Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

Canadian FSL Teacher Candidate Beliefs about Students with Learning Difficulties

Katy Arnett
St. Mary's College of Maryland, USA

Callie Mady
Nipissing University, North Bay, Ontario, Canada

Lin Muilenburg
St. Mary's College of Maryland, St. Mary's City, MD, USA

Abstract—**Through the lens of critical theory, and with consideration of research on the beliefs of teacher candidates and inclusion, this study considers the views of French Second Language pre-service teachers toward students with learning difficulties. This study reports on the results of two questionnaires, implemented prior to and following the participants' classroom practicum experiences, as a way to determine if and how experience and/or other personal demographic factors shaped their beliefs. Results indicated that personal experience with individuals with disabilities, along with the length of the practicum experience were reasons for more positive views towards this student population, which support new conceptualizations of teachers' work with students from different "cultures."**

Index Terms—**teacher candidates, inclusion, second language education, learning difficulties**

I. INTRODUCTION

This particular study was conceived as a way to determine how teacher candidates[1] in French Second Language (FSL) from across Canada viewed students with learning difficulties[2] prior to and following their practicum experiences. Specifically, there was interest in seeing how future teachers felt about these students and if and how the teacher candidates' beliefs were responsive to pre-service coursework and/experiences, (e.g., Garmon, 2004, 2005; Mills & Ballantyne, 2008; Peacock, 2001). It is the goal of the authors that in considering these specific data points, the FSL teacher education community might be able to open further discussions about the nature of the FSL teacher education curriculum in this second decade of the 21st century so that it can better respond to the needs of the changing populations in Canadian FSL classrooms. Outside of Canada, this issue has relevance for those who are facing questions about how to best respond to a variety of learner needs.

This study will consider the influence of particular experiences in shaping teacher candidate views, which would offer a new take on Garmon's (2005) assertion that pre-service teachers' prior experiences with students from different cultures and races influenced their receptiveness to working with students from those backgrounds by considering connections to learning difficulties and/or other disabilities in the backgrounds of the teacher candidates. Further, extending the previous work of the first two authors of this article (Arnett & Mady, 2010), this inquiry will also use critical theory to explore the existing research relevant to this study, as well as the results uncovered in the analyses. Critical theory focuses on the ways in which dominant forces, people, policies, and/or philosophies come to oppress and/or discriminate against minority populations and the ways in which policies and practices come to be unjust in the first place (Willis, Montavon, Hall, Hunter, Burke, & Herrera, 2008). Because this line of research is specifically focusing on a student population within the K-12 environment that holds minority status and how new teachers (power-holders) view this population, critical theory is particularly apt.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Broadly, there are three themes under consideration in this article: the educational experience of students with language-based difficulties in the FSL classroom, teacher candidate beliefs and perceptions, and the construct of "inclusive teaching". Second language teacher education is a fourth theme, but will be considered tangentially in the other areas.

Students with Difficulties the FSL Classroom

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[1] Throughout this paper, we will use several terms to refer to the population of individuals planning to become teachers. Though the term "teacher candidate," is becoming preferential in Canada, the literature still refers to this group as "new teachers," "pre-service teachers" or "student teachers."
[2] Though "disability" is the more common term, we have opted for a more neutral term. When "disability" appears in this article, it is to specifically reference the construct.

The notion of "suitability" of FSL for students with learning difficulties has been questioned and debated since the inception of the French immersion program in Canada (see Genesee, 2007 & Mannavaryan, 2003, for reviews). This debate continues in spite of the fact that there has been more positive evidence than negative evidence that French immersion can be of benefit to students with uneasy relationships with language, in general (Genesee, 2007).

A case study by Mady and Arnett (2009) points out that it may be possible that some decisions about struggling students' continuation in French immersion are not being informed by the research on students' potential for success in French immersion, but rather by individual principal beliefs. In this case study, the principal of the school was reluctant to let a student with documented language-based learning difficulties continue in French immersion because the principal viewed it as an "enrichment" program and as such, support would not be provided. In this instance, though the school board (in Ontario) did not have an explicit policy of banning students with difficulties from the classroom experience, the personal beliefs of the principal held much power in the situation. In a related inquiry, Wise (2011) corroborated the extent to which students with difficulties were denied access to support in the French immersion programs, pointing out how funding formulas worked to perpetuate the inequities of support for both FSL and special education, showing yet another power influence.

For many years, the notion of suitability of FSL study for students with difficulties was not really considered in the context of the other FSL program options in Canada. Since the start of the new millennium, there have been some publications that have endeavored to explore the question in the context of core French[3]. Research by Arnett (2003, 2008, 2010) has shown that many of the teaching strategies commonly recommended for students with learning difficulties and other special education needs are highly congruent with the teaching strategies that inform good FSL instruction, at least in the core French context. These findings have directly countered a seemingly persistent idea in the research literature and general teaching corps that the needs of students with difficulties are inherently incompatible with the elements of good second language teaching and as such, these students should not be a part of the learning experience (e.g., Calman & Daniel, 1998; Mannavaryan, 2002). Admittedly, though, there have yet to be any studies that measure the learning of students with difficulties in the FSL context, and this is a clearly needed research area.

Beliefs/Attitudes/Perceptions of teacher candidates in second language education

Arnett and Turnbull (2007) proposed that a synthesis of Ajzen's (1991) theory of planned behavior with Kennedy and Kennedy's (1996) extrapolation of Ajzen's work was a useful mechanism for delineating teachers' beliefs, attitudes and pedagogical knowledge, as all three tended to be conflated in research considering how teachers "viewed" a classroom or circumstance. Ajzen (1991) contends one's perceptions of what those holding positions of power believe about the matter at hand (i.e., as evidenced through the individual's interpretation of a curriculum or policy document, perhaps), along with the individual's perception of the degree of power he/she holds over the application of any knowledge or even a policy, work to inform beliefs. Thus, under Ajzen's work, what one believes, in general, about an issue is framed through the individual's perception of how those in power are likely to view the situation and the extent to which the individual in the situation feels that he/she has personal power to enact change. These two elements of Ajzen's theory provide a solid complement to the central tenet of critical theory.

Yet, Kennedy and Kennedy (1996) critiqued Ajzen's conceptions of beliefs and attitudes as too static and narrow. In Arnett and Turnbull (2007), it was proposed that studies of second language teacher beliefs systems needed to consider other ways in which the knowledge informing the beliefs was created. They argued that there must also be some consideration of teachers' past experiences in the classroom (as both student and teacher), which is often referred to as the "apprenticeship of observation" (Johnson, 1999; Lortie, 1975) and teachers' personal experiences. As Arnett and Turnbull (2007) pointed out, this does engender a "messier" conception of teacher beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions, but perhaps more accurately captures the various nuances of the construct (Pajares, 1992). In this study, the instrument did include questions that focused on all of these areas—beliefs, attitudes, prior sociolinguistic and cultural experiences, depth of the apprenticeship of observation, and awareness of political constraints.

Research on initial teacher education that has employed the lens of critical theory has clearly revealed that individuals preparing to become teachers often already possess beliefs and views that speak to enforcing the current social and power structure at work in schools (Bartolomé, 2004; Friere, 1998). In other words, for teacher candidates, K-12 students who represent challenges to the status quo (i.e., students with learning difficulties) may be at risk in the classrooms of these individuals because of the ways in which the teacher candidates already view the social order. It was for this reason that this study focused on the pre-service level; in considering their views at the entry point of the career, there could be value in seeing what sort of belief systems and experiences could influence their practice.

Inclusive Teaching

Woven within and across the other two themes in this study is a consideration of the construct of "inclusive teaching," the idea that teachers need to structure and facilitate their learning in such a way to meet as many needs as possible within the classroom community—and that students across all ranges of the learning spectrum should be a part of the classroom. Inclusive education has been a political, practical, and philosophical focus for the last fifteen years, largely because of changes in the conceptions and premises of special education.

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[3] Core French is an FSL program in which students study FSL as a subject for brief periods in their weekly timetable.

While there are still mixed reviews on the success of inclusive teaching practices (Hutchinson & Martin, 2012; Jordan, 2007), it is predicated on the premise that students with diverse learning needs are expected to be fully involved in the life and learning of the classroom community, even if such involvement is only possible through pedagogical accommodations and/or curricular modifications. When designing this study, the prior work of the authors in the areas of students with difficulties in FSL pointed to questions about whether these student populations should have access to this learning opportunity (i.e., mainstreaming), not just whether they could benefit from instruction through targeted instruction (inclusion) (Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2010). Thus, even though Canadian school board policies, provincial and federal laws, and even federal initiatives have focused on inclusive teaching for diverse student populations, mainstreaming was also an element of consideration. There were, therefore, questions in the instrument that addressed thoughts about access to the FSL community (mainstreaming) and then teaching practices for meeting diverse learner needs (inclusion).

Jordan, Lindsay, and Stanovich (1997) found that when teachers held less positive views of students with special education needs, there were fewer attempts to ensure that the included student benefitted from the educational experience and that the teacher interacted with the included students in a "less academic way." Applying the lens of critical theory, these results show the extent to which belief systems can hold power over a student's educational experience and perhaps perpetuate inequities that exist; in considering how teacher candidates view certain student populations, it may be possible to predict where some students may fail to receive appropriate support in the classroom.

III. METHODOLOGY

This survey study used an online mechanism for collecting responses to a questionnaire, with each response period lasting approximately three weeks. The larger study also included phone interviews with several participants and questions about English Learners (i.e., Allophone students), but those data are not being considered at the present time.

Recruitment

Following approval from the authors' institutions, Author 1 led the participant recruitment. Author 1 contacted 28 FSL teacher education program heads across Canada, requesting that they share the link to our questionnaire with their candidates, where they would then choose to participate in the research. Approximately 6 months after the participants completed the questionnaire, they completed a post-questionnaire.

The instrument

The questionnaire followed the structure and to an extent, the content, of the questionnaire developed by Lapkin, MacFarlane, and Vandergrift (2006) to determine the perceptions and concerns of active FSL classroom teachers. Because of the initial goals of the research, the questionnaire was implemented at two points during the academic year—in late September/early October, prior to any sort of practicum experience, and in late April/early May, when candidates were nearing completion of their programs.

The pre-questionnaire included 11 questions pertaining to participants' demographic information; eighteen Likert-scale statements, which asked participants to self-report the extent to which they agreed with certain statements about including students with learning difficulties in FSL programs; and four open-ended questions for participants to offer additional comments. The latter two sections served as the post-questionnaire. As self-reports of belief/perceptions are subject to the "halo effect," it is possible that some of our findings may not reflect the participants' true views at all times; this is why the larger study included an interview component.

Participants

Though the respondents to the post-questionnaire were drawn from the pool of respondents to pre-questionnaire, for the purpose of this study, the participant pools will be treated as two distinct groups because the results across the questionnaires were not compared in this current analysis.

Pre-questionnaire participants.

Tables 1 and 2 provide overviews of the demographic backgrounds of the participants who responded to the first questionnaire, considering their gender, teacher education and internship experience, and familial contact with disability. It should be noted that the male-female ratio in the study is higher than what has been found in the field, with women accounting for 73.6 percent of the teaching population in Canada (Statistics Canada, 2006). One participant indicated having Irlen Syndrome, which affects the processing of visual information, thereby influencing how the individual works with any sort of printed or imaged-based text. Upon completion of the credentialing programs, 15 participants (19.2%) would be qualified to teach at the Primary (K-3) level, 28 (35.9%) at the Junior (4-6) level, 10 (12.8%) at the Intermediate (7-10) level, and 25 (32.1%) at the Senior (11-12) level.

TABLE 1
BASIC DESCRIPTION OF PRE-PRACTICUM QUESTIONNAIRE PARTICIPANTS

Gender	N (%)	Province of Teacher Education Program	N (%)	Family member with a learning difficulty?	N (%)
Male	10 (12.8%)	Alberta	2 (2.6%)	No	56 (71.8%)
Female	68 (87.2%)	Atlantic Canada	12 (15.4%	Dyslexia	4 (5.1%)
		British Columbia	41 (52.6%)	Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder	4 (5.1%)
		Manitoba	14 (17.9%)	Attention Deficit Disorder	2 (2.6%)
		Ontario	9 (11.5%)	Reading difficulties	1 (1.3%)
				Cognitive challenge	1

TABLE 2
EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCES OF PRE-PRACTICUM QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONDENTS

University French Education	N (%)	Experience teaching FSL	N (%)	Program of FSL teaching experience	N (%)	FSL Methodology Experience in Faculty of Education	N (%)
Majored in French	29 (37.2%)	No experience	59 (75.6%)	core French	9 (11.5%)	1 course	50 (64.1%)
Minored in French	24 (12.8%)	1-6 months	13 (16.7%)	French immersion	7 (9%)	4 courses	13 (16.7%)
Took 1-2 French courses	20 (25.6%)	6-12 months	3 (3.8%)	Intensive French	1 (1.3%)	2 courses	9 (11.5%)
Attended Francophone university	2 (2.6%)	1-2 years	1 (1.3%)	Other	8 (10.3%)	3 courses	6 (7.7%)
Did not study French at university	4 (5.3%)						

Post-practicum questionnaire participants.

There were 51 responses to the post-questionnaire, which represented a decline of 27 participants from the pre-questionnaire sample. 48 of the 51 had also responded to the pre-questionnaire. Tables 3 and 4 provide the demographic background of these participants. Also, at the time the post-practicum questionnaire was administered, most participants were less than a month from the end of their program and were in a position to describe their experiences during the year. Thus, Table 4 also includes information about the participants' student teaching experiences. The participant with Irlen Syndrome also completed the questionnaire, but no additional data about experiences with disabilities were included in the post-practicum questionnaire. Questions relevant to these experiences should be included in future versions of this research.

TABLE 3
BASIC DESCRIPTION OF POST-PRACTICUM QUESTIONNAIRE PARTICIPANTS

Gender	N (%)	Province of Teacher Education Program	N (%)
Male	5 (9.9%)	Alberta	2 (4.2%)
Female	43 (90.1%)	Atlantic Canada	7 (14.6%)
		British Columbia	23 (48%)
		Manitoba	7 (14.6
		Ontario	9 (18.8%)

TABLE 4
POST-PRACTICUM QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS ON EDUCATIONAL AND TEACHING EXPERIENCE WITH FSL

University French Education	N (%)	Experience Teaching FSL	N (%)	Program of FSL teaching experience	N (%)	Practicum in FSL this year?	N (%)	Program of practicum	N (%)	Practicum Length	N
Majored in French	17 (35.4%)	No experience	37 (77.1%)	core French	4 (8.3%)	Yes	36 (75%)	core French	28 (58.3%)	2 weeks	7 (14.6%)
Minored in French	15 (31.3%)	1-6 months	6 (12.5%)	French immersion	3 (6.3%)	No	11 (22.9%)	French immersion	16 (33%)	4 weeks	6 (12.5%)
Took 1-2 French courses	1 (2.1%)	6-12 months	2 (4.2%)	Intensive French	1 (2.1%)			Intensive French	2 4.2%)	5 weeks	3 (6.3%)
Attended Francophone university	2 (4.2%)	1-2 years	1 (2.1%)	Other	5 (10.4%)					6 weeks	9 (18.8)
Did not study French at university	3 (6.3%)	More than 5 years	1 (2.1%)							7 weeks	1 (2.1%)
										8 weeks	3 (6.3%)
										Longer	10 (20.8%)

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The data from both questionnaires were analysed using SPSS 18.0. Descriptive statistics were generated for each quantitative item in the surveys. Relationships among the variables were examined using correlation, regression, and ANOVA. For all tests of statistical significance in this research study, an alpha level of .05 was used. As statistical analyses comparing the two questionnaires directly to each other did not produce any results of significance, this analysis will consider the questionnaires as two different data sets.

The results presented in this section will focus on the questions that required the participants to indicate their level of agreement with 15 (Questionnaire 1) or 18 statements (Questionnaire 2) about the student populations' presence in the classroom and in the case of the post-practicum questionnaire, the perceived influences on their belief systems. The ratings on the 5-point Likert scale were as follows: 1 = strongly agree; 2 = agree; 3 = neutral; 4 = disagree, 5= strongly disagree.

Pre-practicum Questionnaire

Table 5 summarizes the average rating given by participants to questions about their beliefs pertaining to the presence/educational experience of students with learning difficulties in FSL classrooms near the start of the academic year. The results are presented in rank-order, from greatest to least agreement.   Four statements (Q4, Q9, Q10, Q11) had 77 responses, one statement (Q18) had 76 responses, and the remaining 13 questions had 78 responses.

TABLE 5
MEANS FOR LD BELIEF ITEMS, RANK-ORDERED FROM GREATEST TO LEAST AGREEMENT

	Mean	SD
14. All students should have the opportunity to be part of Extended French, where available.	1.63	.605
13. All students should have the opportunity to be part of French Immersion, where available.	1.63	.667
6. To fully include students with learning difficulties, I must invest more planning time.	1.63	.913
15. All students should have the opportunity to be part of Intensive French, where available.	1.69	.708
1. I believe that students with learning difficulties should be included in core French.	1.71	.667
12. All students should have the opportunity to be a part of Core French, where available.	1.87	1.061
2. I believe that students with learning difficulties should be included in French immersion, where available.	2.01	.830
18. I believe that my teaching style naturally addresses a wide range of learner needs.	2.13	.680
3. I believe that students with learning difficulties should be included in extended French, where available.	2.19	1.045
4. I believe that students with learning difficulties should be included in Intensive French, where available.	2.31	1.029
16. The curriculum for core French acknowledges and allows for a wide range of learner needs.	2.36	1.081
5. I believe the parents of students with learning difficulties support their children learning French.	2.49	1.029
9. The strategies needed to respond to effectively support students with learning difficulties' needs are consistent with the strategies I use to teach French.	2.68	.966
7. There are occasions when a student with learning difficulties should be exempt from learning French.	2.78	1.355
17. The curricular demands of a core French classroom are structured in a way that makes it hard to address a wide range of learner needs.	3.17	.959
11. The suggested accommodations for students with IEPs are incompatible with the goals and expectations of core French.	3.49	.968
10. The suggested accommodations for students with IEPs are incompatible with my teaching style.	3.40	.936
8. The presence of students with learning difficulties has an unfavourable impact on the learning potential of the other students in the class	3.99	.875

A series of ANOVAs was conducted using these 18 items from the questionnaire as dependent variables and the demographic items as independent variables. The statistically significant relationships that emerged from this analysis will be presented next. First, though there was a small number of participants who reported having a family member with a learning difficulty (N = 12), for three of the four questions which asked about whether students with learning difficulties should be included in various French programs, the mean differences were statistically significant when comparing participants who did and did not have family members with LD. This information is shown in Table 6. The difference between the groups for the comparable question about the core French program was not statistically significant.

TABLE 6
MEAN COMPARISONS BETWEEN RESPONDENTS WHO DO AND DO NOT HAVE FAMILY MEMBERS WITH LD

	M (SD) for respondents with LD in their family (N=12)	M (SD) for respondents without LD in their family (N=65)	Mean difference	Eta squared
Q2. I believe that students with learning difficulties should be included in French immersion, where available	1.42 (0.52)	2.09 (0.81)	0.67*	.094
I believe that students with learning difficulties should be included in extended French, where available	1.42 (0.52)	2.32 (1.06)	0.90**	.100
Q4 I believe that students with learning difficulties should be included in Intensive French, where available	1.67 (1.16)	2.41 (0.96)	0.74*	.071

*p < 0.05
**p < 0.01

When considering responses to the statement, "I believe students with LD should be included in core French," the mean differences were statistically significant when comparing the participants who reported previous teaching experiences (N = 13) to those who did not have prior teaching experiences (N = 15). The former group reported an average response of 2.15, which was in the range between "Agree," and "Neutral," while the later group reported an average response of 1.59, which was in the range between "Strongly Agree" and "Agree." ANOVA analyses revealed p = 0.013, with an Eta square of .137.

Question 16 in this group asked participants about the extent to which they believed the curriculum of the core French program accounted for a wide range of learner needs. Again, previous teaching experience influenced the views of the participants. The average response of those with prior teaching experience was 2.54, which is just over halfway between "Agree" and the neutral response. Those with no previous teaching experience recorded an average response of 2.22, which was closer to the "Agree" response. The ANOVA analysis revealed p = 0.038, with an Eta square of .108.

Again, following the Likert-scale question, participants were offered an opportunity to elaborate on the specific strategies they would use to support the needs of students with LD in their classes; 15 participants accepted this opportunity. These participants offered a total of 44 different suggestions, and the five most frequent responses to this question are included here. Six participants suggested three strategies: adapting the lesson (i.e., "adapt it to them"), offering individual help (i.e., "one-on-one help"), and providing visual support (i.e., "use of visual). Three suggestions

each had six respondents: providing visual support, adapting the lesson and offering individual help: "use of visual, one-on-one help, and adapt it to them" were some of the quotes.

Finally, the last question on the questionnaire provided the participants with the opportunity to add any additional information regarding the inclusion of students with LDs in FSL classes. 16 participants accepted this opportunity, and there were two ideas/points that were made by multiple participants. First, five participants focused on the broad ideas of inclusion in their remarks, which was not surprising given the stem of the prompt. Some of these comments included: "If we support inclusion in English classrooms than we should support inclusion in French classes as well," and "Inclusion is important to success I've learned... I definitely think we should give it a go!" Twice, there were comments about inclusion being a student-specific experience, as evidenced by a remark like, "Each approach will depend on each individual student and should not be generalized."

Post-practicum Questionnaire
Beliefs and attitudes.

Table 7 summarizes the average score given by participants to questions about their beliefs pertaining to the presence/educational experience of students with learning difficulties in FSL classrooms. The results are presented in rank-order, from greatest to least agreement. All statements for this question recorded 51 responses.

TABLE 7
MEANS FOR LD BELIEF ITEMS, RANK-ORDERED FROM GREATEST TO LEAST AGREEMENT

	Mean	SD
6. To fully include students with learning difficulties, I must invest more planning time.	1.37	.848
13. All students should have the opportunity to be part of French Immersion, where available.	1.41	1.043
14. All students should have the opportunity to be part of Extended French, where available.	1.43	1.005
1. I believe that students with learning difficulties should be included in core French.	1.43	.985
15. All students should have the opportunity to be part of Intensive French, where available.	1.45	1.045
12. All students should have the opportunity to be a part of Core French, where available.	1.53	1.206
2. I believe that students with learning difficulties should be included in French immersion, where available.	1.53	1.102
4. I believe that students with learning difficulties should be included in Intensive French, where available.	1.57	1.136
3. I believe that students with learning difficulties should be included in extended French, where available.	1.69	1.191
18. I believe that my teaching style naturally addresses a wide range of learner needs.	1.82	1.161
9. The strategies needed to respond to effectively support students with learning difficulties' needs are consistent with the strategies I use to teach French.	1.84	1.138
16. The curriculum for core French acknowledges and allows for a wide range of learner needs.	1.84	1.332
5. I believe the parents of students with learning difficulties support their children learning French.	2.06	1.256
7. There are occasions when a student with learning difficulties should be exempt from learning French.	2.10	1.473
17. The curricular demands of a core French classroom are structured in a way that makes it hard to address a wide range of learner needs.	2.82	1.729
11. The suggested accommodations for students with IEP[4]s are incompatible with the goals and expectations of core French.	3.22	1.616
10. The suggested accommodations for students with IEPs are incompatible with my teaching style.	3.25	1.647
8. The presence of students with learning difficulties has an unfavourable impact on the learning potential of the other students in the class	3.33	1.807

The responses to the value statements about participants' beliefs about students with learning difficulties in the FSL classroom were analyzed in relation to the participants' self-reported practica experiences and perceptions of changes in their opinions about including students with learning difficulties in FSL classrooms. ANOVA analyses revealed areas of statistical significance in the mean differences for two questions about their beliefs about inclusion in FSL for students with learning difficulties.

