	-.97570	.84236	-.150	29	.882

As it is shown in tables 5, there is no significant difference between control group's mean in pre-test and posttest. (P >0.05). Thus, it can be concluded that strategy training is more effective than the traditional mode of presenting words.

To test the third null hypothesis, i.e. strategy training and traditional mode of teaching vocabulary have the same effect, we analyzed the performance of the two group on the post test. Tables 6 and 7 show the descriptive statistics and the results of independent sample t-test.

TABLE 6.
GROUP STATISTICS

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
sum2	experimental	30	38.4000	1.27577	.23292
	Control	30	34.9000	3.75408	.68540

TABLE 7.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST: EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP AFTER TREATMENT

		Levine'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
sum2	Equal variances assumed	12.007	.001	4.835	58	.000	3.50000	.72389	2.05097	4.94903
	Equal variances not assumed			4.835	35.610	.000	3.50000	.72389	2.03132	4.96868

As tables 6 and 7 clearly show, the variance of the two groups is significantly different (P<0.05). In addition these two groups differ significantly in their mean scores (p<0.05). The results of the t-test better show the significance of this difference. Therefore, it can be concluded that vocabulary training strategies is significantly more effective than the traditional mode of presenting words.

V. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The results clearly showed that the group which received vocabulary strategy training significantly outperformed the group which learned vocabulary through traditional activities prescribed by the textbook. Since the study is true-experimental in nature, the results can be generalized to other similar situations, especially to all other public high schools of Iran because as we mentioned in the introduction, the UEE has created uniform conditions and make teachers follow a uniform approach. Taking the results of study into account, it is recommended that:

• syllabus designers build strategy training into the nationally prescribed syllabus;

• syllabus designers do away with traditional exercises and reduce the volume of the material covered so that teachers have enough time to exercise their professional knowledge and experience to teach empowering vocabulary learning strategies;

• teachers move away from the transmission model of education, which aims at covering the syllabus towards strategy training which aims at training independent learners;

• teachers plan ahead and develop materials which aim at familiarizing students with empowering strategies and emancipate them from prevalent limiting strategies;

• and interested researchers test the efficiency of this approach in college preparatory courses in public and private sector.

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A Comparative Study between *A Tale of Two Cities* and *The Great Gatsby*— The Self-sacrifice Spirits in Romanticism

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Abstract—*A Tale of Two Cities* **by Dickens reflects the sharp class contradiction and class struggle. Through the analysis of the characters, this novel shows the rationality of revolution and the injustice of oppression. He feels that the old ways of oppression must be changed, and that much oppression and much misery inevitably lead to revolution, but when the revolution actually comes, he thinks that it is too violent and that the less bloodshed the better. And he considers that people should show tolerance and kindheartedness instead of fierce hatred.** *The Great Gatsby* **takes the First World War as its background, when people were suspicious about the traditional notions and intended to break out them. Firstly, because of different social backgrounds, the authors have different understandings of the reality. But both them admire the spirits of self- sacrifice. Secondly, the characters have symbolisms in the novels. Even different people have similar meaning in the society. Finally, through compare the reasons of their self-sacrifice, we can see different endings of them.**

Index Terms—**romanticism, self-sacrifice spirits, love, money, disillusion**

I. Introduction

A Tale of Two Cities, which has obvious political views, is one of the most important works in Dickens' career. Although the background of the novel is the French Revolution, the novel reflects the real society of England. And this novel's name has changed many times before it is confirmed as *A Tale of Two Cities*. In the novel, the writer compares Paris with London, so the name reflects what the writer thinks. In 19th century, the French society was in chaos. Feudal aristocracy was cruel to the people. They were barbarous and atrocious, and they treated the peasants as slaves. The public people were subjected to extreme brutality. They maintain their feudal privileges of the aristocracy by force. The historical meaning or social significance the novel reflects has important values for us to discuss and discover.

The Great Gatsby is also a significant novel in Fitzgerald's career. It describes the Jazz Time in American history. People are greed and lechery at that time. The novel reflects the contemporary society. And this novel is significant in the literature at that time. From 1980s to 1990s, there were various new critical theory and methods. And all these methods were used to illustrate the research of *the Great Gatsby*. New groups, new ideas create something new and original. Many papers which use post-modern ideapost structuralism, new historicism, culture criticism methods to illustrate *the Great Gatsby*. With the simple introduction mentioned above, we know the development of critical methods in American literature. And at the same time, we can find that this novel can stand test of time. It will continue to survive — at least surviving among human emotion.

Though there are many people write researches about *A Tale of Two Cities* (George Newlin, 2008) and *The Great Gatsby* (Dalton Gross, Mary Jean Gross, 2008), they are concerned on the contrast of characters and subjects. The paper makes a comparative study of the self-sacrifice spirits of the two novels.

II. The Comparison of *A Tale Of Two Cities* and *The Great Gatsby*

A. The Resemblances between A Tale of Two Cities and The Great Gatsby

Though *A Tale of Two Cities* and *The Great Gatsby* are written by different authors in different time, they actually have many resemblances.

1. The Background of The Contemporary Society

A Tale of Two Cities was created in fifties of nineteenth century, when is Dickens' creative peek. And at this time, the British capitalist economy also developed rapidly. Evils of capitalist development and the impoverishment of working people's live made the British society stand in the brink of a social revolution. And the failure of Chartism made Dickens clearly aware of the 50's Britain is very similar to the 18th century French society. There is a pervasive resentment and discontent in lower masses, and the people's revolutionary sentiment triggered on the verge. Because of these reasons, he decided to create a novel set in the French Revolution to criticize the British social reality and to provide reference for contemporary Britain. Under this circumstance, *A Tale of Two Cities* came out.

Fitzgerald said his time was from World War to the decade between the economic crisis, as the Jazz Age that this decade was the most luxury and value of brilliant era of stress. As the poet laureate of the Jazz Age, his delicate vivid

description reflect Rights middle class and small bourgeoisie's feel for this era, especially for the upper bourgeoisie discontent.

The two writers are both living in a chaos society. There are strong class antagonisms. And these conflicts caused many problems and also the origin of the stories. In addition, the two stories all happen in big cities which are in chaos. At that time, money and authority is the most important to the people. They oppress the public or make money from illegal ways. But there is still love in the world. That is the last flash of hope. The two stories describe the self- sacrifice spirits in romantic times.

2. The Characters in The Two Novels

2.1. The Figures in A Tale of Two Cities

The first figure is Carlton who is set as the representative. He is a hero in the novel. Carton is simple, kind, talented and incompatible with the bourgeois egoism, lacking of appreciation of the social forces, so he is lonely. Nobody in the world cares about him, and he does not care about anyone in the world either. The society distorts his character and leads to his depression. Carten is one of the most attractive characters and also is one of the most complex roles. Decadent and negative at school, he only works hard for the students, otherwise, at the society, even with a talent, he still selects to work for other lawyers. However, in his cold appearance, there is deep tenderness.

With the gentle love for Lucy, Carton makes a significant decision that uses his life to exchange the life of Darnay, and to exchange the happiness of a family and smiling faces. This is the guardian of Lucy and this performance is for the love and sacrifice, which in that era, and even contemporary, is a very noble gesture, and is the ultimate praise humanitarian written by the author.

The second category emerges as the ideal figure is the doctor's daughter Lucy, who is a beautiful, intelligent, tender and sentimental. She is the embodiment of the sentimental paternalism. Lucy's warmth, tolerance and fraternity is in sharp contrast with the thirsty- blooded Mrs Defarge. With the exaggerated descriptions, the novel displays Lucy's magic of moderationism. She makes the delirious doctor bring back to life, and makes vagrom Darnay feel happy. And she also makes uninhibited Carton sacrifice. Her sad, tender expressions and statements in London court, and a sad cry and talk in a new apartment in Paris has won widespread praise and sympathy. She uses sad tenderness to reunion and to obtain the support of friends, but she has to bear the suffering. Her spirit is the pillars of bourgeois humanism. This type of character, there are moral and noble kind gentleman Laure.

The third figure is the avenger image of Mr. and Mrs Defarge. Through their life and struggle, we can know the inevitability of the revolution of oppressed peoples. Mrs. Defarge is the daughter of a farmer whose family are killed by the Marquis Brothers, and she is the only one who survived. When growing up, she marries to Mr. Defarge who is the servant of the docter Manette. She has a lasting enmity with the aristocracy, and she is a strong revolutionary. She shows courage, firm and resolute character in the revolutionary, showing a high degree of organizational skills and wisdom courage. In the novel, she is a dazzling plump flesh and blood character, but the author also clearly reveals the fear of her aversion. She ruins the hard-won happiness of Manette doctor, breaks up the Lucy's happy family, and finally wants to kill the family of Lucy. At the end of the novel, Lucy's maid Pross kills Mrs. Defarge, and this illustrates the author's humanitarian ideas and intransigence on the revolution that is if Mrs. Defarge is reluctant to give up revenge and hatred for love, then let her destruction.

The fourth category is Marquis Brothers noble characters. They are tyrannical, serve the farmers as slaves, and carry out inhuman persecution to the farmers. Especially the uncle of Dernay, who is extremely cruel and tyrannical. He occupies the women with his authority, runs over the poor children by carriages, kills innocent people by random, persecutes Menatte doctor, and maintains his privileges of the feudal aristocracy by force. Marquis brothers are always on behalf of oppressed people of nobility, is the ugly image which focuses on whipping.

2.2 The Characters in *The Great Gatsby*

At 17 years old, he decided to change his name to Gatsby, which is said to be the pronunciation of "Jesus, God's boy". Ironically, after he changes name from that moment, he begins his life tragedy. He puts his pursuit of Daisy as a kind of beauty. At the first sight when he sees her, he knows that he has combined his ineffable ideal with the breath of her together. He knows that his heart is subjected to the heart with God. He must be specific and must not be greedy. When he first kisses her, " She is like a flower which is only blooming for him, so the embodiment of this ideal is complete." Gatsby's dream to become flesh and blood because of Daisy. He wants to achieve his dreams with Daisy.

Gatsby makes more pure ideal of loving money than before, because he wants to make up for the past. He believes that he can buy the love of Daisy. The result is that he died under the plots planned by his goddess Daisy and her husband Tom. Maertel wants to fight for the last glimmer of hope, but buried under the wheel. Wilson wants to revenge for his wife and thinks that suicide is the show of love. They all die, but the most irony is that Wilson's wife never knows that her husband is the person who loves her, and Maertel and Gatsby never knows their loved ones' life still go on happily after their death. The social reality of the times --- "money worship" deep impact on people view of Love. Love became the worship of money and moral bankruptcy of slavery. No money and status they did not have love at all.

Daisy and Tom are noble and outstanding, and they belong to the old aristocracy. With rich family background, they live in a very extravagant life. They treat money as God and think motion is nothing. Has climbed the highest level of socio-economic ladder, Tom and Daisy is not happy at all. They are floating in a cycle that is material first, the money first. They are famous as a Playboy and the courtesan before marriage. All people know that Tom had a mistress, of

course, including Daisy. On behalf of traditional values, in Nick view, Daisy should take their children out of the houseimmediately --- but apparently she does not have this idea. In the traditional view of love that if a woman knows her husband had an affair out of marriage, she should break out with that man immediately. But Daisy is indifferent to this, and she is not jealous. Their marriage is just a shell which supplies material and money.

Wilson expects to improve the social status by earning money through their own efforts. He feels that only the rich person can marry with Maertel, so he let Maertel mistakes that he is rich. He has had marriage, but does not get love. Whether in the marriage, no matter how Maertel sorts of obstacles, he is obedient to Maertel and believe in his wife. Even under the eyes of him, Maertel is flirting with Tom. When he turns to pick up a chair, Maertel makes the time and place to meet an appointment with Tom openly. In order to let his wife to be able to better enjoy, he has been in discussions to buy the old car with Tom. But his wife has betrayed his true love. The way he dealt with family crisis is to constrict on his wife, and then move for not letting her has the chance to contact with her lover. After his wife death, he listens to others to kill an innocent person, and suicide. His behavior reflects his stupid treatment of love and death.

There are many symbols in the novel, the most noteworthy one is the eyes of the doctor Eichelberger. He overlooks the lifeless, immoral world. He is an ophthalmologist, and he is to advertise for himself. However, he never opened his dispensary, so the blind eyes are the signs of blindness which can not be corrected, and they are not signs of God as Wilson thought. Juat as the voice of Daisy and the green light on the pier of her family are not signs of hope. Her voice is full of sound money and the light is invisible in the vast fog. This pair of eyes is the main symbol of the novel, because the novel's main characters are blind. They are blind about themselves and the people around them, and their actions are also blind. Gatsby can not see the emptiness and the ugly of Daisy, yet treats her as the incarnation of the United States to pursue. Daisy's feelings of Tom and Gatsby are also blind. Tom is even more ignorant of his hypocrites and their hypocrisy.

2.3 The Similarities of The Characters

By contrasting the figures of the two novels, we can see that the first categorizes are similar in the novels. Both Carton and Gatsby die for their lover. The only difference between them is that the sacrifice of Carton is meaningful, otherwise Gatsby's sacrifice is just a joke to others. And the second categories in two novels are the people who represent the ideal images. What different between Lucy and Daisy is that Lucy is real images of beauty and wise, then Daisy is the images of money and power. The third figures are the people who display the antagonists. They destroy the peaceful of the society.

3. The Romanticism

Both the two novels belong to romantic style. The writers focus on people's inner world when they write. They express their pursuit of ideals. In these two novels, the authors use romanticism to show their pursuit. They put their motion and ideal in the novel.

B.   The Differences between A Tale of Two Cities and The Great Gatsby

1. The Background of A Tale of Two Cities

One day, Mr. Jarvis Lorry tells Lucy Manette that she is not an orphan. He says that he will travel with her to Paris to meet her father, who has recently been released from the Bastille.

Five years later, Charles Darnay is tried in London on a charge of treason for providing English secrets to the French and Americans during the outbreak of the American Revolution. The dramatic appearance of Mr. Sydney Carton, who looks remarkably like him, precludes any positive identification and allows Darnay's acquittal. Darnay, Mr. Carton, and Mr. Stryver all fall in love with Lucy Manette. Although they all make an attempt to her, she favors Charles Darnay and marries him. Carton comes to her house alone and declares that while he expects no return of his love, he would do anything for her or for anyone whom she loves. Darnay has ominously hinted to Doctor Manette of his concealed identity, and he reveals to his father-in-law. But at the urgent request of Monsieur Gabelle, Darnay returns to Paris. He is arrested as a nobleman and an emigrant and thrown into jail.

Doctor Manette, Miss Pross, Lucie, and her small child follow Darnay to Paris, where the Doctor is almost successful in using his power among the revolutionaries as a former Bastille prisoner--like the people, he was oppressed by the ruling regime--to secure Darnay's release. But Darnay is once again denounced by the Defarges, a charge which is made even stronger by Monsieur Defarge's revelation of a paper document that he found in Doctor Manette's former cell in the Bastille. The document recounts that Manette was arbitrarily imprisoned by the Evrémondes for having witnessed their rape of a peasant girl and the murder of her brother. Darnay is brought back to prison and sentenced to death.

Carton also has travelled to Paris because of the selfless love that Lucie has inspired in him. He resolves to sacrifice himself to save her husband's life. Carton overhears the Defarges discussing a plan to kill Lucie and her child, and he figures out that Madame Defarge is the surviving sister of the peasant girl who was raped and of the boy who was stabbed by the Evrémonde family. Carton arranges for the Manettes to leave immediately. He uses his influence with Barsad, who also works as a turnkey, to get into Darnay's cell. He drugs Darnay and exchanges places with him, having Barsad carry Darnay out of the prison to safety. Carton dies in Darnay's place at the guillotine, satisfied with the knowledge of his good deed.

2. The Background of *The Great Gatsby*

The Great Gatsby is a picture of Jazz Age at that era, all the corruption in American society are made a vivid portrayal. Such as the sale of the alcohol, gangs rampant. The farmers who are uprooted from their homes are flooding

into eastern cities, social agriculture is defeat. In addition, the consequences of industrialization and urbanization reveals and the trend of politics becomes extreme conservatism. The writer used rich symbolism to describe that impoverished Gatsby who are in pursuit of lover because of the gap the wealthy and the poor. But the result of the tragic love story is the death. And the novel reproduces the Rights of the Jazz Age vividly about their cruel, cold, selfish, ruthless social reality. Background is very important in writer's creation.

The background of the society can give a writer inspiration or motivation of producing works. And the background of a writer's family or education can provide experience to him or her. With these conditions, the novels will be full of motions and can be described vividly. Only by these, a good novel can be handed down to generations. When we want to compare two novels, we should analyse the background firstly.

III.   THE REASONS OF THEIR SELF-SACRIFICE

A.   The Reasons of Carton's Sacrifice

Carton and Darnay look exactly the same, but the fate of two people are quite different. He plays with the one who is on depression. And in his world, light is always omitted discouraged. He is to be a person who is disappointed, cold and miserable. Carlton who as a lawyer, is talented but he is willing to just hide behind others, and to do the stepping stone of others' success. Carton, this ideal person, is a great mind of Dickens who respects the self-sacrifice. He is talent, informed, perceptive and moral, but he is not appreciated by the society. He can only lean on Le Royal counsel and to be a assistant. Life makes him become lazy, indifferent and cynical. His personality is distorted by the society, but his mind is still full of humanity and kindness. He falls in love with Lucy, and he is willing to sacrifice everything for her. But Lucy loves Darnay instead of him. He is suffering but not jealous. He tells Lucy: "For you, for your love, I am willing to do anything. If my life is worth the expense of the possibilities and opportunities, I am willing for you and your loved ones to make any sacrifice!" Finally, he realizes his promise that he will make Lucy happy at all costs even paying his life. Embarking on a guillotine with smile, he finishes the last step of the way of life. With his not strong body as shield, Carton fends off a wave that no one can resist the perverse and violent force which may hurt Lucy. Carton expressed his dew west to the extreme of love and regrets completed breathtaking feat.

B.   The Reasons of Gatsby's Sacrifice

Gatsby's love continues on for five years after Dasiy's abandonment. In order to win back Daisy's love, he takes risks to buy bootlegging venture. After obtaining a fortune or buying a luxury, he will hold a party every Friday, waiting for the visit of his goddess. In Gatsby heart, Daisy always wears a beautiful white dress and looks holy. She has never thought it was a matter, and she is only a frivolous woman. After they meet each other, Gatsby is aware that this woman's voice is full of sound money. But he does not give up the heart of the goddess. After a showdown in a New York hotel, Daisy drove to kill Maertel, Daisy and Gatsby stay in the room and Daisy is outside the fear that she will be beaten Tom. Gatsby's life is full of beautiful fantasy and yearning passion. This is evident in his relentless pursuit of the ideal. Gatsby's love, in mind of the author, is the embodiment of his dreams. And at last, Gatsby is still not aware of his ideal and the reality.

C.   The Comparison of Carton and Gatsby

Identically, Gtasby loves Daisy in all his life. He betrayed his d They die because of love. Both of them want to protect their lover who does not love them. But they do not regret.

Carlton is deeply in love with Lucy, but Lucy has fallen in love with Darnay who looks exactly the same with Carton. Although Carton is suffering the pain, he is not jealous of Darnay, and he is just quietly concerned about Lucy. When Darnay is sentenced to death at that time, Lucy is going to suffer the pain of losing her husband. And in order to protect Lucy, Carton goes to embark on the guillotine instead of Darnay. This is altruistic behavior of love, and Carton is only doing it for Lucy. Although Lucy does not agree with Carton's idea, but he sticks to save Darnay. Among these, Carlton and Intel that have no relatives, and between them there are no "mutually beneficial" relationship, but Carlton's unilateral pay, he does not seek anything in return, just to let their loved one happiness.

Gatsby betrays his dream and faith in order to win Daisy back. She is his goddess, though she is mammonite in the chaos society. All he has done want to win Daisy's love, even pay his life. He knows Daisy married to Tom because of tom is rich, but he still sticks to the faith that Daisy loves him. They can not get together because of the society, so he needs to be rich enough.

Quite different to Carlton, Gatsby is just a joke to his lover. Owing to Carton, Lucy has a happy family. And in Lucy's left life, she will remember that there was a person who loves her too much to pay his life for her happiness. But to Daisy, Gatsby is just lamb to the slaughter. She may remember him sometimes, considering him a joke.

IV.   CONCLUSION

In commercial society, because of the remote relationships, broken families, vagrom senions and children, many people become mental-sicken. And o fierce competitions and pressing life cause people to feel anxiety and lonely, even make them physical psychological and charaters contorted. These phenomena effect the peaceful of the society. If

things over time, the world seems to be only a place for beast or god,

Aristoteles says. In today's society, we should be none other his spirit will long be maintained. We praise for the deeds of those courageous and to encourage advanced personnel who serve the people wholeheartedly. For the humanitarian spirit of the people in society today is very strange, we need to do is to make the impact of the humanitarian spirit of the more far-reaching changes, broader.

In this paper, the author discusses the self- sacrifice spirit in *A Tale of Two Cities* and *The Great Gatsby*. The paper is centered on the comparison of the plots and characters of the two novels to illustrate the point. I hope this study will help the readers gain a better understanding of Charles Dickens and Fitzgerald and their great works.

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Applying Comprehensible Input and Culture Input Methodology to Inspire College Students' Learning Motivation

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Abstract—**Motivation is a non-intellectual and key factor to the success or failure of English learning. The stronger motivation one has, the better English proficiency he/she will get. There is no exception of college students, who need to build up motivation to learn English better and consistently. This thesis proposes two teaching methodologies based on Krashen's Input theory and theories of cross-culture communication, which are comprehensible input and culture input methodologies, aiming to assist college students to establish strong and consistent motivation in English learning.**

Index Terms—**motivation, college English, comprehensible input methodology, culture input methodology**

I. INTRODUCTION

According to college English teaching status analysis, how to teach students to learn efficiently with the limited time and limited resources is the most important part of College English Teaching. If the teacher uses the right method in class the students would be interested in English language and would be full of confidence. Teachers' relaxed and happy work feelings in learning will certainly arouse the appropriate enthusiasm and inspire students' learning motivation, so that teachers and students can cooperate joyfully. For a long time, domestic and foreign language learning researchers conduct foreign language learning motivation as wide range of research, get forward a wealth of research results, put forward a number of foreign language learning motivation theoretical model. However, in recent years, some of the domestic researchers are aiming at Chinese students' English learning motivation, a large number of research results have fully proved the important status of the foreign language learning motivation.

Motivation is agreed as the most important element in so many individual factors of language learning right now, it is a kind of drive and momentum which impulses learners to study the target language consistently and efficiently. English pedagogic theorists, teachers and researchers have carried out multitudes of studies, reflections, practices and explorations on approaches and strategies of college students. It's vital for college English teachers to design each English class language input more systematically and creatively to attract students' attention and stimulate their interest in English learning and consequently establish students' consistent motivation in English learning. This paper intends to enumerate some language input strategies and methods to motivate and train learning motivations in class to stimulate students' motivation and make it to be maintained, and then learners' study efficiency can be improved. Therefore the two language input methodology is comprehensively discussed in the following thesis.

This thesis is composed of four parts. The first part is the introduction part, which intends to give a clear picture of the thesis illustration. The second part is the motivation theory , especially indirect language motivation theory which is the main problem the thesis discusses and aims to solve; in the third part, comprehensible input and culture input language teaching methodologies are presented, which are the rational ways for the motivation inspiration and cultivation of the English learners, therefore it's the problem- solving and central part of the thesis; finally, the conclusion of the thesis is given in part four which is about to advocate the applying of comprehensible input and culture input language teaching methodologies in college English teaching practice.

II. MOTIVATION THEORY

Motivation is the internal driving force of human behavior (a motivation is to achieve a certain objective of the internal driving force), its meaning is mankind's specific requirements. Being interested in something is one of its important performance characteristics, and the things its own interest is an important motivation generated incentives.

Conception and Necessity of Motivation

1. Learning Motivation

Motivation to learn is the need to stimulate people to directly promote the study of the internal driving force. Inner motivation is a potential activities, can't be directly observed but its content varied and difficult to make reference to. The same motivation is not exactly the same form of expression. Because of the potential motivations and the complexity of its content, the motivation to learn can be divided into direct and indirect categories.

2. Direct Motivation

Direct motivation to learn is that the learner has a direct interest in the study or the pursuit of short-term effects caused by the motivation. Such as for the sake of high scores, as a subject of interest or for teachers' good impression and so on. These are more specific, but they are not lasting. Childhood motivation to learn is more of such.

3. Indirect Motivation

Indirect motivation to learn is closely related to social demands and the vision of motivations, such as to explore the universe and the mysteries of astronomy professional learning, to reduce human suffering to learn medical science, and for the benefit of the nation and the transfer of Social Sciences, in order to strengthen exchanges the volunteers learn foreign languages, and so on. Such a vision of motivation will not be met in the short term, once established it will be relatively stable and lasting. Young people often have the motivation to increase with age into the indirect tendency of motivation.

As China's reform and opening up policy in the deep exchanges with other countries more and more frequently, we should learn from foreign culture and language to exchange with foreigners, foreign language proficiency is a necessary condition. But the motivation of a certain part of college students is direct, and to a considerable part of the students only indirectly.

The traditional English teaching in China is mainly focusing on teaching knowledge. Teachers spend most time in explaining words, grammar and analyzing sentence structure. Thus, teachers are the center of class, while students are thrown into a passive situation, which make students lose the opportunity of practice and the passion for learning. According to the recent statistics, more than 85% of students think that teachers are the center of class. During the learning processes of listening and speaking, students need to react to language with a high-speed and have no time to translate English into Chinese. In order to gain the ability to quick react, students should practice more and develop a good habit of thinking in English. Students should also develop a better understanding of the cultural differences because the differences between cultures and different language habits are also obstacles for students to improve their abilities to listen and speak. Hence, increasing the understanding of cultures of different English speaking countries is very important for students.

III. CULTIVATE AND INSPIRE STUDENTS' MOTIVATION TO LEARN ENGLISH

The ultimate aim of learning motivation study is to make the theory used in educational practice, so that teachers can be more conscious and more effective to train students to learn English enthusiastically, to improve the quality of education quickly. To cultivate and inspire the motivation to learn is in the course of study which mainly relies on teachers' teaching content, teaching methods and teaching organization. The following part is focused on the teaching methods based on Krashen's Input Hypothesis and cross-cultural communication theories.

A. "Input" Theories and Culture Background

The success in foreign language learning depends on many factors, among which the "input" theory is very important. Input affects the achievement of foreign language teaching and acquisition. Comprehensible input and cultural background teaching are the efficient input methods of foreign language teaching.

1. "Input" Theories and Second Language Acquisition

In foreign Language teaching and research field, Krashen's "input" theory has been occupied an extremely important position in Second Language Acquisition, his theory support that: "comprehensible input" is the key for language acquisition. When students come into the new language materials, they will maneuver the enthusiasm of learning in order to understand the content at the current level or with the help of the relevant context. In this way, "Input" enter into the understandable level and can be acquired by learners, thus they will raise the higher level of language learning. Ellis also thinks that the Second Language Acquisition refers to "The progress of acquiring a foreign language other than mother tongue under the natural or the guidance of a awareness of learning or unconsciousness." Being affected by these theories, the key point of foreign languages teaching and research focus gradually from the "how to teach" to "how to learn". Apparently, "Input" requires not only a large quantity but also not very difficult language input to understand to make the learners acquire second language successfully. To be useful to the learner, the input must be neither too difficult to understand nor too easy. This is conceptualized by Krashen in terms of the learner's current level, called i, and the level that the learner will get to next, called i + 1. For the learner to progress rather than remain static, the input has always to be slightly beyond the level at which he or she is completely at home; the gap between the learner's i and the i + 1 that he or she needs is bridged by information drawn from the situation and from the learner's previous experience. (Xu, 2011)

2. Apply "Input" Theories in English Class

In foreign language teaching, teachers should be certain in which English level students are located and then try to make students receive neither too difficult nor too easy materials to understand. Whereas the fact in Chinese college English teaching is that, students' English level verified greatly from very high level; high level; just-so-so level to low level and quite low level, and each level of students are commonly seen in the definite English classroom and they are to receive the definite teacher's English presentation input while using the definite intensive reading text book, therefore, the language input they are to receive is definitely same. This violates the i + 1 language acquisition principle to some extent. Some lower English level students have no ability to understand what their teacher is presenting in class and

they feel frustrated and have very low motivation in learning English, meanwhile, to some other students with very high English level they sometimes feel too proud that they seem to know everything of teacher's presentation or they've lagged their classmates behind a long distance, that is to say, this group of students may still have low motivation in English learning and not concentrate on what is lecturing in English class either.

To solve this kind of motivation problem teachers should take measures to assist students to be in the same or nearly the same language preparing situations, that is to say they should have a general understanding of the discourse material to be presented before each class. Assigning pre-class input homework to students of different English level is a reasonable way to orientate them to approach i + 1 class presentation. The pre - class input should involve aspects of both teachers and students. For one thing, teachers' pre - class input should cover, if in intensive reading class, 1). Background presentation of the discourse. 2) Making summary and brief introduction and analysis of the discourse. 3).Offering some questions of thought provoking related to the discourse for students to think of. Teachers' efforts above aim to make students have a clear picture of the discourse setting and the general impression of the discourse, which is one way to get teacher's presentation comprehensible to most students, therefore to enhance students' English learning motivation. While if in oral or listening English class, teachers should assign students to do some oral practice or listening homework before class, which is one way to make preparation for class language input and make it comprehensible.   For another, each student should get involved if in intensive reading class: 1) Getting translation of the discourse to understand meaning of each sentence. 2) Listening to the record of discourse to get impact of native-speaker's articulation. 3) Replying questions proposed by the teacher. 4) Collecting input materials to develop interest in learning English. The pre-class input is supposed as necessary knowledge preparation for the class presentation now that while teachers present the class they are about to be in the i + 1 situation to enjoy the English class and it's helpful to cultivate students' self-study habit which is to give students more confidence and motivation confronting the presentation of English class. In each type of class, teachers might let students collect relevant input materials by reading other books or surfing the internet, which is another way to motivate students' interest in involving English learning.

While teaching in English class, teachers should fully understand the students, teachers should consider the differences of students personality and characteristics, hence apply different approaches targeting for teaching, training and improving their respective proficiencies. Such as to export-oriented character of students, they are lively and bold, therefore rapid response "principle of exact learning," should be used for such students in the protection of their enthusiasm, at the same time, the high demand for them is right. To the character of slow, slow reaction students, teachers should use "principle of incentives" focused on training them to speak, which is teachers' good habit and is to encourage students to question their courage to speak. This is one of the most important way to solve the problems in oral expression.

There are a lot of data show that, if teacher use the proper method, students will be on English interest and confidence. Teachers teaching in the relaxed atmosphere in class, learning will certainly arouse the appropriate enthusiasm and inspire students' motivation to learn, thus make the teachers and students cooperate pleasantly and there will be a good harvest.(From: www.8ttt8.com)

B.   Culture Knowledge and Students' Learning Motivation

Language and culture have a close relation.. "Language is the carrier of culture and culture is the content of language. There is no language without culture content." "As a mirror of culture, language is strongly influenced and shaped by culture". In history they evolved together and have been mutually dependent. They need understanding each other. In the broadest sense, language is the symbolic representation of a people, and it comprises their historical and cultural backgrounds as well as their approach to life and their ways of living and thinking. Following the definitions of sociologists and anthropologists, the term culture "refers to the total pattern of beliefs, customs, institutions, objects, and techniques that characterize the life of a human community." Language is the most important one of culture and language also reflects culture. And at the same time, culture influenced and shaped language. Cultures are different, so languages are different. It is proved that teaching students of cross- culture communication is a trigger to arouse their desire for culture knowledge.

1. Culture Knowledge in English Teaching

It is natural that cross-cultural communication is not always easy with differences in cultures and in languages. So, teaching English means more than merely teaching students the vocabulary, grammars and structures. It also means teaching them how to know the English culture. Learners should be informed how native speakers of English see the world and how the English language reflects the minds, customs, and behavior of their society.

2. Principles and Approaches

"There are three principles to guide the cultural introduction: (1) relevant principles (2) comparative principles (3) appropriate principles".(www.8ttt8.com)

Relevant principle demands the culture content introduced should be closely related to the language the students learn. In addition, culture content should be useful for daily communication. In this way, students will not think the relationship between language and culture is too abstract and difficult to understand. With the guiding of the relevant principle, teachers can better motivate students' interest in language and its culture.

For the Chinese students, the cultural difference and background information is the biggest barrier for them to master

English and communicate successfully with native speakers. Cultural differences between different cultures can greatly motivate students' interest in learning. Therefore, in language teaching, teachers should stick to the comparative principle, and introduce some cultural difference between target language and native language. The students can avoid some mistakes when they communicate with native speakers for the shortage of cultural knowledge.

Appropriate principle requests that teachers should consider students' ability in acceptation and introduce cultural knowledge according to the teaching task and purpose of learning. The teacher should explain and help students overcome their problems in an appropriate way when students encounter cultural barrier.

Teachers usually pay attention to communicative competence, while making cultural knowledge subsidiary in college English teaching practice. Background information occupies a vital position in improving students' language ability although cultural knowledge does not affect communication directly. In our English teaching materials, no matter it is intensive reading or extensive reading, what is selected in English textbooks is mainly from American/British newspaper, magazine and literature articles on aspects of American/British culture. While reading those materials, students are doing two kinds of activities: (1) Check the inference from the meaning of words. (2) infer the meaning of the text from its background information. Chinese and English belong to two different cultures. These two languages reflect their own culture. Some students have a good command of words and syntax, but they cannot understand the real meaning of the text for the shortage of related background information. In college English books, there are usually two reading texts in each unit, including geography, religion, history, system, customs and eating habits of English-speaking countries. In the process of teaching, in order to improve students' reading comprehension ability, language and communicative competence, the teacher should try to discover cultural background.