Participants who self-reported no change in their opinions disagreed more strongly with two statements than did the participants who did report a change in their opinions. First, the "no opinion change" group disagreed more strongly with the statement, "The suggested accommodations for students with IEPs are incompatible with my teaching style" (Opinion Change = 3.42; No Opinion Change = 4.03; p = 0.046; Eta square = 0.09). Second, the same group of participants disagreed more strongly with the statement, "The suggested accommodations for students with IEPs are incompatible with the goals and expectations of core French" (Opinion Change = 3.33; No Opinion Change = 4.00; p = 0.024; Eta square = 0.12).

There were no findings of statistical significance when the type of participants' practicum experiences was considered in relation to their agreement or disagreement with the various value statements (FSL or non-FSL context or type of FSL program).

Regression analyses were used to determine if the length of the participants' practicum experience in the FSL classroom were an influence on any of their belief statements. The average practicum experience lasted for 6.2 weeks, and there were three statements with statistical significance. First, it was found that the longer the practicum experience, the more strongly participants agreed with the statement, "I believe parents of students with learning difficulties support their children learning French" (Mean response = 2.06; R = -0.015; p = 0.015). Second, it was found that the longer the practicum experience, the more strongly participants agreed with the statement, "The strategies needed to effectively

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[4] IEP stands for Individualized Education Program. An IEP is a document that establishes, formally, a special education need that must be supported in school. It is a legally binding document.

support students with learning difficulties are consistent with the strategies I use to teach French" (Mean response 1.84; R = -0.361; *p* = 0.020). Finally, it was found that the longer the practicum experience, the more strongly participants agreed with the statement, "All students should have the opportunity to be part of Intensive French, where available" (Mean response = 1.45; R =-.311; *p* = 0.048).

Perceptions of influences on beliefs/attitudes.

The participants were asked to rate the extent to which they felt certain factors influenced their beliefs and attitudes towards students with LD. The results are presented from greatest to least agreement. For this group of questions, the average number of responses was 43, which is 8 less than the group who responded to the questions about the belief statements. The responses were marked on a 3-point Likert scale, with "1" indicating "strong influence," "2" indicating "some influence," and "3" indicating "no influence." As Table 8 indicates, all variables, on average, exerted some degree of influence. It appears that the stronger influences on the participants' beliefs/attitudes were internal states, rather than outside forces. The first "outside" source mentioned as an influence is "research," which ranked sixth.

TABLE 8
MEANS FOR LD INFLUENCE ITEMS RANK-ORDERED FROM GREATEST TO LEAST INFLUENCE.

	Mean	SD
8. Your own understanding of student's learning needs.	1.33	.474
9. Your own familiarity with inclusive teaching practices/principles	1.33	.474
6. My learning in FSL methodology class	1.40	.495
7. Your own assessment of student's ability to succeed.	1.42	.545
12. Your own assessment of your ability to accommodate.	1.49	.592
5. Findings of research	1.51	.506
10. Your own understanding of special education rules and protocols	1.56	.590
14. Your own assessment of the benefits of French for students with learning difficulties.	1.60	.587
1. Opinion of parents.	1.63	.655
3. Opinion of the school principal.	1.65	.529
11. Your own assessment of the student's need to focus on other subjects.	1.69	.643
4. Availability of resources.	1.74	.621
13. Your own assessment of how the inclusion of students with learning difficulties will impact the class.	1.74	.693
2. Opinion of my colleagues.	2.00	.584

The relationship between the participants' perceptions about sources of influence on their beliefs about students with LD in the FSL classroom and the participants' self-reported practicum experiences and perceptions of changes in their belief systems were also compared. The mean differences revealed four areas of statistical significance. First, those participants who had completed a practicum in an FSL environment were more influenced of their own assessment of the benefits of French for students with learning difficulties than those who did not complete a practicum in French (Opinion change = 1.48; No Opinion Change = 2.00; *p* = 0.02; Eta square = 0.13). Second, participants who did report a change in their beliefs/attitudes towards students with learning difficulties were more influenced by the opinion of their colleagues than those who reported no change (Opinion change = 1.64; No Opinion Change = 2.13; *p* =0.014; Eta square = 0.14). Within the narrative comments gathered through some questions at the end, it appeared that several participants reported no change in their positions because, either in their program or in their practica, they did not address/encounter students with learning difficulties. The narrative responses also included four comments about how the students with learning difficulties in their practicum classrooms confirmed already existing views. Three of those comments indicated that the initial and subsequent views were positive, and one indicated that the initial and subsequent views were negative.

For the other two areas of statistical significance, it appeared that the context in which the participants completed their practica had an influence on the factors of perceived influence. First, those participants who had a singular practicum in FSL (in any of the FSL programs) were more influenced by their personal assessment of the students' needs to focus on other subjects than those candidates who either had no practicum experience in FSL or experiences in multiple FSL programs (Core French = 1.50; Immersion/Extended/Intensive French = 1.50; Multiple Programs = 2.20; No Practicum Experience = 2.00; p = 0.047; Eta square = 0.19). Next, the participants who again had a single practicum experience in any of the FSL programs were more influenced by their personal assessments of the benefits of French for students with learning difficulties than were participants who either had no practicum experience in an FSL classroom or multiple practica in an FSL classroom (Core French = 1.35; Immersion/Extended/Intensive French = 1.43; Multiple Programs = 2.00; No Practicum Experience = 2.00; p =0.007; Eta square = 0.27. The duration of the practicum did not have any statistically significant findings for the influence items.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

As mentioned in the introduction, Garmon (2005) proposed that teacher candidates' attitudes and beliefs towards students from racial backgrounds different from their own were influenced by their overall personal dispositions and collective experiences. In a prior work, Garmon (2004) had outlined the three types of experiences critical to helping pre-service teachers work with diverse populations: intercultural experiences (where they had direct interaction with individuals who were from different cultures), educational experiences (where they had coursework, field experiences, and opportunities to reflect about issues related to diversity), and finally, support experiences in which the teacher

candidates have the opportunity to ask questions and engage in "sensitive" dialogues with peers and teacher educators regarding the elements of diversity that are under consideration. In this study, educational and intercultural experiences (framed through the culture of "disability") were featured.

There was some limited evidence that personal experience with a learning difficulty did impact the views of the candidates on some questions that considered the presence of students with learning difficulties in the FSL classroom. While this was not a consistent trend within the data, the limited results show that at least when it comes to supporting students with difficulties in the FSL classroom, a teacher's personal experience with disability could make a difference in how the student is viewed by the teacher. Extending the findings of Pattniak (1997), who found that teacher candidates who lacked personal experience with individuals from different race or ethnic backgrounds had more negative views of students from race backgrounds different from their own, it appears that this study shows some limited evidence of a similar trend when the different culture is represented as "difficulty."

Further, in the optional section for additional narrative comments, six of the eleven candidates who self-reported changes in their perceptions of students with learning difficulties indicated that their perceptions changed because of positive experiences with students with learning difficulties. Though some participants' comments still questioned whether students with learning difficulties could benefit from the FSL experience, it seems that the teacher candidates were open to having these ideas challenged through experience in the classroom. Further, participants who had longer practica in FSL classrooms indicated that they more strongly believed that the strategies needed to support students with LD were compatible with their teaching styles. This was somewhat contradictory to the results of the first questionnaire, which showed that participants with prior FSL teacher experience had lower levels of agreement with certain statements about the presence of students with LD in the FSL classroom, so it could be that the seemingly open views will change over time. This would be an interesting consideration in future research.

As it pertained to the influences on the participants' perceptions of the student populations, there was some confirmation of trends in prior research that have revealed that teacher candidates' views on issues are largely unmoved by outside forces, such as research, the opinion of others, or coursework (e.g., Garmon, 2004; Peacock, 2001). However, in open-ended comments, several participants did report that coursework in their FSL programs did have an influence on their views, but the current instrument did not allow for the determination of which participants attended which program. Such consideration may be beneficial in future research, to determine if coursework that focuses on the educational experience of these populations in the FSL classroom actually goes against the trend in the larger research corpus. Because these student populations have been attached to popular myths about their potential for success in the FSL classroom, it could be that coursework that directly addresses those myths may be of greater benefit than other types of coursework.

Returning to critical theory, the last consideration for this research is the construct of access and benefit. The actions of a teacher in a classroom setting can consciously and subconsciously replicate power structures that serve to affirm and perpetuate the status quo and keep certain students from gaining from the learning experience (Willis et al., 2008). In this research, the results do point to the potential for disadvantage of students with learning difficulties, as it pertains to the FSL experience. Though the participants held largely positive views about the student populations' rights to access the FSL curriculum, the participants did agree that there were times when students with learning difficulties should be exempt from the FSL requirement. In exempting students from FSL, students with learning difficulties can be placed at a disadvantage for employment or later educational opportunities, an action that could further promote the idea that individuals with disabilities are 'lacking'.

Thus, there are differences perceptions of the right to access FSL, and it would be worthwhile to turn to more qualitative sources to see if it might be possible to explain why such a difference exists. The construct of benefit was a more indirect focus in this research, as measured through the questions about teaching methods and supports needed to help the student populations, so conclusions are difficult to draw. It would be useful to more directly address teacher candidates' perceptions of the potential for benefit of FSL study by this student population in later work.

Nonetheless, this study has revealed that from the start of their teaching careers, there are some pre-service candidates who will be positioning students with learning difficulties at disadvantage, making it that much harder for this student population to find success. Perhaps there would be value in ensuring that pre-service candidates had access to certain experiences on their path to their own classrooms, so as to mitigate some of these negatives.

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Katy Arnett, holds a B.A. in foreign language (French) from St. Mary's College of Maryland, St. Mary's City, Maryland, USA (2000), and both a M.A. (2001) and Ph.D. (2004) in second language education from the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. Additionally, she is a certified teacher of French, Grades 7-12, for the state of Maryland.

She is currently associate professor & chair of Educational Studies at St. Mary's College of Maryland, USA. She worked for several years as a teacher of French in Grades 8-12 before moving into teacher education. Among other venues, her research has appeared in the *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, the *Canadian Modern Language Review*, and *Exceptionality Education International*. With Callie Mady, she co-edited and contributed to the recent volume, *Minority populations in Canadian Second Language Education* (Bristol, United Kingdom, Multilingual Matters 2013). Her research interests focus broadly on issues related to the support and/or inclusion of students with specialized learning needs within a particular context, including students with learning difficulties in French Second Language classrooms in Canada and more recently, newcomer students to English-speaking school systems.

Dr. Arnett is a member of several professional associations, including the American and Canadian Associations of Applied Linguistics. In 2012-2013, she was named a Fulbright Scholar, allowing her to pursue new research in her areas of specialty from the base of the Second Language Research Institute of Canada at the University of New Brunswick.

Callie Mady received her Bachelor of Arts at McGill University in Montréal, Québec, Canada in 1987, her Bachelor of Education from Brock University in Hamilton, Ontario, Canada in 1988, her Masters of Arts in 2003 and her Doctor of Philosophy in 2006 from the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. Her graduate degrees focused on second language education.

Callie is currently an associate professor in the Schulich School of Education at Nipissing University, North Bay, Ontario, Canada. Previously, she taught second languages at the elementary and secondary levels. Among her various publications, she co-edited a book with Katy Arnett entitled *Minority Populations in Canadian Second Language Education* (Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters, 2013). Her research interests include French as a second language education and multilingual language acquisition. In particular, her research focuses on minority populations in those areas—immigrants and students with learning difficulties.

Dr. Mady is currently serving as President of the Canadian Association of Applied Linguistics and has been actively involved in the planning of its annual conference for the past several years.

Lin Muilenburg earned a B.S. in secondary education for biology and general science from The Pennsylvania State University in 1985. She was awarded an M.A. in instructional systems development by the University of Maryland Baltimore County in 1996. Conferral of her Ph.D. in instructional design and development by the University of South Alabama occurred in 2008.

She is an associate professor in the Department of Educational Studies at St. Mary's College of Maryland in St. Mary's City, MD, USA. Previous work included teaching secondary science and mathematics, providing job-embedded staff development to educators, and consulting to improve training programs for corporations, non-profits, and educational institutions. Her research interests are varied and include mobile and elearning, instructional technology, and education policy. She is the co-editor of the *Handbook of Mobile Learning* (New York, NY: Routledge, 2013).

Dr. Muilenburg served as a program committee member for the Classroom, Ubiquitous and Mobile Technologies Enhanced Learning sub-conference of the International Conference on Computers in Education 2013, in Bali, Indonesia. She is a manuscript reviewer for the *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, *Computers and Education*, the *International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching in Education*, and the *MERLOT Journal of Online Learning and Teaching*.

A Contrastive Analysis of First and Second Language Learning

Rui Ting Wu

Faculty of Education, University of Tasmania, Launceston, TAS, Australia

Van Tai Le

The Tasmanian School of Business and Economics, University of Tasmania, Hobart, TAS, Australia

Jin Jin Lu

Faculty of Education, University of Tasmania, Launceston, TAS, Australia

Abstract—**Second language learning is increasingly important in the modern world. Second language learners often wonder why they have experienced so many difficulties when learning a second language, while they did not experience it when learning a first language. This study aimed to discover a way in which the second language learning can benefit from the first language learning. A random sample of 50 second language learners was used. The data gathering consisted of a questionnaire. A combination of both quantitative and qualitative approaches was utilised to analyse the data. The findings confirmed that the first language is indeed learned more easily than the second language. A number of recommendations have been made in relation to this study to assist second language learners to improve their second language learning.**

Index Terms—**language learning, first and second language, input, output**

I. INTRODUCTION

It is well known that almost all human beings know a language, except those with severely damaged brains or severely interrupted socialisation (i.e., "wolf children"). According to Vygotsky (1978, p. 89), *"language arises initially as a means of communication between the child and the people in his/her environment"*. In order to live in the world, people need to communicate via a language. At least, they need to know one language, that is, a first language (L1). However, with the growing internationalisation in politics and economy of the modern society, citizens with more than one language are increasingly needed. According to Lessow-Hurley's statement (1990, p. 128), "it is common wisdom that you can buy in any language, but you should sell in the language of your customer. Around the world, sales people are expected to be multilingual". As a result, people need to learn another one or two languages, namely, second language (L2). Second language learning, according to Spolsky (1999, p. 181), *"is the process by which an individual who has, during the first few years of life, acquired one language (or, often, more than one language) from his or her caretakers or peers goes on to add one or more new languages to his or her repertoire"*.

II. THE RESEARCH AIM AND THE QUESTIONS

In this study, the purpose of contrastively analyzing first and second language learning is to find a way in which the second language learning can benefit from the first language learning. This study pursued the following four questions in order to achieve this main aim:
1. What are L2 learners' views on the difficulty of L1 learning?
2. What are L2 learners' views on the difficulty of L2 learning?
3. What are L2 learners' views on reasons of that the first language is learned more easily than the second language?
4. What are L2 learners' views on how to improve their second language learning?
The findings from this study have the potential to assist L2 learners to improve their second language learning.

III. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

It is widely recognized that children learn their native/first language naturally and successfully. Whatever their culture, all normal children acquire their native language at a given time of life and in an appropriate linguistic environment that provides sufficient language input and output. Children have no difficulty at all when learning their first language. However, millions of second language learners are often at pains to point out that second language learning poses difficulties which they did not face when learning their mother tongue. They are puzzled about why they cannot understand or use a second language as fluently and correctly as they do with their first language, even though they have been striving to learn it for many years. Second language learners often complain that the first language is

learned more easily than the second language when they are struggling to adjust to a new phonological system and culture. As Mackey (as cited in Ellis, 1990, p. 22) put it, *"the learning of one language in childhood is an inevitable process; the learning of a second language is a special accomplishment"*. People often wonder whether L2 learners could duplicate the way of first language learning. The contrastive analysis of first and second language learning thus become of great importance for second language teachers and learners for two main purposes. According to Ellis (1990, p. 22),

the first was to emphasize the relative ease of L1 learning and to make out a case for commencing foreign language instruction as early as possible in order to tap the natural language learning capacity of the young child. The second purpose was to dispute the view that the classroom should try to imitate 'real life'. L1 learning took place successfully in 'real life', but FL learning required setting up the 'optimal conditions' for learning in order to overcome the various problems.

The study is significant for L2 learners. This study seeks to examine why the first language is learned more easily than the second language, and how L2 learners have to improve their second language learning. An awareness of these learning approaches will help both struggling and advanced L2 learners with their language learning.

IV. LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Wu (2013, p. 1), "English has become an important international language due to the effects of rapid globalization". Richards and Rodgers (1986, p. 1) also pointed out, "English has become the world's most widely studied foreign language". In fact, "over one half of the one billion English speakers of the world learn English as a second or foreign language" (Brown, 1994, p. 122). However, these L2 learners have experienced many difficulties and problems when learning a different phonological system. These difficulties were particularly serious when non-English native speakers pursuing a higher education in a native English speaking country. A number of studies have attempted to identify the difficulties and problems related to culture, academic learning, psychology experienced by non-English speaking international students (NESI) in a native English learning environment (Spencer-Oatey and Xiong, 2006). Levy, Osborn, and Plunkett (2003) found that a significant number of international students demonstrated poor performance levels and even subject failures in their first semester or year of study. This point of view was supported by Makepeace (1989) who indicated that the failure rate for international students attending courses in the United Kingdom was higher than that of local students.

Many researchers believed that these failures resulted from their English deficiencies. Ying (2003) pointed out that English writing skills were particularly necessary for successful completion of written assignments, and essential for academic achievement. This perception was supported by the view of that competence in English was a predictor of academic success and greater satisfaction with an overseas tertiary experience (Barker, Child, Gallios, Jones, & Callen, 1991; Church, 1982; Wintergerst, DeCapua, & Verna, 2003; Ying & Liese, 1991). Many studies have also revealed that some NESI students believed that their lack of English competence had hindered their full participation in tutorials, classroom discussions, and interactions with academic staff at university (Barker, Child, Gallois, Jones, & Callan, 1991; Robertson, Line, Jones, & Thomas, 2000). As Felix and Lawson (1994, p. 67) stated, "poor English and poor argument or analysis [are] inextricably linked". As a result, many researchers examined learning strategies to improve the second language learning (Macaro, 2001; Oxford, 2003; Wenden & Rubin, 1987). However, very few studies examined the difference between first and second language learning and how the second language learning can benefit from the first language learning. Therefore, this study will examine reasons of that the first language is learned more easily than the second language, and how L2 learners have to improve their second language learning.

V. METHODOLOGY

This study utilised both quantitative and qualitative methods in order to gain the strengths of both methodological methods and to potentially offset their respective weaknesses. This study was based on a survey design which, according to Creswell (2003, p. 153), "provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population". From the results the researcher can make generalisations about the population being studied. The data gathering consisted of a questionnaire (see Appendix). The first three research questions were examined through the closed questions of the questionnaire, which was the first step in the data collection. The open-ended questions further explored the first three research questions and also investigated the fourth research question.

This study recruited fifty (50) English as a second language learners who were studying or living in Australia. A pilot study of questionnaire was conducted prior to the study commencing in order to assess the feasibility of the later full-scale study and to identify any logistical problems. Burns (2000) noted that a pilot study was an opportunity to enhance the validity and reliability of the research. It also enabled the researcher to confirm the appropriate research structure and design of the study. Ten (10) L2 learners participated in this pilot study. After a slight change on the questionnaire according to the feedback from the pilot study, hard copies of questionnaires and details of the study were posted to potential participants.

The data analysis in this study employed both quantitative and qualitative methodological methods. The closed questions of the questionnaire were divided into two parts. The first section (Part A) sought information regarding the first language of the respondents in addition to their gender, age, length of learning English as a second language, and highest qualification completed. The second section (Part B) consisted of 27 questions related to the first three research questions. The analysis of the questionnaires was aided by the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and focused on answering the research questions.

VI. FINDINGS

In this research study, all of the 50 questionnaires distributed were completed and returned by the participants. All of the 27 closed questions were answered, whilst the four open-ended questions received 30 responses for each question.

It was commonly acknowledged by the participants that L1 was learned more easily than L2. The difficulty of L1 learning in listening and speaking was not noticed by all of the participants, whilst all of them agreed to have experienced different difficulties when learning a second language. The reasons for the difficulties were summarized into two categories, i.e., extrinsic and intrinsic psychological reasons. The extrinsic reasons included:

1. The first language learning environment is richer in interaction and more supportive than that of the second language.

2. Children spend much more time in learning the first language than L2 learners spend in learning the second language.

3. The first language is usually learned by constant interaction, in a natural fashion, while second language is normally learned by formal instruction which mainly uses the grammar-translation approach.

The intrinsic psychological reasons included the attitude towards making mistakes and the attitude towards being considered a show-off.

According to the data from questionnaires, gender difference and cultural difference were not found in the views on the difficulty of L1 and L2 learning. Many suggestions were made for L2 learners to improve their second language learning.

VII. DISCUSSION

This section will analyse the findings in relation to the research questions guiding this study. The data analysis will also involve discussion of issues generated from the data and whether these are validated or refuted in existing literature related to this topic. When citing a participant, the participant will be coded as "QP A", "QP B, " or "QP C", and so on.

A. What Are L2 Learners' Views on the Difficulty of L1 Learning?

According to the responses from 50 questionnaires, all participants (100%) revealed that they did not feel any difficulty in L1 learning. As the participants stated:

I do not think that I have ever experienced any difficulty when learning a first language. It was just acquired spontaneously (QP A).

Well, I have never realized the difficulty of learning a first language. I feel like that my first language was learned automatically when we grew up. When we were infants, we listened to our parents and people around our families and then acquired the first language. Gradually, we talked and communicated with other people (QP B).

Only a few participants (10%) indicated that they had a little trouble when learning reading of their first language. According to a participant's statement:

I have to work hard and practise because the vowels and consonants in my first language are difficult to identify (QP C).

20% of participants agreed that they had problems when learning the writing of their first language. As a participant stated:

Grammar and spelling of my first language are hard. I have to really work hard to learn them (QP D).

B. What are L2 learners' views on the difficulty of L2 learning?

Nearly all participants (98%) revealed that they found difficulty in L2 learning. As they stated:

I have found a lot of problems when learning a second language because the language system is very different from my first language (QP E).

I understood nothing when I first came to Australia. But I did not have problem when I went shopping in supermarkets because the price was written there, all what I needed was to pay (QP F).

I could not communicated with English native speakers because I did not understand them, and when I talked, they did not understand me (QP G).

I have found it hard to read English fast and hard to comprehend the text. Writing assignments in English is more difficult. I do not remember the words. Whenever I wrote something, I had to look up the dictionary. The writing speed is very slow (QP H).

C. What are L2 learners' views on reasons of that the first language is learned more easily than the second language?

According to Bock-Mi Lee's statement (1996, p. 96), "the first language is normally learned as a child during the optimal or critical age, since the child can figure out the language by hearing and using it. On the other hand, the second language is normally learned later by formal teaching or schooling". Even though the critical period does play an important role in language learning, the discussion on the difference of first and second language learning during the critical period is not relevant to improve the second language learning since most of L2 learners have already missed most of the period. Therefore, other reasons, which were acknowledged by the participants to explain why the first language is learned more easily than the second language, are important for L2 learners to know. They can be summarized into two categories, i.e., extrinsic and intrinsic psychological reasons.

1) Extrinsic reasons

All participants (100%) agreed that the first language learning environment is richer in interaction than that of the second language and learners produce first language more than second language. As the participants complained:

Children obtain more input when learning a first language than L2 learners do when learning a second language. Assuming children sleep for 14 hours a day, they may be exposed to the first language for up to 10 hours a day, compared with second language learners being exposed to the target language only a few hours weekly, from school teachers (QP I).