There are many cultural-loaded words in reading materials. Words are the most dynamic part in language and have rich cultural connotation. There will be misunderstanding if students only know the literal meaning of those words and don't know the difference in English-speaking countries. In English teaching, the teacher should explain the cultural meaning of these English words, which will not only broaden students' vision, but help them have a better understanding of cultural difference.

3. Students' Basic Skills are Related to the Cultural Knowledge

For example, when students are doing listening exercises, they may hear some easy dialogues. But he may make some mistakes, if students do not know some cultural information about western countries. The aim of listening is to exchange information and understand the speaker's real meaning in words successfully. Sometimes the learner only catches the denotation of the words, but can not consider the most important part, which is the contextual meaning of words and sentences.

Reading and writing English materials inevitably convey western culture. The students' lack of cultural background knowledge often hinders their comprehension in reading. In Chinese, we mean pornographic by the word "黄", but in English , "blue" is used instead of "yellow". If we do not know, we will not understand what "blue film" or "blue video tapes" mean though the words are easy. This illustrates that words' connotations is the result of cultural impact on language. So more attention should be paid to cultural background in learning idioms and literary works, otherwise, we cannot understand the implication of words and the passages correctly.

The differences between the Chinese and western modes of thinking plays an important part in writing. We Chinese are accustomed to thinking in a spiral way, while the English people and Americans in a linear way. This different way of thinking often leads to misunderstanding. Sometimes a student's composition is good in terms of grammar and logic, but when a foreigner reads it, he or she may misunderstand the real meaning of the sentences.

Unless the students understand the cultural background, they cannot finish their exercises accurately. It's evidently wrong to interpret things in foreign languages in the same way as in our mother tongue. To some extent, students' cultural awareness influences the achievement of English teaching goal. Therefore, it is importance to take for cultural background knowledge as one of the contents in the whole process of English teaching so as to help students to have a good command of necessary cultural knowledge.

4. Presentation of Culture Knowledge

Presentation of cultural knowledge can benefit English teaching in at least three ways: (1) It can cultivate students' thinking. Presentation of cultural knowledge can help students get to know politics, economy, thoughts, and ideas of English-speaking countries and nationalities. They may get to understand the psychology and code of thinking of English-speaking people with general cultural knowledge. This is good for cultivating students' thinking and also a great help for them to think in English. (2)It can promote the study of our own culture. By means of learning the culture of English-speaking countries, students will deepen their realization about our own culture. The Chinese should have a good command in understanding of the Chinese culture, but in fact, many students of language know little about our own culture. The contrast between the Chinese and the western cultures will motivate the students to learn more English. Chinese people are curious about the culture of English-speaking countries, but they can get it only through reading plenty of materials in Chinese. Teachers should make good use of the motive to arouse students' interest in English learning. (3) It can develop students' awareness of cultural difference and help them form a good study habit. Usually students focus on language itself, but neglect the culture effect on language in English learning. They fail to notice that culture gives language special connotation and determines the use of it. Students can develop their sensitivity to cultural difference and gradually learn to catch cultural information themselves through cultural knowledge acquisition. They

will also broaden their range of cultural knowledge, enhance their cultural absorption ability and improve their ability to use the English language.

5. Develop Cultural Activities in Classroom

The classroom is the most important place to cultivate students' cultural awareness. The teacher can organize group discussion, pair work and role-play except for explaining some necessary language points. The static language materials become vivid and lively in this way.

For example, some foods like pudding, turkey, salad, hamburgers are peculiar in western culture. Teachers can bring some pictures and objects to students, and the effect will be better. They will have a better understanding about western food and its dietetic culture.

Teachers can also have their students read some chosen materials related to their language teaching. For example, in Experiencing English Book3 Unit2—Nobile Prize Winners, the teacher can introduce four great scientists in class. All of whom had won Nobel Prizes. Madam Curie was the first women in the world who had won two Nobel Prizes. Many students know Nobel Prize, but some of them do not know clearly about its detailed information. The teacher can find out some related materials for students. The students will learn the language but also understand its culture.

Just as an educationalist says, "Tell me, I will forget. Show me, I may remember. Involve me, I will understand."The activities are beneficial to cultivate students' cultural awareness.

Culture has great impact on language. Lack of cultural background knowledge is the major cause of students' poor English, and is the most neglected factor in English teaching in China. By applying these practical strategies appropriately, English teachers are sure to help students enrich their cultural knowledge, to foster students' cultural competence and thus improve the results of English teaching. (From: *http://www.8ttt8.com/lun/w42785.htm, 2013.6*)

IV. CONCLUSION

Motivation is the most important aspect of affecting foreign language learning, and it is also one of the most initiative factors. If one has high motivation, he or she has more chances to succeed. In foreign language teaching, teachers should motivate and train students learning motivation through many methods such as providing students with comprehensible input and cultural background input, teach students in accordance of their aptitude, interactive teaching and so on. To those learners who are lacking in motivation, teachers could not hurry too much. Give them initiative feedback for their endeavor and stimulate their extrinsic motivation in order to let them enjoy learning. In the process of this, their intrinsic motivation can be stimulated and improved. Once learners have strong learning motivation, they would put their potentials into practice as possible as they can, the learning efficiency naturally can be improved at high bound. (Huang Qian., 2012)

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The Role of Dimensions of Lexical Repertoire in Reading Comprehension and Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition

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Abstract—**The present study was carried out in order to investigate the relationship between dimensions of lexical repertoire, i.e., depth and breadth of lexical knowledge and Iranian EFL learners' incidental vocabulary learning and reading comprehension. The participants of the study were 30 English major students of MA. They were selected from 68 students, based on their performance on Nelson proficiency test. Word Association Test was used to measure students' depth of vocabulary knowledge, Vocabulary Levels Test was administered to examine students' breadth of vocabulary knowledge, MSRT reading test was used to measure their reading comprehension, and Vocabulary Knowledge Scale test was given to test their incidental vocabulary learning. The results of Pearson correlations indicated that there is a significant relationship between both depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge and EFL learners' incidental vocabulary learning as well as their reading comprehension.**

Index Terms—**lexical repertoire, breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge, incidental vocabulary learning, reading comprehension**

I. INTRODUCTION

There is no doubt that vocabulary is very important part of every language and without a reasonable amount of lexical knowledge a good communication cannot take place and comprehension would be difficult. Ellis (1994) believed that lexical errors slow down communication more than grammatical errors. Also, reading as one of the macro skills is a very important variable for EFL students. Having a good command of vocabulary knowledge can help learners to understand a text to a great extent, whether this reading is in form of extensive reading (reading for pleasure) or intensive reading (classroom reading). As an example Anderson and Freebody (1981) declared that teaching vocabulary to students can improve their reading comprehension.

Second language vocabulary learning is generally divided between incidental and intentional vocabulary learning. Hulstijn (2011) believes that Incidental learning is the acquisition of a word or phrase with no conscious intent to memorize the vocabulary, such as "picking up" an unknown word from listening to someone or from reading a text. He indicates that people pick up names, words, dates and events without effort especially when these events were done in the near past. On the contrary, he believes that intentional learning is a deliberate attempt to carry realistic information to memory, usually things like rehearsal techniques or getting ready for a test in school. As there are many words in both the mother tongue and L2, it is not possible to teach all the vocabularies through direct teaching (Nagy, Herman & Anderson, 1987). Here the role of incidental learning becomes highlighted. Incidental vocabulary learning happens when there is no direct focus on learning itself and getting the message is the main concern (Hulstijn, 2001). Explicit and intentional vocabulary learning happens when learners' awareness is on learning new words (Nation, 2001). The term by-product is labeled by Huckin and Coady (1999) for incidental learning. It should be paid attention that incidental learning should not be confused with unconscious learning; it is just that incidental learning does not require an explicit learning intention (Ellis, 1994). On the other hand Hulstijn (2001) claims that in both types of teaching vocabulary, some amount of attention is required. He believes that when the subjects in intentional learning are told that they would have a test, they will try to set their memory according to the test that they are going to have, but in contrast to this situation, in incidental learning the participants would process the material so their mind will probably not be ready for a productive test, but they would be successful in a receptive test.

The structure of a word is multilayered natured and it engages network building in mental lexicon (Haastrup & Henrikson, 2000) which involves two dimensions of depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge (Nassaji, 2004; Nation, 2001; Qian, 1999). Many researchers have noticed that word repertoire is more than just single dimension knowledge. As Vermeer (2001) indicates, the words are like nods in a network. These nods are interrelated in different dimensions: Thematically (table-chair), phonologically (table-label), sociologically, morphologically (gratitude-altitude) and conceptually (cup-mug). As much as the learner makes his/her network bigger, his/her word knowledge will be better.

This knowledge can be called depth of vocabulary (Nagy & Herman, 1887 cited in Vermeer, 2001). Also Cronbach (1946, cited in Nation, 2001) mentioned that lexical components can have many aspects such as morpho-syntactic properties, association, derivation, frequency and semantic features. Henrikson (1999) believes that lexical knowledge has three dimensions: 1- precision of knowledge, 2- depth of knowledge, 3- receptive and productive knowledge. In research on vocabulary knowledge; however, two dimensions of depth and breadth of vocabulary are distinctive (Nassaji, 2004; Nation, 2001; Qian, 1999, Paribakht & Wesche, 1996).

Breadth refers to number of words a learner knows. Nation (2001) believes that breadth of vocabulary knowledge means the quantity or number of words a student knows at a particular level of proficiency. Depth refers to the quality and the amount a learners knows a particular word (Meara, 1996; Read, 1993). Nation (2001) broadens depth by adding pronunciation, collocations, frequency, grammar and spelling. Read (1993) states that depth is a matter of degree and involves the quality of learners' vocabulary knowledge, in other words: how well a student knows a particular vocabulary.

Haastrup and Henrikson (2000) indicate that depth or quality of word knowledge is made by a network that the learners provide by using three relationships that are presented among words: 1- paradigmatic (synonyms), 2- syntagmatic (collocation), 3- analytic (meaning). Grabe (1991) indicates that vocabulary enhancement is very important predictor in reading comprehension. Grabe and Stroller (2002) believe that a large amount of lexical knowledge helps in reading comprehension. And if the learners know a large number of words they can be successful readers. They advice the teachers to help the learners through reading by highlighting the key words and explaining them.

A theory proposed by Sternberg and Powell (1983) says that vocabulary learning through reading has three main elements: a) the process of acquisition that learners are involved in, b) contextual cues for example spatial, temporal and etc, c) moderating variables such as the importance of new vocabulary to be understood in the context, density of the words and number of occurrence of the new unknown vocabulary. Three simple principles are suggested in acquiring vocabulary through reading: 1) selective encoding (to divide related information from unrelated information, 2) selective comparison (relating old information to the new information that are stored in memory, 3) selective combination (to gather the related cues to reach organized definition).

In Sternberg and Powell's (1983) point of view the features such as frequency of a new word, the variability of the unknown word which is embedded in the context, the surrounding context, density of the new word and its importance, makes the process of recognizing and learning the unknown word easier or harder. De Bot, Paribakht and Wesche (1997) described three self reported data of: immediate retrospective, delayed retrospective and introspective protocols to show the source that students use in lexical inferencing process and to demonstrate the way they get the meaning of the new vocabulary in the context. They tried to see how learners can acquire new vocabularies from the context without direct instructions. They believe that when the learners encounter a new word, they could be afraid to continue the communication and go on, or they would fail to get information from a reading. De Bot et al. (1997) declare that there are some levels of lexical entry that include semantic and syntactic information about a specific word and at every level a certain amount of information needs to be used to go to the next level and infer the meaning of an unknown word. This syntactic and semantic information can be inferred from the context.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Although a large number of studies acknowledged the significant impact of reading on vocabulary acquisition (Hulstijn, 2001; Krashen, 1989; Nation, 2001; Nation & Coady, 1988), no clear method was demonstrated for teaching and learning vocabulary. One of the problems is that evaluating lexical repertoire is a hard task (Cronbach, 1942, cited in Nation, 2001).

Although it has been claimed that intentional vocabulary learning outweighs incidental vocabulary acquisition, various researchers have come up with different results under specific conditions with second language learners. Further, previous studies have shown that learners' vocabulary size and word frequency are two crucial factors that affect vocabulary learning. For this reason, in order to determine the effects of these two variables and to make a distinction between the incidental and intentional vocabulary learning, the present study has tried to investigate the effects of two different dimensions of vocabulary knowledge through reading on learners' incidental vocabulary learning. So far, it has not been clear whether applying these learning situations in the Iranian EFL (English as a Foreign Language) classes would be a failure or success.

Of course, the topic of lexical repertoire is a relatively new research area in Iran, especially in the domain of reading comprehension. This needs to be taken into account by Iranian teachers, because their students need to continue learning foreign languages and should be aware of their learning approaches. Thus, the teachers should consider these various learning situations as part of their instruction, so that they can play a valuable and active role in guiding and helping the students to become successful in their learning targets. Finally, research on these language learning approaches of Iranian students should not only provide teachers and students with practical and helpful information about the use of these approaches but also encourage them to develop their images of learning in their minds and know how they act in different situations.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study intended to investigate the relationship between dimensions of lexical repertoire on Iranian EFL learners' incidental vocabulary learning and reading comprehension. The following research questions were proposed in order to achieve the purpose of the study:

1. Is there any significant relationship between depth and breadth of word knowledge and incidental vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL learners?

2. Is there any significant relationship between depth and breadth of word knowledge and reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners?

IV. RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

To answer the above question, the following null hypothesis was formulated:

1. Depth and breadth of word knowledge do not have any significant relationship with Iranian EFL learners' incidental vocabulary learning.

2. Depth and breadth of word knowledge do not have any significant relationship with Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension.

V. METHOD

A. Participants

A test of proficiency (Nelson test) was given to 68 female graduated students of Islamic Azad University, Central Tehran Branch, based on convenience sampling, to homogenize the advanced students. Forty five students were qualified to take part in this study. To lower the effect of world knowledge and knowledge of academic subject on participants' performance in reading comprehension, the subjects were chosen from a similar educational level and academic major. Unfortunately some refrained from participating in the study due to personal reasons in the middle of the research and some of them were considered as outliers by the researcher as they knew German language based on the demographic form which was embedded at the beginning of the proficiency test. As a result 30 participants remained to take part in the study. All the participants were female and native speakers of Farsi which is a very different language from English and German languages and none of them had ever lived in English or German speaking countries. As a result none of the participants could use their native language for guessing and inferring the meaning of an unknown vocabulary.

B. Materials

This study utilized the following materials. It consisted of a breadth of vocabulary knowledge test, depth of vocabulary knowledge test, vocabulary knowledge scale and a reading comprehension test.

Breadth of Vocabulary Knowledge Test

The vocabulary size test which is used in this research is a revised version of Vocabulary Levels Tests (Schmitt, Schmitt, & Clapham, 2001). The expanded test has two versions which the authors of the test believe that the version 1 and 2 have no difference in terms of quality and difficulty. The researcher of the current study used the second version of this test which contained five different levels: 2000 words level, 3000 words level, 5000 words level, 10000 words level and an academic part. Each level contains 10 parts with six words and three definitions, which means three correct answers (matched words and short definitions). The subjects were asked to match the three definitions with three of the six words for any item at each cluster. Each level has 60 words and 30 definitions. Each correct answer is awarded one point so the whole test will have 150 correct answers. In the present study, the researcher used all the levels of the test. The time required to finish this test as other authors have mentioned is about 31 minutes for each version of the test in a valid study. The participants were given a short instruction with examples before taking the test. The breadth test took about 30-45 minutes for this study.

Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge Test

Word Association Test (WAT) (Read, 2004) was chosen to be administered in this section. The format of the test contains 40 items with multiple choices. Each item has one vocabulary as test stem, four options on the left side and four options on the right side. The left column has the potential to be chosen as the meaning of the stem and the right column has the potential to be associated with the stem vocabulary. The four words in left are adjectives which can be either synonym with the word above or can have a polysemy relationship with the stimulus word. The words in the right column can collocate with the stimulus word. The correct choices are not evenly spread; as a result there can be these situations as correct answers: each left and right column contains 2 correct answers, the right column contains three correct answers and left column contains 1 correct answer, the right column contains one correct answer and the left column contains three correct answers (three situations). As the format of the test is not self explanatory, some instructions along with examples were provided for the participants to show them how to choose the correct answers.

The participants should choose four options for each vocabulary in the stem; the answers were distributed in the 8 options. Each correct answer was awarded one point so all the correct answers have the sum of 160. The test is based on word association and includes three parts of paradigmatic (meaning), syntagmatic (collocation), and lexical progression (process of lexical building). Version 4 of this test was used for this study. The depth test took about 43-55 minutes.

Vocabulary Knowledge Scale

In order to measure incidental vocabulary learning, a Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) Test (Paribakht & Wesche, 1997) was administrated. This test can have a repeated measure design to see the retention of the subjects during different periods of time. Also this test has a standard nature to measure initial vocabulary knowledge (Paribakht & Wesche, 1996). The test has 5 options and the participant should choose one of the options for each inferred vocabulary. These five questions are combination of self report and performance to show the vocabulary knowledge of the test takers in written format. The range starts from total unfamiliarity, recognition, having some ideas about that vocabulary to using that word in a sentence grammatically and semantically correct. The scoring of the test for option 1 is one score, for option 2 is two scores and for options 3 and 4 is three, the score four goes for the learner who has figured the meaning of the vocabulary correctly in the sentence but has not figured the correct grammatical category, and finally score 5 is devoted for using the word correctly in a sentence both in terms of meaning and grammar. It should be noted that wrong answers for options 3, 4 and 5 would have the gain score of two. The researcher decided to use all 5 categories in her research, as the first two categories reveal the receptive knowledge of the participants, the middle option is to show if the subject has any idea of the meaning in target form and the last two categories show the total productivity knowledge of the inferred target word.

Reading Comprehension test

The reading comprehension test chosen for the present study was ministry of science and research and technology (MSRT) reading comprehension test. This test is designed to measure the English proficiency of non-native speakers of English in Iran and also it is necessary for male students who would like to study abroad. The MSRT test is in paper format and contains the following parts: Listening comprehension, structure and written expression and reading comprehension. The researcher of this study chose three reading parts of MSRT test based on the purpose of this study. The participants had to answer the multiple choices questions based on the readings. The test is available on (http://www.test4u.webs.com/).

C. Procedures

In order to answer the research questions after administering the proficiency test and gathering the participants, the researcher gave the four main tests of breadth of vocabulary knowledge, depth of vocabulary knowledge, reading comprehension and the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale test and collected all the scores. Each participant was given a file which contained all her scores. As the tests were administered in various orders, the researcher waited until all the data were gathered (during February & April 2013). There was no doubt that the scoring would be subjective due to variety of reasons. As a result to find out that the meaning of the target words were marked correctly; whether they were truly in grammatical or semantic group or whether the written words were truly a synonym or translation of that word, the researcher asked a colleague of hers who had an MA degree to mark some of the papers again (about 25% of the papers). The researcher collected the two sets of scores and compared them. As the whole procedure was explained to her and she was totally involved in this study based on a mutual understanding between the two raters for marking the papers, an inter-rater reliability of 94% was found between the two sets of scores.

The collected data were in form of paper and pencil. The tests included a proficiency test, depth of vocabulary knowledge, breadth of vocabulary knowledge and Vocabulary Knowledge Scale test. At the beginning of each test a written instruction was added, but in order for the participants not to misunderstand any of the items, the researcher explained the instruction in Farsi before each administration. As an example they were asked to infer the meanings of target words which were in German language, in English or Farsi based on the 5 options of VKS test and to write the meanings on the separate sheet available for them.

To lower the *order effect* the researcher took the main test in different orders. Another factor which would affect the test was the fatigue factor (usually due to tiredness participants do less in their last exam) which by varying the orders of the test it would have its least effete. The distribution of tests was randomly done using random identification code which was assigned to each of the test takers. The participants were divided into 5 groups and each group took one of the below test models:

1- Depth, reading comprehension, VKS, breadth
2- Reading comprehension, VKS, depth, breadth
3- Breadth, depth, reading comprehension, VKS
4- Breadth, reading comprehension, VKS, depth
5- Depth, breadth, reading comprehension, VKS

To make the situation of the test *incidental*, the researcher asked the participants to read the short story in a way to enjoy it. The test takers did not have any idea that the target words were in German language, and the researcher refrained from answering their questions about nature of the words. The participants were free to finish the tests at the time they wanted and there was no time limitation. They even could have a short break after finishing each test and then go on with another test. The short story took about 20-40 minutes to read but most of the participants finished it in about 30 minutes. The VKS test took about 8-14 minutes to be completed.

VI. Data Analysis

Nelson was administered to 68 advanced EFL learners at the beginning of study. Considering the obtained scores in Table 1, too distant scores from below and above the mean were omitted in order to homogenize the participants regarding their level of language proficiency. In this case, the participants who scored within a range of one standard deviation below (65) and above the mean (84) kept in the study. So, 23 learners were excluded from the main study. The descriptive statistics of selected scores are shown in Table 1. The mean is 75.11, and the degree of skewness and kurtosis and standard deviation indicate that the distribution of scores is normal.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF HOMOGENIZED PARTICIPANTS

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Nelson Test (Homogenized)	45	65	84	75.11	6.569	-.145	.354	-1.495	.695

The descriptive statistics related to the scores of the participants on the tests of depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge is presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE OBTAINED SCORES ON DEPTH AND BREADTH OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE TESTS

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Breadth of Vocabulary Knowledge	30	128	150	139.87	5.859
Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge	30	110	147	130.10	10.739

On the other hand, EFL learners' incidental vocabulary learning was measured by means of Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) tests. In order to verify the relationship between depth and breadth of EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge on their incidental vocabulary learning, Pearson correlation coefficient was performed.

TABLE 3.
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN DEPTH AND BREADTH AND INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY LEARNING

		Breadth of Vocabulary Knowledge	Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge	VKS Score
Breadth of Vocabulary Knowledge	Pearson Correlation	1	.872**	.685**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	30	30	30
Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge	Pearson Correlation	.872**	1	.526**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.002
	N	30	30	30

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The results, as shown in Table 3, indicated that there is a significant relationship between the depth ($r = .52$, $p < .01$) and breadth ($r = .68$, $p < .01$) of vocabulary knowledge and incidental vocabulary learning. Therefore, depth and breadth of Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge have a significant relationship with their incidental vocabulary learning. Table 3 also shows that there is a significant relationship between depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge ($r = .87$, $p < .01$). Thus, the first null hypothesis of this study saying depth and breadth of word knowledge do not have any significant relationship with Iranian EFL learners' incidental vocabulary learning is not accepted.

The second research hypothesis investigates the impact of depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge on EFL learners' reading comprehension. The descriptive statistics related to the scores of the participants on reading comprehension is shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF EFL LEARNERS' SCORES ON READING COMPREHENSION TEST

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Reading Comprehension	30	20	29	24.90	1.788

In order to verify the second research question of this study, Pearson correlation coefficient was run.

TABLE 5.
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN DEPTH AND BREADTH AND READING COMPREHENSION

		Breadth of Vocabulary Knowledge	Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge	Reading Comprehension
Breadth of Vocabulary Knowledge	Pearson Correlation	1	.872**	.855**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	30	30	30
Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge	Pearson Correlation	.872**	1	.726**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	30	30	30

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to Table 5, there is a significant relationship between depth ($r = .72$, $p < .01$) and breadth ($r = .85$, $p < .01$) of vocabulary knowledge and Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension ability. Therefore, depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge of Iranian EFL learners have a significant relationship with their reading comprehension. Hence, the second null hypothesis of this study stating depth and Breadth of word knowledge do not have any significant relationship with Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension is statistically not accepted.

VII. Discussion

The present study was developed in order to pursue three main purposes; to measure the relationship between EFL learners' depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge and their incidental vocabulary learning, to examine the relationship between depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension and to find the stronger dimension of lexical repertoire in predicting incidental vocabulary learning and reading comprehension of EFL learners.

In order to investigate the above-mentioned purposes a structured procedure consisting of 68 Iranian MA students majoring Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) was developed. The participants of the study took standardized Nelson test in order to manifest their homogeneity in terms of their level of language proficiency. Based on the obtained data, 30 students were selected for the main study.

The first hypothesis of the study was pursued the relationship between depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge and incidental vocabulary learning among Iranian EFL students. The results of correlation analysis showed that there is a significant relationship between both depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge and EFL learners' incidental vocabulary learning. In other words, students who had higher depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge achieved greater incidental vocabulary learning. Also, a significant relationship was found between depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge. These findings supported the findings of Vermeer (2001) and Nassaji (2004) in that higher levels of depth and breadth vocabulary knowledge lead to higher degrees of vocabulary learning. The significant relationship between depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge that was found in this study was in line with what Nurweni and Read (1999) had found in their study.

The second research hypothesis investigates the impact of depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension. The results of Pearson correlation showed that there is also a significant relationship between depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension of EFL learners. The second null hypothesis of this study was not accepted. This finding is consistent with the Huang (1999) who found that learners' comprehension of reading texts was significantly dependent on their vocabulary knowledge. High relationship between depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension was also found in Qian's (1999) study on Chinese and Korean EFL learners. Similar findings were also found in Qian's (2002) research of the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and academic reading. Hence, using a mixture of words in both depth and breadth results in a better capability to predict reading performance. The result of analysis on second hypothesis of the study confirmed Zhang and Annual's (2008) findings. They found that the better the learners were at breadth of vocabulary knowledge the better they could perform at reading comprehension. In Iran, this finding was in line with Kavianpanah and Zandi's (2009) study on the role of depth of vocabulary knowledge in reading comprehension of male and female EFL learners.

VIII. Implications

The findings of this study provided some valuable insights and implications for vocabulary learning and teaching in EFL contexts. In this part, the theoretical and pedagogical implications of study are described.

From a theoretical point of view, this study represented dimensions of lexical repertoire, i.e., depth and breadth of lexical knowledge, as the effective and interesting ways for improving vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension ability of language learners. It also provided the best conditions for learners to learn lexical items deeply and to extend their knowledge of vocabulary.

The significance of dimensions of lexical repertoire in developing vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension, from a pedagogical point of view, showed helpful approaches for EFL teachers, EFL learners and syllabus designers.

EFL teachers can use the depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge to make sure that their learners would have the least forgetting process in vocabulary acquisition. There is no doubt that without the teachers' guidance learning the lexical items would not be easy. The teacher should help the learners to understand the nature of each vocabulary and learn each lexical item in the related context and not just by itself. S/he should be creative enough to invent new methods for teaching vocabulary specially by using these two dimensions of lexical repertoire. In this regard Allen (1983) believes that old fashioned methods for vocabulary learning would only be time consuming.

For EFL teachers, the results of this study provide valuable opportunities to engage learners in vocabulary learning process. In EFL contexts, since there is no opportunity to be exposed to language out of classroom situation, it seems necessary to provide conditions for learners in order to take the maximum advantages of class time. Vocabulary instruction by conscious attention to the dimensions of lexical repertoire invites learners to deeply process the lexical items. Learners can analyze the vocabularies and realize the advantages of such methods over the old methods like making a list of vocabularies in both L1 and L2 and trying to memorize them two by two.

IX. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In this section, some suggestions are suggested for future studies, based on the limitations of the research and the problems that the researcher viewed through the study.

The participants of this study were advanced EFL learners. Another study can study the effect of lexical repertoire in vocabulary learning or reading comprehension of learners of other levels of language proficiency.

The present study investigated the relationship between learners' depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. It is suggested for further studies to investigate the effectiveness of learners' depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge on other language skills such as speaking, reading and writing.

A short story with 10 target words was chosen for this research. Obviously, more target words in a longer context would strengthen the result. Although the researcher has used different word class with repeated frequencies in the selected text, she did not focus deeply on these two aspects as they were not part of her study.

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The Formation of English Phrasal Comparatives— Study of Lechner's Small Clause Analysis

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Abstract—**Lechner (2001) proposes two hypotheses, that is, CR-Hypothesis (Conjunction Reduction (hereafter CR) operations can target comparatives.) and PC-Hypothesis (Phrasal Comparatives (hereafter PCs) derive from clausal comparatives by CR.) In this paper, I discuss the formation of PCs and its relevance to Lechner's two Hypotheses. As to the formation of PCs, based on his two hypotheses, he puts forward small clause analysis. Compared with Direct Analysis and Comparative Ellipsis approach, although small clause analysis is superior to them by his analysis, I will argue that some special PCs can provide evidence that his small clause analysis is untenable, that is, some PCs can't be analyzed by his small clause analysis.**

Index Terms—**CR-Hypothesis, PC-Hypothesis, gapping, right-node raising, direct analysis, comparative ellipsis approach, small clause analysis**

I. INTRODUCTION OF ENGLISH COMPARATIVES

The basic form of English comparatives is *more/as…than/as* X. When X is equal to S, as illustrated below, we call such sentences clausal comparatives:

(1) John bought a more expensive car than Bill did _.

The derivation of comparatives is traditionally claimed to involve an obligatory deletion process called Comparative Deletion (hereafter CD) and also an optional one called Comparative Ellipsis (hereafter CE) within clausal comparatives. Comparative Deletion deletes lexical material in the comparative clause under identity with material in the compared constituent of the matrix clause (Corver, 1993), as in (2a). The operation that deletes just the amount term (e.g. *x-many*) of the comparative clause, as in (2b) is called Comparative Subdeletion (Corver, 1993). Pinkham (1982, p.92) defines Comparative Ellipsis as an optional operation that elides the verb and all other recoverable constituents from the comparative clause, as in (2c).

(2) a. John met more linguists than I met [[x many] [linguists]].
    → John met more linguists than I met _.   ----Comparative Deletion
  b. John met more linguists than I met [x many] biologists.
    → John met more linguists than I met _ biologists.   ---Comparative Subdeletion
  c. You can catch more flies with honey than ~~you can catch~~ [[x many] flies] with vinegar.
    → You can catch more flies with honey than _ with vinegar. ---Comparative Ellipsis

Besides Comparative Ellipsis, there are some other ways of reduction in English Comparatives, such as Pseudo-gapping and VP deletion.

  d. John gave many more cookies to Mary than he gave _candies to her.
    → John gave many more cookies to Mary than he did _candies.   ---- Pseudo-gapping
  e. I thought I looked more like a student than he looked like a student __.
    → I thought I looked more like a student than he did _.   ----VP deletion

In relation to the theme of this paper, I will focus on the analysis of the formation of PCs. Coming back to the form *more/as…than/as* X, when the element X behind *than/as* is not an S (i.e. X =NP, QP, etc.), such comparatives are called Phrasal Comparatives. For example:

(3) a. John is older than Mary.
  b. More men than women attended the meeting.
  c. John is taller than six feet.

Compared with clausal comparatives, the surface form of PC (*than/as* +XP) is simpler. However, the proper representation and interpretation of PCs, as well as the relation of PCs to their clausal variants, is still subject to debate. The existing various approaches towards PC-formation roughly divide into two groups--- Direct Analysis(Nappoli1983, Pinkham1982) and Clausal Analysis. The latter includes CE Analysis (Bresnan1973, Pinkham1982) and Small Clause Analysis (Lechner2001). Direct Analysis contradicts Lechner's PC- Hypothesis that PCs derive from clausal comparatives by CR, because Direct Analysis directly generates the structure of *than*-XP in its surface form. Lechner argues against Direct Analysis and endorses Small Clause Analysis instead. I will demonstrate below, however, that

there are sentences that can be generated under Direct Analysis but not Small Clause Analysis.

In the following parts, as I evaluate various aspects of the theories of Bresnan, Pinkham and Lechner, I will cite many actual examples found by searching on Google and BNC in support of my argumentation.

II. LECHNER'S TWO HYPOTHESES

In Lechner (2001), he claims that CE can be dispensed with, namely, than-XP clauses can be interpreted as coordinate structures (and-clauses). Specifically, he proposes CR-Hypothesis and PC Hypothesis. In order to understand and evaluate his theory let us first consider what claims Lechner's two hypotheses make. In order to better understand Lechner's two hypotheses, I look into the basic properties of Conjunction Reduction, Gapping and Right-Node Raising.

A. Conjunction Reduction, Gapping and Right-node Raising

I agree with Hudson's (1976a) view that Conjunction Reduction (CR), Gapping and Right Node Raising (RNR) are separate rules in English, each having its own set of constraints. The three rules are illustrated below:
(4) a. Mary opened the window at 8:00 and _looked out.   (CR)
    b. Mary cooked the first course and Jane _the second.   (Gapping)
    c. Mary likes, and Jane would go anywhere to find, antique horse-brasses from the workshop of that genius in metalwork, Sam Small.   (RNR)
        ---Hudson (1976a)
In each of these examples one of the conjoined clauses has something missing from its structure. For example, the second conjoined clause lacks a subject in (4a) and the main verb in (4b), and the first conjoined clause lacks the object in (4c).

It seems clear that some kind of transformational mechanism is needed for explaining these special phenomena, and so far it has been widely assumed that the transformations needed are CR, Gapping and RNR.

For CR, we can't easily judge whether CR has applied, since whether a conjoined clause is incomplete or not depends on how we analyze its surface structure. For example, in *He goes to bed at ten and gets up at eight*, if *at eight* is seen as a daughter of the S node, the second conjunct must be considered an incomplete sentence. On the one hand, if *gets up at eight* forms a VP, there is no need to invoke CR in this sentence. In sentences like *He drinks coffee at breakfast time and tea at other times,* it is easier to see that the second conjunct is incomplete. Though some linguists claim that such sentences can be generated by Gapping, Hudson (1976b) convincingly rejects such a view. The clearest evidence for the necessity of CR comes from sentences like Dougherty (1970)'s *Mary was fun to tease, easy to please, and known to have fleas*, where none of the conjuncts exist as constituents in deep structure I conclude, with Hudson, that CR is necessary.

1. Gapping

Gapping is a rule which deletes strings including a finite verb in the right conjunct of a coordinated structure under identity with the verb(s) in the left conjunct (Corver, 1993), as in (5):
(5) John kissed Mary and Sue, Bill.