When children learn their first language, the communication is required more than when L2 learners learn the second language. Almost all daily interaction from parents, teachers, peers, and siblings around children is in first language. This requires that they have to respond others in their first language to express their needs, ideas and emotions, and thus they have many opportunities to engage in one to one interaction with a wide range of people and for a wide range of purposes (QP J).

Children have no choice of other languages when they learn their first language. So children are able to concentrate on one language and have to try their best to learn to speak it for their daily communicative needs (QP K).

However, "it is impossible to conceive second language acquisition without input in some form or other" (Alcon, 1998, p. 343). It is hard for L2 learners to be exposed to the second language as much as the first language unless they go to the country where the target language is spoken as the first language. According to Yule (1996, p. 175), "language a child learns is not genetically inherited, but is acquired in a particular language-using environment". In order for successful language acquisition to take place, learners have to produce the language in the context of conversation. Brown (2000, p. 5) also pointed out, "output is achieved by using this language for communication". When children frequently repeat experiences of combining linguistic and nonlinguistic strategies, they gradually master the linguistic system and its meanings. Children have to communicate in only one language, and thus they can produce first language more than L2 learners speak second language because L2 learners have the first language as another choice for communication. According to Rosansky (as cited in Birdsong, 1999, p. 5), "when faced with a problem, [children] can focus (and then only fleetingly) on one dimension at a time, this lack of flexibility and lack of decentration may well be a necessity for language acquisition". Vertriglia (1982, p. ix) also noted, "the more language is shared, the better it is learned".

A large majority of participants (94%) agreed that the first language learning environment is more supportive than that of the second language. As they stated:

When children learn their first language, they are usually egocentric at this time. So the environment when learning the first language has more advantages over when learning the second language (QP L).

This view was supported by Rosansky (as cited in Birdsong, 1999, p. 5) who pointed out, "initial language acquisition takes place when the child is highly centered [i.e. in stages prior to Formal Operations]". Campbell and Green (2000, p. 81) also noted, "language development relies upon the active and supportive assistance of adults in all of the social contexts that represent the culture in which the child is growing". Almost all adults around the children patiently repeat or paraphrase when children do not understand the meaning, and give the children a model to copy to learn the appropriate expression when they say something that is not the same as the accepted use. Parents are also often surprised by their children's everyday language improvement. They praise and encourage their children's learning all the time. This definitely gives children much confidence, and then children may feel free to take risks and make mistakes in learning the first language.

However, L2 learners do not have the same supportive language learning environment as children have when learning their first language. L2 learners mainly learn the second language by formal instruction in school settings and the school teachers usually correct their mistakes rather than praising their improvement. This may discourage their learning in the long run. As Yule (1996, p. 195) noted, "a language-learning situation that encourages success and accomplishment must consequently be more helpful than one that dwells on errors and corrections". Indeed, the learner who tries to learn and communicate in second language with courage will tend to be more successful.

All participants (100%) agreed that children spend much more time in learning the first language than L2 learners spend in learning the second language, and L2 learners normally lack daily communication needs to learn their second language. As the participants complained:

Between the ages of 1 and 6 years, children learn their first language with little else to do. Except for sleeping approximately 14 hours a day, children may learn their first language for up to 10 hours a day from television, radio or

communicating with parents, caretakers, peers or siblings. By 6 years of age, they would have already learned their first language for more than 18,000 hours (QP M).

L2 learners such as students in Chinese primary and secondary school study English as a second language only one or two hours a day. Even though we learn English for 10 years, the total amount of time will be at most 730 hours which is not enough to produce very advanced English speakers (QP N).

Most people attempt to learn another language during their teenage or adult years. Adults, especially those married and with children, have a lot of other responsibilities. Work occupies almost all adults' time (QP O).

According to Bourgeois (1999, p. 90), "about half of students questioned stated that the major difficulty was the lack of time because of familial obligations". Research (Bourgeois, 1999) also showed that the most common obstacles to adults' learning are the costs incurred and lack of time.

90% of participants agreed that the first language is usually learned by constant interaction, in a natural fashion, while second language is normally learned by formal instruction which mainly uses the grammar-translation approach. This approach gives little help to learners' communicative skills. As Krashen and Terrell (1988, p. 55) noted, "language is best taught when it is being used to transmit a message not when it is explicitly taught for conscious learning".

2) Intrinsic reasons

All participants (100%) responded agree or strongly agree on the view of that L2 learners often find it very stressful when they are unable to express themselves clearly and correctly in the second language. 78% of participants indicated that L2 learners usually worry that they may be considered to be "showing-off" when they talk in a second language in public. This view reflected a similar opinion to Richard-Amato (1996, p. 25) who said that adults' strong self-consciousness leads to L2 learners' increased inhibitions and anxiety with age and they may find themselves afraid to make errors. Birkhill & Schaie (1975) also noted that L2 learners are usually more cautious than young L1 learners and unlikely to venture a response if they are unsure of its correctness. A questionnaire of 300 adult English learners carried out by Wu Huifang (2002, p. 61) showed that about 80% of Chinese adults feel embarrassed or ashamed of making mistakes. Children, however, do not have to worry about making mistakes, because their learning first language 'risk-take' is almost in a stress-free environment. Their very small language improvement would even surprise and excite their parents. They are praised and encouraged during almost all the first language learning process, which definitely free their nervousness in language learning.

D. What Are L2 Learners' Views on How to Improve Their Second Language Learning?

According to the responses to the open-ended questionnaires, many strategies were frequently mentioned (between 3 – 5 times) to improve their second language learning. As they responded:

What I did is to turn on the tape-recorder or English TV programs every day when I am at home. Even though I am doing something else, such as cooking or eating rather than reading or writing English, I can still study English by listening to it. When I am on the way to and from school, I can also listen to English on a pocket-sized tape-recorder or a MP3 player. In this way, I have got an increased exposure to English (QP P).

I try to communicate with other students in English outside the class or school. At first we found it too hard to communicate, but once we overcame the problem and got used to communicating in English, our speaking English were performed without hesitation or reflection (QP Q).

I make good use of short times, like 5 or 10 minutes, when waiting for buses or whatever else, because short times can accumulate. I also try my best to recall what I have learned before sleeping. I have found that the effect of memorization recall during this period of time is much better than that of recall during the day time (QP R).

These views were supported by Spolsky (as cited in O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, p. 12) who noted, "necessary conditions in second language acquisition are target language input, motivation, and practice opportunities".

Using first language for translation as an important learning approach was mentioned twice. The use of first language knowledge can facilitate the progress of L2 learners towards the target language. As Gibbons (1991, p 62) noted, "ignoring children's first languages is wasteful because it ignores one of the greatest resources they bring to school". Ringbom (1986, p. 150) also pointed out, "especially for the beginner, one obvious way of facilitating the foreign language learning process is to rely upon his/her first language or other languages he/she may know". The results of a survey into student attitudes towards this idea showed that the beginning and intermediate L2 learners generally agreed with the teacher using the first language in the classroom more than the advanced L2 learners. The survey reported that 66% of beginning L2 learners and 58% of intermediate L2 learners preferred the teacher to use the first language in teaching, compared with 29% of advanced L2 learners (Prodromou, 2006).

Having a positive psychological attitude towards making mistakes was also mentioned twice. This view reflected a similar opinion to Gibbons (1991, p. 11) who said that L2 learners' attitudes to learning and their confidence are "key psychological factors in successful second language learning".

VIII. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the responses by L2 learners, recommendations are made to improve L2 learning. They were listed as follows:

1. L2 learners should increase the amount of input and output of a second language as much as possible.

2. L2 learners can lengthen their time in learning the second language by making use of short times and the retention work before sleeping.

3. Making good use of first language to aid second language learning is an important learning approach.

4. Developing a positive psychological attitude towards making mistakes and "showing-off" would be more successful in second language learning.

IX. CONCLUSION

This study examined L2 learners' views on the difficulty of L1 and L2 learning, and reasons of that the first language is learned more easily than the second language. The findings confirmed that the first language is learned more easily than the second language. However, it is nearly impossible for L2 learners to duplicate children's interactive approaches in a natural fashion when learning the second language. A number of recommendations have been made in relation to this study to assist second language learners to improve their second language learning. This research could be further developed if the research to be undertaken in order to reveal the specific procedure of how to make the best use of the advantages of first language learning to serve their second language learning.

APPENDIX

Questionnaire to examine first and second language learning

1) Part A: Please highlight only one choice.

1. Your native language: a. Chinese   b. Korean   c. Vietnamese   d. Other (please specify) _____

2. Gender: a. Male   b. Female

3. Age: a. 17-24   b. 25-35   c. 36-50   d. Over 50

4. Length of learning English as a second language (up to now):

    a. Less than 12 months

    b. Over one year to four years

    c. Over four years to nine years

    d. Over nine years

5. Highest qualification completed

    a. High school   b. Certificate/Diploma   c. Bachelor degree   d. Masters degree   e. Doctoral degree   f. Other(s) (please specify)____

2) Part B: Please highlight your most appropriate response.

a) Directions: Please indicate your most appropriate response by using the following criteria:

SDA= Strongly Disagree;   DA= Disagree;   NS=Not Sure;   A= Agree;   SA= Strongly Agree

No.	A contrastive analysis of first and second language	Weighted Scores
	● **Your views on the difficulty of L1 learning**	
6	I did not feel any difficulty in L1 learning.	SDA DA NS A SA
7	I think it is difficult to learn a first language.	SDA DA NS A SA
8	I encountered many problems when learning the listening of my first language.	SDA DA NS A SA
9	I encountered many problems when learning the speaking of my first language.	SDA DA NS A SA
10	I encountered many problems when learning the reading of my first language.	SDA DA NS A SA
11	I encountered many problems when learning the writing of my first language.	SDA DA NS A SA
	● **Your views on the difficulty of L2 learning**	
12	I did not feel any difficulty in L2 learning.	SDA DA NS A SA
13	I have experienced many difficulties when learning a second language.	SDA DA NS A SA
14	I have found difficulties in understanding English native speakers' accent.	SDA DA NS A SA
15	I have found difficulties in communicating with English native speakers.	SDA DA NS A SA
16	I have found difficulties in reading in English.	SDA DA NS A SA
17	I have found difficulties in writing assignments in English.	SDA DA NS A SA
18	I have found it hard to speak out in English.	SDA DA NS A SA
	● **Your views on reasons of that the first language is learned more easily than the second language**	
19	The first language learning environment is richer in interaction.	SDA DA NS A SA
20	Learners produce first language more than second language.	SDA DA NS A SA
21	The first language learning environment is more supportive than that of the second language.	SDA DA NS A SA
22	The length of learning a first language is longer than learning a second language.	SDA DA NS A SA
23	Children spend much more time in learning the first language than L2 learners spend in learning the second language.	SDA DA NS A SA
24	L2 learners normally lack daily communication needs to learn their second language.	SDA DA NS A SA
25	The first language is usually learned by constant interaction, in a natural fashion, while second language is normally learned by formal instruction which mainly uses the grammar-translation approach.	SDA DA NS A SA

| 26 | L2 learners often find it very stressful when they are unable to express themselves clearly and correctly in the second language. | SDA DA NS A SA |
| 27 | L2 learners usually worry that they may be considered to be "showing-off" when they talk in a second language in public. | SDA DA NS A SA |

Open-ended questions:

1. Please write down any comments you would like to make regarding the difficulty of L1 learning.

2. Please write down any comments you would like to make regarding the difficulty of L2 learning.

3. Please write down any comments you would like to make regarding reasons of that the first language is learned more easily than the second language.

4. Please write down any comments you would like to make regarding how to improve their second language learning

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Rui Ting Wu A PhD candidate at the Faculty of Education, University of Tasmania, Australia. She is also an experienced School educator, having taught thousands of students from Prep to Year 12. Ms Wu holds a Bachelor of Teaching with Honours and a Master of Education in TESOL from the University of Tasmania, Australia. Her research interest is TESOL, primary teaching, and teaching Chinese as a second language.

Van Tai Le An MBA student at The Tasmanian School of Business and Economics, University of Tasmania. Mr Le has completed a Bachelor degree in Aquaculture and a certificate IV of Supervision in Hospitality. His research interest is in the areas of Aquaculture, Economics, and TESOL.

Jin Jin Lu A PhD student at the Faculty of Education, University of Tasmania. Her research interest is TESOL and Higher education. She has been working in a Chinese university as a lecturer for more than 7 years.

Thorny Journey from Slavery to Salvation

Rashad Mohammed Moqbel Al Areqi

English Department, Sana'a Community College, Sana'a, Yemen

Abstract—Search for freedom is one of the most demanding requirements of the people who were under the hell of slavery in the past, particularly in America; nowadays slavery adopts different aspects in the contemporary era. Morrison is one of the Afro-American novelists who dedicated their literary works to uncover the tyranny imposed on the African Americans in the past and how they unfettered from its chains. This article explores a long journey from slavery to salvation argued in Tony Morrison's *A Mercy* and what its repercussions in the lives of enslaved people in America regardless of their race, religion, color or country. On the road of freedom, they would lack their honor, their home and their trust in themselves, even their faith in God to change their lives to better. They will be vulnerable religiously, socially, psychologically, and culturally and exposed to sever torment involved with physical, spiritual and psychological sides of their lives. The focus in this article is on such transformations that may change different aspects of the enslaved lives, particularly the females, under the pressure and tyranny of the slavery traders who cares only for their interests regardless of their breaching to the laws of humanity and human rights. It was found that the females are more vulnerable and a mercy of a man interferes to salvage their lives, however, that salvation and protection would not continue forever.

Index Terms—slavery, salvation, mercy, female, freedom, transformation, black, white

I. INTRODUCTION

Toni Morrison' *A Marcy* is an African American narrative that takes us back to the early age of slavery, to the seventeenth century, particularly the last two decades of that age. This narrative mingles between historical facts and creativity of Morrison in fiction that unveil the reality of slavery during that significant period of the history of America. It spots the light on old Virginia and the beginning of slavery, which had not restricted to specific place or specific race as narrated in this novel. Slavery written in the history would unveil the surface, the fact of slavery, but fiction probes deeply into what is below the surface of slavery, and what are its repercussions on the lives of enslaved people, females as powerless in particular. Bernatonyte (2012) pointed out that "in the works of Afro-American literature, historic events and traumatic experiences become subjective experience which are often based on actual events or are set in actual time and setting" (p.70). Slavery argued in this narrative is not involved with enslavement of the black or special race or group, however, it takes different aspects and it was practiced by different people with varied races and religions. In the narrative, Ortega is Portuguese, Jacob is Dutch, Lena is Native American, and Rebekka is an English woman. Morrison breaks the rule that the whites are in charge of black slavery because it refers to many nations and nationalities who are involved with merciless black slavery under the pretext of dominating the most powerful on the weakest black Africans or other weak races regardless their color, race or religion.

Slavery extended to encompass even the Native Americans or the whites who appeared powerless and helpless, particularly females. There is no astonishment to see a black free and the white enslaved. Our vision about slavery is shaken and the balance of slavery is overturned. The people are familiar with the rule that exhibits the white's domination and their enslavement of the black, however, this understanding is changed by Morrison's narrative, which makes slavery trade does not limited to white, or Americans but it contains different aspects of slavery. *A Mercy* comes to break our beliefs and thoughts about slavery trade and black people. It probes deeply into varied forms of slavery practiced with different communities and races. This narrative pulls our attention to the 1680s and 1690s when "Virginia still a mess. Who could keep up with the pitched battles for God, king and land? Even with the relative safety of his skin, solitary traveling required prudence" (*A Mercy*, p. 12). The trade of slavery was a profitable trade, it would not recognize humanity, here Morrison manifests a turning point in that trade which is claimed it has no moralities or mercy, however, Morrison reveals a sort of mercy, a mercy of human in dealing with slaves, females in particular. It shows a sort of mercy and humanity that would not find in other literary works discussing the slavery issues.

The focus in this present argument is on the concepts of slave/slavery and how Morrison managed to mingle the historical facts with her creativity in fiction. Many historical facts are reflected in this narrative to reveal the reality of slavery and its beginning in Virginia to spread later to many colonies in America. Ashcroft and et al (2002) pointed out that slave/slavery "it was of particular significance in the formation of many post-colonial societies in Africa and Caribbean" (p. 212). He added "over twelve million blacks were forcibly shipped in chains across the infamous Atlantic 'Middle Passage' to Brazil, the Caribbean and the United States" (p. 213).

The black writing enriches the American literature and gives reins for the writer's imagination. Toni Morrison is one of the writers who concentrate on the issue of slaves/slavery to call attention of the public to the 'power of blackness'. Morrison (1993) pointed out that "Black slavery enriched the country's creative possibilities. For in that construction of

blackness and enslavement could be found not only the not-free but also, with the dramatic polarity created by skin color, the projection of the not-me. The result was a playground of the imagination" (p. 39). Slavery, racism, and Africanist presence become brilliant materials for the narratives in its varied aspects.

II. BRIEF HISTORY OF SLAVERY IN AMERICA

The beginning of slavery trade in America referred back to 1619 when the African slaves brought to Virginia and Jamestown colony to be used in farming, particularly to take care of tobacco crop which was a profitable trade in the eyes of traders from different origins, for instance Dutch, white American and other nationalities whose greed turned out by their competition in slaves' trade. African slaves were cheaper and their capability was manifested in their work under sever conditions of nature. In 1619, slaves' profits became the concern of a lot of traders who considered that sort of trade profitable, whether by purchasing the slaves for the other traders who were interested in using them in planting crops such as tobacco or other kinds of crops as rice or by using slaves for themselves in planting tobacco which was a profitable trade in the eyes of greedy traders.

Many Africans had been brought on a Dutch ship to the British colony to be the beginning of slavery trade in America. Jamestown and Virginia colony was the first colonies which received the first group of slaves. The enslavement and slavery trade became rampant trade and the news of this sort of profitable trade reached to the other American colonies which had been initiated in competing in slavery trade. The slaves were used in planting tobacco, rice and later on cotton. The killing work under sever conditions, the oppression and ill- treatment of the slaves pushed some of them to revolt against their masters, against the merciless whites. For instance, one of those revolutions was led by Gabriel Prosser in Richmond in 1800, and the second by Denmark Vesey in Charleston in1822, however, both attempts failed to fulfill their goals. There were another slaves' revolt led by Nat Turner in Southampton County, Virginia, 1931. It was the strongest, further, those attempts paid attention of the traders in other colonies to put strict disciplinary codes and sever penalty against who would attempt to revolt against his masters. Robert McColley in Dictionary of Afro-American Slavery (1988) argued that the black were claimed to be called servants as the white indentured servants. However, in early seventieth century the English people used the word of work servants which was used in parallel to slaves in the black sense.

The existence of African slaves had revived the trade of tobacco and gave the slavery a sort of legality, particularly in Virginia and Maryland. That slavery brought prosperity and progress in Virginia and revived the tobacco planting which tempted many traders to continue in such trade to double their profits in very short period. However, it was not only the slavery trade limited to Afro-Americans but also it extended to encompass million of native Americans regardless their origins and color in many colonies in 1730. Small number of whites was enslaved under many pretexts such as crimes, they had committed or debts, they were not able to repay back to the owner. They would be taken under indentured servants. As soon as they spend their time of penalty, they would be released. (Klein, 1988)

In Compton's Encyclopedia online, it is argued "slavery had existed as a human institution for centuries, but the slaves were usually captives taken in war or members of lowest class in a society. The black African slave trade, by contrast, was a major economic enterprise. It made the trader rich and brought an abundant labor supply to the islands of the Caribbean and to American colonies". It is obvious, the enslavement reasons may be categorized into different aspects of enslavement such as famine, war, commercial bankruptcy, religious oppression, natural disasters and legal penalty. Morrison addressed many of enslavement aspects in her narrative's *A Mercy*, for instance, debt repayment, Jacob will admit Ortega's offer to take one of his slaves as a repayment of debt. Rebekka could not stand in England the religious intolerance and the two white men are indentured servants and they are native Americans. Lena escaped from natural catastrophe, epidemic that ended the lives of her people.

The slavery trade was globally prohibited from 1808 and the slavery trade became confined to African origin. In 1735, Georgia issued a new law to ban slavery; later on that law became effective in the other British colonies to halt the growing rebellions of slaves. Slavery spread in all British colonies and the whites used the slaves as laborers, craftsmen, and servants, whether in the farm or in the house. In 1786, all colonies except Georgia had prohibited the African slave trade but later on slavery ban became in force in Georgia in 1798. In the first half of 19th century, abolitionism movement emerged to put an end to slavery trade; however, the colonies differed from one to another in their responding to the constitutional laws and Congress amendment in 1865.

III. FROM SLAVERY TO FREEDOM

Morrison argues in *A Mercy* how slaves escape to slavery as a sort of protection and salvation. What Florens's mother has done with her daughter, Florens, is a sort of searching for protection and salvation for her little daughter. The mother is scared that her little daughter, at the age of eight years, could be abused or raped by Ortega or his men in the farm, for this reason, the mother favors to victimize her daughter and her accompany to send her to slavery with a man she anticipates good deeds from his eyes. Florens is supposed to be taken by Jacob Vaark, Dutch trader, as a part of repayment to the Ortega's debt who could not repay on time. Jacob is not concerned or trading in flesh or in slavery, he has no taste in such trade "my trade is goods and gold" (p. 28). "Flesh was not his commodity" (p. 25). Jacob has no best offer from Ortega, only to take this little girl, which is not tempting, offer. He favors the mother but the mother has

still her baby and she begs him to accept the offer because she sees in this offer a protection and refuge to her daughter while the daughter could not see her mother's act as a protection to her and would provide better future. As a result, Morrison gives a mouth to the mother at the end of the narrative to vent out her real reason that the little girl could not comprehend at that early age, leaving the reader with the echo of the mother's words that are more influential and more touching.

Despite the competition between the slaves' trader, however, Jacob reveals reservations towards this kind of trade and he could not see in such trade just breaching of humanity. However, he finds no better offer to get his debt repaid just to accept the offer of Ortega, the man who shows intense concern in slavery trade, his greed and mistreatment are clear from the Florens's mother offer to victimize her daughter to protect her from Ortega's abuse and mistreatment. Ortega does not manifests any mercy towards the mother and her daughter whereas Jacob accepts the mother's offer, on the hope this little girl could be a good compensation to his wife's loss of her children at the early age. "Take the girl, she says, my daughter- Me. Me. Sir agrees and changes the balance due" (p. 8). Morrison reveals the first sort of mercy is Jacob's mercy who appears more merciful and human. He accepts Ortega's offer out of mercy to protect him from legal questioning and accepts the mother's insistence to take her daughter who does not represents a tempting offer to Jacob Vaark.

The second escape to salvation is Rebekka, the English girl, who sent by her father from England and she finds only three open options: to be a prostitute, a slave, or a wife. She has chosen to be a wife a sort of salvation for her miserable life in England. She has married Jacob, the good man who treats her well as a respectful wife, not as a slave or a servant. Rebekka sees in leaving her country a sort of salvation from intolerant England. The third person Lena, a native white American female, who escaped from her people on the hope to save her life from the spreading disease that end most of the lives of her people, slavery for her a protection and salvation from disease and death. Leaving her people and land are a mercy to save her life in a place, where many people could not survive. Slavery for Lena and leaving her home are a sort of salvation. Slavery is a refuge to continue in her life peacefully. It is not a matter of slavery but the matter is what behind slavery. Slavery in the eyes of Florens's mother is a mercy and a refuge; it is also for Lena whereas Rebekka finds a refuge and better solution to her miserable life in marriage and leaving her home.