Hudson (1976b) points out that the following properties distinguish Gapping from "phrasal conjunction." The following descriptions and examples are quoted from Hudson (1976b):

A. In gapped sentences, the only possible conjunctions are *and, or,* and *nor*; however, in sentences with phrasal conjunction, *but* is also possible:
(6) a. John drinks coffee and/or/*but Mary, tea.
    b. John drinks coffee and/or/but likes tea.

B. In gapped sentences, only two constituents are possible in the second conjunct, one before the gap and the other after it; in phrasal conjunction sentences, on the other hand, the second conjunct may contain any number of constituents:
(7) a. *John drinks coffee at 11, and Mary, tea at 10:30.
    b. John drinks coffee at 11 in his coffee with his colleagues, and eats his lunch at 1 with his friends.

C. In gapped sentences, the order of constituents in the second conjunct is very severely restricted, so that they parallel the order of the corresponding constituents in the first conjunct; but in phrasal conjunction sentences, the order after the conjunction is much freer:
(8) a. * John left at 11 and, at 12, Bill.
    b. John left his office at 11, and, at 12, the library.

D. In gapped sentences, the first constituent in the second conjunct must be the subject of the shared verb, but obviously no such restriction applies to phrasal conjunction sentences:
(9) a. *Which book did Mary buy and which record, Bill?
    b. John drinks coffee for breakfast and tea in the afternoon.

E. If the first clause of a gapped sentence is negative, the conjunction must be either *nor* or *or* (i.e. not *and*), but *and* is possible after a negative clause in a phrasal conjunction sentence:
(10) a. John didn't see Mary nor/or/*and Bill, Sue.
    b. John doesn't drink coffee nor/or/and smoke a pipe.

I agree with Hudson that these properties clearly separate Gapping from CR.

2. Right Node Raising

RNR raises some common element out of two conjuncts and attached it to the right of both of them. Some examples follow:

(11) a. Mary liked _, but John hated, the man with the red beard.

    b. John enjoyed _, and my friend liked the play.

Hudson (1976) summarizes the differences between RNR and CR as follows:

(i) CR has the shared items on the left of the coordination, RNR has them on the right.

(ii) CR has no special intonational break between the shared item and the rest of the sentence, but RNR does have such a break, as already noted.

(iii) CR is restricted to coordinations, but RNR isn't.

(iv) CR can delete any number of constituents (by applying recursively to its own output, and deleting one at a time); but RNR can apply to just one constituent, as Postal (1974) notes (125). Thus CR can apply to *Who has been eating my porridge, and who has eaten it all up?* to give *Who has been eating my porridge, and eaten it all up?*, 'deleting' both *who* and *has*. With RNR, on the other hand, nothing like this is possible. For example, one cannot apply it to *John gave Mary two pounds and Bill lent Mary two pounds,* deleting both *Mary* and *two pounds* to give **John gave, and Bill lent, Mary two pounds*; the best you can do is delete just *two pounds*, giving *John gave Mary, and Bill lent her, two pounds.*

(v) In CR, as already noted, any constituent which is 'deleted' must be a daughter –i.e. an immediate constituent—of the conjunct in question. There is no such restriction on RNR; so sentences like *John is a wizard at growing, and Mary has perfected the art of preserving, a very delicate kind of quince which is only known in their part of Worcestershire* are as good as any sentences involving RNR.

According to the above analysis, we can see that there are differences between CR and Gapping or RNR, so we should separate these three phenomena in English.

B. Two Hypotheses

Lechner (2001) proposes two hypotheses, that is, CR-Hypothesis and PC-Hypothesis. Napoli (1983) argues that the two main kinds of comparatives in English should be dealt with separately, since *than* in the clausal comparatives is a coordinator, whereas *than* in the phrasal comparative is a preposition. Lechner claims, however, that *than* is always a coordinator and the complement of *than* behaves as a conjunct. This character of comparative clauses is most clearly reflected in the observation that they may be targeted by Gapping, RNR, and so on, i.e., CR processes which are generally taken to affect coordinate structures only. (In Lecher (2001), he uses "CR" in a board sense, as a general term for operations reducing coordinate structures, including Conjunction Reduction, Gapping, Right Node Raising (RNR), and so on.) For instance, main verb ellipsis can be attributed to Gapping both in the comparatives (12a) and (13a) and in the corresponding coordinate structures in (12b) and (13b) (Napoli 1983, p. 676)

(12) a. John spoke more vehemently against Mary than Tom ~~spoke~~ against Jane.

    b. John spoke against Mary and Tom ~~spoke~~ against Jane.

(13) a. Mary loves John more than Helen ~~loves~~ Bill.

    b. Mary loves John and Helen ~~loves~~ Bill.

Similarly, the comparative (14a) and the conjunction (14b) can be uniformly analyzed in terms of RNR (from Napoli1983, p.677)

(14) a. I organize more ~~her life~~ than I actually run her life.

    b. I organize ~~her life~~ and actually even run her life.

Lechner (2001) thus claims that CR may target comparatives, which he calls the CR-Hypothesis:

(15) The CR-Hypothesis

    CR operations can target comparatives.

The CR-Hypothesis also extends to PCs, as illustrated by the derivations in (8). In the partially reduced comparatives in (12a), (13a) and (14a) above, the *than*-XPs contain more than a single remnant, while in (16) there is only one single remnant in the *than*-XP clause.

(16) a. Mary bought more books than Sam ~~bought~~ _.   (_ = d-many books)

    b. More people bought books than _ ~~bought~~ magazines. (_ = d-many people)

    c. Mary bought books more often than Sam ~~bought books~~ _.

    d. Mary bought books more often than ~~Mary bought~~ magazines_. (_ =d-often)

    ---Lechner (2001)

The reduction processes in (16) are paralleled by those in the coordinate correlates in (17).

(17) a. Mary bought books and Sam ~~bought~~ magazines.

    b. Many people bought books and Sam ~~bought~~ magazines.

    c. Mary bought books on Tuesday and Sam ~~bought books~~ on Friday.

    d. Mary bought books on Tuesday and ~~Mary bought~~ magazines on Friday.

On the basis of paradigms like these Lechner (2001) proposes the PC-Hypothesis:

(18) The PC-Hypothesis

    PCs derive from clausal comparatives by CR.

In contrast to the CR-Hypothesis, the PC-Hypothesis not only maintains that PCs can *optionally* be parsed as the output of CR, but also strongly claims that *all* PCs derive from an underlying clausal source by application of CR. If these two hypotheses are correct, CE can be dispensed with. I will examine his hypotheses in detail in the following chapters, but before that I will make some notes below about the relationship between comparatives and ordinary coordinate structures.

III. THE FORMATION OF PCs

A. Direct Analysis and Comparative Ellipsis Approach

In the clausal comparatives in (19), CD (Bresnan 1973) has removed the gradable property from inside the comparative complement (*than*-XP). The overall structure of the *than*-XP is left intact-except for the application of CD:

(19) a. John is older [than-XP than Mary is _].   (_ =x -old)
　　 b. John read more books [than-XP than Mary read _]. (_ =x- many books)
　　 c. More people bought books [than-XP than_ bought magazines]. (_ =x-many people)

Under the CE analysis of PC, PCs differ from their clausal counterparts in that the comparative complement has undergone further reduction through CE, in addition to CD. By definition, the *than*-XPs of PCs, exemplified by (20), superficially embed a single remnant only:

(20) a. John is older [**than Mary**].
　　 b. John read more books [**than Mary**].
　　 c. More people bought books [**than magazines**].

According to Direct Analysis, PCs don't contain any elliptical structure, and are base-generated as PPs headed by the prepositional comparative marker *than* (Brame 1983, Napoli 1983). Because PP is not a coordinate structure, Direct Analysis is clearly incompatible with Lechner's PC Hypothesis.

Pinkham (1982) argues that Direct Analysis is necessary, pointing out that there are sentences that cannot be explained by CE, as shown in (21):

(21) a. He ran faster than the world record.
　　　 Cf. * He ran faster than *the world record ran*.
　　 b. John jumped higher than the fence.
　　　 Cf. *John jumped higher than *the fence jumped*.
　　 c. Mary is older than **me**.
　　　 Cf. *Mary is older than ***me am***.

It is obvious that none of the sentences in (21a-c) can be derived from an underlying structure containing a *than*-clause.

Pinkham (1982) also argues for Direct Analysis by pointing out that PCs like (22a) can't be explained by CE, since Comparative Ellipsis applies only "from left to right," i.e., the antecedent more phrase must be to the left of the deleted compared phrase, as evidence by (22b):

(22) a. More men than women applied for the job.
　　 b. * More dresses [than _ by that company] were sold by us.
　　 c. More dresses [than [x many] dresses] were sold by that company] were sold by us.
　　 d. More dresses were sold by us [than (were sold) by that company].
　　　 ---- Pinkham 1982, p.108

Although most linguists accept Direct Analysis, it also has its own deficiencies. For instance, it can't explain such sentences as (23a, b):

(23) a. *A taller man [than Mary] came in.
　　 b. *a taller woman than my father
　　　 Cf. a woman taller than my father
(24) a taller man than my father

Because (24) is grammatical, so far as syntax is concerned, there is nothing that prevents Direct Analysis from generating (23).

As I mentioned above, Direct Analysis clashes with Lechner's (2001) PC- Hypothesis because according to Direct Analysis *than*-XP phrases like [*than the world record*] are PPs and not coordinate structures. Lechner argues against Direct Analysis and claims that it should be abandoned in favor of Small Clause Analysis, to which topic I will turn in the next subsection.

B. Small Clause Analysis

Both Direct Analysis and CE Analysis have their own defects, so it is necessary to find a new ellipsis analysis of PCs. Lechner (2001) adopts a new analysis of the formation of PCs, that is, Small Clause Analysis (first suggested, according to Lechner (2001, p. 731), by Heim (1985)).

Consider the examples in (6), repeated below, again:

(25) a. He ran faster than the world record.
　　　 Cf. * He ran faster than *the world record ran*.

  b. John jumped higher than the fence.
   Cf. *John jumped higher than *the fence jumped.*
  c. Mary is older than **me**.
   Cf. * Mary is older than ***me** am.*

Small Clause Analysis analyzes the than-phrases in these sentences as small clauses. Thus, the underlying structure of (25a) is as shown in (26):

(26) He ran faster than [the world record [x fast]].

The complement of *than* forms a small clause; [*the world record*] is the subject and the [*x fast*] is the predicate. [*x fast*] is deleted by CD. The same applies to (25b, c) as well.

As for the accusative case in (25c), Lechner (2001, p. 728) claims that it fails to count as evidence for Direct Analysis because comparatives are not unique in licensing accusative remnants, they are also attested in conjunctions (27). He says: "Crucially, in both constructions, accusative remnants are limited to contexts involving CR ([Stripping]):" (Lechner calls the rule responsible for the reduction in question Gapping. I use the term "Stripping," instead, which I believe is more appropriate.)

(27) a. Stripping: Mary is eager to meet them, and **me** too.
  b. Source: * Mary is eager to meet them and **me** is eager to meet them, too.

Lechner concludes that the morphological alternation of remnants in PCs and coordinate structures is conditioned by identical environments, as predicated by the PC-Hypothesis."

Next, consider (23) and (24), repeated below again in (28) and (29).

(28) a. *A taller man [than Mary] came in.
  b. *a taller woman than my father
   Cf. a woman taller than my father

(29) a taller man than my father

According to the Small Clause Analysis, the underlying structures of (28a, b) and (29) should be as shown below:

(30) a. *A taller man than [Mary [[x-tall] man]] came in.
  b. *a taller woman than [my father [[x-tall] woman]]

(31) a taller man than [my father [[x tall] man]]]

Because Mary is a female and a father is a male, both (30a) and (30b) are semantically anomalous, while (16) is fine. Thus, Small Clause Analysis succeeds in explaining the contrast between (30) and (31) and is therefore superior to Direct Analysis.

Suppose we abandon Direct Analysis and adopt Small Clause Analysis. Strictly speaking, I believe, Small Clause Analysis still fails to save the PC Hypothesis. This point is easy to see. Consider (25), repeated below in (32), again.

(32) He ran faster than [the world record [x fast]].

The deletion of [x fast] is due to CD, and CD is not a rule of Coordinate Structure Reduction (hereafter CSR). Hence, as it stands, *He ran faster* [*than* [*the world record*]] still violates the PC Hypothesis. What Lechner intends to say by adopting Small Clause Analysis is probably that (32) should be regarded as not constituting a counterexample to the hypothesis in question, in the same sense that (33) is not a counterexample to it. In both cases, the complement of *than* is clausal (i.e. subject-predicate structure) and only CD applies.

(33) She is taller than Mary is _. (_= [x tall])

We could accordingly reformulate the definitions of the relevant notions so that (32) cease to be a counterexample to the PC Hypothesis. But I will not take the trouble to do so, because I will claim that Direct Analysis is necessary and that Small Clause Analysis should be abandoned.

First, consider (22a), repeated below, again.

(34) More men than women applied for the job.

This PC sentence cannot be accounted for by Small Clause Analysis. It is obvious that there is no predicate with which *women* can form a small clause in (34). Lechner simply says in a footnote (p. 685) that he "will ignore subcomparatives throughout." Thus, sentence like (34) remains an important counterexample to the PC Hypothesis.

Second, the explanation of the deviance of (25a, b) offered by Small Clause Analysis is actually of little force, because Small Clause Analysis fails to cover cases likes the following:

(35) a. He ran more *quickly* than the world record.
  b. I flick my eyelids open more *quickly* than the speed of light.
  c. Human's faces can appear and dissolve more *quickly* than the blink of an eye.

The important thing about these examples is that in each, more modifies an *-ly* adverb, not an adverb like *fast* which is homophonic with an adjective. Now, it is obvious that we cannot posit underlying structures containing a small clause for these sentences, because *-ly* adverbs cannot be used predicatively:

(36) *The world record is quickly.

Notice also that these sentences cannot be derived by CD, because there are no appropriate comparative clauses for them at the underlying level: the following sentences do not make sense.

(37) a. *He ran more *quickly* than the world record ran.
  b. *I flick my eyelids open more *quickly* than the speed of light flicks my eyelids open.

c. *Human's faces can appear and dissolve more *quickly* than the blink of an eye. can appear and dissolve.

Direct analysis is therefore necessary to produce sentences like those in (35). Note that this means that the anomaly of expressions like (23a, b), repeated below, is not a syntactic problem but a problem to be dealt with by a mechanism for semantic interpretation.

(38) a. *A taller man [than Mary] came in.

b. *a taller woman than my father

In order to make sure that sentences like (35a-c) are indeed grammatical and are not sentences that are actually ungrammatical but happened to be produced by a careless mistake, I searched for more actual examples of the same kind on Google. As shown in (39), I have succeeded in finding many such examples:

(39) a. The laws of physics allow for space itself to expand **more quickly than the speed of light**.

b. It seems to involve some sort of information which travels **more quickly than the speed of lights.**

c. Ultimately, the digital domain's boundaries are the theoretical limits of physics: a bit cannot be smaller than individual atoms, and the circuits cannot operate **more quickly than the speed of light**.

d. Two galaxies can separate **more quickly than the speed of light.**

e. The computation involved must be done fast, since the mirror has to respond much **more quickly than the blink of** an eye.

f. This communication process happens far **more quickly than the blink of** an eye.

g. I inched my way up each continuum **more slowly than the lowliest snail's** pace.

h. Will the mails cease to move, or move even **more slowly than their accustomed snail's pace**?

i. She also became slow in picking up cues and our scene together consequently crawled **more slowly than the proverbial snail's pace**.

j. Time passed **more slowly than a snail** in a windstorm.

Therefore, I conclude that these sentences are grammatical and that again, Direct Analysis has proved to be necessary. Small Clause Analysis cannot explain the above examples, since adverbs cannot be the predicates of sentences, and the above examples can only be explained by Direct Analysis.

IV. CONCLUSION

In fact there are various arguments about the formation of PCs. The various approaches towards the formation of PCs roughly divide into three groups: Direct Analysis, Comparative Ellipsis analysis and Small Clause analysis. Lechner (2001) claims that Small Clause Analysis is superior to the other two analyses, being free from the deficiencies mentioned above. However, I will argue that there is a type of PC that can be generated by Direct Analysis but not by Small Clause Analysis. If this claim is correct, then Small Clause Analysis is very doubtful because whatever sentence can be generated by the latter can also be generated by the former.

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An Artistic Analysis on Robert Frost's *Desert Places*

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Abstract—**Desert Places is one of Frost's dark poems that show the poet's deep thought about life philosophy and helplessness towards reality. This article analyzes this dark poem from the perspective of elements to show that how these elements work together to reinforce the theme of the poem in order to help readers to have a better understanding about this poem as well as the artistic techniques the author employed to elaborate the life wisdom through image and common settings. The elements include title, setting, imagery, syntax, sound quality, rhyme scheme, rhythm, figures of speech, diction and tone.**

Index Terms—**dark, elements, theme**

I. INTRODUCTION

As Huang (2000) argues that Robert Frost is a symbolist, a realist, a philosopher, a moralizer, a lyricist, a farmer-poet, and emblemist, he is a shining superstar in American literature and is also considered one of the greatest modern poets and meanwhile the most controversial one. He occupies an important position not only in American literature, but also in world literature. Most of his poems are about New England country life, expatiating the inharmonious relationship between man and nature, and between man and man.

To the American public, like Trinkha (1990) thinks that Frost is one of the notable craftsmen of the 20th century and he is often regarded as one who is clever at rewriting the conversions of classical pastoral poetry and capable of the depiction of fields and farms of his surroundings and overusing the details of rural life.

In the poem Desert Places the speaker is a man who is traveling through the countryside on a beautiful winter evening. He is completely surrounded with feelings of loneliness. The speaker views a snow-covered field as a desert place. Though beautiful it is, there exists deep meditation and metaphysical truth beneath it (studentacademichelp.blogspot.com).

According to Richard Poirier (Richard Poinrier, 2000, p.147), Desert Places contains the threat for the poet "of disappearing without any record of his having been there". Frost's Introduction to King Jasper gives a specific implication to the threat, to the fear in his poem. That introduction describes as salutary "the fear of Man-the fear that men won't understand us and we shall be cut off from them." Such an existence would be a lonely, desert existence.

Over the years, there is a wide discrepancy between what life had done to Frost and what he had made out of life. Although a man stricken numerous times by pains and sufferings, he had made the most excellent works in his lifetime. The most essential thing for either appreciation or study of Frost's poetry is to have a good observation of the poet's view toward life. With this thesis, the author attempts to show a different side of Frost in a more specific and detailed way, and hopes it can help Frost readers understand him and read his poetry from a new angle.

II. ELEMENTS' ANALYSIS

A. Theme

The poem Desert Places was published in 1936. The poem follows a rhyming scheme of "aaba" over four stanzas, for a total of 16 lines. The poem explores the concepts of loneliness and the tie between man and nature from the first-person perspective (www.baidu.com).

It opens with the main character passing an empty field during a snowy evening. The field is surrounded by woods. He sees "loneliness" in the field where a few "weeds and stubble" peak out from the layer of snow on the ground. The animals are deep in their lairs. A picture of the nature scene has been thoroughly described (www.baidu.com).

The poet finds a truth by a lonely, suffering and desperate process, that is, the universe is without prior inherent meaning. Man is not tied to a dead universe whose overarching principle is death and separateness. Rather he finds a universe that he can fill up and fill out meaning from his own life (www.english.uiuc.edu). The experience he observes in the field literally pulls him out of himself and makes him so vulnerable to the apparent deadness that he is nearly smothered in the rarified atmosphere of loneliness and homelessness. But the poem then restores him to himself, equips him with a sense of who and where he is, and defines positively in relation to nature and to the objects to which he will give meaning poetically (www.english.uiuc.edu).

This poem is tightly controlled, terse, and deep. The theme covered here is similar to that of Dickson's poem in which she says "the brain has corridors surpassing/Material place." We needn't look very far outward: we have

terrifying realms within. The landscape and the attendant loneliness Frost describes is the sort of thing that many Romantic poets have done, which is to project their feelings onto nature, though perhaps at the time they were writing their poems there was no distinguishing outer from inner (www.poemhunter.com).

B.   Title

   The title itself is a metaphor. It originally refers to the abandon places with few people there; while here it means the infinite desert within the human mind or clearly to say the moral and spiritual wilderness within the human mind. The speaker wanders who he is and where he is. Is he a part of the society or the universe or anything else? He meditates and seeks the answer in the tangible desert place. At first sight of the title, especially on seeing the word "desert", I was obsessed with a strong emotion of loneliness and could not help imaging the endless and inanimate desert without any traces of human life, no water, no plants, no animals and no human. Only the speaker himself is left there alone and keeps going and going to pursue an unknown answer…

C.   Setting

   • Time: one snowy winter night. Winter is a kind of season that can easily make men sensitive, especially the snowy winter. It is much easier to remind man's recollection to loneliness, emptiness and coldness.
   • Place: a field, a desert place. The desert place with the blank landscape reinforces the feelings of emptiness and loneliness.

D.   Imagery

   • Visual: "the ground almost covered smooth in snow", "a few weeds and stubble showing"; "all animals are smothered in their lairs" and "a blanker whiteness of benighted snow". All these visual imageries present the reader a vivid picture of the desert place: a blanker whiteness of snow, weeds and stubble and smothered animals. On facing such a picture, one is easily preoccupied with the sense of emptiness and loneliness.
   • Kinesthetic (sense of movement): "snow falling and night falling fast". The movement gives the reader a vivid description of the snowy winter night. And one even can feel the coldness when the snow falls down and sense the loneliness when the night comes.
   • Touch: "the ground almost covered smooth in snow". When the weather is much colder than usual time the snow can be frozen and "smooth". We can imagine how inanimate the universe is in such an extreme coldness.

E.   Sound Quality

   • Assonance—
      sn**ow**, g**o**ing, alm**o**st, snow and sh**ow**ing;
      fall**ing**, fall**ing**, go**ing** and show**ing**;
      f**a**st, f**a**st, p**a**st and l**a**st;
      ar**ou**nd and c**ou**nt;
      l**o**nely, l**o**neliness, l**o**nely, sn**ow** and n**o**;
      sp**a**ces, r**a**ce and pl**a**ces.
   Almost these assonances are either long vowels or diphthongs which sounds heaviness. They can show the speaker's serious and meditative mood.
   • Consonance—
      fiel**d**, groun**d**, cover**ed**, aroun**d**, smother**ed** and spirit**ed**;
      wee**ds**, woo**ds**, their**s**, animal**s**, lair**s**, include**s** and unaware**s**;
      space**s**, star**s**, star**s**, i**s** and place**s**;
      loneline**ss**, le**ss**, whitene**ss** and expre**ss**.
   The sound [d] sounds to haste the speaker to find the unknown answers as soon as possible. And the sounds [s] and [z] sounds to heavy signs. Maybe it is difficult to find the truth during such a lonely and desperate journey, so the speaker could not help sighing again and again in response to the hastiness.
   • Alliteration—
      falling, **f**alling, **f**ast, **f**ast and **f**ield; The sound [f] alliterated five times within thirteen syllables. The reader is easy to notice such an alliterative cluster. It likes a cold air that steals across one's face. Here again emphasize the coldness of the weather and reminds us the blankness of the universe and loneliness of the speaker.
      smooth, **s**now and **s**tubble;
      lonely, **l**oneliness, **l**onely and **l**ess;
      expression and **ex**press;
      scare, **s**paces, **s**tars, **s**tars, **s**o and **s**care. Also the cluster of the sound [s] stresses again on the lonely and desperate mood of the speaker by connecting this sound with a series of signs.
   • Euphony(long vowels; liquid consonants: l & r; semi－vowels: w & y; avoidance of adjacent stresses)—
      f**a**st, f**a**st, p**a**st and l**a**st in the first stanza;
      sn**ow**, **o**h, g**o**ing, almost, sn**ow** and sh**ow**ing in the first stanza;
      lonely, **l**oneliness, **l**onely and **l**ess in the third stanza.

All these euphony make the whole poem sounds musical and harmonious.

- Cacophony—

falling, **f**alling, **f**ast, **f**ast and **f**ield in the first stanza;

fiel**d**, groun**d**, cover**ed**, aroun**d**, smother**ed** and spirit**ed** in the first and second stanza;

smooth, **s**now and **s**tubble in the first stanza;

scare, **s**paces, **s**tars, **s**tars, **s**o and **s**care in the fourth stanza.

It is observed that in this poem euphony and cacophony are always juxtaposed. It can be understood as the foreshadowing and the consistent reminder of the conflicts between man and nature or the universe that are what discussed in the poem.

F. Syntax

- Omission: "in a field I looked into going past". The relative pronoun "that" is omitted from this line. Compare this with "in a field that I looked into going past" and you can hear how the inclusion of an extra syllable breaks the slippage toward panic in the line as we have it (www.english.uiuc.edu).

G. Rhythm (Meter)

The rhythm in this poem is irregular. Such irregular rhythm helps to achieve natural speech rhythms and makes the whole poem sound like the speech of a good storyteller. This is the favorite technique that Frost uses. It can show the process of penetration into the truth from the common phenomenon. However, there are some points worthy of our attention in this poem.

The tilt of the sound is unmistakable from the beginning (www.english.uiuc.edu). "Snow falling and night falling fast, oh, fast, In a field I looked into going past…" This meter is full of the hurry and slant of driven snow, its unstoppable, anxiety－inducing forward rush, all that whispering turmoil of a blizzard (www.english.uiuc.edu). The speaker is eager and anxiety to find the truth. Then, the end stopping of the first eight lines also contributed a tensed-up, pent-up movement. And where does that line about being "too absent-spirited to count" arrive? Does it mean that the speaker does not matter? Or something else? To count what? The animals? The lairs? And what is "it" that the woods have (www.english.uiuc.edu)? Is it loneliness? The speaker is so hypnotized by the snow swirl that he does not count as consciousness anymore; he is adrift instead in the dream of smothered lairs. And those triple masculine rhymes of "fast" "past" "last" with their monosyllabic stress repeated again in "theirs" "lairs" "awares" are like the slowing of the heartbeat in the withdrawn hibernators (www.english.uiuc.edu).

Halfway through the poem, the narcotic aspect of the snowfall is predominant, and the vowel music is like a ducked pulse beat: going, covered smooth, stubble showing, smothered. But in the next eight lines we go through the nature barrier (www.english.uiuc.edu). The consolations of being "too absent-spirited to count" are disallowed and the poem suddenly blinks itself out of reverie into vision. The vowels divest themselves of their comfortable roundness, the rhymes go slender first and then go feminine:" loneliness" "less" "express" "spaces" "race is" "places". The repetition, which at the start was conductive to trance and included speaker and reader "unawares", now buzzes everybody and everything awakes (International Edition: 1829). Again, there is a disconsolateness in the way the word" lonely" keeps rebounding off its image in the word "loneliness"; and the same holds true for the closed-circuit energy if "expression" and "express". Finally there is the repetition of the word "stars". So, by such feats of mimesis and orchestration, the speaker's inwardness with all this outward blankness is established ling before he declared himself explicitly in the concluding lines (www.english.uiuc.edu).

H. Figures of Speech

- Metaphor—

(1) Desert places. It is the man's moral and spiritual wildernesses.

(2) Field. It represents nature. At first the poet sees something with appositive existence, something he can put a name to—a field. He knows it is a field because positive signs of its identity remain: the "few weeds and stubble shoeing last". It is important to understand that this is a cultivated field and not a natural clearing in the forest (www.english.uiuc.edu). As the snow piles on, the field becomes an inanimate dead thing, unmarked by the care of man, the very thing, which gave it its positive identity as a field. Remove the signs of man's involvement; it can only be identified negatively: it is the nothingness at the center of the encircling trees (www.english.uiuc.edu). This annihilation is figured as death. So the nature itself is nothingness without any inherent or priori meaning. Only human being has such power to entrust meaning to nature.

(3) Weed. It is the primitive thing without the trace of the man.

(4) Stubble. It is the trace of man's presence.

(5) Woods. They are people and society— the owner of the field, that is, the owner of the nothingness or the meaningless things. Anyway, they have something that belongs to them, something to feel a part of (goldenessays.com).

(6) Whiteness. It represents open and empty spaces (goldenessays.com).

(7) Snow. It is a white blanket that covers up everything living (goldenessays.com).

(8) Blanker. It represents the emptiness that the speaker feels. To him there is nothing else around except for the unfeeling snow and his lonely thoughts (essaymania.com).

(9) Home. It is a place that man can feel safety and finds his own identity there.

- Paradox

Snow and night. The poet sees the snow and the night descending together, black and white, working together to muffle sensation and obliterate perception (www.english.uiuc.edu). Such a strong contrast between the two colors easily makes man neglect the surroundings but only to surprise for the contrast. Yet they also work against each other, paradoxically, to heighten perception. The snow works against the night, giving ghastly light whereby to see the darkness, while the fast falling darkness gives urgency to the need to see, for the opportunity will not last long (www.english.uiuc.edu).

Weeds and stubble. Like the snow and the night, the weeds and stubble set up crosscurrents of meaning. The stubble is more clearly the hint of man's presence, the aftermath of man's contact with the land, while the weeds—which can exist only in the cultivated area—remind us of nature's persistent reclamation of the artificial (www.english.uiuc.edu). What the snow smothers is the vital conflict which the juxtaposition of "weeds and stubble" suggests (Perrine: 1987).

Plurality of material existence and his isolation and loneliness. The nature is a concrete complex of many material objects: woods, weeds, animals, and stars. The paradox here is the reorganization the plurality of material existence and understanding one's own place in the universe—isolation and loneliness.

The blanker whiteness has nothing to express. Nothing actually becomes something for once in a context, which is consistently negative. The intensity of nothingness begins to lend to that nothingness an almost palpable reality. It is after all that quantity which had defined the field and defined the port; and because nothingness is thus the landmark by which realities are known, it becomes a real, and in senses a positive quality (www.english.uiuc.edu).

- Transferred epithet

Night falling. Only snow or some concrete objects can fall, here "night fall" is a transferred epithet.

Benighted snow. The word "benighted" means "unenlightened morally or intellectually". We usually say "benighted savages" not "benighted snow". So here is a transferred epithet.

- Pun

Benighted snow. "Benighted" on one hand means the fall of night and on the other hand means the spiritual ignorance.

Race. On one hand it refers to the species, the human being; and on the other hand it means competition.

- Personification

"The wood around it have it—it is theirs".

"The loneliness includes me unawares".

"They cannot scare me with their empty spaces". "They" here means the nature.

The poem personifies the barren landscape surrounding him. At the beginning of the poem the speaker is so passive and negative that he even "too absent-spirited to count". This tendency is well presented by the use of personification. It seems that man is in the shadow of the nature. However, the poet relocated himself finally. "I have it in me", by this immigrant cry he locates himself as definer and namer and puts himself positively at the center of the universe. The experience he observes in the field literally pulls him out of himself and makes him so vulnerable to the apparent deadness that he is nearly smothered in the rarified atmosphere of a loneliness and homelessness. The poem restores him to himself, equips him with a sense of who and where he is, and defined positively in relation to the nature (www.english.uiuc.edu).

- Repetition

The words "falling" "fast" "loneliness" "lonely" "snow" "no" "nothing" and "stars" repeated again and again in the poem to reinforce the point what the poet wants to show.

- Hyperbole

"They cannot scare me with their empty spaces between stars". The comparison between the interstellar spaces and his own desert places also serves to aggrandize the speaker and the importance of his personal desert (www.english.uiuc.edu).

- Understatement

"They cannot scare me". The word "scare", usually applied to children's casual distress. Here it is an understatement emphasizing the speaker's deeply experienced stoicism (www.english.uiuc.edu).

I. Diction: Choice of Words and Choice of Details.

- Choice of words—

(1) Oh. The word "oh" appears between "fast" and "fast". "Oh" sounds like being driven hastefully by certain forces and reinforces the urgency to seek the truth.

(2) Past. The word "past" hints that the speaker does not stop seeking the truth even for a moment because the fields he describes are those he is going past (www.english.uiuc.edu).

(3) "It" in line five. The word "it" is an indefinite pronoun. It originally refers to the field mentioned before, but here it appears to show the indefiniteness and nothingness of the field.

(4) Count and unawares. We cannot be sure whether "count" is being used in its active sense (to count, to tell what is happening, to reckon up woods, animals and fields) or in its passive sense (to be counted, to count to anything or

anyone else). The following line is also enriched by its apparently careless use of "unawares", which could modify loneliness or could modify me. Again the ambiguous use of the word illustrated that very unawareness, that carelessness that causes us to associate absent-spiritedness with absent-mindedness (www.english.uiuc.edu).

(5) Ere. It is an archaic word. As we have known that Frost's language is so simple and ordinary that the common readers can understand it. But this only archaic word appears here to remind us of focusing on what the adjacent sentences want to emphasize. It emphasizes the intensification of mood. The implied rebirth in the necessary melting of the snow and the reemergence of the field as a real thing is an unassimilated lump of hope (www.english.uiuc.edu).

(6) Scare. It usually applied to children's casual distress but here stresses the speaker's deeply experienced stoicism.

(7) Race. The word "race" is an active verb while the word "is" is a static one. The two contrast words create further tensions. Grammatically the two would be awkward together, as we do not coordinate an active verb with static one. Semantically the difference is related to two conflicting needs: going, doing, rushing to compete and simply being (www.english.uiuc.edu).

J. Choice of Details

• Snow and night. Snow and night represents respectively whiteness and blackness. This choice can help form a very strong contrast to show the loneliness and emptiness. A black and white contrast is created by the vision of the snow-covered field and the night (www.helium.com). The snow works against the night, giving ghastly light whereby to see the darkness, while the fast falling darkness gives urgency to the need to see, for the opportunity will not last long.

• Weeds and stubble. They also can set up crosscurrents of meaning. I have discussed it before. It is important to understand, then, that this is a cultivated field and not a natural clearing in the forest; it is nature given purpose and identity by man. Like the snow and the night, the weeds and stubble set up crosscurrents of meaning. The stubble is more clearly the hint of man's presence (www.english.uiuc.edu), of man's contact with the land, while the weeds-which can exist only in a cultivated area-remind us of nature's persistent reclamation of the artificial (goldenessays.com).

• The use of plurality. The words weed, wood, animal, stars are all used their plural forms to show the plurality of the material universe. Thus it emphasizes the loneliness of man.

• The use of personification and "I have it in me". This shows the process of man from negativeness to positiveness, from passiveness to activeness. The poet realizes finally that what he terrifies is not the nothingness of the nature but the nothingness and separateness of inner self.

III. CONCLUSION

The entire poem is an objective correlative for the last line. The "desert places" are within and without, and Frost conveys this by both image and the sound of his lines (www.poemhunter.com).

In the first verse snow and night fall together; in the second all life is obliterated and the third sums up the aspects of nature that include the poet as an observer. The last verse refers to Pascal's famous aphorism; the silence of these infinite spaces terrifies me. Because of Frost's superb preceding lines, it carries total conviction (www.poemhunter.com).

From these analyses, we can find that the poet finally recognizes this desert place is like his life. He had let depression and loneliness creep into his life and totally takes over like the snow had crept up on the plain and silently covered it (studentacademichelp.blogspot.com). If he does not want to live in the world meaninglessly like the nature, he should not have shut himself off to the world and let such feelings as loneliness, nothingness and coldness...run his life.

APPENDIX A

Sow falling and night falling fast, oh, fast
In a field I looked into going past,
And the ground almost covered smooth in snow,
But a few weeds and stubble showing last.

The woods around it have it—it is theirs.
All animals are smothered in their lairs.
I am too absent-spirited to count;
The loneliness includes me unawares.

And lonely as it is, that loneliness
Will be more lonely ere it will be less—
A blanker whiteness of benighted snow.
With no expression, nothing to express.

They cannot scare me with their empty spaces

Between stars—on stars where no human race is.
I have it in me so much nearer home
To scare myself with my own desert places.
Desert Places (Robert Frost: 1936)

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The Relationship between Shyness, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety, Willingness to Communicate, Gender, and EFL Proficiency

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Abstract—The present study aimed to examine the relationship found between shyness, foreign language classroom anxiety, willingness to communicate, gender, and EFL proficiency. To this end, sixty EFL undergraduates (40 females and 20 males) majoring in English Translation were selected through simple random sampling. Stanford Shyness Inventory by Zimbardo (1977), Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale by Horwitz et al. (1986), and Willingness to Communicate Scale by McCroskey and Richmond (1987) were used to measure students' shyness, FLCA, and WTC respectively. Moreover, students' average score in their specialized courses were taken as a measure of their EFL proficiency. Analysis of the results showed that there is no significant relationship between shyness, foreign language classroom anxiety, willingness to communicate, gender, and EFL proficiency. The results have beneficial implications for teaching methodology and syllabus design.

Index Terms—shyness, foreign language classroom anxiety, willingness to communicate, gender, EFL proficiency

I. INTRODUCTION

Considerable variation has been observed in the rate of second language learning by individuals and in their ultimate language attainment. The reason is basically due to the complex nature of language which is affected by many variables, some of which are affective. Discussing affective variable in the realm of language learning and teaching is not a new trend. Inquiry in the psychological aspect of learning stems from arrival of humanistic psychology. Due to Rogers' and other humanistic theorists' works the effective side of human being received considerable attention (Pazouki, 2009). Humanistic psychology has also made its way into many fields ranging from building design to music, etc. (Arnold & Brown, 1999).

According to Brown (2007), the concept of affect encompasses emotions and feelings and the development of affective states entails various personality factors. He believes that personality factors are the intrinsic side of affectivity which increases our success in language learning. Moreover, Schumann (1998) asserts that affective contributions act as key factors in language learning. Meanwhile, gender which is a physiological factor has its own impact on the language learning (Brown, 2000).

Most personality factors including shyness, willingness to communicate, foreign language anxiety, as well as gender that have an impact on language learning have been studied. The conflicting results of such studies were the motive behind carrying out the current research. The purpose of this study is to find out the relationship between the shyness, FLCA, WTC, gender, and EFL proficiency.

II. PREVIOUS STUDIES

A. Shyness

Shyness is one of the personality factors which has been widely researched and discussed in the literature (Chu, 2008). Some studies suggest that the common existence of shyness is intensifying (Carduci & Zimbardo, 1995). Some view it as a form of social anxiety (Buss, 1980; Zimbardo, 1977), others view it as pattern of avoidant, reticent, and inhibited behavior (Phillips, 1980; Pilkonis, 1977a), still other researchers such as Croizer (1979), and Jones and

Russell (1982) believe that it encompasses the both previously mentioned views. According to Saunders and Chester (2008), due to its breadth, it is difficult to define shyness. Shyness has been approached as a character trait, a state of inhibition and at times an attitude (Lewinsky, 1941). Pilkonis (1977a) defines it as propensity to keep away from appropriate participation in social situations. According to Buss (1985) it turns out to be some kind of uneasiness, inhibition, and gracelessness in social situations, particularly in situations dealing with unfamiliar people. Garcia et al. (1991) view shyness as a kind of worry and restraint in others attendance. Henderson and Zimbardo (1998a) define shyness as preoccupation with one's thoughts and reactions leading to lack of comfort in interpersonal context.

Hidden shyness while significant is an extreme concern with the so called self-presentation. Self-Presentation Theory is based on the assumption that in social and public contexts individuals try to take control of images of self or information related to identity (Stritzke, Nguyen, & Durkin, 2004). Thus, individuals prefer to say nothing than to be disapproved or be rejected by others (Saunders & Chester, 2008).

Shyness has been categorized differently by different researchers based on its gravity. Zimbardo (1977) classifies shyness into three subgroups: Individuals who are not after social interaction and prefer loneliness, individuals feeling unwilling to contact or get close to others, are socially unskilled and exhibit no self-confidence, and individuals who are concerned about violating social rules and others' expectations. Pilkonis (1977 a, b) distinguishes private shy from publically shy. Buss (1980), classifies shyness into fearful shy individual versus self-conscious shy individuals.

There are five reaction provoking situations which are distinctively associated with shyness: Interactions with authorities, one to one confrontation with the opposite gender, conversation with unidentified individuals, being focused by other persons in a small group, and situations in which a person is being evaluated in (Henderson & Zimbardo, 1998a). According to Chu (2008), there is a moderately positive correlation found between shyness and FL anxiety. He also found a negative relationship between shyness and willingness to communicate in both first and second language. Also, some studies point to sex differences in shyness in adolescence (Saunders & Chesters, 2008). According to Zimbardo, adolescent girls are slightly shyer than adolescent boys (1977).

Furthermore, with regard to language learning, Crozier (1997) documented that less shy children outperformed more shy ones in formal fluency and expressive vocabulary tasks. Besides, there was found to be a significant difference between shy and non-shy students regarding failing records (Amini, 1999). It was found that shy groups failed more than non-shy ones. Also, Sepehrband (2000) reported a better performance by non-shy students in comparison with the shy students. However, there was found no relationship between the two in a research done by Meftah (2002). Nevertheless, researches done by Allvar (2003), and Pazouki and Rastegar (2009) revealed the negative effect of shyness on the number and the type of strategies used by students, and on the language proficiency respectively.

B. Foreign Language Anxiety

Language anxiety is one of the main factors which influence language learning, no matter what the learning setting is (Oxford, 1999). Consideration of language learners' anxiety reactions is very important for a teacher if he/she is going to assist students in achieving the known performance goals in the intended target language (Tanveer, 2007), and also in developing communication skills (Hashemi, 2011). According to Cao (2011), anxiety is one of the widely observed affective factors in EFL/ESL learning. It is a psychological construct, usually described by psychologist as a feeling of apprehension, an implicit fear which is associated with an object only in an indirect way (Hilgard, Atkinson, & Atkinson, 1971). It is a unique type of anxiety which is specific to foreign language learning (Horwitz et al., 1986). Besides, MacIntyre and Gardener (1994) described it as a state of tension specially related to the second language context containing skills such as speaking, listening, and learning.

Morris, Davis, and Hutchings (1981) classified anxiety as cognitive and somatic anxiety. Cognitive anxiety refers to mental aspect of anxiety such as negative expectation. Somatic anxiety refers to learners' perception of the psychological effect of the anxiety experience. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) proposed that FL anxiety has three components: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. Cheng (2004) has classified FL anxiety into cognitive, physiological, and avoidance behavior. Additionally, psychologists have made a distinction between three classes of anxiety: state anxiety, trait anxiety, and situation-specific anxiety (Hashemi, 2011). Trait anxiety is a more lingering personality characteristic while state anxiety is a temporary anxiety (Spielberg, 1983). Finally, the situation-specific anxiety refers to permanent nature of some kinds of anxieties (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a).

There can be found various sources for language anxiety. It may stem from the persons' own self or from intrinsic motivators within social context (Shwartz, 1972; cited in Scovel, 1991). Moreover, Sparks and Ganschow believe that language anxiety may be a consequence as well as a source of inadequate grasp of language (Sparks & Ganschow; cited in Horwitz, 2001). Regarding the effect of FLA on WTC, Chu (2008) found a negative effect of the first on the second factor. With regard to gender, Mejlas, Applebaum, and Trotter (1991) found a higher level of anxiety in males in comparison with females. However, studies done by Machida (2001), and Rezazadeh and Tavakoli (2009) showed the opposite results. Still, another study by Hussain, Shahid, and Zaman (2011) showed less anxiety among girls in comparison with boys.

Second language researchers and theorists have long been aware that anxiety is often associated with language learning (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). Growing number of the literature shows both facilitative and debilitative effect of anxiety. Some found positive relationship (Chastain, 1975; Kleinmann, 1977), others found a negative

relationship (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope,1986; Krashen, 1985; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989), still some believe that anxiety is probably an outcome of poor achievement in language learning, not the cause of it (Sparks, Ganschow, & Javorsky, 2000).

C. Willingness to Communicate (WTC)

WTC is a basic acquisition concept in second language studies (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998). MacIntyre et al. (1998) propose that the main goal of language instruction should be WTC. Dörnyei (2003) points out that, L2 competence by itself is not enough. Learners need both the ability and the willingness to communicate. The foundation of research on WTC refers back to Burgoon's (1976) study on being reluctant to communicate, Mortensen, Arntson, and Lustig's (1977) predisposition toward verbal behavior, and McCroskey and Richmond's (1982) conceptualization of shyness.

According to McCroskey and Baer (1985), WTC is the likelihood of engagement in communication when we have a free choice to do so. This definition limits WTC to a personality trait rather than situation based variables (MacIntyre et al., 1998). In fact, it is the predisposition to open conversation with others (McCroskey, 1997). Regarding the effective factors in WTC, researchers found communicative competence and communication anxiety to be significant predictors of WTC (MacIntyre, 1994; MacIntyre et al., 2001). Other individual differences, like previous immersion experience (MacIntyre et al., 2003a), sex and age (MacIntyre et al., 2003b), and attitudes toward the international community (Yashima et al, 2004), have also been found to influence WTC. There are several models that researchers have proposed in the WTC literature.

D. McCroskey's Willingness-to-communicate Model

Stemming from the early work of Philips (1965, 1968) on reticence, of Burgoon (1976) on unwillingness to communicate, and of Mortensen, Arntson, and Lustig (1977) on liability toward verbal behavior, the concept of Willingness to Communicate (WTC) was first presented by McCroskey and his associates (McCroskey & Baer, 1985; McCroskey & Richmond, 1987) with reference to L1 use and speaking as its focus. In this model, WTC is treated as a personality trait and defined as a tendency to start the conversation. McCroskey and McCroskey (1986a) found the negative relationship between L1 WTC and communication apprehension, introversion, alienation, and anomie.

Moreover, they also found a positive relationship between WTC, self-esteem and communication competence perceived by individuals (McCroskey & McCroskey, 1986a). Additionally, Chan and McCroskey (1987) asserted that WTC has a positive effect on the verbal participation of students in the classroom.

E. Clement's and MacIntyre's Willingness-to-communicate Models

In contrast with the above-mentioned view of McCroskey, other researchers found it inadequate to treat WTC as a trait-like attribute. They argued that WTC could be situation-specific and that it's not transferrable from L1to L2. Clement and MacIntyre are proponents of this view.

F. Clement's Social Context Model (Clement, 1980; Clement & Kruidenier, 1985)

In this model, the emphasis is on the association between intergroup contacts, L2 confidence, L2 competence, and L2 identity. The model suggests that the quality and frequency of approaches with the EFL/ESL community is the source of variations in L2 confidence, which is composed of perceived communicative competence and lower levels of L2 anxiety. In addition, there found to be a link between L2 confidence and growth of L2 communication competence, better identification with the L2 community, and increase in assimilation motive (Clement et al., 2003; Noels & Clement, 1996). However, this model is not concerned with L2 usage.

G. Heuristic Model of Variables Influencing WTC

Based on Clement's Social Context Model, MacIntyre and his colleagues (MacIntyre, Dornyei, Clement, & Noels, 1998) argued that WTC should be treated as a situational variable that can be affected by linguistic, communicative, social, and psychological factors, the group that he or she belongs to, and the L2 community. So, they presented a heuristic model of variables influencing WTC in which both proximal and distal causes that affect individual's variation in WTC are included. The model has six layers, with the top three being situation-specific and the bottom three more enduring. L2 use (layer 1), willingness to communicate (layer 2), and tendency to communicate with particular individuals and state communicative self-confidence (layer 3) are situation-specific influences. More persisting effects include interpersonal and between-group motivations and L2 self-confidence (layer 4), Intergroup reactions, social context and communicative competence (layer 5), and intergroup atmosphere and personality (layer 6). In this model, the most immediate antecedents for WTC are the eagerness to communicate with a specific people and state communicative self-confidence.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants for this study included 60 undergraduates (40 females and 20 males) of English Translation at Shahid Bahonar University of Kerman who were selected through simple random sampling. They were also homogenized through the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) as far as language proficiency was concerned.

B. Instruments

Shyness: in order to measure the amount of shyness in the participants, Stanford Shyness Inventory was used. This inventory has been first developed by Zimbardo at Stanford University in 1977. The original form consisted of 44 items. In order to make it compatible with the cultural setting in Iran (Pazouki, 2005), the inventory had been modified and reduced to 40 items. Each item which was expressed in the form of a statement had four choices as possible answers, each of which indicated a degree in shyness. From the lowest to the highest degree, each item received 1, 2, 3, and 4 scores. So, the range of scores was from 40 (the least shy) to 160 (the shyest) (Pazouki, 2005). The reliability of the test for boys was 0.82 and for girls was 0.86 and for the whole population was 0.84 which is quite satisfactory.

Foreign Language anxiety: Horwitz et al.'s (1986) 'Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale' was used to determine the students' foreign language anxiety level. This is a Likert scale including 33 items which has students respond to situations and contexts that are exclusive to foreign language learning anxiety. This scale reflected three constituting parts of foreign language anxiety; namely, communication apprehension, anxiety in tests, and fear of being negatively evaluated (Ganschow & Sparks, 1996). Responses ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree. For every single item, the highest level of anxiety scores five and the lowest, one point. Students' scores ranged from 33 to 165. The internal consistency of the scale was 0.93 and its reliability was 0.83 (Horwitz, 1986).

Willingness to Communicate: willingness to Communicate Scale (McCroskey & Richmond, 1987) was utilized to assess willingness to communicate in the students. It is a 20-item scale, 8 of which are fillers and the remaining12 are scored as part of the scale. The 12 items on the scale show the crossing of three kinds of receivers (i.e. acquaintances, strangers, and friends) with four communication context types (group, public, meeting, and dyad). For each item to be answered, students had to indicate the percentage of their eagerness to communicate in the specified situation ranging from 0 to a 100 percent. To compute the total WTC scores, the sub-scores for stranger, acquaintance, and friend were added and then divided by 3. The estimates of internal reliability of the total score on the instrument ranged from 0.86 to 0.95 with a modal estimate of 0.92 (McCroskey, 1992).

IV. FINDINGS

The finding of this research showed no relationship between shyness, foreign language anxiety, willingness to communicate, gender, and foreign language proficiency. Upon analysis of the obtained data with SPSS (version 18) the following results were found.

A. Descriptive Statistics

In order to demonstrate the correlation and difference between several factors involved in language learning in the current study, descriptive statistics were run. As Table 1 shows, the descriptive results for the 4 factors of shyness, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA), Willingness to Communicate (WTC) along with Gender and EFL Proficiency (GPA) exhibits distinct means for all the factors. This would lay further proof on the fact that EFL learners' performance in each category may act independently from the remaining factors.

TABLE I
THE DISCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
EFL Proficiency	60	6.05	12.90	18.95	15.997	1.332	1.776
WTC	60	92.00	6.00	98.00	23.966	12.105	146.541
FLCA	60	57.00	60.00	117.00	84.000	16.295	265.559
Shyness	60	640.00	66.00	706.00	96.633	80.580	6493.185
Valid N (listwise)	60						

B. Shyness and FLCA

In order to analyze the relationship between each pair of the factors, the correlation coefficient between two of them (i.e. FLCA and shyness) was checked.

TABLE II
CORRELATION MATRIX

	Shyness	FLCA	WTC	EFL proficiency
Shyness	1.000	.320	.130	.313
FLCA	.320	1.000	.695	.811
WTC	.130	.695	1.000	.749
EFL Proficiency	.313	.811	.749	1.000

As Table 2 shows, the significance value of 0.320 is higher than 0.05. This means that there is no significant relationship between the two factors.

C. Shyness and WTC

In order to analyze the relationship between another pair of the factors, the correlation coefficient between a different pair of factors (i.e. shyness and WTC) was checked. As can be seen in Table 2, the value of Sig= 0.130 shows no significant relationship between shyness and willingness to communicate.

D. Shyness and Gender

In order to analyze the relationship between another pair of the factors, the correlation coefficient between gender and shyness was checked. Table 3 shows a series of independent samples t-tests from which it can be seen that there is no significant relationship between shyness and gender as the value of Sig=0.442 further clarifies the point.

TABLE III.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. Error differences	95% confidence interval of the difference	
								Lower	Upper
GPA Equal variances assumed	.436	.511	1.304	58	.197	.473	.362	-.253	1.199
Equal variances not assumed			1.356	42.341	.182	.473	.348	-.230	1.176
WTC Equal variances assumed	2.550	.116	1.211	58	.231	4.000	3.302	-2.609	10.609
Equal variances not assumed			1.554	56.184	.126	4.000	2.573	-1.155	9.155
FLCA Equal variances assumed	4.266	0.43	1.600	58	115	7.050	4.404	-1.767	15.867
Equal variances not assumed			1.758	48.824	.085	7.050	4.009	-1.008	15.108
Shyness Equal variances assumed	1.333	.253	.775	58	.442	17.150	22.143	-27.174	61.474
Equal variances Not assumed			1.095	39.980	.280	17.150	15.664	-14.509	48.809

E. Shyness and Language Proficiency

The next relationship focused on checking two more factors of shyness and EFL proficiency. The results are summarized in Table 2. As Table 2 shows, no significant relationship was found between shyness and EFL proficiency, since the value of Sig=0.313 is higher than 0.05.

F. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety and WTC

Regarding the connection between FLA and WTC, no significant relationship was found. As Table 2 shows, in this case Sig=0.695 which is higher than α (Sig > α) implies a non-significant relationship between these two factors.

G. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety and Gender

Table 3 illustrates that there is no significant relationship between the two factors of gender and classroom anxiety. It can be seen in independent samples t-test results (i.e. Sig=0.085).

H. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety and Language Proficiency

A further analysis of the relationship between classroom anxiety and language proficiency also exhibited   non-significance. As Table 2 shows, there is no significant relationship between FLCA and language proficiency (Sig= 0.811 i.e. Sig >α).

I. WTC and Gender

Table 3 illustrates that there found to be no significant relationship between WTC and gender. (Here Sig=0.231, so Sig >α).

J. WTC and Language Proficiency

Table 2 describes the relationship between WTC and language proficiency. As it can be realized from Table 2, the relationship between the two mentioned factors is not significant, because Sig=0.749 i.e. Sig>α.

K. Gender and Language Proficiency

Like the relationship between other factors in this research, as it is shown in Table 3, no significant relationship was found between gender and language proficiency.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The present study has pointed towards the relationship between four different influential factors in learning; namely, shyness, FLCA, WTC, gender, and EFL proficiency. Regarding the relationship between shyness and FLCA, and shyness and WTC, the result of the study showed no significant relationship between these factors which is in contrast with the findings of Chu (2008) who found a moderately positive relationship between shyness and FLCA, and a negative relationship between shyness and WTC.

Also, unlike studies by Saunders & Chesters (2008) who reported sex differences in shyness in adolescence and Zimbardo (1977) who found that adolescent females were mildly shyer than adolescent boys, the finding of this study showed a non-significant relationship between shyness and gender.

Regarding shyness and language proficiency, the finding of this study is supported by Meftah (2002) who found no relationship between the two factors. However, it contrasts with the findings of Crozier (1997), Sepehrband (2000), and Amini (1999) who reported better performance of non-shy students in comparison with the shy one's.

Moreover, in the case of FLCA and WTC, no significant relationship was found. This finding disagrees with the result of a study by Chu (2008), who found a negative relationship between the two factors. Also, contrary to the findings of Mejlas, Applebaum, and Trotter (1991) who found a higher level of anxiety in males in comparison with females, and Machida (2001), and Rezazadeh and Tavakoli (2009) who showed more anxiety in females in comparison with males, this study showed no significant relationship between the two factors.

With regard to FLCA and EFL proficiency, it was found that the relationship is not significant based on the results of this study. However, this is not in line with the findings of Kleinmann (1977) who found a positive and Krashen (1985) who found a negative relationship between the two factors. Similarly, no significant relationship was found between WTC and gender, WTC and language proficiency, and gender and language proficiency.

Finally, the present study suffered from a number of limitations, two of which are addressed here. First, the small number of participants (N=60) may have affected the result of the study. However, it was impossible to address a larger group of participants due to manageability concerns. Second, although the participants in this study were homogenized through the oxford placement test, the average level of Iranian EFL proficiency level may have diversely influenced the result of this piece of research since language proficiency of most Iranian L2 learners is generally lower that the global standard.

APPENDIX A. FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY SCALE (HORWITZ ET AL., 1986)

1..Strongly agree   **2.** Agree   **3.** Neither agree nor disagree   **4.** Disagree   **5.**Strongly disagree

	1	2	3	4	5
1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.	1	2	3	4	5
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5
5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.	1	2	3	4	5
6. During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.	1	2	3	4	5
12. In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.	1	2	3	4	5
13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I often feel like not going to my language class.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.	1	2	3	4	5
21. The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.	1	2	3	4	5
28. When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5
32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5
33. I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX B. WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE SCALE (MCCROSKEY & RICHMOND, 1987)

Directions: *Below are twenty situations in which a person might choose to communicate or not to communicate. Presume you have completely free choice. Indicate the percentage of times you would chose to communicate in each type of situation. Indicate at the space in the right what present of the time you would chose to communicate.*

0= Never   100= Always

1. Talk with a service station attendant. …………….
2. Talk with a physician. …………….
3. Present a talk to a group of strangers …………….
4. Talk with an acquaintance while standing in line. …………….
5. Talk with a sales person in a store. …………….
6. Talk in a large meeting of friend. …………….
7. Talk with a police officer. …………….
8. Talk in a small group of strangers. …………….
9. Talk with a friend while standing in line. ……………..
10. Talk with a waiter/waitress in a restaurant. ……………..
11. Talk in a large meeting of acquaintances. …………….
12. Talk with a stranger while standing in line. ……………..
13. Talk with a secretary. ……………..
14. Present a talk to a group of friends. ……………...
15. Talk in a small group of acquaintances. ……………...
16. Talk with a garbage collector. ……………...
17. Talk in large meeting of strangers. ……………...
18. Talk with a spouse (or girl/ boyfriend). ……………...
19. Talk in a small group of friends. ……………....
20. Present a talk to a group of acquaintances. ……………....

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A Tentative Study on the Functions and Applications of English Euphemism

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Abstract—**English Euphemism is not only a social phenomenon, but also a lingual phenomenon. In social interaction, people have to use different words to convey their thoughts and ideas. In order to avoid the embarrassment or ease the sting of harsh words, man has created euphemism. In western cultures, people have been using euphemism widely in many different fields. The originality of this paper lies in the study of English euphemism from the perspective of pragmatics. This paper introduces the features, functions and the applications of English euphemism, intending to help people better understand euphemism and make good use of them in real communication.**

Index Terms—**English euphemism, feature, function, application**

I. INTRODUCTION

In social interaction, people have to use different words to convey their thoughts and ideas. However, some of the words are unhappy, impolite and embarrassed if directly spoken, which often make the communication unpleasant. In order to avoid the embarrassment or ease the sting of harsh words, man has created euphemism. English euphemism is a lingual phenomenon existing in human society. It plays an important role in facilitating social interaction.

In etymology, the word euphemism is derived from a Greek word which means "to speak favorably". So the essence of euphemism lies in the use of inoffensive words or phrases instead of offensive or harsh ones. Euphemism has the function of politeness and beautification, which is helpful to develop benign communication. Accordingly, it's widely used in our daily communication to express something unpleasant.

The exact nature of the relationship between language and culture has fascinated, and continues to fascinate, people form a wide variety of backgrounds. That there should be some kind of relationship between the sounds, words, and syntax of a language and the ways in which speakers of that language experience the world and behave in it seems as obvious as to be truism. It would appear that the only problem is deciding the nature of the relationship and finding suitable ways to demonstrate it. Almost all cultures seem to have certain notions or unpleasant things that people try to avoid mentioning directly, even when there is such a term in a language. When such a notion or thing has to be referred to, the practice will be a substitute that sounds better. That's the coming of euphemisms. So we can see that euphemism have a strong relationship with our culture backgrounds, especially taboo words. The appearance of euphemism gives that better sound. That's the result of human development. If we want euphemism to help our communication in our daily life, we should know some of its basic knowledge.

A. Definition of Euphemism

The word "euphemism" is derived from a Greek word meaning "to speak favorably", or good speech. It is defined in Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English as the use of a pleasanter, less direct name for something thought to be unpleasant. The New Edition of the Oxford Concise Dictionary defines euphemism as substitution of mild or vague or roundabout expression for harsh or direct one; expression thus substituted. Although these definitions are a bit different, they all reflect one phenomenon, i.e. There are some things in our life that should not be stated bluntly or truthfully. And there are times when it is necessary, even wise, not to call a spade a spade, but to use some better-sounding names. (Feng, 1983)

So far, euphemism has different definitions in different books and there is not a universally accepted one. Here are some influential definitions:

In 1995, Concise Oxford Dictionary in 9th edition defines euphemism as a mild or vague expression substituted for one thought to be too harsh or direct.

In 1996, Pocket Oxford English-Chinese Dictionary gives the definition of euphemism as a mild or vague expression substituted for a harsher or more direct one.

In 1997, Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary lists a new definition: use of pleasant, mild or indirect words or phrases in place of more accurate or direct ones.

From these different definitions, there is something in common: euphemism is used to refer a mode of expression which is mild, vague and polite used to mean something unpleasant.

But why are people unwilling to say or express something explicitly? In fact, words themselves are meaningless with the sounds and forms. It is the accumulated associations with real objects and ideas the words provoke that give them

meaning. When a word is attached with psychologically unpleasant elements, people try to find a colored word to avert an unpleasant fact. Therefore, it is natural for euphemisms to come into being and be used to soften an offensive or unpleasant expression.

B.   Introduction of English Euphemism

English euphemism is a lingual phenomenon existing in human society. It plays an important role in facilitating social interaction. Euphemism is an important rhetorical means in English. It is not only a cultural phenomenon, but also a social phenomenon. It just likes a mirror, which reflects some social and psychological phenomena. The pragmatic functions of English euphemism in its application scope can be used as evidence to show that euphemism is more of a communicative means than of a rhetorical device.

II.   FEATURES OF EUPHEMISM

A.   Euphemism in Our Daily Life.

Words of euphemism were and still are widely used in our daily life. In different cultures, things related to sex and sexual relationships are avoided. For example, fuck, have sexual intercourse etc. were usually replaced by "go to bed together", "have relation" etc. Old people are usually sensitive to old age and death. People would use "elderly" or "experience" to describe their physical condition.

B.   Euphemism in Different Genders

Nowadays, with the development of the society, women's social and family status has been higher and higher. Words related to women's physical situation have been greatly avoided. Much euphemism was and is still used in our daily life. We often hear young ladies refer to their monthly period as "the old friend" or something like that. Of course we have to show respect to women both physically and linguistically. In many countries words related to women's physical condition are taboos. Even today we can never say a fat lady "being fat". Instead we use words like "overweight" or something like that. All this helped people to use euphemism in our daily life.

C.   Euphemism from Different People of Social Status

Generally speaking, there were three classes of ordinary citizens among the population, namely, upper, middle and lower classes. Each class helped to use euphemism respectively. The upper -class didn't have to worry about the taboos in their daily life as they had the power both economically and psychologically because they were wealthy and they received good education. Those who belong to the lower class wanted to improve their social status. They were very cautious about the language they use in daily utterances for fear of offending the rich and powerful people. The middle -class people helped to develop and spread the euphemism in their daily lives. People never used the words like "death", "naked" etc. This phenomenon greatly promoted the use and spread of euphemism which in turn encouraged people to use euphemism.

D.   Euphemism from Psychological Point of View in Ancient Times

Euphemism is the reflection of people's social psychology. It is closely related to the development of the society. In the ancient times when people were uncivilized, uneducated and primitive, they couldn't explain strange occurrences like earthquake, solar and lunar eclipse, death of people etc. Therefore people invented so called "elegant words" to replace words of obscene, vulgar and profane. For example, the most fearful word "death" was expressed in various sorts of ways like "pass away", "fall asleep", "go away" etc. also in the ancient times when astronomy was not very developed, people didn't know anything about solar and lunar eclipse. They referred to the lunar eclipse as "The dog has eaten the moon" as they were much frightened by it.

III.   THE PRAGMATIC ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH EUPHEMISM

From the perspective of pragmatics, euphemism violates the cooperative principle, and meanwhile observes the politeness principle and the face theory, which makes euphemism an effective facilitating method in English teaching as affective factors have interrelationship with second language teaching and euphemism has involved human emotion. Euphemism is an important rhetorical means in English. It is not only a cultural phenomenon, but also a social phenomenon. It just likes a mirror, which reflects some social and psychological phenomena.

A.   The Pragmatic Functions of English Euphemism

Euphemism in different cultures shares the same psychological and linguistic pattern as the basis of their formation. A word can be thought of as a reaction to stimulus. When a word has long been associated with the stimulus it causes, the word itself carries some characteristics of the stimulating subject. If some elements of the reaction are closely related with the word that describes them, people tend to substitute the word by a word, which does not have such negative associations.

Euphemism is commonly used in many aspects of daily and social life such as physiological phenomena of human body, political, economic, military affairs as well as other social problems. The pragmatic functions of English

euphemism in its application scope can be used as evidence to show that euphemism is more of a communicative means than of a rhetorical device.

Euphemism is formed in many ways. Semantically, they are generally built in the following five manners. Firstly, they can be created by borrowing from other languages linguistic forms, which have less negative associations, for example, the latin word mistruation for the vulgar indo-european word piss. Secondly, they can be coined by widening the lexical meaning, as social disease for syphilis. Thirdly, semantic shift contributes its share, as rear end for buttocks and to sleep with for to have sexual intercourse with. Fourthly, metaphorical transfer creates euphemisms by cherry for hymen and blossom for papule. The last, but not the least, is phonetic distortion, which creates euphemisms out of the existing words people do not venture to speak of, by abbreviation (as ladies for ladies room), apocopation (as vamp for vampire), initiating (as JC for Jesus Christ), back forming (as burgle for burglar), reduplication (as peepee for piss), and other means.

a. The Function of Being Polite

With the development of social economy, people spontaneously pursue the language civilization to show that they are civilized and cultivated. So when people have to refer to something unpleasant, they prefer to employ some mild, implicit and euphemistic expressions. In such cases, the practice of euphemism shows its politeness function. Here, the key point of politeness function is to respect others, to express something politely, so as to keep people from being hurt and make them accept those things pleasantly. In communication with others, euphemisms can help people form a positive communication atmosphere and establish harmonious social relationship and eventually obtain the communication goals.

"Old" is a very sensitive word to many people in the English speaking countries, because "old" gives people an impression that someone is useless to society. So usually, we use "senior citizens" or "superior citizens" to refer to the old people. And "feel one's age" is used to mean "get old". Besides, the word "poor" also has many euphemisms. During the last twenty years or so, several other words have been trying to take its place, at least among educated and in "officialese". As some unfortunate person put it: "At first I was poor, then I became needy, later I was underprivileged. Now I'm disadvantaged. I still don't have a cent to my name, but I sure have a great vocabulary". Among them, the words "poor, needy, underprivileged, disadvantaged" all have the same meaning in essence, but more euphemistic than the former one.

In education, euphemisms are likewise prolific. Some people prefer educator to teacher. Students are still students, but comments about them need to be carefully considered. Negative expressions have given way to more positive ones. The comment for a below average student might be that he/she is working at his/her own level, which does't hurt anyone s pride. Can do better work with help doesn't sound bad either; it s just a less offensive way of saying a student is slow or stupid. And if a student cheats in class, the teacher would rather say He depends on others to do his work.

b. The Function of Gloss-over

The emergence of euphemisms also has something to do with the language sensitivity. From about the time when people began to know beauty and ugliness, to distinguish between kindness and evil, they had already got some shame about sex, certain parts of their body, etc. And with the development of society, the range of the lexical sensitivity is spreading. This provides an open air for the gloss -over function of Euphemisms. Even in the modern world today, people may still feel somewhat shameful when speaking of the sexual acts. They would like to use "have physical contract with", "sleep with", "go to bed with" or "make love" to express the same meaning. And "free love" is called trial marriage; "illegitimate child" becomes love child. Besides, people rarely use the word "homosexual" instead, they like to replace it by "gay", "comrade", or "queer".