Sorrow is not in better situation than the others females, her name indicate the misery she lives in. She was found shipwrecked and taken to Jacob's house that represents a source of mercy for hopeless females in the novel. Morrison here argues the good side of human, particularly the whites who always represented in black writing as cruel and evil; however, the narrative highlights the good and human side of the whites that may change the views of the people towards slavery and slavery traders. Morrison depicts Jacob as merciful and helpful. The mother, Florens's mother, describes what he had done with her and her daughter "it was not a miracle. Bestowed by God. It was a mercy. Offered by a human" (p. 195). By these grateful words, we can realize the good side of human and white, which is represented by Dutch trader, Jacob Vaark.

IV. FEMALES AND FREEDOM

From the beginning of *A Mercy*, Florens narrates her journey, that thorny journey that pushed her to leave her mother and home to travel with a stranger she recognizes nothing about him. Morrison focuses in this narrative on females' characters that stand in this life powerless, helpless, but hopeless to change their fate in a thorny world. The mother, Aminha mae (Florens's mother), is abused and raped and Florens is a product of that rape. The mother is very careful not to let her daughter suffer or abuse by Ortega or his men in the farm. She victimizing her daughter's custody to give her a better life and a brilliant future away of that miserable life. The mother sees in this sort of slavery expected from Jacob a mercy and anticipated freedom. Freedom for female is to be under protection of merciful man even if the female is treated as a slave.

Rebekka as an English woman left her home in search for better opportunities in life. She considers her life as a wife better than the other choices open to her, to be a servant or a prostitute. Freedom in her eyes is to leave her home of misery and intolerance. Morrison categorize slaves in this narrative into three categories: slaves, which are the weakest category, represented by females who could not liberate themselves from the man power and they see in man's domination a sort of protection and salvation: the mother, the daughter, Lena, Rebekka and Sorrow. The second category is the indentured whites who suppose to finish their tasks to get freedom. The third category is free black Africans, who never enslaved such as blacksmith. The narrative does not expose the conflict between white and black or free and slave as much as it concentrates on a variety of nationalities adopt slavery business as a profitable trade. Slavery in that era, particularly the last two decades of seventeenth century were not restricted to African Americans but it invaded most of European countries and different nationalities such as Dutch, Portuguese, English, African American, the native Americans and other races and places. Most of the world civilizations are marked by slavery in one of its stages. Slavery is not confined to America or the white but it was rampant in different places over the world.

Morrison presents slavery from different perspective in this narrative. The white may not have options to be completely free and the black or the slaves have given space of freedom to make their voice hearable and their stories narrated by them such as Florens in this narrative. Morrison gives a mouth to the slaves from different categories white or black to narrate their enslavement stories. Simultaneously they would find in slavery a refuge from other inhuman practices or sometimes escape from disease or death, namely natural disasters as what happened with Lena and Sorrow,

who find no better solution to their complicated lives just to join strong power that may protect them from other life's threats. Florens sent by her mother to protect her from abuse and rape, Rebekka left her home for better life away of religious intolerance of England. Lena moving as slave in the house of Jacob was a refuge and survival from the disease that ended most of her people. Slavery and leaving their home are manifested as a sort of survival and salvation, but a sort of freedom from the miseries of their people and their place. Jacob's house and Jacob himself is a symbol of salvation and mercy that could not be obtained in slaves' homes.

Morrison depicts the females in the narrative powerless and helpless to change their fate, however, slavery would be a refuge and a salvation that give their lives a sense of stability and security that may not parallel to their lives in their home and among their people. Lena as a woman older than Florens and has more experience in life than her, addresses Florens to portray how females are powerless, "we never shape the world she says. The world shapes us…I am not understanding Lena. You are my shaper and my world as well" (p. 83). These words explain to what extent the females powerless to change the world or to change even their fates. Their submissiveness by the circumstances around them indicates their weakness and vulnerability. The females in the narrative drifted by the power of men and females are very weak to struggle to liberate themselves from slavery or men's domination so that they accept their destiny to be slaves but they see in slavery a salvation and protection that could not find in freedom. They appear dependant on men's power and their masters' domination. They do not want to struggle to escape from their destiny of slavery, "the world shapes us" this statement indicates the weakness and defeatism in the hearts of females' characters.

Probing deeply into the female's emotional side, Florens seems drifted by her love and lust towards blacksmith, the African who never enslaved. Blacksmith pays no much attention to Florens's love. Lena as a woman with experience in life warns Florens not to be drifted by her love and lust and she attempts to enlighten her "you are a leaf ion his tree…no I am his tree" (p. 71). Florens's love blinds her to see the reality of blacksmith's love to her. Morrison brings in this narrative many contradictions in the lives of slaves and non-slaves. Florens despite her slavery, she is literate and the free blacksmith is illiterate. Blacksmith is an African American but he is free but he is not given a name by the narrative to pay our attention to the real sense of slavery to be under the chains of your ignorance. Morrison discusses that slavery does not recognize a race or a religion. However, blacksmith's name is unknown whereas Florens is able to read and narrate her history. She scratches her story on the wall of one of Jacob's abandoned rooms, hoping blacksmith may learn and one day could come to read her story.

Blacksmith recognizes well that slavery is not restricted to the control of body but it is something involved with human mentality that could not be liberated from illusions. Florens writes on the wall what blacksmith told her in the past "you say you see slaves freer than free men. One is a lion in the skin of an ass. The other is an ass in the skin of a lion. That's the withering inside that enslaves and opens the door for what is wild" (p. 187). What inside the man/woman is that may determine his slavery. 'Manifestations are deceptive'. "a lion in the skin an ass", the real bravery and power inside human being that could make the human a lion. Blacksmith is free to go anywhere whereas Florens is confined to the directions of her master. Blacksmith defines slavery, not that slavery which controls human movements but man could be a slave to his lust and his love" I'm a slave because sir trades me. No. you have become one. How? Your head is empty and your body is wild" (p. 166). The real slavery that slavery could not control the desires of the body and human with such lust remain a slave. Florens could not want to see herself except a slave to her master or her lover. The sense of freedom is absent and she could not struggle to liberate herself. Florens requires thinking with her head not her heart. The females view slavery a refuge, they escape from oppression and abuse, searching for salvation and safety.

Some people prepared by nature to live the lives of slaves. If there is a space to liberate himself/herself, or enjoy a sort of freedom, he/she becomes scared to breathe the breeze of freedom. Females in *A Mercy* manifest powerless and submissive to the life of slavery, but they favor the life under men's protection. As a result, when Florens have an opportunity to bring blacksmith to heal her mistress, she does not think to run away or this little space of freedom does not encourage her to free herself or at least to enjoy these moments of freedom, "I am loose to do what I choose, the stag, the wall of flowers. I am a little scared of this looseness. Is that how free feels? I don't like it. I don't want to be free of you because I am live only with you" (p. 82). Freedom for females is a source of scare and loss. Florens wants to be a slave if not for her master, to her lover. She feels secure and safe under the protection of the man. Females are shaped by the nature that surrounds them: Florens, Rebekka, Lena, and Sorrow see their satisfaction under slavery despite their different origins, colors and races. Slavery is not tied by a race or a religion or color; it is open to all races and origins. Blacksmith is an African American he never enslaved; Willard and Scully are indentured whites, Lena a native American and slave.

V. TRANSFORMATIONS IN FEMALES' LIVES

Rebekka early life in England marked with her hate to the religious intolerance. Her moving to Jacob's home as a wife is a big rescue as their family called it. She becomes a part of the house and a part of this new land. Lena sees in this Rebekka's new life as their real home, "you and I, this land is our home, she whispered, but unlike you I'm exile here" (p. 69). Rebekka's moving as a wife marked her life with more stability and security whereas Lena escaped from the disease that inflicted her people as a salvation but this salvation is a sort of exile because she has no better opportunity as Rebekka. Rebekka favors to be a wife rather than a prostitute or a slave. After the death of Jacob, Lena,

Florens and Sorrow find no better refuge than their mistress who represents their survival in their lives. Their lives in Jacob's house are a mercy that could not match with their lives away of this house. When Lena and the other female slaves see their mistress' illness, they struggle to rescue her and try the best to heal her illness because Rebekka is a symbol of their survival and continue their lives in peace detached of abuse or torment. Despite the lives of slavery, they live in the house of Rebekka but they breathe the breeze of freedom and salvation and they could not imagine their lives away of this house. "none of them could inherit; none was attached to a church or recorded in its book. Female and illegal, they would be interloper, squatter, if they stayed after mistress died, subject to purchase, hire, assault, abduction, exile" (p. 68).

After peace and comfort in Rebekka and Jacob's house, Lena, Florens and Sorrow initiate to feel scared from blurred future. They become a part of this small community and its customs whether social or religious. Their psychological side of their personality finds refuge after very long thorny journey of loss and abuse. Every one of them has his thorny journey, escaping from human oppression and abuse to a sort of salvation in the hearts of some humans as Jacob. Rebekka herself is one of the people who find her marriage to Jacob a big rescue. She left England with a group of females, but she has better luck to move to better life as a wife whereas the rest members of group she finds them on the ship they have worse lives. The females by nature weak and could not resist the troubles of life and favor lives under the protection of human, even if their lives seem a sort of slavery, that slavery they have chosen to go in life smoothly and peacefully. The social entity they find themselves in, it is hard to disconnect themselves from this entity after a long life under human merciless domination or escaping from the natural disasters as Lena did, escaping from the disease that could not recognize a mercy for small or old, or for female or male. The weak social entity and religious intolerance make Rebekka search for any kind of escape. "her discomfort in garret full of constant argument bursts of enraged envy and sullen disapproval of anyone not like them made her impatient for some kind of escape. Any kind" (p. 90). From here, we can touch the enormity of the psychological burdens that Rebekka bears and makes her think of escape.

The religious intolerance left its influence in the heart of Rebekka and shakes her faith in God power to watch her or take care of her, "I don't think God knows who we are…but that's our business. Not God's. He's doing something else in the world. We are not in His Mind" (p. 94). This sort of blasphemy may not be accepted by the true believers in God, because the churchmen as her father called them not "separatists but Satanists" could not see in the religion tolerance and love. They force the people to follow their rituals even if these rituals do not belong to the truth of religion or to the practices of worshipping. Rebekka has weak faith as her body that could not resist illness and she has lost her trust in God to change her life for better. The separatists' religion and their domination shake Rebekka's faith and the God's power to help the weak and powerless. Rebekka has lost her children at very early age; she could not enjoy her life without the existence of her children. She refused to baptize the firstborn, some they see in her refusal a denial for the religious power, "weak as her faith was, there was no excuse for not protecting the soul of an infant from eternal perdition" (p. 92).

Florens could not realize what her mother had done to her is a mercy at the early age, to avoid putting her in the hands of Ortega and his farm's men who turns out their mercilessness and carelessness about females humanity. Morrison has given Florense and other females in the narrative a voice to narrate their pains and passions along with their journey of salvation, "you can think what I tell you is a confession, if you like, full curiosities familiar only in dreams and during this moments when a dog's profile plays in the steam of the kettle" (p. 3). Females marked with weakness and powerlessness, however, Morrison managed to gather the enslaved females to construct a small community and act as a family that let them share their pains and pleasures. They are physically and emotionally vulnerable and they have something in common, their long journey to salvation regardless their lives of slavery. Pains and passions make the females slaves accept the life of enslavement that viewed by the females as a refuge under a merciful man's custody who does not believe in slavery "flesh was not his commodity". Jacob treats them well and the reader may touch a well treatment that is matchless with the other masters who do not believe except in domination and oppression.

The focus of Morrison here is on the enslaved females as the weakest by nature and their opportunities for freedom are limited. Florens's mother expects better life for her little daughter with Jacob whose eyes glittering with mercy and humanity. The second journey is Florens's journey to bring blacksmith to heal her mistress. In this journey, we recognize about the hidden part of her personality, psychological and emotional parts that are manifested as vulnerable. She appears scared to be free and could not hide her uncontrollable passion towards blacksmith. To Florens, Freedom is a sort of scare away of human control. This journey has given Florens a golden opportunity to be free but she is scared of freedom and she could not feel security and safety away of human control. Florens longs to see her lover, blacksmith, who pays no attention to her love, and he views her love as wild and she could not be free from her slavery if she cannot control her passion. She may not imagine herself away of human's control. She is a slave to her lover and to her emotions.

In this journey, she unveils her fear from this little space of freedom given to her by this journey. Florens acts according to her heart and her passion that make her viewed by blacksmith as a wild girl who could not free herself from slavery controlled by her love and lust, " The shine of water runs down your spine and I have shock at myself for wanting to lick there. I run away into the cowshed to stop this thing from happening inside me. Nothing stops it. There is only you. Nothing outside of you. My eyes not my stomach are the hungry parts of me…I'm already kill by you. My

mouth is open, my legs go softly and the heart is stretching to break "(p. 44). She describes her hard journey to meet blacksmith by pains and sufferings, "seeing you stagger and I bleed I run. Then walk. Then float. An ice floe cut away from the riverbank in deep winter. I have no shoes. I have no kicking heart, no home, no tomorrow, I walk the day, I walk the night" (p. 185).

Here we realize the sense of Florens's emotional, psychological and physical pains, which did not stop her journey to meet blacksmith, which is a combination of formal errand directed by her mistress and informal directed by her love and lust. As soon as she meets blacksmith, Florens recognizes well blacksmith is not and will not be a part of her future life. Her writing on the wall of one of the abandoned rooms in Jacob's house that may time brings blacksmith to read, if he learns how to read, she is not a salve anymore, "See? You are correct. Aminha mae too. I am become wilderness but I am also Florens. In full. Unforgiven. Unforgiving. No ruth, my love. None. Hear me? Slave. Free. I last…Mae; you can have pleasure now because the soles of my feet are hard as cypress" (p. 189). Byerman (2005) argued that "contemporary narrative are trauma stories in that they tell of both tremendous loss and survival; they describe the psychological and social effects of suffering" (p. 3). This is true about the females in *A Mercy* who are in one way or another suffering a sort of traumatic experiences, Rebekka went through the experience of religious intolerance in England, Florens passed through deprivation of her mother and later her lover. Aminha Mae, Florens's Mother, and Sorrow suffered of rape and abuse. Lena was survived by escaping from the hell of epidemic that invaded her place and people; slavery is a mercy for her as it is a mercy for Florens and Sorrow. .

Females are more vulnerable physically and emotionally. There is no genuine everlasting protection to them, what they see protection is a temporary situation could not be a rule for the enslaved lives, particularly females, "there is no protection. To be female in this place is to be an open wound that cannot heal. Even if scars form, the festering is ever below" (p. 191). Cruelty of human beings, men in particular, is explicit; however, mercy is an exception. Men are viewed as intolerant, even the religious men who supposed to set a good example for the pious men who lead the people to God, sometime they misuse their authority. They estrange the people from their religion and drive the people to lose their faith in God and their confidence in themselves, "I think men thrive on insults over cattle, women, water, crops. Everything heats up and finally the men of their families burn we houses and collect those they cannot kill or find for trade…each time more trading, more culling, more dying" (p. 192). Females are treated in equal to non-human, such as animals and plants, the most significant thing to slavery traders is how to make use of the rest who will survive from their destruction in slavery trading, ignoring the sense of humanity and equality. The concept of mercy is an exception while injustice and oppression are the dominating rule in females' lives.

The narrative portrays Jacob's house as the Garden of Eden or a promised land, all the females settle in the house searching for salvation and safety, but this peace and security would not continue in the house and the evil anytime may invade the house and destroy their dream of everlasting peace. The blacksmith embodies the evil as snakes designed on the gate of the house that could disturb the settlers of the house any moment. In other words, no peace forever and no paradise without disturbances or evil. The house of Jacob becomes a paradise for the oppressed and powerless females who anticipate security and safety in the house of Jacob. The house is a symbol of refuge for many oppressed races regardless their color or origin, Rebekka as English woman finds her peace as a wife, Lena escapes from death to be a slave and she finds slavery is better than disease and death. Florens's mother takes risk to send her daughter with a stranger, anticipating protection for her daughter from abuse and rape in Ortega's house. Sorrow could not find better refuge for her and her illegal pregnancy only in the house of Jacob. Jacob died without an heir to maintain his name after his death and Rebekka could not survive from her illness. Florens could not marry the man she loves and she determines to get rid of her slavery to her wild love and lust.

The death of the master and the mistress is strong ultimatum to the powerless females to begin a new journey of struggle and the evil incarnated in the snakes designed on the gate of Jacob's house is about to disturb their safety and peace. The house of Jacob does not recognize racism, which is represented by the legal authority that gives the whites a permit to kill any black for any reason to protect whites from the others forever and by these actions, the American authority has escalated the hate and hatred in the hearts of the whites against the black people. *The Time Literary Supplement* writes about *A Mercy*, " A Mercy is a sinewy novel…Morrison played a tight game with the social, legal and personal connection between the chess set of characters, a game each word-and every detail- counts…Morrison renders to the ugly beautiful and the unimaginable real. She is a fine teacher".

VI. Conclusion

The world of slavery in *A mercy* does not contain specific race or specific color. However, it contains a variety of races and colors, particularly the helpless females, whatever their color or origin, whose fates controlled by men. Slavery becomes for females a refuge and a sort of salvation. Morrison breaks the familiarities about slavery and enslavement which always exposed by the conflict between the white and the black. She highlights what lies below the surface of slavery. It unveils the good side of a man whose mercy has been exposed in his well treatment for the powerless females who anticipate peace and security in his house. Despite the vulnerability of females in this narrative, but Morrison has given the enslaved females a voice to narrate their story and write their miserable history of slavery. Education becomes a power in the female's lives whereas some free people are not educated and becomes slaves to their

ignorance as blacksmith. Females seem powerless and weak in the narrative but they have been given the power of word and education.

Females have lost their trust in themselves, in their people, in their God on the thorny journey of salvation. The good side of men and the mercy could not guarantee peaceful lives for the females who become drifted with the strong tide of men's domination and control that could not provide them a permanent peace and safety. Females become socially, psychologically and religiously vulnerable after losing the mercy of human and eventually they look forward to the mercy of God.

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Rashad Mohammed Moqbel Al Areqi was born in Taiz, Yemen. He accomplished his PhD in Putra University, Malaysia, 2008. He works for Sana'a Community College, Sana'a, Yemen. His area of interest includes English lit., American lit., comparative lit., postcolonial lit., Arab World lit., literary theories, Australian and Canadian lit…etc.

Design and Application of a 'Textbook Visual Effects' Evaluation Checklist

Elham Yazdanmehr
Tarbiat Modares University of Tehran, Iran

Sara Shoghi
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran

Abstract—**Textbook evaluation is a well-known area of instructional material development. Different studies have attempted, so far, to provide criteria for rating the efficiency of textbooks designed for academic purposes. Among different features of textbooks which have been studied, little attention was paid to the visual aspects of the designed materials. In this paper, we attempted to highlight the value of textbook visualization from several related perspectives and then to design a categorized checklist which specifically focused on the visual aspects. This checklist was later used to compare and contrast EFL textbooks taught at Iran's public schools and those taught at private language institutes. The results of this research not only revealed the areas of difference between the two groups, but also elucidated the subtle weak or strong points among the representative sample books of each group. The more significant application of this research, however, was to provide an evaluative tool of the visual effects which can at best be used by textbook compilers, designers and illustrators in their design of new textbooks or edition of the existing materials widely used either at national or international level.**

Index Terms—**textbook evaluation, visual effects, checklist design**

I. INTRODUCTION

Verbal language is not the only way in which we could perform communication acts. Nonverbal language and visual forms could also be used as effectively to convey meaning particularly in instructional materials. As described in New Mediatrix (2008), communicative acts are not necessarily language specific; they could be understood across languages. Therefore, if visual and nonverbal semiotic activities could be understood across languages, illustrations and graphics can be used in instructional materials by ESL teachers and learners in order to evoke memory schemata of learners and improve learning.

According to Landoni & Gibb (2000), the value of textual information is enhanced by the use of graphical and typographical elements. These elements activate reader's cognitive processes when exploring a book for the first time, as they make it easier to recognize which parts are of greater interest to the reader. Visual rhetoric provides the reader with a graphical language which is immediately recognizable based on previous reading activity. These investigators believe book rhetoric is a combination of both visual and written rhetoric because of its physical aspects.

Textbooks are believed to play a pivotal role in language classrooms and in many situations they serve even as the syllabus which yet adds to its value. As posed by Ansary & Babaii (2002), no textbook means no purpose to the learners, and they do not take learning seriously anymore. For teachers, they are important as they provide a framework that regulates their programs. Therefore, the quality of textbooks has greatly been taken under scrutiny. What we aim to draw attention to is the fact that the visual, nonverbal aspects of the published materials should be attended more carefully, when they are used as instructional tools in academic environments. In case of second or foreign language learning, for instance, the appropriate visual design of the textbooks plays important roles in motivating the students, involving their interest and attention and affecting the readability of the texts presented to them.

Tens of textbook evaluation checklists exist for the evaluation of EFL/ESL textbooks which have these universal features as their underlying basis: approach (nature of language, nature of learning), content presentation (coverage, grading, sequencing, etc.), physical makeup (size and weight, layout, title, etc.) and administrative concerns (macrostate policies, appropriate price, etc.). Among these checklists, mention can be made of Chastain's, Tucker's, Daoud & Celce-Murcia's, Sheldon's and so on. On the whole, visual aspects of textbooks have been just superficially touched, and this is the gap which we aim to fill.

In this study it is intended to design a checklist focusing on textbook visualization exclusively since they have widely been ignored in the previous evaluative studies. The items included in the checklist are mostly derived from the review of literature which investigated some sort of visualization quality both in its general sense and also specifically in educational domains. What we hoped to do next was to apply this checklist to evaluate the visual design of two groups of EFL textbooks widely used in the academic scene either publicly or privately. Therefore, the whole study is comprised of two major phases: the design and introduction of this particular evaluative instrument, and its application

on the most prevalently-used EFL textbooks of Iran. In the following section we cast a look at a body of research on the value of graphical designs in learning.

II. BACKGROUND

Among the body of research focusing on pedagogic functions of visualization, reference can be made to Dimopoulos, Koulaidis, & Sklaveniti (2003) who examined the pedagogic functions of visual images. The three dimensions of visual representations these researchers examined included classification, framing and formality. They concluded that the functional knowledge about the visual language would enable teachers to control the distinctive characteristics of this particular type of language and help their students exploit it more effectively.

Angeli & Valanides (2004) examined whether the text-only (T-O) and textual-visual (T-V) educational materials affect learners' achievement differently in problem-solving activities. They also investigated the probable influence of learner's field-dependence/independence on the achievement results. They believed learning from textual or visual information is also directly related to representational preferences and cognitive styles. The result of their study revealed that the text-and-visual participants outperformed the text-only ones. Therefore, as concluded, adding visuals to textual explanations can improve understanding and that the functional of visuals depends on cognitive differences.

Jamet, Gavota & Quaireau (2008) examined the visual scanning process of an illustrated document. They studied two types of attention guiding devices, one the color factor and the other the sequential presentation of diagram elements synchronized with spoken explanations. They concluded that the change of the color of the object should capture attention automatically and facilitate the choice of the relevant element and its processing in memory regardless of its static or sequential display.

In addition to illustrations, typographic issues have also been known to be effective in many aspects of text intelligibility and mental processing. According to Landoni & Gibb (2000), good and bad typography could be differentiated in terms of factors such as the comparative time taken to read a book, the degree of pleasure derived and consideration of care for the eyes. They believe typography plays a vital role in determining the amount of the author's message that is successfully conveyed. Its close relationship with legibility is undeniable.

Serifs have been found to have a positive effect on readability. They are claimed to increase letter discrimination since it complicates the spatial code of letter forms. They are also believed to increase the visibility of the ends of strokes which adds to the salience of the main strokes of the letters. Another reason why serifs improve legibility, as described by Arditi & Cho (2005), is that the horizontal serifs at the base of letters make readers better capable of following the line of type with eye movements and lead to more efficient reading. Another major variable highly effective in text legibility is letter size comprised of two categories of upper-case and lower-case characters. According to Arditi & Cho (2007), typographers generally agree that lower-case texts are better legible than the upper-case maybe because of their higher inherent variation in shape.