As for human body, people usually use the following words to refer to some sensitive parts, for instance, they like to substitute abdomen for belly, posterior for buttocks, chest/bosom for breasts, limb for leg. And as for the physical shortcomings, "physically handicapped" is usually substituted for "crippled". If someone is deaf, people would rather say "He is hard of hearing"; if blind, people would say "He is visually retarded".

Additionally, in recent years, more and more euphemisms are being used in talking about social life and social affairs. For example, euphemisms are used in referring to occupation either to conceal unpleasantness, or to improve social status. There are fewer occupations called jobs; many have become professions. A garbage collector is described as a sanitary engineer; a gardener is called a landscape architect; a barber is called a hair stylist or a hair ologist; and salesmen are beautified as customers' representatives. Besides, some professions that people despise also have many euphemisms. Prostitute is addressed as lady of the evening, business girl, harlot or streetwalker. And it is ironical that the prostitutes themselves call their occupation as business, or even as social service.

c. The Function of Avoiding Taboo

Some English euphemisms are associated with taboo. Taboo exists in every language. Euphemisms can be used as substitutes in order to avoid embarrassment, anxiety and public shame caused by taboo words. For example, "God" Is replaced by "Gad", "Satan" by "the good man", and "die" by "pass away".

Taboo is one way in which a society expresses its disapproval of certain kinds of behavior believed to be harmful to its members, either for supernatural reasons or because such behavior is held to violate a moral code. Consequently, so far as language is concerned, certain things are not be said or certain objects can be referred to only in certain circumstances, for example, only by certain people, or through deliberate circumlocutions, i.e. euphemistically. Of

course, there are always those who are prepared to break the taboos in an attempt to show their own freedom from such restrictions or to express the taboos as irrational and unjustified, as in certain movements for 'free speech'.

In recent times, more and more euphemisms are being used in taking about social life and social affairs. The name of some professions can be very misleading; for example, landscape architect for gardener, beautician for hair dresser, building engineer for janitor, prison officer for gardener and funeral director for undertaker. In international relations, "dressed -up" expressions have become commonplace. Third world countries named backward countries, undeveloped -countries, developing countries, emerging nations and less developed countries. "Taboo and euphemism affect all of us. Each social group is different from every other in how it constrains linguistic behavior in this way, but constrains in the some such way it certainly does."(Ronald, 1986, p.231)

d. The Function of Disguising

Euphemism can be used to beautify things to avoid negative impact and it is not always used out of good motives. By using euphemism, ambiguity can be produced and truth can be hidden. As a consequence, some profiteers and politicians are likely to use euphemism to make it a language of deceit. For example, in 1983, American arms invaded Grenada. The American President Reagan fit to be tied because news reporters used the words "invade" very much in reporting the news. On the other hand, Reagan called it "rescue mission".

Since euphemisms often express something in an implicit and roundabout way, sometimes this may cause ambiguity and people may feel confused about them. So, politicians, statesmen and businessmen always make full use of this feature to mask the reality, exonerate their guilt and raise high the quality of their goods, thus making euphemisms have the disguise function. The primary feature of euphemism here is to numb the public without telling a downright lie yet to get an almost equally desirable response. Therefore, "industrial climate" means "dispute between employer and employee". And an economic crisis is another subject for euphemism. The prewar word "slump" was soon replaced by "depression", then by the word "recession". Now "recession" is replaced by "downturn". Besides, war is a fertile time for language. Governments need euphemisms to persuade people to put up with the sufferings of war. Therefore, attack is active defense; the aggressive action is preemptive action; surprise attacks against enemies are now termed preemptive strikes. To retreat is to retire to prepared positions or to break off contact with enemy. To take out a city is to blast it to destruction.

B. Euphemism and Harmonious Principle

Harmony is a maxim in communication. Tactfully expressing ideas can decrease unpleasure. So, the purpose of communication should be close. If the addressee is pleased with the addresser's words, the conversation comes to harmonious level. Approach Maxim is a maxim of Harmonious Principle. It means addresser and addressees regulate acts on purpose and harmonize communication to decrease the original difference of both sides. One is that the verbal style of the addresser and addressee has the tendency of approaching, the other is the speech-act of addresser and addressee harmoniously matched and connected.

Euphemism strengthens the acceptable agreement of verbal acceptable in a euphemistic way. For example, the nurse injects the patient. She failed the first time, and she had to inject again. She said, "I'm sorry, I did not inject well, making you suffer a lot, would you please cooperate again ?" Generally speaking, the patient will cooperate with the nurse. But if the nurse said, "Your arm is so fat that I can't find the pulse." The patient may get angry with the nurse, and their conversation will not get to harmony. But in the first conversation, the nurse owes the failure to herself, and she uses the euphemism "Would you please..." which makes the effect of conversation quite different from the first one.

There is another example; a customer went into a clothes shop. She wanted to buy a blouse. She has tried several blouses, but they were not fit. Then the shop assistant said, "You are plump, would you like this full size one?" Then the customer responded, "I would like to have a try. Thank you."

In this conversation, the shop assistant used "full size", to show the woman should wear the biggest one. She regulated her words and made them more acceptable. If she said, you are fat enough; the biggest one fits you well. Probably, the customer will be angry. In this case, the approach maxim is flouted. Either addresser or addressee feels unhappy. But euphemism approaches the aim of communication effectively. It shortens the distance between addresser and addressee. It makes the style and the act of addresser and addressee closer.

IV. APPLICATION OF EUPHEMISM IN ENGLISH TEACHING

From the above brief pragmatic analysis of euphemism，we can see that euphemism can be a useful method to facilitate English teaching. Therefore, teachers should choose proper euphemisms in order to achieve specific teaching objectives smoothly.

Here are some typical teaching contexts with euphemistic examples so as to give a light on successful application of euphemism in English teaching.

1. Raising questions. The euphemistic way of raising questions can motivate students as it may help the students feel relaxed in the classroom. Particularly, such euphemistic way can encourage more voluntary students to answer questions, which could result in better performance. The euphemistic expressing for raising questions in class can go as following: "Could you please have a try?" "Could you share us with your own idea?" Such utterances can turn out to be useful, especially in the case of shy and timid students, as it has shortened the distance between the teacher and the

student and helps remove the fear of speaking in public.

2. Correcting errors. Making mistakes is unavoidable in learning, and can be a stimulator to progress. However, mostly language learners are afraid of errors, viewing them as threat to ego. Actually, mistake correction can help students to have a better understanding of language items' meaning and usage. However, teachers have to be careful when correcting since if it is done in a direct way, both students' feelings and self-confidence will be hurt. The teacher should think over specific wording to individual students in various situations. Euphemisms can help teachers solve the problem, for it can not only clarify the mistake, but also maintain the student's self-esteem. For example: Maybe you'd better think it over again.

3. Making comments. There are many occasions for teachers to make comments on students. The wording teachers employ can have impact on students' feelings. A good language teacher is supposed to be tactful in making comments, preferring mild and positive words to harsh and negative ones as so to stimulate students' positive emotional factors. By using the following pleasant and mild sentences with underlying meanings, students are clear about their weakness and are encouraged to work harder with confidence. For instance: You have tried the best, and I am sure you can do it better next time.

V. CONCLUSION

Euphemism is a common linguistic phenomenon, which is closely related to culture backgrounds, religious thoughts, life styles, etc. A short introduction to euphemism in English and Chinese will benefit our future intercultural communication. Lots of scholars had studied euphemism from various ways. Such as linguistic, social-linguistic, rhetoric view, pragmatics and so on. From all those studies, we can easily found out that the development of euphemism have a stong relationship with the development of taboo words more or less. In this paper, the author elaborates this topic from their relationship. At the very beginning, a semantic definition and classification were given. a basic knowledge of comparison about taboo words in English and Chinese gave us a basic meaning of the existence of euphemism. Euphemisms are the substance of taboo words. From the relationship of taboos and euphemisms illustrates the national characters in English and Chinese euphemisms. There are religious characters in English euphemisms and class characters in Chinese euphemisms. We know that the communication between us should under the principle of cooperation. But the differences between different culture background, age, sex, status and positions always make the principle out of effect. So euphemism can do a lot to maintain people's social status in our today's society, especially in intercultural communication. A preoccupation about euphemism can avoid some embarrassments in intercultural communication. If we want success in our future profession, a clear knowledge of euphemism is necessary.

Euphemisms have been widely used in our daily life. Without it, no one could achieve better communication. To sum up, euphemism has close connection with pragmatics. It affects our daily communication and makes our daily conversation go harmoniously. The functions of euphemism are obvious, which cannot be substituted by other linguistic way. Euphemism saves face and reaches harmony. Anyway, it is a symbol of civilization. So the research on it is necessary.

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Ways to Achieve Language Teachers' Professional Development[*]

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Abstract—**With the development of the times and new curriculum reform, there are high requirements for language teachers' professional quality and professional development. The paper discusses the current problems faced by language teachers in the background of college and university level in China today with some of the feasible strategies helpful to language teachers' sustainable professional development.**

Index Terms—**language teachers, professional development, teacher education**

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, a large number of articles are published on the research of language teacher professional development covering different researches and development procedures. Most of these researches are designed for teachers, with teachers and by teachers aimed at their professional learning and academic development with an eye on their impact on teachers and student and environment changes.

It is acknowledged that teachers are not only the processors and transmitters of knowledge, but also the creators of the knowledge they teach. And teachers themselves, their students, the curricula and classroom settings are all the contingent factors affecting their teaching experience. Thus teacher learning and development is compulsory and lifelong in the teaching career, through various experiences in social contexts: as observers and learners in classrooms of both their own and other teachers; as participants in professional teacher education and training programs; and as members of communicative groups of all peer teachers.

Scholars have used a "new professionalism" (Hargreaves, 1994) to conceptualize teaching as part of a communal endeavor which is different from the traditional views of teacher professionalism. This communal aspect of teacher professionalism has been highlighted by McLaughlin and Talbert (1993) who found that "teachers' responses to today's students and notions of good teaching practice are heavily mediated by the character of the professional communities in which they work". There are also many studies focused on teacher professionalism which characterize the influence exerted by teachers in their workplace on a day-to-day basis at the school-site level. (Charles & Ellen, 2011) Besides, arguments for teacher influence in school-wide decisions and teacher autonomy relying on teachers as experts aroused the need for teacher's professional development. According to Ingersoll & Alsalam (1997), teachers' professional development is to help teachers achieve a professional-level mastery of the complex skills. (Charles S. Hausman, Ellen B. Goldring, 2011)This is a process of learning and upgrading which requires advanced knowledge and skills of teachers in their fields, teachers' energy and freshness, theirs sense of efficacy, and their personal needs for achievement and growth.

For language teachers, there is a similar concept but with many specific details. Language teachers' professional development emerges from a process of refreshing and reshaping teachers' existing knowledge, beliefs and morals, and practices and reflections rather than just simply imposing fresh language teaching theories, methodologies and teaching materials on teachers. Thus language teachers' professional learning is a complex process which requires knowledge in varied disciplined fields of psychology, sociology, methodology, etc. Besides, teachers' cognitive and emotional involvement individually and collectively, the capacity and willingness to examine teachers' professional convictions and beliefs, and the strong eagerness for professional improvement and change are all needed in the process of language teachers' professional development.

Studies on teacher development in western countries have gone through a long period from recognition to sophisticated analysis, from theoretical study to practical exercise. According to the research by Beatrice Avalos, in recent ten years, studies on teacher development focus on the following related topics:

Professional learning (general): Canada (1 paper), England (2 papers), The Netherlands (2 papers), S. Africa (1 paper), USA (3 papers)

  - Reflection processes: Australia (1 paper), Canada (1 paper), England (1 paper), Portugal (1 paper), The Netherlands

(1 paper), USA (6 papers)

- Tools as learning instruments: Australia (1 paper), Spain (1 paper), Taiwan (1 paper), USA (7 papers)

- Beginning teachers learning: Australia (1 paper), Belgium (1 paper), Canada (1 paper), England (2 papers), Hong Kong (1 paper), Ireland (1 paper), Norway (1 paper) Scotland (1 paper), The Netherlands (1 paper), USA (3 papers)

Mediations

- School university partnership: Canada (2 papers), Greece (1 paper), USA (8 papers)

- Teacher co-learning: Canada (2 papers), Hong Kong (1 paper), Singapore (1 paper), The Netherlands (2 papers), USA (7 papers)

- Workplace learning: Japan (1 paper), The Netherlands (1 paper), USA (1 paper)

Conditions and factors

- Macro conditions: South Africa (1 paper), USA (9 papers)

- School cultures: Canada (1 paper), England (2 papers), USA (3 papers)

Effectiveness of professional development

- Cognitions, beliefs and practices: Italy (1 paper), New Zealand (1 paper), Portugal (1 paper), The Netherlands (2 papers), USA (5 papers)

- Student learning & teacher satisfaction: Belgium (1 paper), Canada (1 paper), Israel (1 paper), Switzerland (1 paper), USA (3 papers)

Specific areas and issues: Australia (1 paper), Canada (1 paper), Ireland (1 paper), The Netherlands (1 paper), USA (4 papers)

(Beatrice Avalos, 2011)

According to the above statistics, scholars in developed countries and areas attached much more attention to teacher development researches and studies in the past decade with more related and significant studies from various perspectives, whereas in most developing countries, such as China, researchers have not yet noticed the importance of teacher development and its significance.

II.   DISTINCTIONS BETWEEN TEACHER TRAINING AND TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

Although quite similar in literal interpretation, there are in fact some basic distinctions both conceptually and practically between the two important terms: teacher training and teacher development.

Teacher training means the whole process of preparing the pre-teachers, in their college or university level, for teaching practice through some formal courses, and finally resulting in certain kind of academic accreditation. Teacher development, on the other hand, means the form of learning and studying carried out by those teachers already teaching in the classroom (in-service teachers). And it features the daily informal ways of learning either by the teacher individually or in cooperation with some other teachers. Except the difference in defining these two terms in definition, distinctive aspects also lie in the practical field.

First, Teacher training is usually a period of regular training program carried out by an authorized institute or organization based on a set teaching schedule, a fixed syllabus, normally with a training course procedure and an evaluation and scoring system for a certain training term. While in teacher development, there is no pre-set teaching syllabus, course procedure or final evaluation. It depends on the teachers who make their own decision on what, how and where they need to know and learn, how to fulfill the research and discussion, when to share experience or cooperate with each other, and whether to make evaluation themselves. So if we compare the two concepts, it is easy to find out that teacher development is a much more dynamic and interactive activity that easily arouses teachers' initiative in the whole process.

Second, teaching training usually follows a trainer teaching—examples setting—suggestions giving structure, while the trainees accept the training project and the skills passively. On the contrary, teacher development start with teachers' existing knowledge and personal teaching experience. New information is collected, sought and shared collectively with each other rather than being imposed by someone, and is then learnt and remembered by being reflected on, tried out, processed in terms of personal experience and perception, and finally is obtained by the teachers appropriately. (*Penny Ur*, 2000)

Third, teacher training stresses on the cognitive development of the trainees, trying to increase their knowledge and skills to be professional and competent teachers. But in teacher development there is a difference focus because a considerable stress is put forward on the development of the 'whole person' rather than just make the 'teacher' as a professional. (*Penny Ur*, 2000)

Finally, teacher training takes the form of one-off courses, beginning and ending at predetermined times and taking place at pre-set locations. On the opposite side, teacher development is more flexible and is taken as an ongoing, even lifelong process. (*Penny Ur*, 2000)

To summarize, we have to admit that teacher development takes an advantage and plays a pivotal role in the form of teacher improvement and educational reform. In the long term of teacher profession, teacher development is the most proper and flexible personal experience conducted by teacher himself aiming to develop himself.

III.   CURRENT PROBLEMS FACING LANGUAGE TEACHERS IN CHINA

In China nowadays, most language teachers for college students have obtained their master degrees domestically or abroad in their academic study fields. Some of them even get doctorate degrees in language or certain related academies. The fact is that seldom of them are inadequate of their academic knowledge or expertise. However, a survey in 2011 showed that 87% of the college students confessed that they were bored by college language lessons which could not help make their expected achievements in language studies and especially language examinations, such as CET 4 and CET 6 (two largest and influencing nationwide language examinations for college students). In such situations, should their teachers be blamed? Although students' incompetence in languages should not be the fault of their teachers, teachers need some reflections of the causes of themselves.

First, most colleges and universities in China currently are public schools in which teacher's position is immobile and teacher's qualification is life-long. Most language teachers, especially those who have worked for more than ten or twenty years teaching first year and second year college students take their language teaching work routinely without passion or enthusiasm. As admitted by many educators, teaching itself involves moral action. In classes, teachers are moral agents, and education as a whole, and thus classroom interaction in particular, is fundamentally and inevitably moral in nature (Buzzelli, C. & Johnston, B., 2001). Thus teacher's energetic role as a model for students is vital and irreplaceable. Therefore, language teachers should face the current situation and find a proper solution accordingly

Second, in China today most language teachers are the experts in languages rather than the all-round instructors in social science. Language teachers' interest only focuses on linguistics and literature, but ignores those important social science fields which provide broad and comprehensive knowledge and judgment for teacher profession, such as education, psychology, sociology, etc.

Third, unlike some developed countries, such as U.S., UK and Australia, in which professional standards of pre-service teacher and in-service teacher have been made and carried out for more than a decade, in China there is still no specific professional standard drawn for language teachers. Lacking of professional standards causes a series of questions on teacher qualification, reliability and responsibility.

Fourth, since the large number of language teachers in the country, they are offered limited chances of teacher training and are required little for their scientific research and studies. Although the rapid development of the internet technology provide language teachers with more training programs via videos in computers, their training target is improving language teaching techniques instantly other than enhancing the overall competence of themselves. On the other hand, colleges and universities give too much daily teaching task to language teachers to reflect and develop themselves through teaching research and studies.

IV. Ways to Achieve Language Teachers' Professional Development

The particular way in which background contextual factors interact with teachers' learning needs varies depending on the traditions, culture mores, policy environments and school conditions of a particular country. The starting point of teachers engaging in professional development in the Namibian study may not be relevant to teachers in Canada or The Netherlands (Beatrice Avalos, 2011). Likewise, in China it is a unique set of ways to achieve language teachers' professional development.

A. Establishing Standards for Teachers' Competence and Morality

Scholars throughout the world have gradually been aware of the urgency of highlighting language teachers' professional development during the years. While in some developed countries, especially in America, professional organization standards of pre-service teacher preparation have been carried out for more than a decade, such as the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC, 2002), the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages/National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (ACTFL/NCATE, 2002), and the National Board of Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS, 2001, here "standards"). These standards have attempted to address comprehensively what teachers need to know and are able to do in the foreign language classroom. At the same time, these standards are meant to represent professional consensus in the field of language teaching, add rigor to teacher preparation programs, including the admissions process, and provide consistency in the knowledge, skills, and dispositions of those entering the foreign language teaching profession. (Shuhan C. Wang, 2009)

But the situation in China today is that no specific professional standard is yet drawn for college language teachers under the urgent requirements of a good and proper one. For language teachers themselves, the standards should inform them on what they need to know and offer general guidance concerning how to achieve these goals. It is possible to assess teacher quality and preparation programs through standards while simultaneously acknowledging and respecting the dynamic and situated nature of developing understandings of teaching and learning. (Shuhan C. Wang, 2009)

Besides, since there is an obvious declining in college language teachers' professional belief and morality today in China, the standards set up for college language teachers should also be the guideline for their professional belief and morality. Teachers, or instructors, are defined and accepted differently and more meaningfully in China than some western countries. Affected by traditional Chinese standard of judging a good teacher in Confucian theories, a good teacher should be a morally good human in the first place, only in this way he or she would set a morally good example for the students. Since teaching is taken as an inherently moral enterprise, the type and quality of relationship between teachers and students profoundly influence the effect of teaching and learning. So it is believed that teacher's

professional belief which is associated with teacher's professional morals should be standardized, too. And these standards may be: a teacher should love his or her teaching work, and consider it as a serious, valuable and worthy career; a teacher should be a kind, caring, patient, energetic, encouraging, careful, responsible and respectable person; a teacher should be a good model both in classes and in daily life. These standards set as the professional standards for teaching stuff not only in colleges and universities, but also in all levels of education, should be regulated and assessed by school administrative department at regular time.

B.   Putting Teachers into Narrative Inquiry

Learning is a process of experiencing the unknown things, make sense of them, and take action to reflect them, in this way, teacher's learning from his or other's teaching experiences are not informative and trained. So inquiry into the teaching experience which is educative propels teachers to not only question the immediate fact but to draw connections among all the teaching experiences and reflect on their own teaching actions and then act with foresight.

The word "narrative" is a synonym of "story". The way of taking narrative inquiry is learning to think narratively. (Connelly & Clandinin, 2005). Narrative has played an important role in teacher education as a method in inquiry. While narratives do not only mean the stories of individual teacher reflecting his or her teaching experiences in isolation, but by their nature mean the social and relational social experiences. Besides, to make a teaching experience educative, teachers need to use narrative inquiry both as a set of prescriptive skills carried out and a mind-set of attitudes through which they individually and collectively question their teaching experience from a perspective of assuming and revealing their roles in teaching, and how the teaching is the way it is. Through their inquiry, teachers become to recognize their students, the teaching contexts, and even question the teaching functions and responses. Inquiry promotes and evolves the knowledge of the teachers and of what teach, thus makes a change and growth in teachers' professional development. Inquiry into experience enables teachers to act with foresight, to organize, articulate, and communicate what they know and believe about teaching and who they have become as teachers.

A narrative inquiry approach to language teaching as a language teacher education and development entails consideration of narrative as phenomenon and narrative as method. Narrative here entails three aspects: teachers' personal practical knowledge, in which the personal and experiential is important; teachers' professional knowledge landscapes, in which the context in which teachers work is important; and the intersection of different ways of knowing and being, in which the intersection of cultural narratives is important (Shijing Xu, F. Michael Connelly, 2009).

Narrative inquiry conducted by language teachers individually or collaboratively, tells the teachers' professional development within their own professional worlds. As a useful way for language teachers' professional development, we should make sure that this narrative inquiry is driven by teachers' inner desire to understand the teaching experience, to reconcile what is known and find out what is hidden, to affirm and reconstruct understandings of themselves as language teachers and of their own teaching situation. (Danjun Ying, 2007)

C.   Expending Language Teachers' Knowledge Base

Expending the knowledge base of language teachers is to acknowledge teachers as learners to enlarge their horizon to the world. For a qualified language teacher, his knowledge of the language he teaches and his proficiency in using that language are the first and principal requirements. Besides, he should also be a master of some theories and rules of language acquirement and teaching which may include how a language is structured, acquired, and used. These are considered fundamental to the understandings and process of language leaning as well as the activity of language teaching. Language teachers should also be equipped with some basic knowledge of language comparison and cultural differences which would help understand the interior distinctions between languages, find ways to deal with the bad effect caused by mother language transferring and increase effective language use in real pragmatic settings. Also language teachers would better hold a vast knowledge in the fields of both natural sciences and social sciences, such as geography, information technology, philosophy, literature, history, law, music, art, etc. This huge knowledge base of encyclopedic sources forms an important and necessary part in language teachers' knowledge structure in the endless quest for knowledge from their curious students.

Teaching methodology is very important for college language teachers in classroom language teaching. It is reasonable to believe that teaching and their tacit understandings of the activities of teaching itself does not preclude disciplinary or theoretical knowledge from remaining foundational to the knowledge base of language teacher education. Teachers should choose a useful and appropriate method according to the teaching aims, teaching material and quality of the students in the classes. So sometimes it is not a easy thing to apply a suitable language teaching method in certain classroom among the many, such as, communicative teaching method, task-based teaching method, situational teaching method, etc., unless the teacher is experienced and intelligent enough to make a proper choice.

D.   Aiming at Education Reform and Students' Requirements

In recent years, language education, especially foreign language education in China is undergoing reforms in order to keep up with China's overall development and modernization. According to the Higher Education Department of the Chinese Ministry of Education in 2001 and 2007, college education aims to cultivate multi-national, inter-disciplinary talents to serve the country. Thus foreign language courses are bound to not only provide some basic knowledge of English for communication, but also help learners to broaden their horizons and gain different cultural background

knowledge associated with the language. In China, students spend abundant time and energy in learning foreign languages, particularly English, from primary school to university, with majority of them is in a medium level of language competence. So it is critical for language teachers to understand the requirements of the students and make specific teaching plans accordingly before give language courses.

Besides, it is high time for college language teachers to be aware of the importance to increase their professionalism. should understand the presentation of knowledge approach must be distinguished from the traditional 'indoctrination' *teaching method*s; emphasis on *foreign language teaching* practice the value of knowledge, to take a broader, closer to the time of epistemological perspective, the theoretical knowledge and practical knowledge have been recognized at the same time, these goals need schools and relevant education sector support to improve the environment for the development of teachers, teachers to expand space for development, the development of mechanisms to further optimize the teachers.

V. CONCLUSION

When students are to develop high levels of proficiency in languages, teachers need to bring to them the sufficient language knowledge and teach skillfully in the classrooms. Language teachers' professional development is an urgent issue that universities and colleges are facing in China today. Identifying the central role of language teachers in classes is at the core of promoting language teachers' professional development. Then the focus should be on the specific fields in language teachers' learning which is a complex process requiring knowledge in varied disciplined fields of psychology, sociology and methodology. Language teachers' professional development emerges from a process of reshaping teachers' existing knowledge, beliefs and morals, and practices and reflections rather than just simply imposing fresh teaching theories, methodologies, teaching materials on teachers. Through narrative inquiry, increasing knowledge base and establishing standard for language teachers, we may achieve our goal of improving language teachers' quality as well as promoting their professional development.

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The Effect of Concept Mapping on Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' Self-efficacy and Expository Writing Accuracy

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Abstract—The purpose of this study is to investigate the questions of whether 1) Does concept mapping knowledge have any effect on Intermediate EFL learners' self-efficacy? 2) Does concept mapping knowledge have any effect on Intermediate EFL learners' expository writing accuracy? The following five steps determine the delivery and the sequence of the study: 1) A TOEFL test (writing section) as the pretest, 2) self-efficacy questionnaire, 3) 8 sessions of instruction on concept map construction with experimental group, 4) integration of concept mapping as a pre-writing strategy in experimental group, and 5) post-test of writing and self-efficacy questionnaire with both groups. Firstly, the writing Proficiency Test along with self-efficacy questionnaire was given to 180 learners. Based on the results of TOEFL writing test and self-efficacy questionnaire, 60 intermediate homogeneous participants were selected and randomly assigned to two groups of control and experimental. In the course of 22-sessions, during regular class time 15 minutes were devoted to concept mapping. Each session the participants of both groups were given a writing task besides their course book writing section. The students in the experimental group were engaged in concept map construction after writing each task and were organized their pre-writing activities such as discussion, doing exercises, and reflective practices according to their constructed maps. A post-test of writing and an efficacy questionnaire were administered to all the participants and the pair sample t- test, and independent sample t-test were used to answer the study questions. The results showed that concept mapping had a significant effect on self-efficacy and expository writing accuracy.

Index Terms—concept mapping, self-efficacy, expository writing

I. INTRODUCTION

The most important skill in language is writing. Writing is essential to academic success it is an active, productive skill, students learning to write in a foreign language come across multiple challenges. Of this group, writing needs thinking strategies that allow the individual to express him or herself competently. It is a complicated activity that needs a certain level of linguistic knowledge, writing conventions, vocabulary and grammar. As noted by Celce-Mercia (1991), expressing one's ideas in written form in a second or foreign language, and doing so with reasonable accuracy and coherence, is a major achievement. A type of writing is Expository writing; it is probably the type most frequently used in college courses (Bander, 1983).

Writing is an important skill by which students improve and perform their knowledge. The ability to define individual's thoughts effectively in writing is based on the individual's feeling of efficacy towards the skill which he/she acquires in his/her learning. However, writing is the most popular means by which teachers evaluate students' knowledge; it is not a skill to be learned easily. It is a complex task that needs a number of processes to be performed. Undoubtedly, expository writing is the genre that is needed in education and work. In the middle grades and beyond, writing becomes the backbone and expression of academic growth. As children move from the stage of learning to read to the stage of reading to learn, expository writing helps them to organize and express their thinking. Since expository writing needs logical analysis, students are required to have direct instruction in how to organize their writing, give their logical options based on the main topic, and create plausible sentences.

Expository writing usually emphases the main topic, logical supporting facts, strong organization, a logical order, clarity, unity, coherence, and smooth transitions. It is used in the college admission or job application essay (CV), a query letter, proposal, and inter-office memo is useful in school and workplace.

In the years 1987 and 1993, Gere and Sharples proposed that expressing one's ideas in written form in a second or foreign language, and doing so with reasonable accuracy and coherence was an important achievement. The complexity

of writing as a task tends to heighten anxiety levels in students who were taking writing courses. As was mentioned by Yavuz and Genc in the year 1998, this anxiety can often demotivate the student or lead to discouragement, and thus may result in negative attitudes towards writing. They were Claimed that most students, low and high achievers alike, found writing difficult and view it as something they just had to persevere through in order to pass certain exams This might related to affective elements such as student attitudes, writing apprehension and self-efficacy in writing.

As was recommended by Pajares and Valiante in the year 1994, through their experience if a student will become unwilling to express him or herself in writing lacks confidence in his or her ability to write, or will feel apprehensive about writing then the student will unlikely to be proficient at writing composition. Self-Efficacy (SE) is an important aspect of Albert Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory (SCT). Albert Bandura's theory on SE began in the 1970s and continues to be developed by others as it is applied to different behavioral theories and problems.

Self-efficacy (SE) has been described as a sense of confidence in which a behavior can be successfully organized and completed. It acts to be strengthen approach to tasks feel efficacious about and to weaken motivation for tasks which fallen less confidents (Bandura, 1986).

Recently, concept mapping has been used as a tool for learning and teaching. Concept maps are tools that make ideas visual. They allow prior experience and understanding to be taken into consideration when building new concepts into the perceptual framework. By using concept maps, learners use their prior knowledge to understand the new concepts. It makes a link between unknown and known information that leads to deeper understanding (Novak, 2010).

By choosing concepts and linking words carefully, learners can use concept maps as a learning tool to catch every nuances of meaning, and summarize their knowledge. Concept mapping relies heavily on cognitive theory and Ausubel's assimilation (Novak & Cañas, 2008) theory. According to assimilation theory, learning is the most effective when new knowledge is related to previously learned material.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Writing is considered as one of the cumbersome skills in EFL context. Hyland (2003) pointed out that writing is a sociocognitive activity which involves skills in planning and drafting. Writing is always seen as one of the most prominent skills in EFL pedagogy whose paramountcy is especially underscored in academic and higher educational settings. However, for the students, writing is mostly regarded as a challenging and unmanageable task. This leaves an immense responsibility on EFL teachers and writing instructors who are expected to bring the learners into terms with this focal, yet undervalued skill.

Self-efficacy beliefs are exceedingly important in terms of writing and even in everyday life. For example, self-efficacy beliefs can affect health, cognitive factors, career development, and academics (Bandura, 1997). They predict writing performance but also have far-reaching effects. Self-efficacy beliefs can affect perceived usefulness of writing and writing apprehension, both of which are key factors in terms of writing performance (Pajares & Valiante, 1999).

Concept maps can be considered both a cognitive and constructivist learning strategy. Based on Ausubel, Novak and Hanesian's (1986) view of cognitive learning, when learners create concept maps they are focusing on determining relationships between and among concepts within their cognitive structures.

As was suggested by Harmer in the year 1998, the writing skill had finally been recognized as an important skill for language learning. Having said that, through extensive research, a number of approaches and techniques have been provided regarding ESL or L2 writing during the last decade. But this study aims at surveying whether concept mapping knowledge have influence on self-efficacy and expository writing performance of Iranian EFL learners.

III. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

According to McLeod (1987) writing is both cognitive and emotional activities, so it has a useful effect on all phases of writing process. The implication is that EFL instructors should study students' beliefs about their writing capabilities, their attitudes towards writing, and their level of apprehension about writing. Bandura recommended that self-efficacy beliefs were developed primarily through inactive attainment; in other words, people's confidence will grow as they attempt and complete tasks and the feeling of success will increase confidence whereas failure will decrease it (1986).

In addition, as was acknowledged by Bandura in the year 1987, the verbal persuasion was messages that individuals will receive from authority figures, could reinforce and increase self-efficacy. As well as helping students with writing apprehension, self-efficacy and attitude, teachers should also make efforts to help students understand how their affective processes could influence their EFL writing performance. Briefly, teachers should make every effort to help their students increase competence through confidence. As noted, our investigation provides evidence for the roles and importance of writing apprehension, attitudes towards writing, and writing self-efficacy in relation to actual writing performance. This research could be considered a preliminary investigation on which follow-up work could be based. In a comparative future study, it would be interesting to assess whether student performance improves after training or coaching on self-efficacy, apprehension, and attitude related to writing.

In recent years, there has been a great body of research on the effect of strategy training on language learning. The findings of the study done by Chen (2007) revealed that strategy training not only leads to the improvement of language proficiency, but also engages the dynamic internal changes in the learning process. Strategy training has been applied to

language learning skills such as reading, and listening (Rao, 2007). However, little has been done on writing and speaking.

Rao (2007) investigated the effect of brainstorming on developing writing skill. The findings of this study revealed that students who have been trained in brainstorming strategy outperformed the other group of students who did not receive any instruction. Also, the attitudinal part of the survey indicated that students who used brainstorming had a positive idea about the effectiveness of the brainstorming technique. So, it is of paramount importance to invent activities before asking students to compose an essay. There has been great body of research on the effect of concept mapping in education in the first language. However, there has been limited number of research in the second language area (Vakilifard & Armand, 2006).