While speaking about typography, another important element to consider is spacing. As Riemersma (2008) puts it, reading does not occur by picking letters one by one. Groups of letters are taken as words and even groups of phrases. Therefore, we could think of two main spacing: inter-letters and inter-words. Both are vital in the process of reading.

Related to the issue of typography is the design of page and its layout. With this concern, Jirousek (2007) introduces principles of design including balance, proportion, rhythm, emphasis and unity. Hildegard (1992) suggests using decorative initial capitals, even of sizes several times bigger than the ordinary to draw attention to the beginning of a chapter, lesson, etc. It is even recommended to apply different colors or styles of characters to serve this purpose.

Cover design has been also recognized as influential in the design of instructional materials. As well as being informative, the cover design should be able to capture the attention of potential readers; therefore, as put forth in New Mediatrix (2008), it should be attractive, more durable, prestigious and easy to identify.

Textbook visual effect extends itself to the design of physical makeup as well. The size and weight of school books were analyzed by Association of American Publishers (2007). These analyses revealed that since mid-1990s, the size and weight of textbooks of almost all the states have increased due to the increase of their content, in comparison to the ones used before 1995. They emphasized that depending on the period of time during which the textbooks are expected to be used (sometimes for a couple of years), the size of the textbook, the weight of the paper and the thickness of the book should be decided up on. Therefore, the two factors they highlighted were durability and the ease of carrying the textbook.

The afore-mentioned proposals and investigations along with a greater body of related research as well as the perusal of general textbook evaluation questionnaires helped us to propose our specialized checklist. This checklist addresses the visual effects only, which as explained in the introduction play a significant role in the quality of learning. In the following section the major procedures followed in this research are explained in detail.

III. METHODOLOGY

There are two major phases in this study. The first phase is concerned with the design of the checklist. Next it is followed by applying this checklist to evaluate EFL textbooks.

A. Design of the Checklist

Having reviewed the related literature on the visual aspects of published materials, we decided to include five major sections in our checklist. These five sections are:
- Typography
- Visual Arts
- Page Layout
- Cover Design
- Physical Makeup

The order does not suggest a hierarchal priority of one over the other. It rather starts with the most controversial ones. On the whole, these components interact in order to affect the reading process, comprehension or other cognitive and psychological impressions. Each of the major sections divided above, respectively consist of a number of items as follows: 8, 8, 5, 4, 4. These items have been selected from a wider range of options. We have tried to choose the most influential factors and especially those with firm basis in the background research, however. Feasibility did not allow us to include all and every relate issue in this concern.

Appendix A indicates the overall schema of the checklist. As it can be seen, each item consists of a keyword title and one or two following questions which are to be rated in a likert type. Four options are provided for rating: Number (1) is the most negative, showing the total lack of the feature. (2) shows an inadequate existence of the feature. (3) and (4) respectively indicate the sufficient or great attention to the quality. For later comparisons, the sum of scores given to every section is calculated. Therefore, the greater the score that a textbook obtains in any individual item or any of the major divisions as the sum, the more qualified it is in terms of that certain visual feature.

B. EFL Textbook Evaluation

Two groups of EFL textbooks were selected, first to be evaluated based on the visualization checklist and then to be compared. The first group belongs to public school EFL textbooks which were designed in Iran and have been taught nationwide. The second group consists of EFL textbooks that are taught widely in Iran's private language institutes.

Samples of the first group are high school English books designed by Dr. Parviz Birjandi et al, published in Iran's Instructional Textbook Publication and Printing Company. Samples of the second group are:
- Interchange series, 3rd edition, by Jack C. Richards (2005), published by Cambridge University press,
- ILI English series, by the Research and Planning Department of Iran language Institute (2006).

The reason why high school textbooks were selected as the samples of the first group was that they covered four educational years of the students' language learning experience. Among several different choices available for the second group, the interchange series were selected as they are undoubtedly the most popular and extensively-taught EFL textbooks in private institutes of Iran. The second choice is quite interesting since it was designed in Iran to be taught in Iran Language Institute. This institute, so far, played a leading role among language teaching centers nationwide, with more than 120000 learners throughout the country.

120 female language learners (40 high school students, 40 ILI students and 40 students learning English through Interchange series) were given the textbook visual effects evaluation checklist to do the ratings. They were 17-25 years of age; were all Iranian and residents of Mashhad which is the second biggest and most populated metropolis of Iran, and shared the same first language, Persian. The purpose of this research as well as how they were supposed to do the ratings were explained to them They were requested to take the checklist home and spend as much time as they wished to fill it out, and then submit it the following session. It was made sure that no ambiguity was left. The mean score of rating for each section of the checklist was later calculated and used to make comparison between the target textbooks.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Having applied the textbook evaluation checklist to the three sample EFL textbooks, here are the obtained results indicated in the following tables:

TABLE 1
THE RATINGS OF HIGH SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS

Checklist section	Typography	Visual Arts	Page Layout	Cover Design	Physical Makeup
Mean score	26	17	24	10	4

TABLE 2
THE RATINGS OF INTERCHANGE TEXTBOOK SERIES

Checklist section	Typography	Visual Arts	Page Layout	Cover Design	Physical Makeup
Mean score	28	27	20	9	13

TABLE 3
THE RATINGS OF ILI TEXTBOOK SERIES

Checklist section	Typography	Visual Arts	Page Layout	Cover Design	Physical Makeup
Mean score	37	15	15	13	9

It should be noted that the scores of each section could possibly vary between the following ranges:
Typography → (min.11-max.44)   average: 27.5
Visual Arts → (8-32)   average: 20
Page Layout → (6-24)   average: 15
Cover Design → (4-16)   average: 10
Physical Makeup → (4-16)   average: 10
Knowledge of these ranges helps us to have a better view of where each obtained score stands between the highest and lowest possible extremes.

Our discussion starts with High school textbooks. Concerning typographical issues, the score obtained is not only below the average, but also lower than the two other samples. No attention was paid to the choice of font and typographic color. Type size and line spacing were also little-attended. In terms of the visual arts (illustrations, photos, charts, etc.), the total rating is still below the average and also far from that of the foreign-design counterpart. Little and almost no attention was paid to authenticity, size and motivation factor of the images. However, the position, clarity and relevance of the visuals were acceptable. The page layout got the maximum expected score, the best of all. An average score was obtained for the cover design although the difference is not significant in comparison to the Interchange series. The style and color composition were the least attended features of this section. According to table 1, the physical makeup is almost disappointing, as it received the lowest possible score. On the whole, we can see that the visual arts and physical makeup of High school textbooks require further careful edition and revision.

As indicated in table 2, typographical features of Interchange book series are above the average, in quality. However, their great difference with the same quality of ILI series shows that they still can be improved. In terms of visual arts, they remarkably outscore their counterparts. This can be considered as their strongest point of quality. Concerning the page layout, although they stand above the average, they are outscored by High school textbooks. Use of negative space is among the features which got a low rating in this section. The cover design, as demonstrated in table 2, is rated not only below the average, but also lower than the two other textbooks. The cover style is not attractive and well-designed and no visual clues are employed to identify the content. Although no rating is offered for the physical makeup of these series due to unavailability of the original version, we can be, to a great extent, sure that they score the highest, since the quality of paper, printing and binding of textbooks designed overseas, particularly those published by Cambridge University Press is incomparable to that of ours in Iran, especially in case of textbooks which are in wide circulation.

Table 3 indicates the visual qualities of ILI textbooks which are published in Iran and are taught widely in all ILI branches throughout the country. As it can be observed, the score obtained for typographical features is not only significantly higher than the average possible score, but is as well significantly higher than those of the two other textbooks. The application of the visual arts, however, stands both below the average and the other sample books. In fact, little attention was paid to contextualizing illustrations or employing authentic images. Although the page layout rating obtained is neither higher nor lower than the average, it is noticeably less qualified than that of the other two book series. Overall use was not made of the pages, and it was also not attempted to use the negative space effectively. In terms of the cover design, a high score is given to these books winning over their counterparts, as almost all the related qualities have been very well attended. Concerning the physical makeup, the overall rating is not high. It is expected to stand between those of the other two samples. Among the physical features, durability got the lowest rating. As it is directly related to the binding quality, further attention is required to improve the overall quality.

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we tried to call attention to the visual aspects of the instructional materials which play a fundamental role in cognitive-affective process of learning. Having considered other theoretical and practical studies concerning the impact and value of visual displays in learning, our textbook visualization checklist was developed, which is in fact the first checklist designed to evaluate only the visual displays in instructional materials.

In this study, we decided to focus on EFL textbooks since we encountered a gap in the related literature concerning foreign language learning. Therefore, our three EFL textbook samples are among the most widely used EFL sources in Iran. We were eager to see, first, how the English textbooks taught at Iran's public schools differed from those taught at private language institutes, in terms of visualization attributes. The second question we tried to answer was to see what the similarities/differences and strong/weak points are between EFL textbooks designed in Iran and those designed by native English experts in English-speaking countries.

With respect to the first question, as detected by our evaluation checklist, public high school textbooks showed weakness in these areas: typographic issues, employment of visual arts (illustrations, photos, charts, etc.) and physical makeup. What the designers and editors can attend to in their revisions, is better application of various attractive typefaces, font colors and line spacing. They also need to use more authentic, motivating and colorful images as well as paying attention to the proportion of text and image in every page. In terms of physical makeup, serious efforts should be made to improve the quality of paper, binding and size. Textbooks taught at private institutes, since they are mostly copied in Iran, suffer from similar problem of low physical quality. However, their visual arts and typographic features are better designed in comparison to the public textbooks.

Based on our evaluation, concerning the second question, the two major areas that privilege foreign-design English textbooks over the Iranian ones are the skillful application of the visual arts and the high-quality physical structure. What can be recommended to Iranian textbook designers is, first of all, the attempt to use contextualized visuals which can turn the students' interest and motivation on, to activate their creative mental powers to discuss and even predict what the related content does focus on. It is also highly recommended to apply the best quality printing and binding equipment possible to facilitate carrying and using the material for the students specially public school students who spend longer periods of time dealing with their textbooks.

The evaluation checklist we designed can, as well, be applied to textbooks other than just EFL materials. What we hoped to achieve was, first of all, to call attention to these visual/physical values of instructional materials and then to provide an evaluative means to that end. Now we hope what we presented here will be considered and employed by instructional material developers, in our country or abroad, who really wish their products to act effectively and positively on the emotions and cognition of their consumers. Paying attention to every section of this checklist which consists of its own sub-items is actually one step closer to enhancing the instructional impact of the material through better involving the learners and facilitating the learning process.

APPENDIX A. TEXTBOOK VISUAL EFFECTS EVALUATION CHECKLIST

Textbook Visual effects Evaluation Checklist		Ratings			
Book title: Date of publication: **Author:** Date of evaluation: **Publisher:**		NOT AT ALL (1)	A LITTLE (2)	ADEQUATELY (3)	TO A GREAT EXTENT (4)
A) Typography					
. Choice of Font i • Are decorative fonts used for headings or titles to make them attractive and distinctive?		1	2	3	4
• Are serif fonts such as Times used for texts to maximize readability?		1	2	3	4
ii. *Typeface Sizing* • Are the headings distinctively larger than the rest?		1	2	3	4
• Have activity instructions been distinguished from the content through being bold or of larger font size?		1	2	3	4
iii. *Word Spacing* • Are you as a reader aware of the beginnings and endings of words without difficulty?		1	2	3	4
iv. *Line Spacing* • Is enough space left between the lines so that your eyes are pulled to the next word as you are reading and not to the line above or below?		1	2	3	4
v. *Line Length* • Are the lines of the text appropriate in length and are not spanning more than half the width of the page?		1	2	3	4
vi. *Typographic Color* • Are the text color and the background color in appropriate contrast, without dazzling brightness? And are they quite easily legible?		1	2	3	4
• Do they help conveying the tone and nature of the subject matter and are they emotionally effective?		1	2	3	4
vii. *Type Arrangement* • Is the line setting justified i.e. the lines of type are kept all at the same length in order to suit sustained reading comfort, not to distract the reader and to boost concentration?		1	2	3	4
viii. *Hyphenation* • Are the hyphens used not more than two or three at the end of lines in a row, especially in the justified paragraph to make the right edge look weak?		1	2	3	4

B) Visual Arts *(including photographs, drawings, charts, tables & maps)*			
i. *Function & Relevance* • Do the visuals have the reinforcing and elaborative function to help convey the thematic issues of the texts? • Are they relevant to the subject they follow, precede or are part of?	1 2	3	4
ii. *Authenticity* • Are the photographs prioritized over drawings (wherever possible) to create better authentic and life-like learning environment?	1 2	3	4
iii. *Size* • Are the visuals of proper size to create the desirable mood and to touch the viewer's sense of involvement and attraction to the subject? (For instance, setting a whole picture or photo as the background of the page or the text creates a better mood and atmosphere for learning to take place.)	1 2	3	4
iv. *Location* • Are the illustrations close enough to the text they refer to? Are they at the same page, producing no difficulty for the reader to identify which text or activity they belong to?	1 2	3	4
v. *Clarity and Unambiguity* • Are the visuals clear and void of equivocalness (unless for the sake of raising discussion or learner engagement)?	1 2	3	4
vi. *Motivation* • Do the visuals spark enthusiasm? Do they resist exhaustion and act as the energy on a page?	1 2	3	4`
vii. *Extension* • Do the visual images extend the imagery of the text, encouraging imagination? Can they extend learners' experience of the text beyond limits of their personal experiences?	1 2	3	4
viii. *Value and Hue Contrast* • Is the relative lightness and darkness of the colors adjusted in a way to maximize naturalness? Besides, is the contrast adequate to clarify the separating borders of objects at best?	1 2	3	4
• Are at least half of the graphics in color?	1 2	3	4

C) Page Layout				
i. *Overall Use of the Page* • Has maximal use been made of the whole surface of the page so as to motivate reading? (It doesn't mean to create a cluttered, confusing page.)	1	2	3	4
ii. *Use of Negative Space* • Does the negative space (page background) provide proper focus and emphasis on main content?	1	2	3	4
• Is the placement of objects (different components of content) effective in relation to the surrounding negative space for success in composition?	1	2	3	4
iii. *Proportion of Texts & Visuals* • Has it been tried to adjust the proportion of texts and visuals in every page in order to maintain their inter-reinforcing function?	1	2	3	4
iv. *Boundaries between activities or Skill* • Are the boundaries between various activities easily distinguishable? (This could be done through leaving enough space between them or using different colored headings for different skills, or allocating separate pages to each skill if possible.)	1	2	3	4
v. *Boundaries between Lessons or Units* • Has any special attempt been made to better clarify the separation of the lessons/units such as making use of : - different page or page margin colors, - noticeable titles of large typeface size and/or attractive decorative fonts or colors, - fixed no. of pages for every unit, e.g. 4 pages for each?	1	2	3	4

D) Cover Design				
i. *Style* • Is the selected cover style attractive and well-designed? Is the application of lettering, photos and illustrations distinctive and satisfactory?	1	2	3	4
ii. *Color composition* • If there is a composition of colors, is it attractive and harmonic? If there is a dominant color, is it significant, appealing to senses and attractive enough to recommend itself?	1	2	3	4
iii. *Visual clues* • Are any special badges, colors, symbols, etc. used to identify the content?	1	2	3	4
iv. *Cover Information* • Is the cover as informative as possible? Does it include the title, author(s), publisher(s), collaborators, level, etc.?	1	2	3	4

E) Physical Makeup				
i. *Size & Weight* • Is the textbook easy to carry and use? Do you think its size and weight are justified by its content and span of time anticipated for the content coverage?	1	2	3	4
ii. *Durability* • Considering factors such as quality of binding and its paper size, do you evaluate it as a durable volume, sufficiently resistant to getting torn apart through frequent use or exposure to water?	1	2	3	4
iii. *Printing and Binding* • Have high quality printing and binding equipment and techniques been used such as digital printing systems? Has it made use of best quality paper, ink, proofs, bindings, etc. to create a high-caliber product?	1	2	3	4
iv. *Title Selection* • Is the title attractive, relevant, concise, non-offensive, different and in line with the goal that the work is aiming at?	1	2	3	4

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Elham Yazdanmehr is currently a Ph.D. candidate of TEFL at Tarbiat Modares University of Tehran, Iran. She has written and co-authorized 1 university textbook and 8 academic articles in ELT, and has also presented papers and posters at different national and international conferences. Her main areas of interest are critical pedagogy and material development.

Sara Shoghi holds an M.A. degree in TEFL from Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran. She has taught General English courses for years and is currently affiliated with Iran Language Institute, KhoramAbad branch. Her main areas of interest include linguistics and ELT research.

A Review of Studies on Rogerian Rhetoric and Its Implications for English Writing Instruction in East Asian Countries

Yanling Guo
Beijing University of Posts and Telecommunications, China

Barry M. Kroll
Lehigh University, Pennsylvania, USA

Abstract—**This paper first introduces the theoretical source and clarifies the definition of Rogerian rhetoric, then systematically introduces its goals and corresponding strategies, and structures, analyzes the major differences between traditional and Rogerian rhetoric and summarizes the main critiques from three aspects. Finally, it focuses on presenting the related studies in English language teaching in the U.S.A. and summarizing some implications for English writing teaching in East Asian countries.**

Index Terms—**Rogerian rhetoric, empathetic listening, teaching of writing**

This paper comprehensively summarizes the studies on Rogerian rhetoric and explores the pedagogical implications for English argument writing teaching in East Asian countries. The authors first introduce the theoretical source of Rogerian rhetoric, which is Rogers' "client-centered" psychotherapy. On the basis of this summary of Rogers' approach, the authors then formulate a tentative definition for Rogerian rhetoric. The paper then summarizes the preliminary, intermediate and final goals of Rogerian rhetoric. Furthermore, the paper introduces Young, Becker and Pike's and Hairston's recommendations for writing a Rogerian argument paper. The authors then analyze the major differences between Rogerian rhetoric and traditional rhetoric in terms of assumption, context, and goal. In the following part, the authors summarize the main critiques of Rogerian rhetoric which mainly center on whether Rogerian rhetoric is truly different from traditional argument; whether Rogerian rhetoric is true to its theoretical source; whether Rogerian rhetoric's requirement of empathetic listening and promotion of neutral language further women's self-effacement; and their corresponding counter arguments. The paper further summarizes the application of Rogerian rhetoric in teaching writing in American institutions of higher education, and explores how Rogerian rhetoric can be implemented in East Asian English writing class to enhance East Asian EFL Learners' writing ability and language skills, broaden their approaches in argument writing, and provide them with flexible choices of argument approaches suitable to diverse contexts.

I. THEORETICAL SOURCE AND DEFINITION OF ROGERIAN RHETORIC

A. Theoretical Source

Rogerian rhetoric, established by Young, Becker and Pike (1970) as an alternative to traditional rhetoric, has drawn its inspiration mainly from Rogers' "client-centered" psychotherapy, which emphasizes empathetic listening. The goal of Rogers' "client-centered" approach is to assist clients in reaching their full potential by creating a supportive and non-evaluative environment, which depends on whether a therapist can meet the following requirements: genuineness or congruence, unconditional positive regard, and empathetic understanding. To Rogers, empathetic understanding means the thorough comprehension of the feelings and meanings of the client and conveying of this "acceptant understanding" back to the client, which, in Rogerian argument is transferred to the understanding of the audience. However, the most direct source for Rogerian rhetoric is Rogers' 1951 paper "Communication: Its Blocking and Its Facilitation," in which Rogers adapts his psychotherapy theory to communication. In it, Rogers (1951) claimed that the major barrier to communication is our "very natural tendency to judge, to evaluate, to approve and disapprove, the statement of the other person, or the other group" (as cited in Young, Becker, & Pike, 1970, p.28). In the same paper, Rogers also emphasizes that the tendency to evaluate is heightened in emotionally charged situations. To Rogers, the removing of the barrier lies in "listening with understanding", which, according to him, "means to see the expressed idea and attitude from the other person's point of view, to sense how it feels to him, to achieve his frame of reference in regard to the thing he is talking about." These statements become major sources for Rogerian rhetoric.

B. The Definition

In 1970, Young et al. put forward Rogerian rhetoric in their influential text *Rhetoric: Discovery and Change*. This new argument approach strives for cooperation and communication rather than coercion in situations where

commitments and emotions are high. The method attempts to achieve threat-reduction and trust building by first delineating the opponent's views as accurately as possible and searching for shared beliefs and interests, paving the way for cooperation. The issues for which Rogerian rhetoric proves efficacious involve ethical disputes on topics such as race, sexual behavior, personal behavior, and professional standards (Hairston, 1976, p.373). In such situations, as Young et al. (1970) pointed out, "A strong sense of threat may render the reader immune to even the most carefully reasoned and well-supported argument" (p. 274). Therefore, a Rogerian approach is designed to reduce threat, so that the reader will be able to consider alternatives and explore options for eliminating conflict. This is especially important when a conflict is so extreme that two parties can barely listen to one another, to say nothing of rational discussion of their views. As Lamm and Everett pointed out (2007), Rogerian argument is most valuable when a person disagrees "vehemently with another point of view" (p. 283).

However, neither Young et al., nor any other scholars who have been studying and applying Rogerian rhetoric, have provided a clear and concise definition of Rogerian rhetoric. Therefore, the authors formulate the following working definition: Rogerian rhetoric is a method of written argument that's derived from Rogers' client-centered approach to psychotherapy, which prioritizes empathetic listening. The method is an extension of Rogers' claim that listening is central to effective communication, especially when people disagree or are in conflict. In Rogerian rhetoric, a writer expresses the opposing viewpoint in language that is respectful and objective, in order to demonstrate careful listening and lower the sense of threat. The writer identifies points of agreement or connection with the opposition and then shifts to the writer's differing viewpoint, which, if the reader is induced to reciprocate, will get a fair hearing in return.

II. Goals and Corresponding Strategies

A. The Preliminary Goal and Strategy

The preliminary goal of Rogerian argument is to reduce threat, which will pave the way for reasonable discussion or genuine communication. To achieve this, Young et al. (1970) proposed to "convey to the reader that he is understood and to delineate the area within which he believes the reader's position to be valid" (p.275). The key lies in "empathy," which, according to Young et al. (1970), " requires getting inside the other person's skin and seeing the world through his eyes, or, to speak less metaphorically, it requires considering the beliefs and perspectives of the reader in the context of his attitudes, values, and past experience" (p.275). The emphasis on "context" is important, because by focusing on contexts in which a position is valid instead of criticizing its legitimacy, the writer's argument has different psychological impact: the former shows the sincerity of the writer's desire to understand, while the later shows the animosity of the writer.

B. The Intermediate Goal and Strategy

The intermediate goal is to achieve mutual understanding by stating the writer's position. Although this is not the part which makes Rogerian rhetoric unique, how this part is accomplished can either shatter all the efforts of the first phase or finally secure the bridge the writer has been so painstakingly working to build. If the writer illustrates his own position with loaded language, the opponent will have a strong sense of deception, because the opponent believes what the writer has been doing are all tricks or setting traps, which only serve the interests of the writer. Therefore, Young et al. (1970) emphasized that "the writer should avoid evaluative statements whenever description alone is sufficient for his purpose. But when, as often happens, he must make judgments, he can make them in a way that minimizes the reader's sense of threat" (p. 206).

C. The Final Goal and Strategy

The goal for the final phase is either problem-solving or cooperation. Through stating how two positions can be mutually beneficial or complement each other, the writer will probably reach an agreement with the reader on the best-possible solution. Actually, the three goals of the different phases contribute to the ultimate goal, which is "to induce changes in an opponent's mind in order to make mutually advantageous cooperation possible" (Young et al., 1970, p. 283).

III. The Structures of Rogerian Rhetoric

A. Young, Becker and Pike's Structure

Though there are no "defined structures" to fulfill the goals, Young, Becker and Pike (1970) did provide general phases to organize a Rogerian argument:

(1) An introduction to the problem and a demonstration that the opponent's position is understood.

(2) A statement of the contexts in which the opponent's position may be valid.

(3) A statement of the writer's position, including the contexts in which it is valid.

(4) A statement of how the opponent's position would benefit if he were to adopt elements of the writer's position. If the writer can show that the positions complement each other, that each supplies what the other lacks, so much the better. (p. 283)

B. Hairston's Structure

Based on Young, Becker and Pike's structure, Hairston (1976) later developed a similar organizational pattern for Rogerian Argument:

(1) Give a brief, objective statement of the issue under discussion.

(2) Summarize in impartial language what you perceive the case for the opposition to be; the summary should demonstrate that you understand their interests and concerns and should avoid any hint of hostility.

(3) Make an objective statement of your own side of the issue, listing your concerns and interests, but avoiding loaded language or any hint of moral superiority.

(4) Outline what common ground or mutual concerns you and the other person or group seem to share; if you see irreconcilable interests, specify what they are.

(5) Outline the solution you propose, pointing out what both sides may gain from it. (p. 210-211)

C. Miller's Structure

A textbook written by Miller (2007) echoes this structure, which has now become widely accepted:

(1) Introduction

(2) Summary of Opposing Views

(3) Statement of Your Position

(4) Statement of Contexts

(5) Statement of Benefits (p.132-33)

IV. TRADITIONAL ARGUMENT AND ROGERIAN ARGUMENT

The study of the relationship between traditional and Rogerian rhetoric, and their differences in particular, has been given ample attention since the birth of the new approach. Actually, Young, Becker and Pike devoted a section in Chapter 12 of their book *Rhetoric: Discovery and Change* to the analysis of the distinctiveness of Rogerian argument compared to that of the traditional one: they analyzed the differences in areas of logic, language, goal, technique, structure, etc. Following them, more papers were published—primarily in the decade of the 1980s--to further explore these differences (Lunsford, 1979; Bator, 1980; Mader, 1984, Ede, 1984; Coe, 1992). Some of these theorists focus on uniqueness, while others center on criticism. This section will focus on the distinctiveness of Rogerian rhetoric, and the next will give due attention to the criticisms.

A. Difference in Assumptions

From the perspective of Rogerian theory, classical approaches to rhetoric assume that human beings are reasonable and can be swayed by rational argument (Young et al., 1970, p. 7). Bator (1980), for example, claimed that the "underlying principle of Aristotle's Rhetoric is that man is a rational animal, capable of using logical reasoning as the basis for argument" (p. 427). It is at times true, of course, that humans are rational and can be swayed by logical arguments. Logic does work when we hold homogenous beliefs or values. However, with the development of globalization, people who have diverse religions, beliefs and value systems must learn to communicate despite differences. When disagreement occurs in these situations, argument based on logical coercion probably won't yield desirable results, because it would threaten identity and integrity (Young et al., 1970, p. 7; Bator, 1980, p. 427). Thus, Rogerian rhetoric provides a distinctive contribution to contemporary argument.

B. Difference in Contexts: Triadic vs. Dyadic

Traditional and Rogerian rhetoric also suit different contexts: traditional argument is designed for the triadic context or advocacy situation, whereas Rogerian argument is based on a dyadic context, or non-advocacy situation. According to Brent (1996), traditional argument is best for triadic context because "it (traditional argument) is aimed at a third party who will judge the case on the basis of the arguments presented by competing advocates, politicians, researchers, advertisers, or other partisan arguers. In this case it matters little if one arguer threatens the beliefs and self-esteem of the other, for it is not the opponent the arguer is trying to convince, but the audience as third party" (p. 77).

In many circumstances, however, two parties are in fact trying to convince each other. These "dyadic" situations are common in everyday life as well as in most deliberative contexts. In these situations, a persuasive approach can often harden the opposition's position. Rogerian rhetoric offers some strategies that will open the opposition to reasonable discussion—which is, ironically, the grounds presupposed by classical argument theory (Coe, 1992; Brent, 1996).

C. Difference in Goals

The goals of traditional and Rogerian rhetoric are also drastically different. Young et al. (1970) summarized the difference as follows: "The goal of traditional argument is to make your position prevail …. The goal of Rogerian argument is to create a situation conducive to cooperation" (p. 282). Since the sole purpose of the traditional argument is to win, both sides try to seek "not truth, but advantage" (Coe, 1992, p. 86). Conversely, Rogerian argument, to Thorne (2003), is a process of "discovery" and the goal is "to participate in a dialogue, not to defeat an opponent" (p. 8). This participation may not lead the reader to switch to the writer's viewpoint, but it might result in the invention of a new solution to the problem or combination of the reader's and writer's best ideas. Therefore, it is a "win-win solution" instead of the "zero-sum" situation that typically results in the traditional approach.

<div align="center">V. Critique</div>

Like any new theory, Rogerian rhetoric has not only attracted appreciation and application, but also critique. The critique can generally be summarized into the following categories: (1) Rogerian argument is not truly different from Aristotelian argument or traditional argument (Lunsford, 1979); (2) Rogerian argument is not true to the essence of Rogers's theories, and thus does not deserve the name of "Rogerian" (Mader, 1980; Ede, 1984); (3) Rogerian rhetoric's requirement of empathetic listening and promotion of neutral language will further women's self-effacement (Lassner, 1990).

A. Critique on Lack of Essential Difference from Aristotelian Rhetoric

According to Lunsford's interpretation, the three key strategies of Rogerian rhetoric all have counterparts in Aristotelian rhetoric. The first point in Rogerian rhetoric is to convey to the reader that his ideas have been understood. This tenet, Lunsford (1979) believed, "is related closely to Aristotle's insistence that the rhetor must be able to argue on both sides of the question--indeed, must fully comprehend both sides of the question. To do so implied a full understanding, then, of the other person's positions and views" (p. 148). The second Rogerian strategy is to identify those aspects of the reader's position that are valid. This tenet, too, can be found in Aristotle, in his concept of the enthymeme (p. 149). The third strategy of Rogerian rhetoric is to induce the reader to believe that he and the writer have similar moral characteristics and goals. Lunsford (1979) demonstrated that "Aristotle's entire discussion of friendship and those factors which we love or like in other people continually stresses the importance of 'inducing similarities' "(p. 149).

Though much of what Lunsford has argued sounds convincing, a careful examination of the nature of Rogerian and traditional rhetoric supports, instead, the conclusion that the similarities are superficial while the differences are substantial. In his 1980 paper, Mader convincingly demonstrated why Rogerian rhetoric was not simply a "variation" on classic Aristotelian themes but fundamentally different. For example, in Rogerian rhetoric the writer must convince the reader that his position has been carefully considered and genuinely understood. For Aristotle, however, the reason to understand the other side is to know how best to refute it. As Mader (1980) said: "Aristotle's approach to 'understanding', therefore, is that of a partisan anxious to achieve victory." Hence the purpose of threat-reduction of the audience is exactly opposite to Aristotle's usage of the enthymeme, which is "to choose premises acceptable to the audience that make the speaker's conclusions valid" (p. 317).

B. Critique on Unfaithfulness to Rogers' Theory

Another main critique is that Rogerian rhetoric is not fully consistent with its source, Rogers' client-centered therapy. According to Ede, Rogerian rhetoric is not true to the three cornerstone conditions that Rogers requires a therapist to meet in order to truly carry out a patient-centered approach: congruence, or genuineness; unconditional positive acceptance or positive regard; and real empathetic listening. Ede (1984) stated her concern that "congruence requires one to abandon all efforts at interpretation, evaluation, or guidance" (p. 45). She also pointed out that Rogers' unconditional acceptance of any outcome, any direction of the therapeutic process had "little in common with Rogerian argument, which is clearly directed toward a goal, one established by the writer" (p. 45). Moreover, a therapist becomes immersed in the worldview of the client by making multiple attempts at understanding; it's difficult to translate this principle into writing, according to Ede, because the Rogerian writer much phrase the reader's accurately the first time (p. 45).

It is clear that Roger's theories were modified by Young, Becker and Pike when they proposed a new rhetorical approach. However, writers who embrace the Rogerian approach learn to use Rogers's attitude while following the Rogerian strategies, which, we believe, is true to the spirit of the Rogers despite limitations such as those posed by the inability to have constant feedback from the reader. The writer's sincere efforts to understand the reader is similar to Rogers' demand for genuineness, if not identical. Although writers of Rogerian rhetoric maintain the goal of problem-solving or mutual cooperation, they start the whole writing process with the positive goal of finding a win-win solution instead of prevailing over the other, even at the risk of being persuaded to the opponent's view, which is very close to unconditional positive regard. For the demand of empathetic listening, Rogerian writers strive diligently to gain a clear and comprehensive understanding, one that is close to what the reader believes. In particular, the Rogerian writer's efforts to explore contexts in which the reader's viewpoints are valid should be taken as sincere attempts to gain "complete immersion," even if they are aware of the impossibility of it. In conclusion, as Hairston pointed out in 1976: "we can use Rogers' approach to rhetoric in composition because the attitude is transferable, and it is the attitude that is the unique and crucial element" (p. 376). The Rogerian writer's painstaking efforts to meet the demands set up by Rogers clearly demonstrate that the attitude proposed by Rogers has been transferred to writing.

C. Feminists' Main Critique

A deeper criticism is from a feminist's perspective. Some of the feminist critiques indeed challenge the assumptions of the proponents and deserve our careful study.
   1. Women Writers' Sense of Self-effacement
Lassner's paper "Feminist Reponse to Rogerian Argument" remains the most powerful and influential critique. Lassner's first main critique involves the "self-effacement" of women writers when the Rogerian approach is adopted.

Lassner (1991) stated that "No writing can be empathetic unless it considers the reader's ideological assumptions as 'a politics of interpretation that is determined by race …and gender' " (p. 222). Since Rogerian argument does not take gender into consideration in the process of being empathetic to the audience's perspectives, the empathy becomes a double bind on women, making them more "isolated" and "powerless." As Lamb (1991) pointed out, women have traditionally been the care-givers, the ones who work to understand others, even at their own expense (p. 17). Therefore, the requirement of empathy for the opponent as an essential part of an argument is "self-effacing" for women. To women writers, if Rogerian approach is adopted, it is further "feminine subservience."

2. Neutral Language Issue

The second major critique of Lassner centered on the "neutral language issue," which was explained by Brent (1996) as follows: "the detached, unemotional tone recommended by standard Rogerian rhetoric goes against the grain of most women's preferred ways of knowing" (p. 87). Lassner (1990) analyzed one of her student's responses to the detached approach and found that "to detach her emotion means, in effect, to deny her sense of herself" (p. 226). Even if women writers strive to be neutral, the emotion will still "crop up" in the empathetic restatement of the opponent's view, because it is too strong to be fully suppressed.

3. Responses to the Critique

To deal with the first problem of self effacement, we should keep in mind the difference between Rogers' psychotherapy and Rogerian rhetoric. In the patient-centered psychotherapeutic process, a therapist achieves full understanding of the patient's views by constant restatement without preset judgment. However, in Rogerian rhetoric, a rhetor not only accepts another's views without judgment, but also has the chance to delineate a different perspective. By doing so, women writers have an opportunity to present their own views and explain why they are different from the opposing ideas that they have summarized fairly (Brent, 1996, p. 87). Therefore, the requirement of empathetic understanding provides a rhetor with a chance to demonstrate full comprehension of the reader, which reinforces his or her understanding of the issue under discussion and wins the trust of the reader who will more likely be open to the rhetor's viewpoint.

To deal with the second problem, Brent (1996) suggested "'neutral' language must be valued not as a pure good in itself, but in a "dialectical relationship" with language that expresses emotion (p. 88). Although hostility should be avoided at all costs, this does not mean that a flat and totally detached tone should prevail; rather, writers are encouraged to avoid emotionally charged language when pure description fulfills the writer's purpose. Women writers are not, therefore, deprived of emotional language when writing Rogerian argument, but are advised, like any Rogerian writer, to avoid heavily-loaded language for an objective, but still forceful and effective statement.

VI. THE TEACHING OF ROGERIAN RHETORIC IN THE US AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR ENGLISH LEARNERS IN EAST ASIAN COUNTRIES

Since Young, Becker and Pike articulated the Rogerian rhetoric in 1970, there have been many textbooks on written argument that introduce the basic theory or explain how Rogerian rhetoric can be taught to enrich the teaching of argument (Lamm & Everett, 2007; Mauk & Metz, 2006; Miller, 2007; Ramage & Bean, 1998; White & Billings, 2008; Wood, 1995). A number of published papers on Rogerian rhetoric are either fully devoted to the study of the pedagogy or incorporate teaching of Rogerian rhetoric as an important part (Hairston, 1982; Teich, 1992). For years writing teachers have been integrating Rogerian rhetoric into instruction in argument writing, especially at a time when American society seems to be becoming more polarized and adversarial, demonstrating the urgency for problem-solving instead of bickering with each other and sticking to the pro-con stereotype, leaving urgent questions unsolved for a long time (Tannen, 1998). This shows the enduring legacy of the approach, since it is being included as a viable option for American students who are learning argument writing. In some cases, theorists have used different terms to present essentially Rogerian rhetorical principles, such as "cooperative argumentation" (Makau & Marty, 2001) or "conciliatory argument" (Kroll, 2005). Most argumentation textbooks, however, provide only brief introductions to the basic theory and structure, without sufficient discussion. Articles with practical advice on teaching Rogerian rhetoric are fewer in number but provide clearer suggestions for teachers. For example, Brent proposed systematic teaching methods, and Bator summarized the strategies that students need in order to deal with difficult phases; both of these articles contain advice that can be of great assistance to writing teachers who intend to incorporate a Rogerian approach in their classes.

A. Doug Brent's General Suggestions

In 1996, Brent discussed his teaching experience in an essay published in the book "Rogerian Rhetoric: Collaborative Rhetoric and Oral and Written Communication." In this essay, Brent suggested that in order to write Rogerian arguments, students need to learn how to "imagine with empathy." This goes beyond listing the audience's characteristics or opinions (traditionally called "audience analysis); instead students are asked to imagine the "entire worldview that allows those arguments to exist" and urged to "read with empathy." This process entails much more than a traditional procedure of researching the facts and statistics, because the writer must also explore the contexts in which the opponent's arguments are valid. To enable the empathetic view to "sink in," Brent proposes to teach in the following way:

(1) Pick a topic from a list of controversial issues and ask students to identify a side;

(2) Call on a volunteer from each side to carry out a Rogerian type of discussion;

(3) If students fall into traditional debate mindset, and usually it does happen, invite students to distinguish Rogerian rhetoric from traditional rhetoric;

(4) Continue the exchange of restatements;

(5) Transcribe one's arguments into written form;

(6) Pair students and let them exchange papers and write summaries of the other paper;

(7) Correct one's statement according to the corresponding reader's response.

When students are capable of reflecting the views of the members of the audience who are present, students are led to write responses to newspaper articles using the Rogerian strategy, or more importantly adopting a Rogerian attitude.

B. Paul Bator's Strategies to Deal with Difficult Phases

Paul Bator studied students' responses to learning and applying a Rogerian approach and provided us with suggestions on how to assist students with difficult phases and help them use attentive language. To deal with the difficulty of restating the audience's position objectively, Bator suggested (1992) that students write with "two pens", which means to use separate paper for different views or use different files for opposing perspectives. Another method is to involve students in organized activities, in which students do role-playing of the audience and speaker positions, and then write a response from a primary audience perspective. Yet another approach is to encourage students to interview representative figures of the opposing position.

C. Implication for Teaching in East Asian Countries

Strategies suggested by Brent for enabling the empathetic view to sink in and Bator's on overcoming difficult phases, bring to light the main barrier to implementing Rogerian rhetoric in American institutions: the challenge of changing students' mindsets from striking for victory to listening with empathy. American college students have come of age in an "argument culture" (Tannen, 1998), an atmosphere that has taught them that arguing is a "win-lose" contest in which the major goal is to be a winner. Thus they have learned to argue by making a controversial claim, anticipating objections, attacking alternative positions, and arguing forcefully that others should accept their claim. They have learned this in school, but in fact most of them have already internalized this view of arguing from the broader culture. Some American teachers and scholars have become concerned about the corrosive effects of the "argument culture" and the limitations of teaching only a thesis-refutation-support pattern of arguing. Some of these educators have been drawn to Rogerian rhetoric, and for them the pedagogical problem is how to help students, who have been acculturated to the norm of adversarialism, learn to use different patterns of argument. At an even deeper level, the issue is how to encourage students to embrace the spirit of Rogerian rhetoric, which is rooted in the desire to understand another's point of view, as empathetically as possible, rather than to defeat an adversary. Thus the task is partly linguistic/rhetorical and partly ethical/attitudinal.

For East Asian students learning English, the situation is different. The cultural norms seem to be opposite: for East Asian students, raised in a heavily Confucianism influenced culture (Sung, 2007, p. 3), the norm is deference and accommodation. "Thus, extreme action such as hyperbole and polarized rhetoric are not favored in Confucius' doctrines and principles" (Cho, 1999, p. 55). Instead, the idea of approaching an argument by paying attention to the other person's position and looking for points of connection is familiar to East Asian students. Hence the spirit of Rogerian argument seems compatible with the East Asian norm for interacting with others. If one asks East Asian students to write according to a Rogerian pattern, there is a good chance that the pattern will seem familiar and less alienating than an argument with a strong thesis followed by refutation. Because the pattern is "comfortable," there is an opportunity to work on structures and linguistic matters. Nevertheless, even though East Asian students may not need attitudinal and ethical training, the exercises associated with Rogerian perspective taking are still good for developing language and rhetorical skills.

For those East Asian writing teachers who are interested in this approach, the following sequence of activities (based on Brent, 1996) might provide a way to introduce Rogerian argument. Students should select a controversial topic about which there are at least two opposing views—ideally a topic about which students have well-formed opinions. Students with similar opinions could work together to discuss why the topic is important and how it should be addressed, from their point of view. For East Asian students, this first step of clarifying their own position is crucial, even though they will not assert it in the first part of a Rogerian argument.

The second step is for students with opposing viewpoints to work in pairs, explaining their positions to one another. The task is to understand the other person's view so well that each can report the other's position to his or her satisfaction. This can be done orally (or, for more advanced students, in writing). The goal is to produce an accurate and fair-minded summary of the opposing view. From this activity, students learn the most important component of a Rogerian argument, which involves articulating the opposing viewpoint in neutral language.

The next step is to explore, in pairs, which elements in the opposing view one can affirm as valid in certain contexts. Even though positions differ, there are often deeper concerns or common values that opponents share. If so, this affirmation of elements of the opposing view provides a transition into the statement of the writer's viewpoint, which is the next part of a Rogerian argument. At this point, the assignment is to produce a written version of the writer's position and the arguments that support it, but in language that explains the position, rather than asserting it, and that

refrains from refuting or critiquing the opposing view.

For the final essay, students will combine the various components: an introduction that focuses on a controversial issue or problem; a review of the opposing position, presented fairly and without rebuttal; and a statement about shared concerns and a transition into an explanation of the writer's different viewpoint. The last step is to add a conclusion that focuses, in more detail, both on those elements of the opposing viewpoint that the writer can support and also those aspects of the opposing view that would benefit from accepting some of the writer's suggestions. In this kind of a conclusion, differences are not fully resolved; nonetheless, the stage is set for understanding, cooperation, and further discussion. To complete this full argument, students should understand the overall structure and study a sample essay that illustrates it.

Following completion of a Rogerian argument, it might be instructive for students to contrast it with a more assertive argument on the same topic. The instructor could provide such a contrastive example, or, if teaching two classes at the same time, perhaps one group could work first on the traditional pattern and the other on a Rogerian argument, so that they could compare the resulting essays in terms of structure, diction, and tone. Each group would then proceed to write the contrasting type of argument, since facility at writing in both styles is ultimately beneficial. The goal is for students to choose an approach to argument that is appropriate for the audience and occasion.

In the process of completing the suggested activities, students will practice a variety of language skills, including brainstorming for supporting arguments, listening to an opposing viewpoint and summarizing it accurately, soliciting and transcribing comments from a listener, revising on the basis of readers' responses, and so forth. Therefore, the process of learning to argue in a Rogerian style will improve East Asian students' language skills, enhance their writing ability in general, and broaden their options for writing arguments.

Most importantly, Rogerian rhetoric teaches students the most fundamental lesson of rhetorical training: that choices must be appropriate to situations and audiences. When East Asian students are taught only the adversarial (thesis-support-refutation) strategy for arguing in English, they tend to exaggerate, over-generalize, and miss the subtleties of the approach. The result is ironic: East Asian students, who should tend toward deferential rhetoric, become even more aggressive and adversarial than most Americans find desirable, when they are encouraged to argue in the "American" manner. In a sense, they "over-learn" the distinctive features of American rhetoric. Therefore, introducing Rogerian rhetoric as an option, perhaps along with thesis-support-refutation patterns, might steer East Asian students away from inflexibility and rhetorical infelicities.

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Yanling Guo was born in Jilin, China in 1975. She received her M.A. degree in linguistics from Northeast Normal University, China in 2002.
She is currently a lecturer in the School of Humanities, Beijing University of Posts and Telecommunications, Beijing, China. She has published eight papers and edited several books. Her major research interest is in English language teaching approaches.

Barry M. Kroll received his Ph.D in literature from University of Michigan, in 1997.
He is a Robert Rodale Professor of Writing. He has published many papers and books about teaching of writing. His major research interest is in writing methodology.

Multimedia Games and Vocabulary Learning

Samira Ghanbaran

Department of English Language and Literature, University of Isfahan, Iran

Saeed Ketabi

Department of English Language and Literature, University of Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—**Vocabulary has been established as the primary way towards learning a new language (Carter, 2001).With the advent of the computer technology, various degrees of change has been felt in different areas of education. As for language learning, this intervention has been very palpable. This study is an attempt to look at the reported effect of multimedia games on language learning in the related literature. To this end, first, concepts of incidental and intentional vocabulary learning are introduced. In the next step, some aspects of vocabulary (learning) are dealt with concisely and finally multimedia games and their effect on vocabulary learning are briefly discussed.**

Index Terms—**multimedia games, vocabulary, incidental learning, intentional learning**

I. INTRODUCTION

Knowledge of vocabulary plays an important role in learning L2 skills. Frequent studies have been conducted by different researchers comparing the effect of different vocabulary presentation strategies (Huckin, Haynes & Coady, 1993; Hatch & Brown, 1995; Coady & Huckin, 1997; Atkins, 1998; Read, 2000; Nation, 2001). In the following sections, first, some preliminary notions are introduced and then the effect of multimedia games on vocabulary learning is discussed briefly.

II. INCIDENTAL LEARNING VERSUS INTENTIONAL LEARNING

Different lines of investigation focusing on incidental and intentional learning have appeared in psychology since the beginning of the twentieth century (Eysenck, 1982; McLaughlin, 1965; postman, 1964). As a result, hundreds of experiments have been conducted in this regard (Smith, 1998). In the following two sections, the notions of incidental and intentional learning are introduced and some related studies are reviewed.