Concept mapping has been applied as a pre-writing strategy. However, there has been limited number of research in this field. Lin (2003) studied the effect of computer-based concept mapping as a pre-writing strategy for middle school students. In this study, the researcher compared the computer based concept mapping as a pre-writing strategy with paper-and-pencil concept mapping. According to the findings of the study, computer-based concept mapping was effective in enhancing idea generation and the total quality of the students' pre-writing concept maps in preparation for a persuasive writing task.

In comparison with computer-based concept mapping, the students who constructed the paper and-pencil concept maps scored better in persuasive writing according to the criteria contained in the state authorized writing rubric than the students who generated computer-based concept maps. Ojima (2006) conducted a case study of three Japanese ESL writers in Japan on the effect of concept mapping as pre-task planning. The results of the study indicated that concept mapping as a pre-task planning task was influential in improving ESL learners composition skills, but in ways unique to individual experience, motivation, and task conditions.

Pishgadam and Ghanizadeh (2006) investigated the impact of concept mapping as a pre-writing activity on EFL learners' writing ability. The findings of the study revealed that the students in the experimental group outperformed the students in the control group in terms of quantity and quality of generating, organizing, and associating ideas. Also, the results of the study indicated that concept mapping could be effective for affective as well as cognitive instructional objectives.

Another study done by Talebinezhad and Mousapor Negari (2001) on the effect of explicit teaching of concept mapping as a learning strategy in expository writing on EFL learners' self-regulation found that learners gained higher self-regulation in writing task as the result of the explicit instruction of the concept mapping strategy. And the last but not the least is the study done by Cho and Lee (2010). The study aimed at examining the use of collaborative concept mapping strategy in Iranian writing classes. They mention that the collaborative concept mapping strategy was used to engage Iranian students in communicative and acculturative interaction. Findings of the study demonstrated that concept mapping was beneficial in improving Iranian students writing skill in general, and in improving the organization, language use, and vocabulary in writing in particular.

The aim of the researcher in this research is to investigate the influence of concept mapping knowledge on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' self-efficacy and their expository writing. Information organizing during or after learning is one advantage of concept maps. These visually depict connections are often used across the curriculum or in a unit of study. The other advantage of these is used to organize ideas in writing before beginning to write. These can be used in note-taking in a unit of study that extends for a long duration of time as the connections unfold.

The findings of the study would be of considerable significance in the design of EFL courses in general and writing courses in particular. Concept mapping knowledge, if proved to be effective in improving the learners' language related skills, can be employed in EFL classes as a powerful and lively means to increase the learners' self-efficacy and expository writing accuracy.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

Based on the objectives of the current study, the following research questions were formulated

1) Does concept mapping knowledge have any effect on Iranian Intermediate EFL learners' self-efficacy?

2) Does concept mapping knowledge have any effect on Iranian Intermediate EFL learners' expository writing accuracy?

There were two null hypotheses based on the research questions:

H01: Concept mapping knowledge does not have any effect on Iranian Intermediate   EFL learners' self-efficacy.

H02: Concept mapping knowledge does not have any effect on Iranian Intermediate EFL learners' writing accuracy.

V. METHOD

Participants

In this research 180 male and female subjects were selected from four private language institutes. After homogenizing TOEFL test, pre-writing test was taken, nearly by self-efficacy questionnaire 60 males and females were selected and these 60 subjects randomly were divided into two groups, one group was control and the second group was experimental. These subjects had four years English experience at these private language institutes. All of the

participants were Iranian students. They aged between 16 and 18. The subjects were taking Interchange 3 third edition, while they were attending interchange classes, all of the process of research was implemented during regular class time.

Instruments

Three instruments were used for this research, they included: 1. A TOEFL proficiency test, 2. A Self-efficacy in Writing Scale (SWS), and 3. Concept Mapping Forms.

<u>Self-Efficacy in Writing Scale (SWS)</u>

In the year 2004, Yavuz Erkan developed this writing scale self-efficacy questionnaire. The researcher in this research employed the writing scale self –efficacy questionnaire because the aim of the researcher was to assess the students' self-efficacy in writing. According to Bandura (1977), this 28-item writing scale self-efficacy questionnaire will grade the strength of subjects' beliefs in their writing ability. The items of the scale were graded with the four-tier system Likert scale which its grades were adjusted in this sort from Strongly Disagree, Disagree, to Strongly Agree, and Agree. Each statement on the scale was preceded by the phrase "I can …**".**

Based on its robust psychometric properties, the researcher for assessing self-efficacy in writing skill in foreign language assumed that this new writing self-efficacy scale will be a reliable and valid tool. For the ease of using and understanding, the questionnaire was translated to Persian. And the Persian version of this questionnaire was approved by two experienced psychology and linguistic teachers. The Persian version of the scale was administered to the subjects in order to determine their self-beliefs which had linked to their writing in English.

Procedure

The following five steps determine the delivery and the sequence of the study: 1) A TOEFL test (writing section) as the pretest, 2) Self-efficacy questionnaire, 3) 8 sessions of instruction on concept map construction with experimental group, 4) Integration of concept mapping as a pre-writing strategy in experimental group, and 5) Writing post-test and self-efficacy questionnaire with both groups and self-efficacy questionnaire just for experimental group.

As stated earlier, the sample population in this research was included 180 learners of pretest TOEFL Test Practices Book by Keith S. False (1994) to check the homogeneity of students; students were divided in two groups. Experimental learners received self-efficacy questionnaire. To reduce the possible fluctuation of reliability of writing scores, two experienced teachers were scored the students' writing tasks and the average score of both raters were considered as the final score of writing.

Based on the results of TOEFL writing test, 60 participants who took 0.5 SD above and below the mean score, i.e. between 49-65 were considered as intermediate level and they were randomly assigned to two groups of control and experimental. Experimental group received self-efficacy questionnaire. The two classes were conducted by the same teacher. The course book Interchange 3 third edition (J.C. Richard) and the instructional materials (some writing extracts from IELTS and TOEFL writing) were identical for both groups. The difference was that the students in the experimental group were engaged in concept map construction after writing each task and were organized their pre-writing activities such as discussion, doing exercises, and reflective practices according to their constructed maps. Conversely, the students in the control group didn't develop their pre-writing activities based on concept mapping technique. The strategy training for experimental group in classroom was that following the pre-testing, the participants attended 22 sessions during regular class time, each session 15 minutes were devoted to concept mapping. Strategy training was done according to the model proposed by Harris and Graham (1996). At the end of the course the same self-efficacy questionnaire will be given and a post-test was administered to examine the possible existence of differences between two groups.

Design

This study was conducted on the basis of quasi-experimental design whereby the control group received regular classroom instruction. The experimental group, on the other hand, was exposed to the concept mapping as pre-writing was offered the opportunity to interact with pre-writing before starting writing. This group was given sub topics about topic of writing and the pervious information related to new information that allowed for application of various theories to the events that were about to take place. This project is not intended to be a definitive statement concerning how individuals learn best or by what means. That is well beyond the purview of the current study. However, this study is an attempt to determine the extent to which students' concept mapping as pre-writing performance affected on self-efficacy and expository writing.

VI. DATA COLLECTION AND DATA ANALYSIS

1) Proficiency Test

The participants of this study were 180 EFL students. After administering the proficiency test, 60 students who took scores ±0.5 SD above and below the mean, i.e. the scores between 49 and 65 were considered as homogeneous intermediate level and were chosen as the participants of in this study.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF SCORES OF ENGLISH PROFICIENCY TOEFL

N	Valid	180
	Missing	0
Mean		57.2100
Std. Error of Mean		1.17261
Median		56.0000
Mode		50.00
Std. Deviation		16.58315
Variance		275.001
Scenes		-.301
Std. Error of Scenes		.172
Kurtosis		.194
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.342
Range		80.00
Minimum		10.00

The mean of subjects' proficiency scores was 57.21 and the standard deviation was 16.583. The subjects' proficiency test scores ranged from 10 to 90 (see table 4.2). The distribution of proficiency scores was approximately normal because the ratios of skewness (-0.301) and kurtosis (0.194) to their respective standard errors were not over +2.
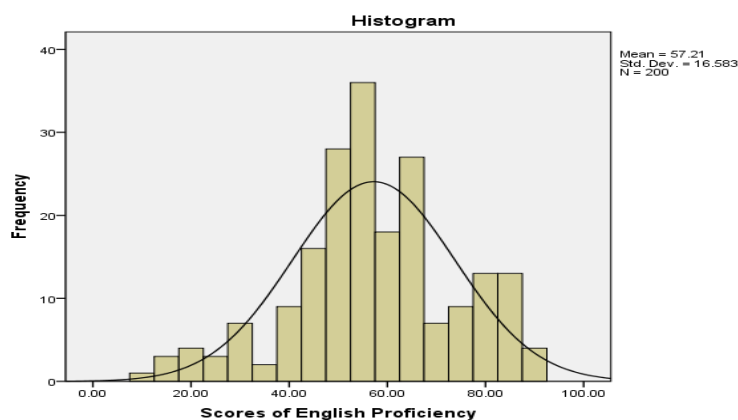
Figure 1 Histogram of scores of proficiency test

In order to insure the reliability of Proficiency test, a correlation analysis and reliability analysis of proficiency scores were carried out. The correlation analysis and reliability analysis of proficiency test showed that the selected TOEFL test and the added 20 vocabulary items are highly correlated and reliable. Table 4.2 shows the reliability analysis of the proficiency test. Cronbach's Alpha showed that the instrument enjoys a high degree of internal consistency.

TABLE 2
RELIABILITY STATISTICS OF PROFICIENCY TEST

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
0.87	100

2) Pre-Writing task scores
The reliability analysis of the scores demonstrated the inter-rater reliability of writing scores.

TABLE 3
CORRELATION ANALYSIS OF WRITING SCORES

		Writing Score1	Writing Score 2
Pre Writing Score1	Pearson Correlation	1	.893**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	60	60
Pre Writing Score 2	Pearson Correlation	.893**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	60	60

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 3 shows that the given scores by raters are highly correlated. Cronbach's Alpha showed that the scores enjoy high reliability (Table 4).

TABLE 4
RELIABILITY STATISTICS OF WRITING SCORES

Cronbach's Alpha	Set of scores
.87	2

TABLE 5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PRE- WRITING

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Prewriting	60	2.9333	.45535	-.564	.309	-.327	.608
Valid N (listwise)	60						

According to Cambridge preparation for the TOEFL test J. Gear and R. Gear (2005, p. 6) writing scores from 1 to 6. The mean of subjects writing scores was 2.9333 and the standard deviation was .45535.The scores ranged from 0 to 5 (see table 5). The distribution of writing scores was approximately normal because the ratios of skewness (-. 564) and kurtosis (-. 327) to their respective standard errors were not over +2.

After administering the writing pretest, the researchers utilized an independent sample t-test to compare the mean scores of two groups to see if there was any significant difference between the groups regarding their writing pretest scores.

TABLE 6
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST FOR THE PRETEST SCORES

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	1.83	.180	1.43	58	.158	.16667	.11654	-.06662	.39995
Equal variances not assumed			1.43	57.271	.158	.16667	.11654	-.06668	.40002

The results of the independent t-test show that (t (58)=1.43., P =.158 > .05 there was no difference between the pretest scores of the control and the experimental groups. Thus it can be concluded that the two groups enjoyed the same level of writing ability.
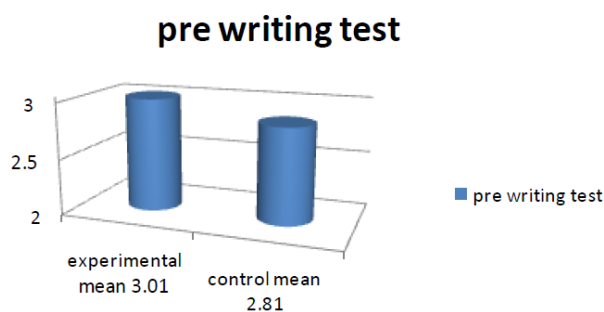

Figure 2 Pre-writing test by groups

3) Post-Writing Task Scores

After 22 sessions of treatment, a post-test was given to the participants.

TABLE 7
CORRELATION ANALYSIS OF WRITING SCORES

		Writing Score1	Writing Score 2
Post Writing Score1	Pearson Correlation	1	.923[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	60	60
Post Writing Score 2	Pearson Correlation	.923**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	60	60

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 7 shows that the given scores by raters are highly correlated. Cronbach's Alpha showed that the scores enjoy high reliability (Table 8).

TABLE 8
RELIABILITY STATISTICS OF POST-WRITING SCORES

Cronbach's Alpha	Set of scores
.90	2

In order to analyze the obtained data, the researchers utilized Independent sample t-test after computing the mean scores of both experimental and control groups in pretest and post-test.

TABLE 9
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T- TEST ANALYSIS OF THE POST-TEST CONTROL AND THE POST-TEST EXPERIMENTAL SCORES REGARDING EXPOSITORY WRITING

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-taile)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	2.296	.135	10.114	58	.000	1.18333	.11699	.94914	1.41752
Equal variances not assumed			10.114	57.181	.000	1.18333	.11699	.94914	1.41752

As Table 9 displays, regarding the content scores of the post-test scores considering the experimental and the control groups, the differences in both groups weren't the same and the differences were statistically meaningful (t (58) = 10.114, p = .000< .05) . Thus the second null-hypothesis as concept mapping knowledge does not have any effect on Iranian Intermediate EFL learners' expository writing accuracy **was rejected**
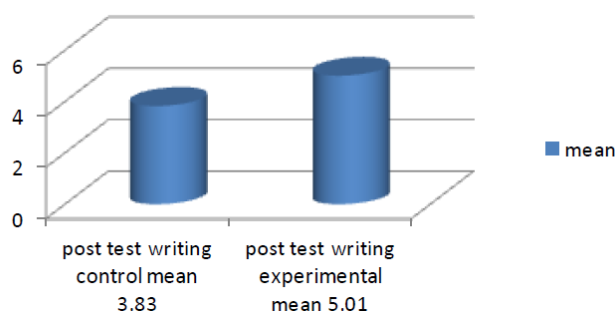
Figure 3 Post-test of writing skills by groups

Self-efficacy Analysis

TABLE 10
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PRE QUESTIONNAIRE AND POST QUESTIONNAIRE SORES REGARDING SELF-EFFICACY

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre questionnaire experimental	30	83.00	89.00	83.8667	3.84827
Post questionnaire experimental	30	93.00	97.00	93.7000	3.54430
Valid N (listwise)	30				

As it is evident from Table 10, the pre-questionnaire mean scores of the experimental group were 83.00. After the participants in the experimental group received instruction, the researchers implemented the same questionnaire to an experimental group as post questionnaire. This questionnaire after 22 sessions, more than 3 months, has been administered to the experimental group. The mean scores of the post-questionnaire for the experimental group were 93.00. To determine whether there was a significant difference between the pre-questionnaire scores and post-questionnaire scores, a Pair sample t- test was conducted. Table 6 represents the results.
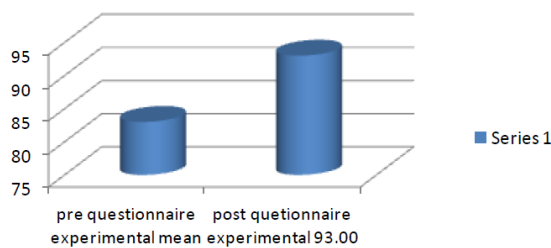
Figure 4 Pre- questionnaire and post- questionnaire

TABLE 11
MEAN, STD. DEVIATION AND STD. ERROR MEAN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP PRE-POST QUESTIONNAIRE PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS

Pair 1	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre questionnaire	83.8667	30	3.84827	.70260
Post questionnaire	93.7000	30	3.54430	.64710

As can be seen in table 11, the mean of the pre-questionnaire of the experimental group is, 83.8667 standard deviation is 3.84827 and standard error mean is .70260, the mean of the post-test of the experimental group is 93.7000, standard deviation is 3.54430 and standard error mean is .64710; results show that post questionnaire scores of the experimental group is higher than the pre-questionnaire group.

TABLE 12
PAIRED SAMPLE T TEST TO EVALUATE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS' PRE - AND POST-QUESTIONNAIRE

Paired Differences							
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair1	Pre &post questionnaire	-9.83333	1.96668	.35906	-27.386	29	.0000

As Table 12 displays, a significant difference was observed between the pre and post questionnaire scores of the experimental groups, i.e. (t (29) = -27.38, p=.000< .05) Thus the first null-hypothesis as concept mapping knowledge does not have any effect on Iranian Intermediate EFL learners' self-efficacy **was rejected .**

VII. DISCUSSION

The present study aimed at investigating the role of concept mapping as a pre-writing strategy in EFL learners' self-efficacy and expository writing ability. The findings of the study revealed that explicit teaching of concept mapping could improve EFL learners' self-efficacy and expository writing ability. The findings of this study reveal that concept maps as a cognitive tool can enhance learners' self-efficacy. It can also help them improve their writing skill.

The consequences of this investigation were aligned with many other researchers' results. As was acknowledged by Bandura in the year 1997, academic self-beliefs were strongly predictive value of academic performance. These researchers such as Meier, McCarthy, & Schmeck, (1984), Shell, Murphy & Bruning (1989), Zimmerman and Bandura (1994), and McCarthy, Meier, & Rinderer, (1985) have investigated the predictive value of self-efficacy relative to writing performance. They conducted that two constructs are related; in other words, self-efficacy is a predictor of actual writing performance.

The results of the present study showed that concept mapping knowledge has positive effect on Intermediate EFL learners' self-efficacy and indicated that first hypothesis which was: H01: Concept mapping knowledge does not have any effect on Iranian Intermediate EFL learners' self-efficacy **was rejected**

The results of the present study are in line with those of many other researchers such as Talebinezhad & Mousapor Negari (2001); Chan (2002), Lin ,Strickland, Ray, & Denner (2004), Vakilifard & Armand (2006), Ojima (2006), Pishgadam & Ghanizadeh (2006), Chen (2007), Rao (2007), Lee & Cho (2010). The present study demonstrated that the experimental group who received strategy instruction outperformed the control group who followed traditional approach, which is in line with the findings of the study done by Chen (2007) confirming that strategy training not only leads to the improvement of language proficiency, but also engages the dynamic internal changes in the learning process.

The results of the present study revealed that concept mapping helped learners to improve their expository writing skill. This is in consistent with some of the previous findings such as researches conducted by Lee and Cho (2010) on the effect of collaborative concept mapping strategy in Korean writing classes, Ojima (2006) case study on three Japanese ESL writers in Japan regarding the effect of concept mapping as pre-task planning, and Lin et al. (2004) research on the effect of computer-based concept mapping as a pre-writing strategy for middle school students. The results of these studies revealed that concept mapping strategy was influential in improving learners' writing ability.

Moreover, the findings of the present study are in favor of the results of the research done by Rao (2007) on the effect of brainstorming in developing writing skill. Rao (2007) proposed that brainstorming stimulates students' thinking and enables them to create ideas and organize raw materials in a logical order. In the present study, concept

mapping strategy served as a brainstorming tool. Brainstorming activates learners' prior knowledge, and facilitates the use of this knowledge.

There have been some other researches in Iranian EFL context regarding the effect of concept mapping strategy on EFL learners' writing. The results of the present study are in line with the results of the study done by Talebinezhad and Mousapor Negari (2001) on the effect of explicit teaching of concept mapping as a learning strategy in expository writing on EFL learners' self-regulation. They found that the learners gained higher self-regulation in writing task as the result of the explicit instruction of the concept mapping strategy.

Pishgadam & Ghanizadeh (2006) also investigated the impact of concept mapping as a pre-writing activity on EFL learners' writing ability. The findings of the study revealed that students who received strategy instruction outperformed the other students in terms of quantity and quality of generating, organizing, and associating ideas. The findings of the present study were similar to the results of the Pishghadam and Ghanizadeh's (2006) study, in that, it also revealed that the students who received concept mapping strategy instruction had better performance in writing.

The results of the present study showed that concept mapping knowledge has positive effect on Intermediate EFL learners' expository writing and second hypothesis : H02: concept mapping knowledge does not have any effect on Iranian Intermediate EFL learners' writing accuracy **was rejected**

VIII. CONCLUSION

The main goal of the present research is to study the effect of the explicit instruction of concept mapping strategy on EFL intermediate students' self-efficacy and expository writing. The results indicate a positive effect of the explicit instruction of concept mapping strategy on student's self-efficacy.

According to Barnhardt (1997), there is a relationship between strategy use and confidence in language learning. Students, who have had difficulties in writing a foreign language, by succeeding in the application of concept mapping strategy, would be able to improve their self-efficacy. It meant that when the students had a better idea of how to go about a writing task, they were more positive about the task. Thus, they were satisfied to take part in writing task. This made a most tangible evidence of the quality of both the learning process and conceptual understanding. Nevertheless, one more reason would be that the construction of concept maps might have helped students to build more complex cognitive structures in regard to information which was important for writing.

The writing process involves a number of cognitive tasks that must be engaged at the same time. During the writing process, language learners should devote attention to the effective communication and connective structure of texts as well as grammatical and vocabulary choices Collins & Gentner (1982). In writing classes, the challenge for educators is to provide strategic devices for the beginning writer to practice fewer task components in a meaningful way. This investigation proposed that a concept mapping technique can be used as a pre-writing strategy to reduce the cognitive demands for beginning foreign language writers during the writing process. Specifically, the study compared individual concept map construction and collaborative concept map construction to determine the benefit of using concept mapping on language learners' writing performances.

The results suggested that the students who used the concept mapping strategy for their writing planning outperformed the students who did not use the strategy in writing. This study's finding is consistent with previous studies reporting the positive impact of concept mapping on second/foreign language learning (Lin, 2003) the effectiveness of the pre-writing strategy on their writing. Based on these findings, this study concludes that concept mapping could be a viable strategy to improve self-efficacy and second/foreign language expository writing for intermediate learners'.

This study hypothesized that collaborative concept mapping activities might have allowed the language learners to spend more time thinking either in or about the foreign language during the collaborative planning process, thus improving language learning.

In the current study, the researchers chose to use this pre-writing strategy because of concept mapping is a student-directed strategy that does not rely on teacher involvement or other formal or complex technological supports it is easily adopted by users. Furthermore, concept mapping is flexible enough to be useful in a variety of learning settings. The researchers used concept mapping as pre-writing strategy to enhance the achievement as well as the self-efficacy and expository writing of intermediate EFL students.

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A Study of Genre Approach in EFL Writing

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Abstract—The present study puts SFL-based genre approach under examination for its effectiveness in promoting EFL writers' genre awareness and writing competence in a 16-week semester in a state-run college in the east part of China. Three sets of data from pre- and post-test writings, interviews and questionnaires, are collected and analyzed with the help of the software SPSS and Range 32. The study indicates that the genre approach beats the traditional approach in sensitizing the writers' genre awareness, improving holistic writing quality and enhancing lexical density.

Index Terms—genre approach, EFL writing, genre awareness, writing competence

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing is a daunting challenge to many a native writer, let alone to those who learn English as a foreign language (EFL), such as Chinese college students. Chinese college students' writings have been reported problematic in some significant ways (Ma, 2002) and the L2 writing instruction and Chinese-specific writing settings are found responsible for the slow progress (Gao, 2007; You, 2004). So what writing approach can better facilitate writings is a question long lingering on the minds of L2 practitioners, educators, instructors and writers. Exigencies exist to examine whether a shift of writing pedagogies can address all or part of the problems mentioned in the above literatures.

The concept genre in the linguistic sense has transformed people's opinions on the nature of writing: writing is longer perceived as static and monolithic; on the contrary, it is dynamic, flexible and social. In line with this new conceptualization, the genre writing approach offers an informing perspective — to write is to communicate and writing is a way of getting things done (Hyland, 2003).

The genre approach, the latest writing approach, takes writing as dominantly linguistic, and it considers context, writer-reader relationship, and purpose at the same time. It also makes a point of practising explicit teaching and providing model texts in L2 classes. In the past two decades, the genre approach draws increasing number of adherents; in the meantime, it is challenged both theoretically and pedagogically. Widdowson (1993) has reservations about genre pedagogy in maintaining that transferable language knowledge cannot be guaranteed to nonnative speakers. Genre pedagogy is accused of impeding "writer's self expression and straight-jacketing learners' creativity through conformity and prescriptivism" (Hyland, 2007, p.152) from the process writing proponents. The reservations about the genre pedagogy point to the necessity of further classroom-based research.

II. PREVIOUS LITERATURE

With diverse theoretical grounds and focal points in mind, genre approaches are distilled and posited into three "camps": the Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL) School, the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) School, and the New Rhetoric (NR) School (Cheng, 2006; Jones, 2011; Hyon, 1996). We work with the SFL line of genre theory, which deems genre as "staged, goal-oriented social process" (Martin, 2009, p.13). The SFL approach draws heavily on the tripartite structure of the language and has stuck to the habit of imparting explicit instructions to learners. Practitioners and researchers in this branch of genre study dedicate themselves to locating the invisible stages in a bulk of discourses and digging the tacit schematic structures out in order to explicate them to learners through the linguistic analysis.

The genre pedagogy in the SFL School, normally presented in a teaching and learning cycle, is characterized by the recycling of three stages: modeling stage, joint negotiation stage, and individual construction stage (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993). A variety of school genres or curriculum genres, such as report, narrative, argumentation are discussed and their schematic structures are explored in the early classroom application of genre approach. The SFL genre approach exerted a long-lasting impact on the L1 and migrant adult writing in Australia in the 20th century (Hyland, 2005).

A growing body of literatures on the SFL-based genre approach in the EFL classrooms has been reported recently. In Taiwan, 41 English majors work with the SFL-based genre pedagogy in their 10-week summary writing class. Participants are required to summarize their reading of *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* into 500 words. The results of the pre-test and post-test writings manifest that the SFL genre approach is effective in L2 writing classes and that students benefit more in aspects of content development and rhetorical organization than in such domains as linguistic accuracy and lexical diversity. It is suggested that greater efforts are still needed to reveal the pros and cons of the genre approach for the purpose of maximizing its effects in L2 writing classrooms (Chen & Su, 2012). Only one group of learners participates in the aforementioned research and the research instrument is limited to pre- and post tests, which diminish the reliability of the research.

The other two researches conducted in the EFL college settings greatly illuminate the present research. Yasuda (2011) combines the SFL genre approach with the task-based pedagogy in teaching e-mail writing with 70 Japanese novice undergraduates, and she finds that both the genre awareness and linguistic ability, with the exception to lexical diversity, evidence significant improvement over a 15-week writing course. The defect with her design lies in the fact that there are not two treatment groups to solidify her claim that the improvement is the outcome of the SFL genre pedagogy. In her research, Yayli (2011) incorporates a wide range of genres into her course, namely, e-mail, recipe, CV, letter of complaint and two types of essays when working with the pre-service English teachers in a Turkish university. Genre awareness and cross-genre awareness are reported and discussed and her use of multi-genre portfolios is well worth mentioning. The limitation with her design is that there are a limited number of participants (6 pre-service teachers) in the research and that she fails to investigate participants' linguistic and lexical improvement when examining their genre awareness and cross-genre awareness.

III. THE STUDY

The present research brings the SFL-based genre approach into a Chinese college writing classroom to examine whether genre approach can enhance Chinese EFL writers' genre awareness and writing competence, including writing quality, writing fluency and lexical ability, on the part of the learners in the treatment group after 16-week genre instruction. Accordingly, two research questions are formulated as follows:

(1) What are the effects of the SFL-based genre approach on eliciting and developing genre awareness in Chinese college writers?

(2) What are the effects of the SFL-based genre approach on Chinese college writers' writing competence?

A. Course

Practical English Writing is an optional course in a state polytechnic college in the east part of China. The writing research takes place in the winter semester of the 2012-2013 academic year and the class meets once a week for two sessions, ninety minutes to be exact, for sixteen weeks. At the end of the course two credits are granted to qualified writers.

The writing course incorporates a wide range of genres, such as self-introduction, letters of all sorts of purposes, notes and notices, curriculum vitae and abstracts. The writing syllabus is designed in a continuum from easy to difficult, from daily informal genres to more detached formal ones.

B. Participants

Two classes of students (n=32+32) are invited to participate in the research and no one quits during the research. Their ages range from 19 to 21 and the percentage of males to females is approximately 1 to 3 in either class. All the subjects are undergraduate non-English majors enrolling in the optional writing class. Class one is randomly set as the control group (CG) and Class two the experiment group (EG).

It has to be acknowledged that the subjects come from two grades, grade two and grade three. Sophomore students are still having compulsory English classes under the title of College English during the research period while the juniors have finished the classroom learning of English, which is required for every undergraduate in their first two years at college.

C. Instruments

Both quantitative and qualitative methods are incorporated in the present study, including pre- and post-tests, questionnaire, and interview.

1. Pre- and Post Tests

Pre- and post tests are conducted with both the CG (n=32) and the EG (n=32) in class respectively at the beginning and the end of the writing course. All the participants in two classes participate in the written research and no one quits in the process. Time is guaranteed at both tests and no subjects complain about lack of time. What's more, to imitate the real writing situation, there are no limitations set on the length of the two letters.

Pre-test is taken at the first lecture prior to the class instruction and the writings gathered are regarded to reflect the writers' prior writing competence. Post-test is administered at the last lecture upon the completion of the 16-week writing instruction. The 128 copies of writings comprise the written data for the research.

To ensure the comparability of the pre- and post-test writings, the complexity of the two writings is set approximately constant and at each time they are required to writer a letter of apology. The reasons for the choice of a letter of apology are threefold: In the first place, to the best knowledge of the author, the apology letter genre has not been explored in any writing classrooms; in the second place, this genre is a familiar genre to all subjects, therefore they will not be at loss what to write at the pre-test time when pre-test data are first collected; besides, the apology letter genre is a sub-genre of letter writing and is listed on the syllabus of the writing course.

2. Questionnaire

The questionnaire is administered with all the 32 subjects in the EG at the last lecture. The reasons are made clear to the students before the distribution of the questionnaire. To ensure the reliability of the questionnaire, subjects are asked to complete the questionnaire in class unanimously and independently.

All the 32 questionnaires are collected after class and they are judged valid for the research. The original questionnaire is printed in Chinese to ensure no misunderstandings arise due to the language barrier.

3. Interview

Five interviewees are randomly selected from the EG and the interviewer is the researcher herself. The interview is administered in the researcher's office on a Friday afternoon, a week's later after the post-test has been done. The author interviews the five students respectively at the agreed-upon time and the each interview process is audio taped with the Cool Edit pro software. The subjects are informed in advance that the interview is audio recorded solely for the research purpose and their written permissions are obtained before each interview. The researcher is also authorized to use interviewees' surnames if necessary. After the interview, each interviewee receives a gel pen and a notebook as gifts from the researcher.

4. Teaching practice

The teaching practice period lasts from the second week to the fifteenth week. During the in-between 14 weeks, both the CG and the EG receive writing instructions, finish the same writing assignments, and are both expected to revise according to the feedback. The only difference lies in the teaching methods employed.

For the CG, the traditional writing approach is used throughout the course. At the beginning of the lesson, the lecturer first introduces the kind of writing to be learnt, then provides the model writing, and analyzes the model from the perspective of text structure, development of each paragraph, its lexis and diction of the writing. Some of the commonly-encountered words or sentence patterns are discussed and provided. After the careful studying of the model writing, students are encouraged to imitate a piece of writing according to teacher's requirement. Sometimes class time is set aside for writing and part of writings are collected and corrected in class. Five out-of-class assignments are asked of the learners in the CG. Feedbacks are presented at the very beginning of the next meeting, mainly concerned with such aspects as mistakes in content, structure, and grammar. Therefore, the writing approach employed in the CG can be summarized as the linear way: teacher instruction, model imitation, and student drafting and revising.

For the EG, the SFL-based genre approach guides the whole teaching process. The teaching syllabus in the EG is carefully designed in compliance with the principles outlined in Hyland (2007) and it is strictly observed in the teaching practice. First, needs analysis is taken into consideration in designation of the writing syllabus. It is believed that learners' needs are closely related to their learning motivations and a well-designed teaching schedule can undoubtedly elicit the learners' interest and motivation. All the genres included in this writing course are based on the predictions about the learners' immediate needs and potential needs in the near future. Self-introductions, personal letters, business letters, notices, posters, cover letters, resumes, and abstracts are incorporated in the writing schedule. Second, according to Hyland's (2007) suggestion to "grade genres by perceived increasing levels of difficulty" (p.156), the genres on the learning list are arranged in a continuum from easy genres to demanding ones.

In the teaching phase, both conscious-raising and linguistic developments are two intended objectives. Four stages are identified in the actual writing lessons: context exploration, text exploration, joint construction and individual application. Every genre dealt with in the classroom basically follows the same four-step teaching-learning cycle.

5. Data collection

There are 64 subjects participating in the present research. Three sets of data, namely from the pre- and post tests, questionnaire and interview, are collected throughout the 16-week writing research. Questionnaire and interview are only conducted with the 32 subjects in the EG. Questionnaire is administered in class during the last lecture while the interview is conducted a week's later with 5 randomly-selected students in the researcher's office.

Pre- and post test writings are conducted with both groups in class and all copies of writings are collected after class as the written data for the research. On two occasions, 64 subjects are required to write a letter of apology for a particular reason. There are no limitations on writing length and writing time, but all of them finish the letter-writing in class.

Pre- and post-tests are conducted with both CG and EG in class respectively at the beginning and the end of the writing course. All the subjects in two classes participate in the written research and no one quits in the process. Time is guaranteed at both tests and no subjects complain about lack of time. What's more, to imitate the real writing situation, there are no limitations set on the length of the two letters.

6. Data analysis

Genre awareness is hardly to be assessed through a set of figures; therefore, it is measured chiefly through qualitative data obtained through questionnaires and quantitative data from the retrospective interviews.

The 128-copy of writings from both the CG and the EG constitute the quantitative data to assess two groups of writers' writing competence. Two experienced college teachers are invited to participate in the research. They are asked to mark each piece of writing twice both holistically and analytically on a five-point scale (5=excellent, 4=good, 3=average, 2=poor, 1=very poor). Holistic scores are chiefly based on the content, structure and grammar; analytic scores are also marked according to the three analytic criteria based on Lumley's (2005) scale descriptors: task fulfillment and appropriacy (TFA), cohesion and organization (C&O), and grammatical control (GC).