A. Incidental Learning

According to Kerka (2000), incidental learning is unintentional or unplanned learning which involves no deliberate intention to learn or to analyze language, an explanation which might include implicit learning in the psychological sense. Huckin and Coady (1999) defined incidental vocabulary acquisition as learning new words through some communicative activities while focus is on meaning, such as interaction, reading or listening.According to this definition,learning takes place through'multiple exposures to a word in different contexts' (Huckin&Coady, 1999, p. 185). Foreign language learners' mechanism for learning new words has generally been assumed to be much like small children as they acquire the vocabulary of their L1 through picking up most of their new words and expressions incidentally (Nation & Waring 1997). As a result, the best way of improving vocabulary learning is considered to be through inferring word meanings from the meanings of constituent morphemes and from contexts.In cases of not being able to infer the meaning, students have often been supposed to simply toleratethe vagueness and wait forricher contexts to clarify the meaning for them. The non-recurrence of an un-guessed wordhas simply meant that the word is too infrequent to be worth learning anyway.

Schmidt (1994) considered incidental learning as referring to learning to learn one thing not as a primary object or without an intention to learn.Laufer (2005)rejected any focus on forms in vocabulary instruction and, in other words, rejectedexplicit (or targeted orgenuine) form-focused vocabulary teaching:

[...] on encountering an unfamiliar word, the learner notices it as a word s/he does not know, decides to infer its meaning from context by using a variety of linguistic and non-linguistic clues, has a good chance of making a correct guess, and may consequently retain partial or precise meaning of the word. If the word is not remembered after the learner's first exposure to it, or if only partial information about the word has been acquired, additional encounters with the same word will increase the probability of retaining it and expanding its knowledge. Even if very few words are retained after one communicative activity or text, the cumulative gains over time may be quite remarkable if the learner reads regularly (p. 226).

It was believed thatexplicit vocabulary teaching was a waste of time because 'few words are retained from those which are ''learned'' or ''taught'' by direct instruction' (Harris &Snow, 2004, p. 55), and that 'most L2 vocabulary is learned incidentally, much of it from oral input' (R. Ellis, 1994, p. 24).

B. Intentional Learning

Intentional learning is often defined in contrast with incidental learning. According to Hulstijn (2001), intentional vocabulary learning is an activity which is intended for committing lexical information (sound, spelling, meaning, and grammar rules) to memory. Wesche and Paribakht (1998) define intentional vocabulary learning as learning new words while the learner intends to do so,such as when a learner completes activities in a workbook or studies a list of target words while they intend to learn a set of new target words.Intentional and incidental learning are set apartconsidering the use of instructions that might make explicit the existence of a later retention test (Eysenck 1982).Nevertheless, a great deal of vocabulary learningmay be a combination of both incidental and intentional learning (Kennedy, 2003).

III. SIGNIFICANCE OF VOCABULARY

The significance of vocabulary acquisition in learning another language is illustratedby Wilkins (1972) as "Without grammar, little can be conveyed, without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed" (p. 111). Formerly, lexical aspects were subordinated and undervalued to the study of grammatical structures (Nation, 1998).However, today, vocabulary is considered as the primary way towards learning a new language (Carter, 2001).

Many second language professionals regard vocabulary as the first and foremost challenge L2 learners face as they engage in reading texts or listening in the target language (Folse et al., 2005; Grabe&Stoller, 1997; Hulstijn, 2001; Nation, 1990, 2001; Read, 2004). Lewis (2000) considered acquiring a sufficiently large vocabulary the most important task language learners are supposed to deal with.Decarrico (2001) claims that "vocabulary learning is central to first and second language acquisition and specialists now emphasize the need for a systematic and principled approach to vocabulary by both teachers and learners" (p. 285). As a result, vocabularylearningis often perceived to be "of critical importance to the typical language learner" (Zimmerman, 2001, p. 5).Schmitt (2008) also considers vocabulary as "an essential part of mastering a second language" (p. 329).

IV. DIFFERENT ASPECTS OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE

Vocabulary knowledge is considered to have two primary dimensions, that is, depth and breadth (Qian, 1999). Depth of vocabulary knowledge consists of such types of knowledge as pronunciation, stylistic features, spelling, antonymy, synonymy, hyponymy and collocational meaning (Nation, 1990; Read, 2000; Richards, 1976). According Qian (1999) depth of vocabulary knowledge can include components such as frequency, spelling, register, collocational properties, pronunciation, and syntactic, morphological, andmeaning. Qian argues thatthese components are interconnected both structurally and functionally.Breadth of vocabulary, on the other hand, pertains to the number of words that language learners have partial or complete knowledge of (Nation, 2001).

Chapelle (1998) believed that a vocabulary definition should consist of four aspects: (a) knowledge of word properties, (b) vocabulary size, (c) processes of lexical access, and (d) lexicon organization. Henriksen (1999) also suggested three vocabulary dimensions: (a) a "depth of knowledge" dimension, (b) a "receptive-productive" dimension, and (c) a "partial-precise knowledge" dimension. Qian's (2002), considering the collective strength of earlier models of vocabulary knowledge, proposed a framework for vocabulary knowledge which consisted of four inherently connected dimensions: (a) automaticity of receptive–productive knowledge, (b) lexical organization, (c) depth of vocabulary knowledge, and (d)vocabulary size.

V. STUDIES ON INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY ACQUISITION

Over the last two decades, a large number of empirical studies have been conducted on vocabulary acquisition or learning based ondifferent themes:the relationship between language proficiency andvocabulary knowledge, particularly with regard to reading (Hazenberg & Hulstijn, 1996; Hu & Nation, 2000); the construct of vocabulary knowledge, e.g. the distinction between varioussorts of vocabulary knowledge; vocabulary learning and word frequency, e.g. the benefit and/or cost of learning specialized, infrequent and frequent words (Coxhead, 2000; Nation 2001); productive and receptive knowledge, and between use and knowledge (Henriksen, 1999; Read & Chapelle, 2001);interactive tasks (Ellis, Tanaka & Yamazaki, 1994); intentional versus incidental learning (Ellis & He 1999; Horst, Cobb & Meara, 1998; Kelly, 1986);vocabulary development patterns over time (Laufer 1998; Palmberg, 1987);the effect of tasks on learning, e.g. task induced involvement (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001); implicit versus explicit learning (N. Ellis, 1994); vocabulary knowledgetesting: depth andsize, productive and receptive (Bogaards, 2000; Laufer & Nation, 1995, 1999; Read, 1993, 2000); the use of different types of dictionaries, electronic and paper (Bogaards, 1991; Chun &Plass, 1996; Knight 1994); learners' strategies for comprehending and learning new words (Cohen & Aphek, 1981; Sanaoui, 1995); and learning new meanings of already known words versus learning new words (Bogaards, 2001).

Prince (1996) compared L2 word learning in one or two sentences and L1 and L2 paired-associate learning, trying to compare the benefits and drawbacks of incidental vocabulary learning from context and intentional learning through translated words into L1 equivalents.The results of the study were in favor of paired-associate learningin terms of quantity but the learners' ability in supplying the words in appropriate sentences declined.Laufer and Shmueli (1997) made a comparison between four learning conditions: (a) learning all the words, provided with L2 or L1 glosses in the

left margin, in a long text, and (b) learning all the target words in an "elaborated" text with the same glosses as in(a), (c) learning an L2 word with L2 and L1 glosses and the target word embedded in a sentence (d) learning an L2 word with L2 or L1 glosses. The target words in the elaborated text were provided with a short definition just after each word. The results revealed that conditions (c) and (d) lead to meaningfullyhigherscores than (a) and (b).

Webb (2007) compared two different kinds of learning: a) paired-associate learning b) context learning, including an L1 equivalent, an artificial target word, and an example sentence. He tried to make use of the different aspects of participants'knowledge of vocabulary obtainedthrough these two conditions through conducting 10 different productive and receptive tests. The results of ten tests between the two conditions did not indicate any significant difference. The results also proved that the only aspect of vocabulary knowledge obtained by participants was the meaning of words from context. However, list learning or paired-associate can be effectivetechniques for learning a large number of words in a short period of time (Fitzpatrick, Al-Qarni, Meara, 2008; Milton, 2009).

Another way of teaching new words is through accompanying them with other words in teaching.It is widely accepted that a large number of formulaic sequencesacting as a single unite in Englishdo exist in our lexicon repertoire and that "they make up a large proportion of any discourse" (Schmitt & Carter, 2004, 1). These combinations have been named in various ways, such as exemplars, collocations, chunks, lexical units ormultiword units. Wray (2002) called them formulaic sequences and defined them as "a sequence, continuous or discontinuous, of words or other elements, which is, or appears to be, prefabricated: that is, stored and retrieved whole from memory at the time of use, rather than being subject to generation or analysis by the language grammar" (p. 9). Since the 1990s,the significance of these collocationsor formulaic sequences has been highlighted by many vocabulary researchers and their integration into second language courses has been emphasized (Lewis, 1993, 2000; McCarthy, 1990; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992; Simpsom-Vlach & Ellis, 2010; Sinclair, 1991). Mastery of formulaic sequences, according to some studies, can not only be used in distinguishing native speakers from non-native speakers (Durrant& Schmitt, 2009; Siyanova & Schmitt, 2007) but also lower level from higher level second language learners (Hsu, 2007). It has been widely accepted in the applied field of language teaching that most of L2 vocabulary acquisition takes place as a by-product of reading and listening while focusing on meaning instead of form (e.g. Jenkins, Stein & Wysocki, 1984; Nagy & Anderson, 1984; Nagy, Herman & Anderson, 1985). Many factors have been shown to affect vocabulary acquisition such as inferencing and/or glossing (Cobb & Horst, 2001; Hulstijn, 1992), new word density (Holley, 1973), reading purpose (Swanborn & Glopper, 2002) and new word frequency (Rott, 1999).

Cognitive psychologists believe that the more elaborate the processing of new lexical information, the better the retention (e.g. Eysenck, 1982).In other words,retentionimproves as a result of attention to pronunciation, orthography, the words meanings, grammatical category along with the association made between other words andthe word. This idea has been found applicable to both intentional and incidental learning (Paribakht & Wesche, 1999; Huckin & Coady, 1999). For instance, the results of a study conducted by Joe (1995) on vocabulary development of an adult learner in a read and retell taskshowed that task requirements considerably increased incidental vocabulary learning.Newton (1995) also reported similar results in his examination of the relationship in a task-based interactionstudy.

Several factors have been identified as effecting the extent of incidental word learning in reading such as reading skill,readers' age,students' knowledge oftopic and their acquaintance with the represented concepts through the new words, a number of text and word properties and inferencing (Swanborn & de Glopper, 1999). Swanborn and de Glopper (2002) believed that unknown word meanings are acquired even though the readers do not intend to learn the unknown vocabulary. Close associations have also been made between lexical inferencing and incidental vocabulary learning (Huckin & Coady, 1999). Wesche and Paribakht (1998) also argue thatmuch if not mostL1 and L2lexical developmentseems to take placewhile learners attempt to comprehend.

The acquisition of the meaning of new words an extensive readingby-producthas been studied in terms of issuessuch asprocedures and resources employed in inferencing. The obtained results of the studies dealing with the issue demonstrated that sentence contexts as well as definitions contributed to vocabulary learning.The results of the study by Nist and Olejnik (1995) support this claim since it demonstrates that as learners encounter a word in context and after that go through its definition, their performance on multiple-choice questions could improve.

Depending merely on extensive reading– particularly in L2 context –has been shown to lead to low degrees of vocabulary acquisition, showing the insufficiency of this approach towardssecond language learners (Rosszell, 2007; Waring & Takaki, 2003; Zahar, Cobb &Spada, 2001). The results of the study by Saragi, Nation, and Meister's (1978) showed that a minimum of 10 exposuresin a text were required for Ll learners who were learning pseudo-words periodicallyto acquire words. The results of a study by Nagy, Herman, and Anderson (1985) demonstrated that the probability of acquiring a word as a result of exposure to context just once is between .10 and .15and, according to a follow-up study, it can be lowered as much as .05. Nation (1990) surveyed this and other studies and showed that in order for full acquisition to occur 5 to 16 exposures were required. On the other hand, some researchers have argued that incidental vocabulary learning can occur through two exposures (e.g. Rott, 1999). The results of the study conducted by Nagy, Herman and Anderson (1985) showed that the rate of vocabulary learning 15 minutes after reading was 1 in 10. The rate reported by Nagy, Anderson, Herman (1987) in their study of vocabulary learning six days after reading was 1 in 20. The results of a meta-analysis of 20 studies conducted on native speaker participants

demonstratedan average probability of 15%, supporting the idea that more incidental learning can occur as a result of smaller proportions of unknown words (Swanborn & de Glopper, 1999).

Glossing,as an input modification strategies, has also been consideredas very effective for incidental words acquisition. For instance, it has been shown that reading passages accompanied by vocabulary glosses contribute to new wordsincidental learning (Jacobs, 1994; Ko, 1995; Hulstijn, Hollander, & Greidanus, 1996). It has also been demonstrated that multiple-choice glosses in comparison to presenting the meaning or providing words with no glosses lead to higher vocabulary scores (Hulstijn, 1992). And finally, Yoshii (2006) made a comparison betweenincidental vocabulary learning with L1 and L2 glosses. The obtained results of the investigation indicated that nomeaningful difference existed between the use of native or target language glosses in terms of vocabulary acquisition.

Incidental vocabulary learning has also been dealt withregardingtext familiarity as an influential factor. It has been shown that incidental learning of nonsense words can be facilitated through cultural background knowledge and topic familiarity (Pulido, 2004, 2007). A number of studies have been conducted wherethe participants read authentic texts (Ferris, 1988; Dupuy & Krashen, 1993). The result of a study conducted by Zahar et al. (2001) indicated that, on average, ESL students in Canada could learn the meaning of 22%of unknown words or 2.16 out of 10.34 words. A similar study conducted by Daskalovska (2010) also indicated that the EFL secondary school students learned the meaning of 25.16% of the words.

Some studies have tried to look at the acquisition of other dimensions of word knowledge than meaning (Pellicer-S ánchez & Schmitt, 2010; Tavakoli & Gerami, 2012). The results of a case study conducted by Pigada and Schmitt (2006) in order to see the effect of reading extensivelyindicated an improvement in the spelling, meaning and grammatical characteristics knowledge. Webb (2007) also studied the effect of frequency on the acquisition of grammatical functions, form, meaning, orthography, association and syntax. The results of the investigation indicated that all aspects improved with an increase in the number of presentations.

VI. MULTIMEDIA GAMES AND VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT

According to Nation (1990), in order to acquire vocabulary, students are to be challenged and focus their attention through new strategies. It is believed that games stimulate students and provide them with opportunity play an active role in their own learning (Claxton, 2008).Due to the ever-increasing variations of video games, the investigation of the relationship between the media and language acquisition has been problematic. Many genres of commercial (Wolf, 2001) and educational (i.e. "serious") games (Sawyer & Smith, 2008) have been recognized. The games can be different in such aspects as theme, intended audience,, human-computer interface, graphical fidelity, hardware, and interaction between players.

One aspect of multimedia games is increasing motivation and fostering a deeper processing of vocabulary. The results of some studies have indicated that active participation in vocabulary games will lead to learning reinforcement (Baltra, 1990; Carrier, 1991; deHaan, 2005; Hubbard, 1991; Li & Topolewski, 2002; Bell, 2005). The result of the study conducted by Yip and Kwan (2006) demonstrated that learning vocabulary through multimedia games led to a change in the attitude of learners towards language learning. Naderi (2002) investigated the effect of 20 language games on English learning improvement. The results of the study indicated the effectiveness ofgames in learning English in middle schools. Segers and Verhoeven (2003) conducted a study on 67 native and immigrant childrenin order to investigate vocabulary training through computers. The participants were in the first and second years of kindergarten in the Netherlands.Theyplayed computer vocabulary games twice a weekover 15 weeks. Each session took a period of 15 minutes. As a control group, 97 kindergartners went through the regular curriculum. The results of the curriculum-independent test conducted revealed the positive effect of computer training on vocabulary learning.

Marzano and Brown (2007) engaged in over 60 studiesconducted in order to investigate the effect of using games in the classroomon students' accomplishment. The results of the study indicated a 20 percentile increase in students' achievement. A number of studies have revealed that games can have positive effect on achievement, interest, task learning engagement and problem solving (Kim, Park, & Baek, 2009; Tuzun et al., 2008; Wideman, et al. 2007; Oyen & Bebko, 1996; Robertson & Howell, 2008).The results of a study conducted on language learning of young learnersthrough computer games in Turkey by Turgut and Irgin (2009) revealed that the performance of young learners involved in playing online games was better in language skills, especially vocabulary skill.

Another related aspect is that, in the context of a game, vocabulary skill can be acquired without pressure (Kohl, 1981).Besides, games can provide language learners with a platform for practicing skills (Kohl, 1981). DeHaan (2005) conducted a study on Japanese (as a foreign language) students who played a baseball video game for a month period. In spite of anecdotal positive learning outcomes, the participant reported that he could not completely focus on the game and that he was distracted by listening to and reading the Japanese, a result in line with Brett's (2001) findings and Kalyuga, Chandler and Sweller's (1999) suggestions.

VII. CONCLUSION

As the review of the related literature indicates, the studies on the effect of multimedia games on second language acquisition/learning are restricted. Considering the bewildering advancement rate of technology in various fields,

including multimedia games, further research considering the effect of various facets of this technological development on different aspects of vocabulary acquisition/learning seems very promising.

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Samira Ghanbaran was born in Iran, Isfahan on September 21st, 1986. She earned her diploma in Physics and Mathematics at Isfahan University of Technology High School, Isfahan, Iran on June 19th, 2004. She continued her studies in BA in English Literature, English department of the University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran. Degree was earned on September 21st, 2008. She got her MA in English Teaching, English department of the University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran. She has been teaching IELTS and TOEFL preparation courses to advanced EFL learners for four years. She is interested in Discourse Analysis, Testing Theories, Sociolinguistics, Pragmatics and all related courses in second language learning.

Saeed Ketabi has a Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics from the University of Cambridge, England and is currently teaching various ELT courses at the Faculty of Foreign Languages of the University of Isfahan. He has published more than forty articles and 15 books.

A Study of Modality System in Chinese-English Legal Translation from the Perspective of SFG[*]

Zhangjun Lian
School of Foreign Languages, Southwest University, Chongqing, China

Ting Jiang
School of Foreign Languages, Chongqing University, Chongqing, China

Abstract—As a special genre, legislative discourse reflects the power of a state through the usage of unusual forms of expressions in choosing words and making sentences. Based on the theory of modality in Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG) and the theory of legislative language in forensic linguistics, this study is designed to analyze the modality system in English translation of Chinese legislative discourses in its attempt to explore its translation problems. Through qualitative and quantitative analyses with the aid of Parallel Corpus of China's Legal Documents, it is found that there are three prominent anomic features in English translation of modality system in Chinese legislative discourses. These features reveal that translators of Chinese legislative discourse pursue language diversity at the cost of accuracy and authority of the law. A summary of some tactics and suggestions are also presented to deal with the translation of modality system in Chinese legislative discourses from Chinese into English.

Index Terms— modality system, Chinese legislative discourses, Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG)

I. INTRODUCTION

Translation of Chinese laws and regulations is an important component of international exchange of Chinese legal culture. Based on the theoretical ideas of functional linguistics, translation is not only a pure interlingual conversion activity, but, more important, "a communicative process which takes place within a social context" (Hatim & Mason, 2002, p. 3). The legislative languages involve a large number of declarative sentences with modal expressions in which government directives, behavior standards, rights and obligations are conveyed.

What are rules and features of English translation of modality system in Chinese legislative discourses? Whether translators have functionally and adequately conveyed the communicative functions of Chinese legislative discourses with the aim of ensuring the accuracy and authority of the law? Is there any anomie phenomenon in English translation of modal operators in Chinese legislative discourses? In order to answer these questions, this study concentrates on English translation of modal operators used in Chinese legislative discourses, and attempts to explore its anomie translation features and make suggestions for the purpose of promoting legal translation in China.

II. AN OVERVIEW OF TRANSLATION STUDY OF CHINESE LEGAL LANGUAGE

Legal language, a legal genre with authority and binding force, is different from the general language (Du, 2004, p. 1). As a core part of legal language, legislative language is the legal document established in written form with the aim of reflecting national right and will through language. With the increase of international exchanges, translation of Chinese laws and regulations has become a key part of Chinese foreign trade and exchange. Researches on this issue are widely discussed by domestic scholars, including legal translation problems and their solutions (Du, Zhang, & Yuan, 2004; Jin, 2009; Jin & Hu, 2000), stylistic features of legal language and their translation strategies (Huang, 2002; Li, 2007; Peng & Zhang, 2007), discussion of legal translation from the perspectives of specific vocabularies and legal terms (Xiao, 2001; Xin, 2003; Xiong, 2006). Researches on translation of modality system in legal discourses have extended from qualitative studies (Li, 2007) to corpus-based quantitative studies (Gao, 2010; Yang, 2008). These researches provide a wealth of information about legal translation practice.

In view of these researches, the majority of them are confined to qualitative ones lacking of convincing data support. And some studies have just discussed the core modal verbs. But there has been relatively less research focusing on other modal operators, such as modal notional verbs, modal adjectives, etc. For this reason, this study makes a corpus-based quantitative investigation into modal operators in English translation of Chinese legislative discourses based on the theory of systemic functional grammar. And it attempts to find out the translation problems and their solutions. In this study, the parallel translation corpora come from the Parallel Corpus of China's Legal Documents (hereinafter referred to as PCLLD) created by the school of foreign languages, Shaoxing University. The corpora comprise 235 legislative

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texts and their translation versions, including 1427777 Chinese characters and 1067798 English words (Sun & Yang, 2009).

III. MODALITY SYSTEM THEORY

In Systemic Functional Linguistics, language is regarded as a meaning potential system with three metafunctions: ideational function, interpersonal function and textual function. Among them, the interpersonal function of language concerns the use of language to interact with other people, to establish and maintain relationship with them, to influence their behavior, or to express our own viewpoint on things in the world. The interpersonal function of language is realized through mood system, modality system and appraisal system. As an important component of interpersonal function, modality system not only expresses the speaker's attitudes and judgments, but also reflects the speaker's assessment of validity of the proposition. "Modality refers to the area of meaning that lies between yes and no—the intermediate ground between positive and negative polarity" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2008, p. 618). In theoretical framework of Systemic Functional Grammar, modality system is composed of modal operators, modal adjuncts and interpersonal metaphors. But in legislative discourses, the frequencies of modal adjuncts and interpersonal metaphors are so low that they can be excluded in the analysis. Therefore, this study focuses on translation of modal operators (including modal verbs and modal adjectival predicators) in Chinese legislative discourses. There are primarily three scales of values concerning the validity of a proposition in modality system, namely high, median and low modal value. Modal operators are used to express different degrees of probability of propositions, or different degrees of obligation of proposals. For example, high value modal operator "must" carries high obligation, median value modal operator "will" or "shall" connotes median obligation. And low value modal operator "can" or "may" show low obligation.

Modality system can be further divided into Modalization and Modulation. When modality is used to argue about the probability or frequency of propositions, it is referred to as Modalization. When modality is used to argue about the obligation or inclination of proposals, it is referred to as Modulation. The process of legislation converts faith, values and moral standards into general rules and regulations enforced by judicial system. The main purpose of analyzing the modality system in legislative discourses is to explore "people's responsibility for legal proposition and commitment to future actions" (Shi & Xin, 2008, p. 56). In terms of context situation, the function of legislative discourses is to issue directives and impose obligations. For this reason, the study of modality system in legislative discourses focuses on the modulation in modal operators. Because of the positive and negative poles of prescribing and proscribing and the different degrees of obligation and inclination in intermediate ground, modality system is classified according to different modal assignment. Contrast between English and Chinese modal operators in this study is based on Halliday & Matthiessen's (2008, p. 116) classification of English modal operators and Peng Xuanwei's (2000, p. 123) classification of Chinese modal operators.