The two independent raters agree with each other on most of the scores and the inter-rater reliability is measured as well. Marks are taken down and analyzed with software SPSS 14.0. Results are compared synchronically and diachronically.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Effects on Genre Awareness

The questionnaire consists of three close-ended questions and one open-ended question. The descriptive statistics of the first three questions is listed in the Table 1.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Questions	Mean	SD	Not at all	A little	Somewhat	A lot
1. To what degree did you have prior experience with writing English letters before taking this class?	2.576	.716	1	15	13	3
2. To what degree do you think you have improved your ability in writing the genres learned this semester?	3.500	.568	0	1	14	17
3. To what degree do you think you have changed your way of thinking about writing in English? Take letter writing as an example.	3.094	.588	0	4	21	7

n=32; SD stands for standard deviation. Likert scale values: not at all (1), a little (2), somewhat (3), and a lot (4).

At the end of the questionnaire, an open-ended question encourages all the 32 subjects to reflect on their changed views on writing. The dynamic nature of writing and the prospective usefulness of the genre in the future life are two major contributing factors. Many a subject claims that they perceive new understanding of writing by saying that "writings vary a great deal in the degree of courtesy and formality according to such factors as its potential readers"   or that "English writing is more than a 150-word composition that has to be finished within 30 minutes as we usually encounter on test papers."

A retrospective interview is arranged to triangulate and expand the information gained through the questionnaire. In the interview with the 5 randomly-selected students, when the two copies of writing are presented in front of them, they are pressed to comment on the differences and the reasons for the changes, and all of them detect some changes and offer different explanations.

To summarize, most of the participants report progress and enhancement in genre knowledge and genre awareness after the genre instruction but it must be heeded that many learners report their increased genre awareness on the rather surface-level aspects, such as proper salutation and complimentary closure, layout of the letter, and degree of formality in vocabularies.

B. Effects on Writing Competence

Writing competence here is an umbrella term, which is further deconstructed into three minor aspects related to the L2 writers' writing ability: writing quality, writing fluency and lexical ability.

1. Effects on Writing Quality

Holistically speaking, the CG and the EG are at roughly the same level with regard to their overall writing ability at the outset of the study ($t= .295$, $p= 769$). Thus, the group difference cannot account for the following differences found in the post-test writings; treatment effects lead to the possible differences. Paired samples t-test respectively for CG and EG indicate that both groups advance significantly in the semester since the p-value in either case is lower than .05, but at a different pace: the EG ($t= -7.0$, $p= .000$) outperforms the CG ($t= -3.80$, $p= .001$). Independent samples t-test for CG and EG post-test holistic scores reveal that the difference between the CG (M= 3.85, SD= .69) and the EG (M= 4.19, SD= .51) on holistic scores of the post-test writings are significant ($t= -2.207$; $p= .031< .05$). That is to say, the SFL-based genre approach is observed to have better effects on improving the writers' overall writing quality.

From the analytic perspective, independent samples t-test for CG and EG pre-test analytic scores indicate that p-value for TFA, C&O, and GC is respectively .767, .35, and .868. None of them is below .05, so no statistically significant group difference is found in any of the three aspects.
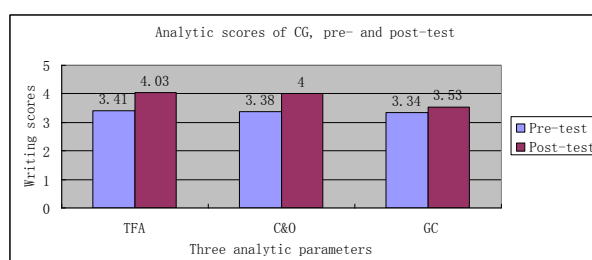

Figure 1 The CG's changes in analytic scores
Notes: TFA=task fulfillment and appropriacy; C&O=cohesion and organization; GC=grammatical control

Figure 1 and 2 show how the three analytic aspects evolve after the 16-week instruction in the CG and EG. It can be easily detected that all the three aspects in two groups are hoisted, but with at different pace in two groups with the three parameters. The improvements in TFA and C&O are comparatively noticeable while the change in GC is negligible.
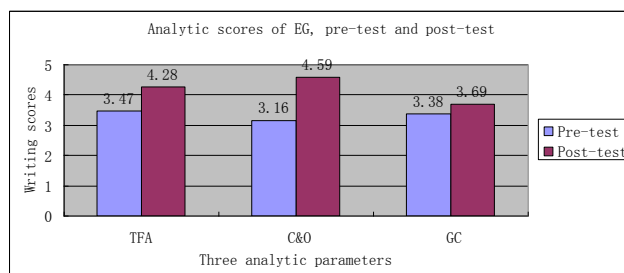

Figure 2 The EG's changes in analytic scores
Notes: TFA=task fulfillment and appropriacy; C&O=cohesion and organization; GC=grammatical control

Paired sample t-tests CG analytic scores reveal that the CG improves in mean scores in all the three parameters, but the variances between different members in the CG in fact are further widened. Significant differences are found in two parameters: TFA (*t*= –3.898; *p*= .000 < .05) and C&O (*t*= –3.056; *p*= .005 < .05). Although the mean score is slightly improved, the statistically significant difference in GC is not found (*t*= –1.099; *p*= .28 > .05). Similarly, the EG improves in the mean scores of the three parameters (see Fig.2); what is especially worth mentioning is that the EG exhibits signs of convergence in writing quality. This finding is very crucial for the present research.

It can be safely concluded that the developments of the three parameters of writing competence in the present study do not progress concurrently. The exterior problems can be addressed immediately and promptly, such as the format of a letter, the proper complimentary close and how to address a person properly, while the interior problems are hard to detect and to be removed. The diversity in sentence structures and the proper word choice are hard to improve due to the limited course time; they are accumulated in everyday learning and this knowledge is expected to be added to their language repertoire on a long-term basis. The tentative conclusion drawn here is that the SFL genre-approach beats the traditional approach not only in its lifting up the overall writing quality but also in its potential to facilitate a wide variety of writers, including those at the lower levels.

2. Effects on Writing Fluency

Brown (1994) refers to fluency activities as "saying or writing a steady flow of language for a short period of time without any self- or other correction at all" (p. 113). Writing fluency in many studies is measured exclusively by writing length or the number of tokens (for example, Yasuda, 2011). The ability to write longer in similar situations is presumed to indicate the writer's improved writing fluency and writing ability. In the present research, in judging writing fluency, we also take writing quality into consideration given that writing length alone cannot speak much about the writers' writing ability.

The 128 copies of writings, if compared synchronically and diachronically, reveal more about writing fluency. Synchronically speaking, the CG participants write more and longer than their counterparts in the EG at the beginning of the semester. For the CG, there are 3385 words in the 32 pieces of writing (numbers included); the mean length of each piece is about 106 words. For the EG, there are altogether 2766 words and the mean length of each writing is 86 words. The independent samples *t*-test reveals there exists marked difference between the CG and the EG in the length of the pre-test writings (*t*= 2.805; *p*= .007 < *.05*). The above-mentioned tendencies persist in the post-test writings. The CG still writes more and longer sentences, and the word choices become even closer. Independent samples *t*-test on the post-test writings of the CG and the EG indicates statistically significant differences between the CG and the EG in the length of the post-test writings are not removed at the end of the course (*t*= 3.037; *p*= .003 < *.05*).

Diachronically speaking, some consistent phenomena are also observed in the two groups. For both the CG and the EG alike, the pre-test writings are longer than the post-test ones, so are the number of sentences and the mean words for each writing; both groups increase their sentence length in the post-test writings. The CG increases one word in sentence length (pre-test= 11.06, post-test= 12.13) while the EG makes greater gains (pre-test= 9.85, post-test= 11.93). Paired samples *t*-tests indicate that there are significant differences between the pre-test writings and the post-test writings in the CG (*t*= 2.377; *p*= .024) and the EG (*t*= 3.395; *p*= .002).

Although both the CG and the EG write shorter letters at the post-test, they are awarded better grades. Therefore, it cannot be concluded that their writing fluency and writing ability declines; on the contrary, they write more pertinent letters after the 16-week genre instruction.

3. Effects on Lexical Ability

Lexical ability in terms of lexical diversity and lexical sophistication is under examination respectively through type token ration (TTR) and the distribution of base words in the writings with the help of software Range 32. Lexical diversity is regarded as an essential indicator of a writer's writing competence and is employed as the most important

parameters in assessing one's writing (Yu, 2009). In the present research, lexical diversity is measured by TTR in the written production.

Statistics indicate that at the beginning of the semester, as to TTR there is no significant difference between the CG (Mean= 68.78%, SD=6.828) and the EG (Mean= 65.63%, SD= 7.071) (*t*= 1.816; *p*= .074 > .05), but at the end of the semester statistically significant differences arise between the CG (Mean= 73.16%, SD= 7.03) and the EG (Mean= 76.93%, SD= 5.3) (*t*= −2.435; *p*= .018 < .05). Marked differences are also observed in the pre- and post-writings in the two groups (*t*= −2.474, *p*= .019 < .05 for CG; *t*= −2.264, *p*= .031 < .05 for EG).

Paired samples *t*-tests on TTRs of CG and EG pre- and post-test writings indicate that both groups make clear gains in terms of TTR (*t*= −2.474, *p*= .019 < .05 for the CG; *t*= −2.264, *p*=.031 < .05 for the EG). A major finding in TTR is that at the beginning of the semester no significant difference is found between the CG and the EG, therefore, the treatment effects are responsible for the marked differences found in TTR at the end of the semester.

Lexical sophistication, also phrased as lexical rareness, chiefly examines the proportion of less frequent or advanced words in a text.
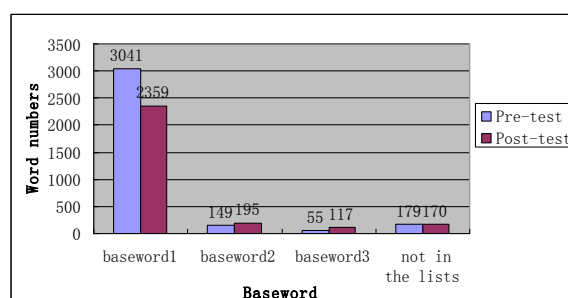

Figure 3 Distribution of basewords for the CG in pre- and post tests

Range 32 categorizes the written material into four groups of basewords. Generally speaking, words in base list one and base list two are high-frequency vocabulary while words in base list three are low-frequency vocabulary. Fig. 3 presents the distribution of basewords in the pre- and post-test of the CG. As the figure shows, compared with the pre-test writing, the post-test writing uses fewer words in baseword1, more words in baseword2 and baseword3.
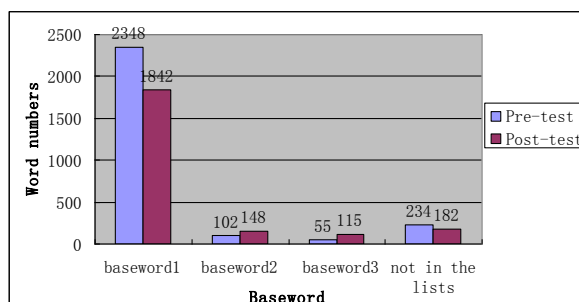

Figure 4 Distribution of basewords for the EG in pre- and post tests

Similar results are also observed in the EG (see Fig. 4). The number of words in baseword1 is observed to decrease to a large extent from 2348 in the pre-test to 1842 in the post-test; more words in baseword2 and baseword3 are used in the post-test writings, among which the use of words in baseword3 doubles from 55 in the pre-test to 115 in the post-test.

V. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

The present empirical research aims at investigating the effects of the SFL-based genre approach on Chinese college-level L2 learners from two major aspects: genre awareness and writing competence. Two major findings are reported as follows:

Firstly, genre awareness is embedded in learners and their repertoire of genre knowledge is enriched in the SFL-based genre writing class, chiefly by means of explicit teaching. This finding echoes some other researches in EFL contexts (for example, Yayli, 2011; Yasuda, 2011). Explicit instruction advocated in the genre approach shortcuts the process that the L2 learners need to fully understand how a text is constructed through the interaction of purpose, audience and social context and sensitizes them to both the dynamic and stable nature of genre. In the present research, the analysis of qualitative data indicates that the heightened reader-writer relationship and the formal genre knowledge contribute to the noticeable growth in genre awareness.

Secondly, the SFL-based genre writing approach facilitates the development of the writing competence in an enormous way. From the perspective of writing quality, the CG and the EG are of the similar writing level at the outset

of the research, but after the 16-week genre instruction, the EG achieve statistically significant grades at the post-test in terms of holistic scores and the C&O aspect of the three analytic scores. What is especially worth mentioning is that the EG not only achieve higher writing scores, the SD in the group is also observed to converge. It manifests that the genre approach benefits a wide range of writers.

As for writing fluency, it is not accompanied by increased writing length. In the present research, both the CG and the EG produce better writings with relatively fewer words. That is to say, writing quality does not always go hand in hand with writing fluency. In addition, mixed results are found with the learners' lexical ability. Significant differences are found with the CG and the EG with regard to lexical diversity while the progress in lexical sophistication is found insignificant. The failure in increasing the learners' lexical sophistication points to the necessity of modifying the genre writing approach to make it better serve the needs of learners at a relatively low level. For advanced learners, there is no urgent need to spend much time on sentence-level language, specifically vocabulary, but for the inexperienced or low-level writers, the necessity is obvious and cannot be ignored.

Two major pedagogical implications are presented based on the findings of the present 16-week genre writing course, which are believed to offer some useful insights into the genre writing approach in L2 contexts.

First, due attention should be paid to the issue of genre awareness development in L2 language classrooms, especially for novice writers who have limited experience with writing in an L2 context. Only part of the genres can be learned in class, learners may encounter new genres in their future work situations, so it is more important to teach them methods of approaching a genre. As the old Chinese saying goes, "delegate to fish, as delegate to fish". In the similar vein, cultivating genre awareness in an L2 learner is of greater importance than investing all time in any particular genre (Johns et al., 2006).

Second, hybrid writing approach can be developed to orient different learners. Genre approach has been employed in different contexts with varying-competence learners, but it does not follow that in all classrooms the genre approach should be applied in the same way; on the contrary, the genre approach should be adapted to accommodate to the needs of diverse learners.

VI. LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Limitations of the study should be acknowledged: first, the subjects for the present research are not from the same grade; second, the quantitative results are solely based on the genre of apology letters within a short period of time; third, another important caveat that should be made clear is the researcher's personal experience and ability.

Further researches can be carried out with the above-mentioned limitations in mind. First, a longitudinal research is desired for the observation of continual development in terms of both genre awareness and genre acquisition on the part of the L2 writers. Whether the learners employ the genre awareness and genre knowledge in a writing course to assist their subsequent learning is an area of much interest. Second, further studies are needed to investigate whether the heightened genre awareness derived from the study in a handful of genres is conducive to the development of cross-genre awareness. Third, an interdisciplinary genre research between learners' L1 and L2 is another prosperous research area in genre studies. It has been noticed that quite a few writers draw on their L1 knowledge in drafting their L2 writings, but it is beyond the scope of the present research. Whether or how the L2 writers transfer their genre awareness or genre knowledge developed in the L2 classrooms to their L1 writings is well worth researching.

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The Importance of Discourse Markers in English Learning and Teaching

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Abstraction—With the wave of development of discourse analysis, more and more linguists and pedagogists begin to apply the research findings and results in this field to language learning and teaching and so far have provided a lot of help. However, whether it is also true for Chinese English learners in using these markers needs further proof. Thus this dissertation aims to investigate into the applicability of DM theory to Chinese teachers and learners in evaluation DMs and the problems they have in learning and using them. Through the analysis on both the qualitative and quantitative results, the research supports and proves the important position of dms in language learning and teaching. It also points out the problems faced by the learners and suggests some possible means for both teachers and students to solve the problems. Later it provides a possible way for the future teaching of dms, which in turn might provide a useful framework for other teaching methods. As a result of the theoretical analysis and the research, the paper concludes that dms do occupy a position in English learning and teaching. It is quite advisable and necessary to pay enough attention to them and try to apply and use them automatically, correctly and appropriately with the help of teachers. Also any over-emphasis on these dms should be avoided against a distraction from the subject matter and together with other methods to facilitate learning process and to bring out a most efficient and effective result in language learning.

Index Terms—discourse analysis, discourse markers, foreign language learning

I. A BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO DISCOURSE

In the middle of the 20th century, I. Harris and T. F. Mitchell initiated the idea on discourse analysis. And Harris first used the term Discourse Analysis in his book Discourse Analysis (1952). Later The Language of Buying and Selling in Cryenaica (1957) by Mitchell further developed the theory in a detailed way.

With time passing by, the study of discourse is receiving more and more attention and gradually broadening its category and influence on many aspects. So far its study results have been applied to machine translation, modern stylistics study, language teaching and learning and has brought a great deal of benefits to people in many fields of study.

In spite of the popularity of studying discourse, how to define the term is always a controversy, and different linguists give different definitions according to their own understanding and study focus such as connected speech, (Harris, 1952); the product of an interactive process in a socio-cultural context (Pike, 1954); conversational interaction (Coulthard, 1977); language in context across all forms and modes (Ernean, 1981) and process (Brown and Yule, 1983). But underlying the differences is a common concern for language beyond the boundaries of isolated sentences.

Now the term discourse has entered the vocabulary of many language teachers and applied linguistics. There seems to be fairly broad agreement on its two-core meaning; language in use and the relationships between sentences. Thus the Longman dictionary of Applied Linguistics defines discourse as firstly a general term for examples of language use, i.e. language which has been produced as the result of an act of communication and secondly, in contrast to grammar, which deals with clauses, phrases and sentences, referring to larger units of language such as paragraphs, conversations, and interviews (Richards, Platt and Weber 1985) or the continuous stretches of language longer than a single sentence.

II. WHAT IS DISCOURSE MARKER

The production and comprehension of coherent discourse is an interactive process which requires several different types of knowledge. According to Shiffrin, one type of competence is social and expressive----the ability to use language to display personal and social identities, to perform actions, and to negotiate relationships between self and other. Still other types of competence are cognitive, e.g. the ability to organize conceptual information and to represent it through language, and textual, e.g. the ability to create and understand messages within units of language longer than a single sentence.

1. The definitions of dms

Traditionally, dms are restricted only to speech, as is showed in the following definitions. Dms are:

Linguistic expressions that is used to signal the relation of an utterance to the immediate context with the primary function of bringing to listener's attention a particular kind of the upcoming utterance with the immediate discourse context (Redeker, 1991)

Marking devices which display the speaker's understanding of the contribution's sequential relationship or relevance to the information set as established by the immediately preceding contribution (Goldberg, 1980)

Certain set of signals in the conversationalist's speech, used to introduce level shifts within the conversation, or to prepare listeners for the next run in the logical argument (Keller, 1979)

Expressions which help the speaker divide his message into chunks of information and hence they also help the listener in the process of decoding these information units (Erman, 1986)

Most of the above-mentioned definitions confine dms only to spoken language. According to this view, dms are used to maintain and achieve conversational continuity and seen as response signals and essentially interactive to express the relation or relevance of an utterance to the preceding utterance or to the context. However, as the view about dms is gradually broadened, discourse markers also include more and more items in written language. Vande Kopple (1985) points out that dms are a kind of linguistic items which appear both in spoken and written language and are those items ehich can help the reader/listeners organize, interpret and evaluate the information.

According to him, we work on two different levels when we speak or write. On one level, we convey information about our subject matter and on the other level, we show listeners/readers how to listen to or read, react to, and evaluate what was spoken or written about the subject matter. As William Vande Kopple explains, the first level is the primary discourse level and the second is the metadiscourse level or dm level.

Thus dms are special linguistic materials through which the speakers stop into a text to make their presence felt in the text, to give guidance to an audience as to how the text is organized, what processes are being used to produce it, and what the speaker's intentions and attitudes are regarding the subject matter, the readers, and their text. And they can be realized by various forms such as words, phrases, and clauses. It is usual to find sequences of two or more sentences serving discourse marker purpose, especially in introductions and conclusions to academic texts. Therefore in this these, the dms are as inclusive as involving many language forms, that is words, phrases and clauses.

2. The category/classification of dms

Michael Halliday's functional, pragmatic approach to language helps us understand the concept and classification of dms. He divides the meaning systems of language into three major systems or functions: ideational, interpersonal and textual. This concept of the three functions of language lays the theoretical foundation for dms. The ideational function is concerned with the content of language propositions that are either true or false, and it is representational, referential and informational. The interpersonal function is concerned with establishing and maintaining human relationships and it includes all that may be understood by the expression of our own personalities and personal feelings on the one hand, and the forms of interaction and social interlay with the other participants in the communication situation on the other hand. Here language is used as the mediator: it allows language users to express their personal feelings about the ideational content of their texts and to guide the readers in processing propositional content. The textual function is an enabling function and essential for cohesive texts and for effectively conveying ideational and interpersonal meanings; it makes discourse possible by creating text. It has the function of creating texts, which are distinct from strings of words or isolated sentences and clauses. Bases on Halliday's meaning functions, dms can be classified into two broad categories: the interpersonal and textual.

Crismore, Markkanen, and Steffensen (1993) use Vande Kopple's system for dms classification, but modify it in some way. They retains the two major types, textual and interpersonal, but reorganizes their categories into textual dms, consisting of textual markers and interpretative markers and interpersonal dms consisting of Hedges, Certainty markers, attributors, attitude markers and commentary.

3. The functions of dms

So far discourse analysts have proved a number of ways in which discourse markers might contribute to the comprehension of a text.

Some see discourse markers as empty, fulfilling no semantic role. According to this interpretation, the appropriate meaning of dms depends on their surrounding context and the marker itself does not add any meaning, therefore can be deleted from a text without any apparent sacrifice to meaning.

However, in spite of this empty interpretation, they might facilitate comprehension of spoken text by acting as filled pauses, therefore gibing listeners more time to process the speech signal and making its segmentation more explicit. And, here these dms fulfill a role similar to punctuation in written text. In this sense, these dms are thus quite helpful to language learners.

In contrast to the empty view of the role of dms in comprehension, Halliday and Hasan, function as anaphoric signals of the semantic relations pertaining between a given clause and it preceding clause. Conjunctives are classified into four groups according to their semantic function: additive and temporal, adversative, causal.

Besides this semantic view of dms, another comes from schiffrin's analysis of discourse markers in conversation, in which she emphasizes that they may indicate a semantic and pragmatic meaning. For example, the discourse marker but conveys both semantic and pragmatic meaning: in terms of semantics, but indicate a contrast between the propositional content of an upcoming stretch of talk with the preceding stretch, while in terms of pragmatics it may signal that the speaker is returning to a topic, having diverged.

According to this view which allows for a pragmatic dimension, dms are not seen as simply tying together adjoining clauses but may indicate relations between stretches of text. And this view is becoming more and more popular and

accepted.

However, no matter what view we take towards these dms, they are surely quite helpful and able to facilitate our comprehension of text both spoken and written. As many linguists ever mentioned in the following:

While discourse markers are grammatically optional and semantically empty, they are not pragmatically optional and superfluous: they serve a variety of pragmatic functions. (Brown 1977)If such markers are omitted, the discourse is grammatically acceptable, but would be judged unnatural, awkward, impolite unfriendly or dogmatic within the communicative context(Briton, 1996) creating such a discourse could be incomprehensible for the listener/reader, and mission impossible for the speaker and there would be a great chance of communicative breakdown.(Fraser, 1990).

The following is a set of major functions about dms (Briton, L. 1996)

a. To initiate discourse, including claiming the attention of the hearer or reader, and to close discourse,

b. To mark a boundary in discourse, that is, to indicate a new topic a partial shift in topic,

c. To adopt either new information or old information,

d. To express a response, subjectively, or to react to the preceding discourse or attitude towards the following discourse,

e. Interpersonally, to effect cooperation, sharing experiences or intimacy between speaker and hearer, writer and reader, including confirming shared assumptions, checking or expressing understanding, requesting confirmation, expressing deference, or saving face.

The functions of discourse markers may fall into two categories: textual functions of language and interpersonal functions. The two-fold function of dms has practical employment, especially their significance in language learning and teaching.

Firstly, it important for English studies because using it can lead to more effective, efficient speaking and listening, writing and reading or interpreting. Literature teachers can learn new approaches to classics by analyzing their dms use, and writing teachers can learn new rhetorical devices for persuasion.

Secondly, dms are important for teaching reading because it provides benefits for readers with sources for ideas, summaries of thought processes, and mental status, organization of texts, transition guidance of reader expectations, and harmony between writer and reader. Its most important effects on the reader are involvement with and support for an author who cares deeply about the text and the reader and involvement with the text.

Finally, dms are important for teachers in other disciplines because its use can lead to more effective and efficient learning of subject-matter concepts and in technical writing can be presented for needed control structure.

III.   STUDIES AND RESEARCH ON DMs

1. Effects of dms on learning

Learning can be said to include two processes: comprehension and production. During the comprehension stage, learners try to get an idea of what to be learned, e.g. the definition, classification, features and structure and try to make out the relevant theory and how it works or functions. This process is fulfilled largely by a great amount of input such as through reading, thinking and teacher's explanation. After contacting with enough language input for a period of time, learners will know the basic and general knowledge of what to be learned. But this doesn't mean that they have acquired everything and been able to use them successfully, especially in language learning. They need to move to the next step, practice, for the final stage of production. For example, although students have been taught the grammar rules, say the present perfect, usually they are still unable to produce correct sentences without enough proactive. Therefore exercises in and out class always play an important role in learning and teaching. Other typical and obvious examples are to speak and write correct and standard English. With speaking and writing as the very production of language learning, it is quite necessary for students to practice an lot before they can turn them out automatically, correctly and appropriately.

Thus, this learning process tells us that understanding dms is one thing and being able to use them is another. To ensure a successful transition from the first comprehension stage to the second production stage, a lot of practices are needed in classroom learning and teaching. For teachers, it is advisable to point out and draw students' attention to these special linguistic items in an appropriate degree through teaching. Teachers may design some relevant exercises such as sentence-completing and sentence-reordering with these dms, correcting students' compositions in or out of class. Especially when they have difficulty to understand the texts because of too many new words or little knowledge about the topic, it is up to teachers to guide them to turn to these dms to draw some clues of general ideas. Therefore teachers are expected to give detailed instruction about the functions and use of these items at right moment and guide students to read model texts with dms and try to find out the difference between those without dms.

For students, they need more exercises to improve the automatic application or employment through reading, writing, speaking and listening more and consciously pay attention to them and at the same time try to perceive the functions and effects brought by dms and learn to view their learning process as a communication with their listeners, speakers, writers and readers, so that they can use these items accurately and appropriately through both their own efforts and with the help of their teachers.

2. Effects of dms on teaching

In another aspect, teaching focus in different stages should be geared according to the English level of English

learners, so that a most efficient and effective result can be achieved both for teaching and learning. Piennemann ever proposed the learnability-hypothesis, that is learners can only benefit from formal classroom teaching if they are psycholinguistically ready for the structures that are being taught. Thus what is learnable by particular learners at a given stage in their development constrains what is teachable. For example, explicitly teaching a structure for which the individual is not yet cognitively ready can not help the individual to jump stages in the developmental sequence. Thus in turn this view may provide evidence for the necessary shift of teaching focus during different learning and teaching stages.

This learnability-hypothese may suggest that teaching should be well arranged and processed according to learners' levels and different leaning stages. For example in terms of the teaching of dms, students of advanced level should be given more chance to try discourse analysis by knowing more about discourse analysis such as discourse structure, discourse style and cohesion and coherence view in language learning, and then students may have a better understanding and employing of dms in their reading and writing. Therefore in order to use dms successfully, advanced teaching of reading and writing should focus more on the learning of discourse organization in order to prevent early fossilization of using dms.

The fact that the seniors, compared with the sophomores, didn't show obvious progress in using dms, besides the lack of practice and attention, may result from the failure of a necessary shift of teaching focus from basic knowledge and simple practice to a more advanced discourse comprehension. For example, students at advanced level should know the essentials about discourse structures, written styles and the techniques such as linguistic and non-linguistic means and the schemata theory in discourse structure to make articles cohesive and coherent. Thus the students' attention is drawn to the skills needed to put knowledge into action and to achieve successful communication and interaction.

3. Ways of teaching and learning dms

Although many linguists through research and studies have reached a general agreement on the importance of dms, how to teach and learn dms most efficiently still needs further research. At present, the lexical approach, or the chunk learning (Nattinger.J and Decarrico, J 1992) might suggest a good way for its learning and teaching. According to the lexical approach, a common characteristic of acquiring language is the progression from routine to pattern to creative use. Thus one method of teaching lexical phrases is to get students to start with a few basic fixed routines, which they then would analyze increasingly variable patterns as they were exposed to more varied phrases. According to this view, there is nothing wrong with memorizing some essential chunks, especially at the beginning stage of language learning, which will surely ease frustration, promote motivation and fluency when learners are unable to construct and use successfully.

More specifically, the lexical approach follow this way: first it is to pattern practice drills which will provide a way of gaining fluency with certain basic fixed routines. Then it is to introduce controlled variation in these basic phrases of simple substitution drills. Next, it is to have students learn to segment and construct new patterns of their own by modeling the analysis done in classroom. Thus the process goes from memorizing some basic and fixed routines to substitution exercises and last to analysis of those variable phrases to find out the construction rules for a full acquisition.

Although dms have their own features and most of their forms are fixed and invariable unlike lexical phrases in the lexical approach, we can still draw some hints from this method, that is, we can learn and teach dms by first viewing the as a special kind of vocabulary. This method may go like this: the first stage is just memorize and recognize the basic and frequently-used dms with the help of teachers who point out and explain these items in texts. Students begin to realize that their existence is somewhat helpful. Then students begin to try using the items they have learned in their speaking and writing. Teachers are supposed to provide timely help by correcting their wrong and inappropriate uses. During this period students are required and encouraged to read more and listen more model materials and try to pay attention to these special items and learn to use them.

Then through constant practice, students are supposed to come to an advanced level to learn and know some knowledge about discourse and discourse analysis such as the important cohesion and coherence view in discourse analysis, discourse structure, and discourse style, which will greatly help them to deal with reading and writing more efficiently as well as to have a better understanding and employing of dms. This stage will help students be able to identify and use dms automatically and successfully, thus further push their learning of dms after the first two periods. During the process, teachers are acting as instructors, correctors, and guides to facilitate students' learning of dms. Of course, it is by no means the only way to learn and teach dms. Other methods may also be able to provide more efficient ways. However, no matter what method is used, the key points are practice and correct guidance in order to ensure a success.

At the same time, not only teachers and students, but also textbook writers, professional writers and publishers all need more awareness of these special linguistic items. Teachers should provide ore classroom opportunities for students to see these items used in various tests and contexts, students also need more classroom opportunities for using it and learning to control its use in various texts and contexts. It is also needed to include these items in comprehensive theories of speaking, writing, reading, interpretation. Language researchers need to design more studies of these items, investigation their various uses and users in various texts and contexts to ensure a successful employment of dms in language learning and teaching.

We may conclude that dms are really helpful in our English learning, bases on the theories and the current research and studies in this field. As Avon Crismore (1989) points out that dms are important for English studies because they can lead to more efficient and effective speaking, listening, writing, reading, interpreting and critical thinking. And in James R. Nattinger and Jeanette S. DeCarrioco's study (1992) they illustrate the possibility and prosperity to apply these linguistic items to an effective teaching of speaking, listening, reading and writing. They believe that these special words and expressions will, to certain extent, facilitate students' study, save their time and help them to grasp the main idea and the writer's intention and attitudes more quickly and accurately.

IV. CONCLUSION

The results from the research also support this opinion, dms do occupy a position in English learning and teaching. However, on the other hand, the research also reveals some problems concerning the use of dms: in spite of the students' realization of the importance of dms in language leaning, the students can not use them well in everyday reading and wring, which indicates that more help, guidance and instruction from teachers are needed and in terms of the students, more attention and exercises are necessary in order to obtain the automatic application of these dms. Therefore based on this result, the researcher has provided some suggestions for both teachers and learners of English and I expecting more to come out with further study.

To sum up, it will be a good way to combine the dms approach with other methods to facilitate learning process and ensure a learning success. At the same time another thing which is worth emphasizing is that since over emphasis on dms may distract students from the very subject matter, and lead to a failure in understanding, thus any over emphasis on the learning and teaching of dms should avoided in order to bring out a most efficient and effective result.

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The Relationship between Field Independence/ Dependence Styles and Reading Comprehension Abilities of EFL Readers

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Abstract—The present study intends to investigate the relationship between Field Independence/Dependence styles and reading comprehension abilities of intermediate EFL readers as well as to explore their attitude toward reading in a foreign language with respect to their cognitive style. To these aims, ninety university students took part in the study. First, for the purpose of ensuring the homogeneity of the participants they were exposed to Oxford Placement Test (OPT) (2007). Then, Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT) was administered to distinguish Field Dependent and Field Independent readers. Moreover, for testing the reading ability of the students a reading comprehension test was conducted. Finally, Students Feedback Survey was distributed to both groups to evaluate their opinions regarding EFL reading comprehension. The results of the quantitative analysis of the data for via t-test revealed that there is a relationship between Field Dependency/Independency and reading comprehension. The analysis of feedback survey also denoted that Field Dependent EFL readers at intermediate proficiency level are better in understanding the main ideas and overt concepts in the text and treat reading text as a whole. While, Field Independent EFL readers at intermediate proficiency level are better in understanding the specific information, covert message in the text, inferencing, and treat reading text as a part. The pedagogical implications of the study are discussed throughout the paper.

Index Terms—field independency, field dependency, learning styles, reading comprehension, attitude

I. INTRODUCTION

Human beings, as supreme creatures of the world, have their own commonalities and variances, which distinguish them from other creatures in general and from one another in particular. In other words there is a commonly held view in psychology regarding these variations and differences in which, every individual is an exception. Back to what has been reverberated in the psychology; it casts some light on the dusty nature of this issue, meanwhile leaves some nuances, if not differences, to be targeted as the main topic of this study later. Field Dependency and Field Independency is one of the dichotomies of a more broad term "cognitive style" which embraces the "thinking style" and involves the way individuals think, perceive and remember information. The Field Dependence-Independence model, invented by Witkin (1977), identifies an individual's perceptive behavior while he/she is distinguishing object figures from the surrounding field in which the objects are set. In other words, in the Field-Dependent/Independent model of learning style, a Field-Independent learning style is defined as a tendency to separate details from the surrounding context, while a Field-Dependent learning style is defined as a relative inability to distinguish detail from other information around it. Field Dependence/Independence theory is one of four theories on cognitive style. Cognitive style goes back to the manner in which individuals acquire and process information. Hansen (1995) stated that "Cognitive style measures do not indicate the content of the information but simply how the brain perceives and processes the information" (p. 2). "Among the cognitive styles identified to date, the field-Dependence-Independence dimension has been the most extensively studied and has had the widest application to educational problems" (Witkin, Lewis, Hertzman, Machover, Meissner, & Wapner, 1954; Witkin, Dyk, Faterson, Goodenough, & Karp, 1962; Witkin, 1976, as cited in Witkin, Moore, Goodenough & Cox, 1977, p. 1).

Moreover, the main goal of reading a text as it has been mentioned by Chastain (1975) is comprehension. However, the very failure of many reading procedures is that comprehension is not achieved adequately, if anything happens at all. It is mostly emanated from ignoring the readers who are a main part in the reading act (ibid.). The ignorance is mainly related to the readers' differences and styles of interaction with the contexts (or fields) they are reading which in turn leads them to take an attitude of reluctance toward continuing the act. This fact is even more problematic when an EFL setting is concerned where the reader must not only deal with a reading practice but also has to handle bunch of a foreign language words and structures. Whereas the willingness and engagement should be the fundamental goal of instruction, since it enhances the quality of the process and as a result the extent of comprehension (Lftody, 2006, cited

in Salmani-Nodoushan; 2007). Two of the most widely recognized differences among the readers include Field Dependence (FD) and Field Independence (FI), an appreciation and awareness of which by both the teachers and readers can improve the comprehension of the text to a great degree. But, unfortunately, what is observed in Iranian educational settings is that the same reading procedures are conducted for the whole body of the EFL readers in the classrooms no matter what the styles of them are – i.e. how they perceive the unwritten meaning (Ellis, 2008). It is obvious that knowing how each learner acts and performs in reading comprehension and comparing them will reveal their likely weakness and strength in reading comprehension. And it also will trigger all educational stakeholders to take an appropriate approach and adapt instructional methods to cognitive style. Therefore, the present study aims to address these research questions:

1) What is the relationship between FD / FI learning styles and intermediate EFL readers' reading comprehension ability?

2) Is there any relationship between FD/FI and students' attitude toward reading comprehension in EFL reading classes?

On the basis of the aforementioned research questions these null hypotheses have been formulated:

H_01: There is no relationship between Field Dependency/Independency and learners' reading comprehension ability.

$H_0 2$: There is no relationship between FD/FI and students' attitudes towards reading comprehension.

II. THEORETICAL AND RESEARCH BACKGROUND

A. Field Dependence/Independence Cognitive Style

The concepts of Field Dependence (FD) and Field Independence (FI) were first introduced by Witkin and his associates in 1954 to describe individual differences in tendencies to rely primarily either on external visual cues or internal gravitational or body sensations for the perception of the upright. Later, they tried to link people's performance to their ability to visually separate an item from a complex context or field. Usually, the item was a simple geometric shape that was hidden or embedded in a more complicated drawing. In these situations, Field Independents demonstrated a greater ability to overcome a given organizational context and separate or disembed the relevant information from the surrounding stimuli; on the other hand, Field Dependents had lesser competence when performing such tasks. They viewed fields as given and performed less analysis and structuring than Field Independents.

Further studies in this area led the individual differences construct to be designated as an articulated versus global field approach and perceived as an ability to overcome embedding contexts in various perceptual and intellectual activities (Witkin et al., 1977). In the early 1960s, Witkin and his associates began to place the description of Field Dependence and independence in a broad theoretical framework of psychological differentiation that reflected the higher-order construct of self/nonself segregation and the balance of interpersonal competencies and restructuring skills (Pizzamiglio & Zoccolotti, 1986; Witkin, Dyk, Faterson, Goodenough, & Karp, 1962).

B. Perception of Upright

Witkin and his colleagues (1981; 1954) summarized that (a) individuals are markedly different from each other in perceiving information and have their own preferred way of locating the upright, (b) individuals tend to be self-consistent in their manner of reliance on external fields or bodies, (c) individuals' characteristic modes of orientation tend to remain stable over long periods of time, and (d) these characteristic modes of information processing have to be taken into consideration so as to fully understand individual's perception of the upright. In general,

Field Dependent people differ remarkably from those who are Field Independent in "how they perceive the upright, rather than in how accurately they perceive the upright" (Goodenough, 1986, p. 11). Herman A. Witkin, a world-renowned investigator of cognitive styles, began his study of cognitive style by examining individual differences perception of the upright in space. In the late 1940s, using a Rod-Frame Test (RFT), a Body Adjustment Test (BAT), and a Rotating Room Test (RRT), Witkin and his associates undertook studies to measure subjects' variations in perception of the upright as influenced by a content field. (Witkin & Goodenough, 1981). The question they asked was, "how important are visual cues in perceiving the vertical direction of space?" (Goodenough, 1986, p. 5). The direction of the perceived upright is primarily determined by a set of information: first, the field around us, which is usually perceived from the surrounding visual environment, and second, the direction of gravity, detected through sensations from the body. Witkin and his colleagues (Witkin & Goodenough, 1981; Witkin et al., 1977) proposed that visual referents and body sensations both provided an accurate sense of the location of the upright, whether these two kinds of determinants were used alone or combined with each other as the referents. In the Rod-Frame Test (RFT), the subjects were required to sit in a dark room. All subjects could see was a bright square frame, within which was a luminous rod, pivoted at the center of the frame, which could be tilted either to the left side or the right side. With the frame tilted, subjects were required to adjust the rod to the upright position according to their perception. Witkin and his associates found that individuals differed dramatically in how they performed this task. For example, some of the subjects aligned the rod with the surrounding frame, no matter what the position of the frame. On the other hand, some of the subjects adjusted the rod regardless of the position of the surrounding frame. They viewed the rod as discrete from the visual frame of reference and determined the upright according to their sense of the position of the body. Another test developed to determine the role of that visual and bodily standards play in perception of the upright is the Body

Adjustment Test (BAT). In this test, subjects were asked to sit in a small tilted room, which could be moved clockwise or counterclockwise. The chair in the tilted room could also be titled clockwise or counterclockwise but independently of the room. The subject was asked to adjust the chair from a tilted position to the upright. When the surrounding room was in a tilted position, some subjects could align themselves with the tilted room and reported that they were in a perfect upright position. Witkin and Goodenough (1981) stated, "such subjects were using the external visual field as the primary referent for perception of the upright, essentially to the exclusion of sensations from the body" (p. 9). Subjects who considered the body as the first referent for perception of the upright were able to adjust their body to the true gravitational upright. Cross (1976) reported that there was substantial correlation between RFT and BAT and that "people who ignored the tilt of the room also ignored the slant of the frame; these people were described as Field Independents. Field Dependents, on the other hand, relied consistently on the surroundings, the room, or the frame, for their orientation" (p. 117).

In the Rotating Room Test (RRT), the external field provided correct cues for subjects to perceive the upright. When there was a change in the direction of the force on the body, the visual referents remained upright. The room and the subject were rotated in a circle. The subject was asked to sit in a tilted chair within a small upright room driven around a circular track. The subject was required to adjust his or her body or the room in which he or she was seated to the upright position. If the subject believed that the postural sensations were produced by the gravity on his or her body, he or she would tilt the body and room to align with that force. On the other hand, if the subject depended more on his or her surrounding visual field, he or she would tend to identify body and room as upright in his or her initial positions. Witkin and Goodenough (1981) pointed out that the RFT and BAT depended on the internal cues of the body and led to a more accurate perception of upright. However, individuals who relied on the external field were more successful in the RRT. Individuals were consistent across all these three tests; success on the BAT and RFT was inversely related to the RRT and vice versa, which indicates that "neither a Field-Dependent nor Field-Independent mode of functioning is uniformly good or bad in their consequences for perception of the upright in space" (Witkin & Goodenough, 1981 p. 14). Witkin et al. (1954) stated that these three tests were designed to investigate the extent to which subjects determine the upright by adherence to the axes of the visual FIELD or resist the influence of the external field through internal cues of their bodies. With these tests, the interpretation of external versus internal orientation was shown to be extended to a more general dimension of perceptual analysis called field dependence (Ramirez III & Castaneda, 1974).

C. Articulated versus Global Field Approach

Further investigations on individual differences in disembedding ability expanded this research area (Witkin & Goodenough, 1981). An articulated versus global dimension was discovered, which represents a person's ability to overcome an embedding context. This dimension focuses on the relationship between disembedding ability in perception, intellectual functioning, and structuring ability. Research evidence suggests that disembedding ability is associated in the perceptual and intellectual domains with the ability to impose structure on an unstructured field. In other words, in addition to having difficulty disembedding perceptually, Field Dependents have difficulty in solving problems that require taking a critical element for solution out of context and using it in a different context (Witkin & Goodenough, 1981). This finding indicates that individuals perform the same level of disembedding or articulated ability across perceptual and intellectual activities, which confirmed a central hypothesis of Field Dependent-independent cognitive styles that "... individual differences in expressions of articulated functioning in one area are related to expressions in other areas ... " (Goodenough, 1976, p. 676).

Studies on the relation between disembedding and structuring ability led to an understanding that disembedding ability is related to cognitive restructuring with a perspective that there is a more "active" or more "passive" action between Field Independents and Field Dependents when they are dealing with the unstructured context. With a relatively articulated cognitive style, the individual is likely to see the parts of the field as distinct from the ground, analyze or synthesize details and parts of a figure, and examine and organize the whole structure of the field in a new way. By contrast, with a relatively global cognitive style, an individual's pattern recognition is strongly governed by field organization, and the individual experiences difficulty in distinguishing figures from the background due to a lack of restructuring ability. Instead, the individual relies more on external referents in making perceptual judgments, such as social contexts and information provided by others. Field Independents tend to experience the components of a structured field analytically, distinguish an element from a given field's organizational background, and impose structure on a field that lacks clear structure. Field dependents tend to perceive a complex stimulus globally and are more likely follow the presented visual field structure and view an unstructured field as "given". They are not good at such structuring and analytical activity (Fitzgibbons, Goldberger, & Eagle, 1965; Ford, 2000; Goodenough, 1976; Pithers, 2002; Witkin & Goodenough, 1981).

D. Research in the Realm of Field Dependency and Field Independency in Iran

In his study Salmani-Nodoushan (2007) titled "Is Field Dependence or Independence a predictor of EFL reading performance" investigated the Field Dependency or Independency on systematic variance into Iranian EFL students' overall and task-specific performance on task-based reading comprehension tests. Having selected a large number of freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior students, all majoring in English at different Iranian universities, he administered the Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT) to the participants. His study demonstrated that individuals'

cognitive styles made a significant difference in their test performance in the proficient, semi proficient, and fairly proficient groups, but this was not the case in the low- proficient group. In addition his study revealed that cognitive style resulted in a significant difference in participants' performance on specific tasks such as true-false, sentence completion, outlining, scanning, and elicitation in all proficiency groups.

Yarahmadi (2011) did a study on Field Independence/Dependence and ownership writing differences found that for both male and female students there was a relationship between Field Dependency and ownership in writing. She concluded that the use of first person singular pronouns and /or possessive adjectives was more characteristic of Field Dependent students. She argued that students are able to improve their writing ability by being aware of style areas in which they feel less comfortable, and this provide avenues to enrich their nonintellectual growth. In the same vain, teachers can identify learning style patterns in writing classes and make the best use of such information by devising lesson plans which takes into account individual learning style preferences.

Ahmady&Yamini (1992) conducted a study on the relationship between Field Dependency/Independency and listening comprehension strategy use by female Iranian English language learners. Selecting, 138 students at the intermediate level, chosen out of 208, they were given the Strategy Inventory for Listening Comprehension to determine the type of strategies they used. Correlation coefficients illustrated that metacognitive, memory, cognitive and social strategies were significantly related to the cognitive style, whereas affective and compensatory strategies did not demonstrate a significant correlation. They concluded that FI students used metacognitive, memory, and cognitive strategies more frequently than the FD counterparts, but FD students used social strategies more than FI ones.

Nilforooshan &Afghar (2007) did a study on the impact of Field Dependence-Independence in EFL learners' writing performance.They found that there is a significant difference between Field Dependent/ Independent groups in writing skill in general and narrative writing in particular with Field Independent learners outperforming the Field Dependents.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

This study was carried out at the University of Guilan, Rasht, Iran. Ninety undergraduate students were randomly selected in the study. They were from both genders, male and female. To ensure the homogeneity of the participants, Oxford Placement Test (OPT) (2007). Sixty students were at the intermediate proficiency level. The numbers of male and female students were 27 and 33 respectively. The participants were all in their courses of English for General Purpose, aging from 18 to 30. They were also majoring in non-English fields, such as computer software, business management, sociology, law, etc. Their mother tongue was Persian. Besides a few of them had background in the Turkish (Azari) language. All participants had the same syllabus (coursework/book) in their English classes.

B. Instruments

Four types of instruments were used in this study; Oxford Placement Test (OPT), Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT), Reading Comprehension Test, and Students Feedback Survey. Oxford Placement Test (OPT) is an international-wide reliable and valid paper-based test (Khalili& Mahsefat, 2012) administered to determine the proficiency level of the participants. This placement test consisted of 50 multiple choice items assessing students' knowledge of key grammar and vocabulary from elementary to intermediate levels, a reading text followed by 10 comprehension questions and also an optional writing task that aimed to assess students' ability to produce the language. The time allotted for this test was 65 minutes. According to its manual, it enables teachers to have a better understanding of their students' English proficiency level; moreover its manual serves its scoring. There are two tools here. The first are those to distinguish between FD and FI students and the second are those to collect data from the field. The distinguishing tools comprise Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT) developed for the first time by Witkin (1948). In the test, learners are asked to find the simple figure(s) embedded in a relatively complex figure. What would appear is that the Field-Independent individuals can omit the influence of the background image and find the hidden figure, while those who are Field-Dependent will have difficulty in completing the task. Reading Comprehension Test was made up of 50 multiple-choice questions which is a reliable and valid test used as a proficiency test. By the same token, as this test is taken from TOEFL, its validity and reliability has been warranted. Finally, the students were given a chance to provide feedback as far as their styles they were explored. The instructor administered a Student Feedback Survey which contained a series of questions to generate the students' opinions on reading ability, (See the appendix). It is a Likert–based scale questionnaire which asks a series of questions from both Field Dependent and Field Independent. The results of the survey provided valuable information that helped explain the conclusions of the study. The questionnaire consisted of 20 multiple-choice question designed to collect information related to their ideas and opinions about reading. It was covered with a consent form, which informed the participants that completing the questionnaire meant that they consented to participate in the study. To avoid any misunderstanding on the part of the students, the questionnaire was translated into Persian, the participants' mother tongue. In order to guarantee its reliability and validity it was piloted to a group of thirty students similar to the participants and its reliability was reported as acceptable (r=0.61).

C. Procedure

This study aimed to determine the probable relationship between of both learning styles of Field (In) Dependent and reading comprehension of intermediate EFL readers. For this purpose, 90 students randomly were selected. Oxford Placement test was administered to determine the proficiency level of students. Having administered the test, 60 students were selected. They were at intermediate level. In order to check their learning styles, Group Embedded Figures Tests (GEFT) was administered to determine the students' styles namely, Field Dependency and Field Independency. Before administering reading comprehension test, the Field Dependent and Field Independent students were determined and placed in separate groups. The number of Field Dependent and Field Independent learners was 36 and 24 respectively. After that, the reading comprehension test was administered to identify students' knowledge of reading to pave the way for further comparison. The data (scores) taking from two groups of participants were analyzed. The raw data of the tests were analyzed by SPSS Software (version 19). For the purpose of comparing the mean scores of the two groups, several t -tests were run. Then Paired Samples tests were run to determine the degree of progress made by each group. To achieve this goal, the means of scores were compared and analyzed through paired samples t-test. The results revealed that there was a relationship among variables. To determine whether there was a significant difference, level of alpha (α)was set to 0.05.

IV. RESULTS

In the subsequent sections, the results of the statistical analyses of the data will be presented.

A. The Results of Reading Comprehension Test

In this section the results of Paired Samples Statistics, Paired Samples Correlations and Group statistics for comparison of FI and FD scores in reading comprehension test are reported. Paired Samples Statistics shows the descriptive statistics, mean, number, standard deviation, standard error of mean.

TABLE1
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	score FD	23.04	36	5.284	0.881
	score FI	27.08	24	6.769	1.382

TABLE2
PAIRED SAMPLES CORRELATIONS

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	FD score& FI score	60	.029	.891

Paired Samples Correlations denotes the correlation between Field Dependency and Field Independency. The range of correlation is between 1 and -1.

TABLE 3
GROUP STATISTICS FOR COMPARISON OF FI AND FD SCORES IN READING COMPREHENSION TEST

		Paired Differences							
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	
Pair 1	FD score& FI score	-4.042	8.291	1.692	-7.543	-.541	-2.388	23	.126

In this section as it can be seen in the output data of the performance of the both Field In/Dependent groups in reading comprehension test, there is difference between the Field dependent group and the Field Independent group regarding their reading comprehension score. The Mean of the Field Independent group is **27.08** and the mean of the Field Dependent group is **23.04**. Therefore, in order to verify whether this difference is statistically significant or not, the data were analyzed via SPSS software program (version 19) to compare the means of the two groups by means of running a Samples T-test. The result of the test revealed that there is statistically significant difference between the means of the Field Independent group and Field Dependent group at the level of $\alpha = 0 .05$. The conclusion is that the two groups are different in terms of reading comprehension. It can be claimed that the Field Independent group and the Field Dependent group are different in terms of related proficiency. As the tables demonstrate the distribution difference between two variable Field dependency/Field Independency and reading comprehension mean, standard deviation and standard error of mean have been shown .The interval confidence is **95%** and t is-**2.388**(**t= -2.388**). Since the value of significant amount of t (**0.121**) is higher than the assumed level of significance (**0.05**), the hypothesis is rejected. In other words it is concluded that there is a relationship between Field In/Dependency and reading comprehension.

B. The Results of Students' Feedback Survey

Besides the empirical data which were collected, and the statistical analyses carried out in the current study, the opinions of the participants of the present study also provided valuable insights regarding their Field Independency and

Field Independency. A survey was conducted on the students' perceptions, with regard to the Field Independency and Field Independency. This feedback survey was developed and piloted by the authors before conducting the study, it was culturally adapted and statically tested to warrant test reliability (r = 0.61).

TABLE4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF FIELD DEPENDENT GROUP STUDENTS' FEEDBACK SURVEY

	SA	%	A	%	D	%	SD	%	Mean	Std. D
1	13	36.1	15	41.7	3	8.3	5	13.9	2.00	1.014
2	19	52.8	10	27.8	2	5.6	5	13.9	1.81	1.064
3	3	8.3	7	19.4	18	50.0	8	22.2	1.86	0.867
4	14	38.9	6	16.7	12	33.3	4	11.1	2.17	1.082
5	15	41.7	11	30.6	7	19.4	3	8.3	1.94	0.984
6	1	8.3	7	19.4	5	13.9	23	58.3	3.22	1.045
7	11	30.6	13	36.1	8	22.2	4	11.1	2.14	0.990
8	2	5.6	2	5.6	10	27.8	22	61.1	3.44	0.843
9	17	47.2	7	19.4	6	16.7	6	16.7	2.03	1.0158
10	19	38.9	15	41.7	1	8.3	1	8.3	2.11	1.116
11	16	44.4	12	33.3	2	5.6	6	16.7	1.94	1.094
12	9	25	12	33.3	12	33.3	3	8.3	2.25	0.937
13	10	27.8	10	27.8	13	36.1	3	8.3	2.25	0.967
14	8	22.2	6	16.7	12	33.3	10	27.8	2.69	1.231
15	7	19.4	2	5.6	14	38.9	13	36.1	2.92	1.105
16	3	8.3	2	5.6	12	33.3	19	52.8	3.31	0.920
17	12	33.3	15	41.7	7	19.4	2	5.6	1.97	0.878
18	12	33.3	18	50.0	4	11.1	2	5.6	1.92	0.906
19	20	55.6	9	25	6	16.7	1	2.8	1.67	0.863
20	1	2.8	5	13.9	11	30.6	19	52.8	3.3	0.828

The survey contained 20 multiple-choice questions (appendix A). The participants who completed the questionnaire were unanimously Field Dependent (code, 1). The mean, standard deviation, frequency of each answer for each question has been depicted in the table. Questions (2,4,9,17,18,19) which directly aim the Field Dependent participants' attitudes toward reading comprehension and their preferences received high numerical value for mean score(mean=2.5 and p=50%). Similarly, questions (5, 9, 17) received the highest mean score (mean=2.30 and p=60%). Question 2 asks about the main idea, around 80% of Field Dependents participants believe they could understand the main idea easily. Question 3 asks about finding the supporting paragraphs, the analysis shows that about 30% of the Field Dependent participants could understand the relations and main idea supporting paragraphs. Around 70% of them stated that they could not easily identify the supporting paragraphs. More than 75% of the Field Dependent students pointed that they can easily understand the main idea. Field dependents by definition can understand whole before parts. Therefore, the result illuminates that Field Dependents are better in understanding the main idea of the text. Regarding the concentration on text and text analysis less than 25% could concentrate easily, around 75% of the participants could not easily concentrate and analyze the text. More than 85% of the Field Dependent participants told that they have problem in understanding the concepts and contexts which are implicitly stated in the text. Regarding guess-making, one of the most preferable techniques by participants, enjoys 80%. Finally, the texture understanding and getting the covert ideas, which has the lowest preference among Field Dependent participants, only 20% of the Field Dependents said they can cope with such complexity, around 80% of them stated that they have problems in understanding covert ideas and concepts. Similarly, as it was expected, more than 75% of them pointed out that they could favorably deal with the clear cut questions and concept in the text. The findings of the survey revealed that the Field Dependent group responded favorably on the questions regarding understanding the main idea, understanding the general message behind the text, guess-making.

They exerted a higher level of satisfaction with these questions and enjoyed higher frequency and mean. The percentages explicate that the Field Dependent group scored higher in following variables, such as texture understanding, getting the overt ideas, understanding the general message behind the text, guess-making. The results of this survey confirmed that Iranian Field Dependent EFL learners at intermediate proficiency level are better in understanding the main ideas and overt concepts in the text and treat reading text as a whole.

TABLE 5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF FIELD INDEPENDENT GROUP STUDENTS' FEEDBACK SURVEY

	SA	%	A	%	D	%	SD	%	Mean	Std. D
1	12	50.0	5	20.8	6	25	1	4.2	2.8	1.1
2	3	12.5	4	16.7	12	50	5	20.8	2.79	0.932
3	12	50	7	29.2	3	12.5	2	8.3	1.79	0.977
4	6	25	6	25	6	25	6	25	2.5	1.142
5	8	33	7	29.2	6	25	3	12.5	2.17	1.049
6	12	50	7	29.2	4	16.6	1	4.2	1.75	0.897
7	15	62.5	7	29.2	1	4.2	1	4.2	1.5	0.897
8	12	50	8	33	2	8.3	2	8.3	1.75	0. 944
9	6	25	6	25	6	29.2	6	25	2.54	1.103
10	7	29.2	7	29.2	4	16.6	6	25	2.38	1.173
11	2	8.3	6	25	10	41.7	6	25	2.83	0.917
12	5	20.8	9	37.5	6	25	4	16.7	2.38	1.013
13	7	29.2	5	20.8	2	8.3	10	41.7	2.63	1.313
14	2	8.3	7	29.2	11	45.8	4	16.7	2.71	0.895
15	14	58.3	6	25	2	8.3	2	8.3	1.67	0.963
16	18	75	2	8.3	1	4.2	3	12.5	1.54	1.067
17	10	41.7	3	12.5	7	29.2	4	16.7	2.21	1.179
18	3	12.5	2	8.3	12	50	7	29.2	2.96	0.955
19	3	12.5	4	16.7	13	54.2	4	16.7	2.75	0.897
20	13	54.2	7	29.2	3	12.5	1	4.2	1.67	0.868

By the same token, the questionnaire was administered to Field Independent group (code, 2). The mean, standard deviation, frequency of each answer for each question has been depicted in the table. Questions (3,6,15,16,20,) which directly address the Field Independent participants' attitudes toward reading comprehension and their preferences received high numerical value for mean score (mean=1.7 and p=50%). Similarly, questions (6, 8, 16) received the highest mean score (mean=3.30 and p=60%). Question 3 asks about finding the supporting paragraphs, the analysis shows that more than 70% of the Field Independent participants could understand the relations and main idea supporting paragraphs. Around 70% of them stated that they could easily identify the supporting paragraphs. Around 80% of the Field Independent students pointed that they can easily concentrate on the text. Field Independents by definition can understand parts before whole. Therefore, the result illuminates that Field Independents are better in understanding the inter-textual concept. 90% of the Field Independent participants told that they can understand the concepts and contexts which are implicitly stated in the text. In other words, the results show that Field Independent can infer better (p=75% M=2.8). Finally, it is the texture understanding and getting the covert ideas, which has the highest preference among Field Independent participants (mean=1.54 p=85%). The findings of the survey revealed that the Field Independent group responded favorably on the questions regarding understanding the covert idea, understanding the specific information lied behind the text, inter-textual relationship. They exerted a higher level of satisfaction with these questions and enjoyed higher frequency and mean. The percentages denote that the Field Independent group scored higher in the following variables, such as understanding specific and exceptional concept, getting the covert ideas, and inferencing. The results of this survey confirmed that Iranian Field Independent EFL learners' at intermediate proficiency level, are better in understanding the specific information, covert message in the text, inferencing, and treat reading text as a part.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The findings of this study are in congruence with what was reported by numerous experts in the past. (Witkin & Goodenough, 1981;Messick, 1976;Witkin et al., 1977;Davis &Cochran, 1990; Witkin et al., 1977;Thompson &Thompson,1987;Davis ,1991;Goodenough,1976; Davey and Menke, 1989;Luk, 1998;Ahmady&Yamini, 1992).There exists a relationship between FIELD Dependency / Independency and reading comprehension. The obtained results might be attributed to some factors. In our view, one of the probable causes could be the fact that cognitive styles affect learning in students. (Messick, 1976).

Regarding the second hypothesis, there are different opinions between Field Dependent and Field Independent EFL learners towards reading comprehension. The second view is that students with varying cognitive styles are different due to the fact that their psychological demands and preferences and their potentials are different. The rationale for relationship is likely that, the participants might have different initiatives and psychological capability to benefit from the facilitative and natural feature such as redundancy, extra linguistic factors etc. of the texts to comprehend their contents. As Davey &Menke (1989) and Cochran &Davis, (1987) asserted Field Independent readers might have better comprehension abilities because of their higher cognitive skills in areas such as organization of knowledge recall, use of context cues, use of imagery, and active hypotheses-test behaviors. In line with Jones, (1993) Field Independent focus their attention on task-relevant information and ignore distractions better than Field Dependent individuals (Davis &Cochran, 1990). Field Independents who approach a field in an analytical way and extract elements from its complex background have greater disembedding ability in perceptual functioning and better cognitive restructuring than Field dependents. Also, we can come up with another plausible justification to account for the impact of cognitive styles on

the basis of Witkin's characterization of cognitive styles. In his contention, inclination to separate details from the surrounding context is pragmatically plausible rationale sense that exemplifies a contextually appropriate use of Field Dependency and Field Independency in the text recognition and perception. It seems that the results taken from this study, cast light on the Field's statement accordingly, as it was reiterated in previous study (Davis, 1991; Goodenough, 1976; Davey &Menke, 1989; Luk, 1998).

APPENDIX

دانشجویان گرامی

هدف عمده این پرسشنامه آن است که داده هایی در رابطه با نظرات شما در مورد درک متن و مهارت خواندن زبان انگلیسی جمع آوری نماید. درک متن و مهارت خواندن توانایی شما درارتباط با فهم و درک از متن زبان انگلیسی است. مشارکت شما در این تحقیق مهم و نقش حیاتی در نتایج حاصله از آن دارد وباعث بهبود در امر تدریس مهارت خواندن زبان انگلیسی در ایران میگردد. بنابراین لطفاً به سوالات پرسشنامه صادقانه وبا دقت جواب بدهید. این پرسشنامه نظرات و عقاید شما را مورد بررسی قرار میدهد و بدیهی است که این پرسشنامه سنجشی برای دانش شما نیست بلکه فقط انعکاس علمی نظرات شماست. لذا پاسخ **درست** یا **غلط** در آن وجود ندارد بلکه صرفاً نظرشماست. مشارکت شما در این تحقیق هیچ تاثیری روی نمره ی شما ندارد و نظرات و پاسخهای شما به سوالات محرمانه خواهد ماند.

پر کردن این پرسشنامه به منزله رضایت شما در شرکت نمودن در این مطالعه است.

از مشارکت شما متشکرم

شهربانو محمدی لیجارکی ، کارشناس ارشد آموزش زبان انگلیسی ، دانشگاه گیلان

قسمت اول : اطلاعات کلی
1) دانشگاه محل تحصیل : ....
2) جنسیت : زن .... مرد...
3) سن : ....
4) کد کلاس : ....
قسمت دوم : سوالات
لطفاً یک گزینه را انتخاب کنید.

1) در امتحان خواندن و درک متن همواره باید دانست که چه انتظاری از خواننده میرود .
الف)کاملا موافقم   ب)موافقم   د)مخالفم   و)کاملا مخالفم

2) من ایده ای کلی متن (main idea) را به راحتی توانستم تشخیص دهم .
الف)کاملا موافقم   ب)موافقم   د)مخالفم   و)کاملا مخالفم

3) به راحتی میتوانستم پاراگر افهای پشتیبانی کننده ایده ی اصلی را پیدا کنم.
الف)کاملا موافقم   ب)موافقم   د)مخالفم   و)کاملا مخالفم

4) من متن سوالات را به راحتی فهمیدم.
الف)کاملا موافقم   ب)موافقم   د)مخالفم   و)کاملا مخالفم

5) من تمایل دارم ابتدا سوالات متن را خوانده سپس متن را متناسب با آن تحلیل کنم .
الف)کاملا موافقم   ب)موافقم   د)مخالفم   و)کاملا مخالفم

6) من براحتی میتوانم روی متن و سوالات بعد از متن تمرکز کنم.
الف)کاملا موافقم   ب)موافقم   د)مخالفم   و)کاملا مخالفم

7) درک متن در زبان انگلیسی به من کمک می کند مهارت زبان انگلیسی خود را افزایش دهم.
الف)کاملا موافقم   ب)موافقم   د)مخالفم   و)کاملا مخالفم

8) یافتن ایده اصلی اغلب برایم دشوار است.
الف)کاملا موافقم   ب)موافقم   د)مخالفم   و)کاملا مخالفم

9) با گذشت زمان درک من از سوالات بهتر میشود .
الف)کاملا موافقم   ب)موافقم   د)مخالفم   و)کاملا مخالفم

10) من از تمرینات ریلکسیشن وتکنیک های مشابه در امتحان درک مطلب استفاده میکنم.
الف)کاملا موافقم   ب)موافقم   د)مخالفم   و)کاملا مخالفم

11) اصلا تمرکز واحساس خوبی موقع امتحان درک مطلب ندارم.
الف)کاملا موافقم   ب)موافقم   د)مخالفم   و)کاملا مخالفم

12) همیشه قبل ازخواندن متن و سوالات درک مطلب دچارتشویش می شوم.
الف)کاملا موافقم   ب)موافقم   د)مخالفم   و)کاملا مخالفم

13) من همیشه سر جلسه امتحان و بعد امتحان درک متن افسوس میخورم کاش بیشتر تلاش میکردم.
الف)کاملا موافقم   ب)موافقم   د)مخالفم   و)کاملا مخالفم

14) درک متن و مطلب بسیار مهم است.
الف)کاملا موافقم   ب)موافقم   د)مخالفم   و)کاملا مخالفم

15) به خوبی میتوانم روی متن تمرکز کرده وآن را تجزیه وتحلیل نمایم.
الف)کاملا موافقم   ب)موافقم   د)مخالفم   و)کاملا مخالفم

16) در دریافتن مفاهیمی که به صورت پوشیده وضمنی به آنها اشاره شده مشکلی ندارم.
الف)کاملا موافقم   ب)موافقم   د)مخالفم   و)کاملا مخالفم

۱۷) در درک مطلب و مفاهیمی که به صورت واضح در متن به آنها اشاره شده مشکلی ندارم.

الف)کاملا موافقم   ب)موافقم   د)مخالفم   و)کاملا مخالفم

۱۸) دنبال کردن روابط بین پاراگراف ها اغلب برایم دشوار است.

الف)کاملا موافقم   ب)موافقم   د)مخالفم   و)کاملا مخالفم

۱۹) در درک متن همیشه کلی به مطلب نگاه کرده و از مفاهیم فرامتنی برای درک آن کمک میگیرم.

الف)کاملا موافقم   ب)موافقم   د)مخالفم   و)کاملا مخالفم

۲۰) در امتحان خواندن و درک متن سعی میکنم تار و پود کلام و متن را بهتر درک نمایم.

الف)کاملا موافقم   ب)موافقم   د)مخالفم   و)کاملا مخالفم

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