IV. ENGLISH TRANSLATION OF MODAL OPERATORS IN CHINESE LEGISLATIVE DISCOURSES: CHARACTERISTICS AND PROBLEMS

A. General Characteristics of English Translation of Modal Operators in Chinese Legislative Discourses

This study retrieves Chinese and English modal operators with different assigned value from the PLLCD. The following data in descending order of frequency are obtained (see Table 1).

TABLE 1.
DISTRIBUTION OF THE FREQUENCY OF CHINESE AND ENGLISH MODAL OPERATOR IN PLLCD

Chinese Modal Operator	Frequency	Percentage	English Modal Operator	Frequency	Percentage
应当(yīngdāng)	6104	44%	shall	15181	63%
可以(kěyǐ)	2812	20.20%	may	3764	16%
不得(bùdé)	1713	12.30%	must	1188	5%
必须(bìxū)	1420	10.20%	shall not	1014	4.2%
需要(xūyào)	722	5.20%	should	997	4.20%
禁止(jìnzhǐ)	422	3%	may not	453	1.9%
不能(bùnéng)	332	2.40%	be required	361	1.60%
可能(kěnéng)	260	1.90%	can	304	1.30%
能够(nénggòu)	72	0.50%	be allowed	216	0.90%
严禁(yánjìn)	24	0.17%	need	151	0.67%
务必(wùbì)	4	0.03%	be forbidden	119	0.50%
应该(yīnggāi)	3	0.02%	must not	83	0.35%
			might	28	0.01%
			could	21	0.08%
			will not	21	0.08%
			ought	19	0.08%
			need not	11	0.04%
Total	13888			23931	

As presented in Table 1, there is a great difference between the usage of Chinese modal operators and that of English modal operators. The general characteristics of English translation of modal operators in Chinese legislative discourses are as follows:

Firstly, in Chinese legislative discourses the great majority of modal operators are high value modal verbs, such as "应当" (yīngdāng, should), "不得" (bùdé, forbid) and "必须" (bìxū, must), while in English translation translators tend to use median and low value modal verbs, such as "shall", "may" and "should", attempting to standardize people's behavior in a relatively gentle tone rather than in an enforced way, and to avoid "the excessive abstractions and impersonality of the laws" (Tao, 2004, p. 115).

Secondly, in English translation of Chinese legislative discourses translators tend to use passive voice of causative constructions to represent different degrees of modulation, such as "be required to", "be allowed to" and "be forbidden". The reason is that obligation or willingness can be expressed by "the extensions of predicates" (Hu, Zhu, Zhang, & Li, 2005, p. 146). These structures not only provide modulation with situational meanings under compulsory conditions, but also strengthen the law's enforcement power and its degrees of non-consultation.

Thirdly, in Chinese legislative discourses the most frequently used negative modal verb is neither "禁止" (jìnzhǐ, prohibit) with the strongest tone nor "严禁" (yánjìn, prohibit) with the same tone. Instead it is "不得". While in English translation the most frequently used negative modal verb is "shall not", followed by "may not". But "must not" with the strongest tone only accounts for 0.35% of all modal verbs. The result reveals that translators try to "guide the public in a positive and motivated way, rather than a negative and passive way" (Gao, 2010, p. 73), because in legislative languages "禁止" should be considered as supplement of permission, rather than negative command.

B. Salient Problems in English Translation of Modal Operators in Chinese Legislative Discourses

In order to accurately observe the tendencies to translate the Chinese modal operators, this study firstly selects the positive and negative Chinese modal operators with high frequency of occurrences, and then retrieves their English concordance lines in PLLCD, and finally builds up a self-compiled corpus. Based on the annotation and alignment of modal operators in parallel corpora, this study retrieves these modal operators and calculates the frequency of their occurrences by using WordSmith software. Through the analysis of these Chinese modal operators and their English translation, salient problems in the English translation of these modal operators are found:

Firstly, in English translation of Chinese legislative discourses, translators excessively use the median finite modal verb "shall". As the most frequently used modal verb in legislative discourses, "shall" in conjunction with the third person indicates command, obligation, responsibility, right, privilege and promise. In Table 1, the frequency of occurrences of "shall", 15181, accounting for 63% of all modal verbs, reveals that translator has a preference for the median modal verbs.

Through the retrieval of Chinese modal verbs and analysis of the concordance lines of these words in the self-compiled corpus, it is found that 86% of "应当" are translated as "shall", 34% of "必须" and 46% of "须" (xū, must) are translated as "shall", while 45% of "不得" are translated as "shall not" or "no…shall". Among the corresponding Chinese modal verbs of "shall", the power of enforcement of "必须" and "禁止" is strongest, as "必须" in example (1) and "禁止" in example (2). The power of enforcement of "须" which is the abbreviation form of "必须" is listed in the second place. And that of "应当" or "应" is in the third place. "可以" (kěyǐ, can) has almost no power of enforcement because of the permission and right to choose, as in example (3).

(1) 第二十五条 在有线、无线通信中传递国家秘密的，**必须**采取保密措施。(保守秘密法 c062)

　　dì èr shí wǔ tiáo zài yǒu xiàn　wú xiàn tōng xìn zhōng chuán dì guó jiā mì mì de bì xū cǎi qǔ bǎo mì cuò shī bǎoshǒu mì mì fǎ

Translation: Article 25 Transmission of state secrets through wire or wireless communications **shall** be protected by security measures. (Law of Keeping Confidential information c062)

(2) 禁止在荒漠草原、半荒漠草原和沙化地区砍挖灌木、药材及其他固沙植物。未经

　　jìn zhǐ zài huāng mò cǎo yuán bàn huāng mò cǎo yuán hé shā huà dì qū kǎn wā guan mù yào cái jí qí tā gù shā zhí wù wèi jīng

　　县级人民政府批准，不得采集草原上的珍稀野生植物。(草原法 c025)

　　xiàn jí rén mín zhèng fǔ pī zhǔn bù dé cǎi jí cǎo yuán shàng de zhēn xī yě sheng zhí wù cǎo yuán fǎ

Translation: Cutting or digging shrubs, medicinal herbs or other sand-fixation plants on desert or semi-desert grasslands or in arid areas **shall** be prohibited. (Grassland Law c025)

(3) 第二十二条 省、自治区、直辖市的人民代表大会常务委员会**可以**根据本法

　　dì èr shí èr tiáo sheng　zì zhì qū　　zhíxiáshìde rén mín dài biǎo dà huì cháng wù wěi yuán huì kě yǐ gēn jù běn fǎ

　　制定实施办法。　(城市组织法 C046)

　　zhì ding shí shī bàn fǎ chéng shì zǔ zhī fǎ

Translation: Article 22 Measures for the implementation of this Law **shall** be formulated, in accordance with this Law, by the standing committees of the people's congresses of provinces, autonomous regions and municipalities directly under the Central Government. (City Organization Law C046)

In example (1) and (2), the median value modal verb "shall" is used to represent the obligation of necessity and the strongest power of enforcement of "必须" or "禁止" in original sentences. But it weakens law's power of enforcement and its degrees of non-consultation. For this reason, the legal connotations of the original sentence should be realized by

high value modal verb "must" which emphasizes authority of law, subjectivity of government and right of legislation. Meanwhile, in English versions of Chinese laws and regulations, such as English version of Constitution of the People's Republic of China and that of the Basic Law of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region of the People's Republic of China, it is an existing convention that "必须" is translated as "must". In example (3), "可以" has no power of enforcement in original sentence, bestowing on government the freedom to implement this law or not, while "shall" would excessively increase the degree of obligation of government. Consequently modal verb "may" is suitable for the translation of "可以". From the points of existing conventions and usage collocation in laws, the main function of the median value modal verb "shall" is to compel people to do something. Therefore, "shall" should be employed to translate Chinese modal verbs with stronger power of enforcement, such as "应当", "须", "不得".

There are three reasons for the phenomenon of overuse of "shall" in English translation of Chinese legislations discourses. Firstly, influenced by "the legalese jargons" (Li, 2007, p. 57), legislative discourse translators habitually put "shall" before the verb, and assume that "shall" would improve the law validity of their English translations. Secondly, it results from probability of lexical choices. Systemic Functional Linguistics claims that "a language system is inherently probabilistic in nature" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2008). When modal verb "shall" satisfies translator's needs, the probability of being chosen is really very high. Thirdly, translators ignore the tendency of language development. Australian scholars have already pointed out that "shall" is scarcely used in daily English, "must" is the standard modal verb which expresses legal obligation and responsibility (Li, 2007, p. 60). Therefore "must" is used to express the power of enforcement of the law in recently enacted laws of Anglo-American countries, while "shall" is rarely used.

Modal verb "shall" has various usages and semantic meanings, but in legislative texts it should have agreed usage and single semantic meaning in order to ensure the accuracy and consistency of legal terminologies, avoid semantic ambiguity and inconsistency of concept, judgment, reasoning and legal logic. Therefore, when the laws enforce obligation and responsibility on government, replace "shall" with "must". In example (4), this study suggests that all "shall" should be replaced with "must" which ensures the power of enforcement of laws.

(4) 保险公司注册资本最低限额**必须**为实缴货币资本。 （保险法 c163）
     bǎo xiǎn gōng sī zhù cè zī běn zuì dī xiàn é bì xū wéi shí jiǎo huò bì zī běn bǎo xiǎn fǎ

Original Translation: The minimum amount of registered capital for the establishment of an insurance company **shall** be fully paid-up in monetary form. （Insurance Law c163）

Revision: The minimum amount of registered capital for the establishment of an insurance company **must** be fully paid-up in monetary form. （Insurance Law c163）

Secondly, there is a tendency to overuse a great variety of expressions to translate the same modal operator. This study retrieves the English translations of four frequently used Chinese modal verbs, and then calculates and summarizes that each of them has at least seven English expressions (see Table 2).

TABLE 2.
THE DIVERSITY OF ENGLISH TRANSLATIONS OF CHINESE MODAL OPERATORS

English Translation of "可以"	English Translation of "不得"	English Translation of "必须"	English Translation of "禁止"
shall	may not	shall	shall be
may	no...may	shall be	prohibited
can	shall not	subject to	no...shall
should	no...shall	have to	prohibit
be allowed to	no...be permitted	be necessary	no...may
be to	be not allowed	shall be	forbid
should	must not	necessary	not allowed
entitled to	prohibit	should	ban
could	forbidden	must	
	not entitled to		
	can not		
	be eligible		
	no...should		

As seen from Table 2, translators often use four kinds of vocabularies or structures: modal verb (must not, may not, can not, shall not), notional verb (prohibit), modal adjective (eligible) and the predicate expansion forms (not be permitted, not be allowed, be forbidden, not be entitled to). There is a wide diversity of English translations of China modal verbs.

Moreover, translators tend to use different value-assigned English modal operators to translate the same value-assigned Chinese modal operators, with an aim of achieving the diction diversity. However, translators violate the principle of consistency, conciseness and accuracy of the laws. For instance, in example (5):

(5) 第三条 进出保税区的货物、运输工具和个人携带物品，**必须**经由设有海关
     dì sān tiáo jìn chū bǎo shuì qū de huò wù   yùn shū gōng jù hé gè rén xié dài wù pǐn   bì xū jīng yóu shè yǒu hǎi guān
     机构的出入口进出，如实向海关申报，接受海关检查。(高桥管理办法 C007)
     jī gòu de chū rù kǒu jìn chū   rú shí xiàng hǎi guan shēn bào jiē shòu hǎi guan jiǎn chá gāo qiáo guan lǐ bàn fǎ

Original Translation: Article 3 Goods, means of transport, or articles entering or leaving the bonded area **must** go through the entrance and exit of the Customs establishments. They **shal**l be declared at the Customs truthfully and accept the inspection of the Customs. (Gaoqiao Regulations C007)

In example (5), the high value modal operator "必须" in original sentence strictly restricts goods, means of transport and belongings which are also compelled to be declared and accept the inspection. In English translation, "必须" is translated as "must", which represents the power of enforcement and obligation of the provision. However, in the aspect of declaration and inspection, translator uses "shall" which causes reader's assumption that the provision is not a necessary obligation and it has a certain degree of freedom.

Legislative texts need rigorous, precise and formal languages to strictly restrict connotation and scope of obligation, right and behavior standard. Ambiguous diction is strictly forbidden, in case the legal loophole is exploited. Similarly, translation of legislative texts should adhere to the principle of consistency of modal diction, otherwise concept confusions of obligation and right of the laws will be caused. Finally readers' speculation on different modal operators affects the accuracy and authority of the law. Therefore, in English translation of Chinese legislative texts, language diversity should not be overemphasized. Guarantee of semantic accuracy and identity should be the primary rule. "Monotonous diction and stereotyped sentences are styles of legal instruments" (Li, 2007, p. 55). Here in example (5) high value modal verb "must" should be used to ensure the preciseness and accuracy of the law. The revision translation in example (5) is as follows:

Revision: Article 3 Goods, means of transport, or articles entering or leaving the bonded area **must** go through the entrance and exit of the Customs establishments. They **must** be declared at the Customs truthfully and accept the inspection of the Customs. (Gaoqiao Regulations C007)

Thirdly, in English translation of Chinese legislative texts translators often misuse the structure of "modal verb + expansion form", such as "shall be entitled to", "shall be permitted", etc. However, in English legislative texts the single form of modal operator is frequently used to express prohibition or obligation. As seen from Table 3, the frequency of using "shall + expansion form" is much higher than that of using "expansion form". However the frequency of "shall + expansion form" is zero through retrieving in the web-accessible Anglo-American Statute Law Database.

TABLE 3.
DISTRIBUTION OF FREQUENCY OF "SHALL+EXPANSION FORM" IN ENGLISH TRANSLATION OF CHINESE LEGISLATIVE DISCOURSES

shall+ expansion	Frequency	Expansion Form	Frequency
shall be entitled	104	is entitled	62
shall be prohibited	93	is prohibited	83
shall be allowed	76	is allowed	33
shall be permitted	63	is permitted	11
shall be forbidden	23	is forbidden	54
Total	359	Total	243

In English translation, the combination "shall" or "should" with the structure of predicate expansion undoubtedly changes the assigned value of English modal operators which is equivalent to that of Chinese modal operators. In English translation of example (6), "be required", the high value modal operator, reveals that a receipt is indispensable to litigation document. However, the combination "shall" with "be required" weakens the power of enforcement, and implies the receipt is not indispensable. Therefore, this study suggests that "shall" should be removed.

(6) 第七十七条 送达诉讼文书**必须**有送达回证，由受送达人在送达
dì qī shí qī tiáo sòng dá sù sòng wén shū bì xū yǒu sòng dá huí zhèng yóu shòu sòng dá rén zài sòng dá
回证上记明收到日期，签名或者盖章。   (民事诉讼法 C234)
huí zhèng shàng jì míng shōu dào rì qī qiān míng huò zhě gài zhāng mín shìsù sòng fǎ

Original Translation: Article 77 A receipt **shall be required** for every litigation document that is served and it shall bear the date of receipt noted by the signature or seal of the person on whom the document was served. (Civil Procedural Law C234)

Revision: Article 77 A receipt **is required** for every litigation document that is served and it shall bear the date of receipt noted by the signature or seal of the person on whom the document was served. (Civil Procedural Law C234)

Similarly, in example (7), Chinese word "准予" (zhǔnyǔ, permit), a low value modal operator, represents permission and has little power of enforcement. Hence it is appropriate to translate "准予" as "be permitted to" with the equivalent value. But the combination "shall" with "be permitted to" increases the assigned value of the English translation, and improves the power of enforcement of the enterprise. Therefore, "shall" is redundant, and it should be removed.

(7) 企业支付给职工的工资和福利费，应当报送其支付标准和所依据的文件及有
qǐ yè zhī fù gěi zhí gong de gōng zī hé fú lì fèi yīng dāng bào sòng qí zhī fù biāo zhǔn hé suǒ yī jù de wén jiàn jí yǒu
关资料，经当地税务机关审核同意后，**准予**列支。 (外资税法实则 c082)
guān zī liào jīng dāng dì shuì wù jī guan shěn hé tong yì hòu zhǔn yǔ liè zhī wài zī shuì fǎ shí zé

Original Translation: Salaries and wages, and benefits and allowances paid by enterprises to employees **shall be permitted** to be itemized as expenses following agreement by the local tax authorities after an examination and verification of the submission of wage scales and supporting documents and relevant materials. (Foreign Funds Tax Law c082)

Revision: Salaries and wages, and benefits and allowances paid by enterprises to employees **are permitted** to be itemized as expenses following agreement by the local tax authorities after an examination and verification of the submission of wage scales and supporting documents and relevant materials. (Foreign Funds Tax Law c082)

V. Conclusion

From all the above, it can be drawn that there are three prominent anomie features in English translation of modal operators in Chinese legislative discourses. Firstly, translators excessively use the median finite modal operator "shall" to represent the obligation of the law. But "shall" weakens the law's power of enforcement and its degrees of non-consultation. Secondly, translators tend to misuse different value-assigned English modal operators to express the same value-assigned Chinese modal operators, and to overuse the synonymous words with the aim of pursuing language diversity. However, these translations violate the principle of consistency, accuracy and authority of the law. Thirdly, translators misuse "shall/should + predicate expansion form" which changes the assigned value of English translations. And then confusion in understanding is caused. Thus the anomie phenomenon in English translation of modal operators in Chinese legislative discourses inevitably weakens unity, compulsoriness and authority of the law.

Based on the above analysis, translators should attach great importance to the following three aspects in English translation of Chinese legislative discourses. Firstly, the principle of legal equivalence in English translation of legal texts is the golden principle. Therefore, in cross-legal translation translators should give priority to the equivalence of legal factors. Legal culture and legal convention hidden in languages should be taken into full consideration. Secondly, adherence to the principle of consistency of legal diction is highly valued in English translation of Chinese legislative discourses. Finally, as messengers of international exchange of legal culture, translators should be aware of the development trend of legal language, intensively study diction features and conventions of legal texts, and grasp the overall functions and hidden communication goals of legal texts.

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Zhangjun Lian was born in Shanxi, China in 1981. He received his M.A. degree in English language and literature from Yanshan University, China in 2007.

He is currently a Ph.D. candidate in the School of Foreign Languages, Southwest University, Chongqing, China. His research interests include functional linguistics, translation studies and corpus linguistics.

Ting Jiang was born in Sichuan, China in 1974. She received her M.A. degree in applied linguistics from Chongqing University, China in 2002.

She is currently an associate professor in the School of Foreign Languages, Chongqing University, Chongqing, China. She is also a Ph.D. candidate in the School of Foreign Languages, Southwest University, Chongqing, China. Her research interests include forensic linguistics, corpus linguistics and functional linguistics.

Ms. Jiang is a member of China Association of Forensic Linguistics.

Learning Corrected Target Forms: Students' Corrective Feedback through Teacher's Written Corrective Feedback in Iranian EFL Context

Fatemeh Esfandiar
Islamic Azad University, Ayatollah Amoli, Science and Research Branch, Amol, Mazandran, Iran

Baqure Yaqubi
University of Mazandaran, Babolsar, Mazandran, Iran

Amir Marzban
Islamic Azad University, Qaemshahr Branch, Qaemshahr, Mazandran, Iran

Abstract—As a result of Truscott's (1996) claim that written corrective feedback (WCF) should be abandoned because it is both ineffective and harmful, different opinions about the value of WCF have been voiced. The aim of this article was to investigate (1) the possible effect of WCF on accurate use of quantifiers over a 2-month period; (2) the possible differential effectiveness for three types of feedback. Seventy EFL students at junior high school in Iran formed a control group and three experimental groups (1) those who received direct WCF with written metalinguistic explanation; (2) direct corrective feedback only; (3) indirect WCF. The subject in experimental groups accomplished a collaborative task (correcting five weak examinees' papers) in pairs. Then on three occasions (pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test) the participants were asked to complete seventeen grammar items and write sentences about the given picture. The study found that each of the WCF groups significantly outperformed the control group on immediate post-test and this level of accuracy was retained 2 month later. Furthermore, no meaningful difference in effectiveness was found between the three WCF groups.

Index Terms—written corrective feedback, direct and indirect feedback, metalinguistic feedback

I. INTRODUCTION

In 1996, Truscott claimed that WCF should be abandoned because it is ineffective and harmful and then, in 1999 he admitted that further research should investigate which method techniques or approaches to error correction may have value. His suggestion was in response to Ferris (1999) who argued that Truscott's claims were premature because the evidence he proposed had methodological problem both in design and analysis. Then she suggested that further research is required to investigate the efficacy of WCF. Despite the call for empirical evidence on the efficacy of WCF by both Truscott (1996, 1999, 2007) and Ferris (1999), a number of researchers who believe in effectiveness of WCF in helping language learners improve the accuracy in the use of linguistic features in which errors frequently occur, have proceeded to discover the relative efficacy of different types of direct and (or) indirect WCF (e.g. Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener and Knoch, 2008, 2010a, 2010b; Sheen, 2007; Van Beuningen et al., 2008, 2012).

One problem that draws the interest of the researchers is the need for examining the effect of different types of feedback on certain grammatical forms, Truscott (1996, 1999), Ferris (2004) Bitchener et al. (2005), Bitchener (2008), Bitchener & Knoch ((2008, 2009) point to the fact that different linguistic forms might be acquired differently, and a particular type of CF might be effective for some structures but not for some other forms in another word, different linguistic categories may not be treated as the same; for example, Bitchener et al. (2005) found that the two types of direct WCF used in their study did not have impact on accurate use of preposition but the same types of WCF enabled learners to use past simple tense and the definite article with meaningfully great accuracy and they hypothesized that direct WCF might be useful for treating just some errors. As Bitchener et al.(2005) and Bitchener (2009) suggested further research is required to investigate the impact of WCF on other linguistic error categories. Therefore, the first aim of the present study was to discover the role ofWCF in treating errors in the use of quantifiers: the countable quantifiers such as a few, many, and some or a lot of used before plural countable nouns and the uncountable quantifiers utilized before uncountable (singular) nouns.

Both Ferris (1999) and Truscott (1999) agreed that in future research, attention should be focused on investigating the long-term improvement of WCF. This call has resulted in a an ever-expanding number of studies attempting to explore the long-term benefits of WCF (e.g. Sheen, 2007; Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener& Knoch, 2008, 2009, 2010a, 2010b; Van Beuningen et al., 2008, 2012). Among these studies, Van Beuningen et al. (2008, 2012) and Bitchener and Knoch (2010b) reported that, while positive short effects were found for both direct and indirect corrective feedback,

only direct CF option had a significant long-term effect. According to Bitchener (2012), it would be premature to assume this position that the evidence from the recent studies is sufficient to claim in favor of direct CF. Addressing to this issue that the results from these studies have varied, further research is required before making any robust conclusions. Therefore, the second aim of this study was to see if possible effect on WCF options is retained 2 month later.

Another issue to be considered is the impact of two CF methodologies involved direct and indirect CF. A range of claims in support of direct and indirect CF have been made for many years. Some researchers such as Ferris (2006) and Lalande (1982) have reported a benefit for indirect CF. Some others such as Chandler (2003) Van Beuningen et al. (2008), and Bitchener& Knoch (2010) have claimed that in their comparison they found direct CF performed better over indirect CF. On the other hand, some studies such as Frantzen(1995) and Robb et al. (1986) have found no significant difference between two methodologies. These contradictory findings push the researchers of the present study to investigate the effectiveness of direct and indirect CF. Therefore, the third aim of the present study was to investigate whether particular types of WCF facilitate greater accuracy.

In a quasi-experimental design with two occasions (pre-test, immediate post-test) the researchers of the present study measure the effectiveness of three types of WCF and to measure retention over time a delayed post-test was incorporated into design of this study. The study was conducted with 72 junior high school EFL students (Iran, Amol). Assigned to three experimental groups and one control group (direct WCF with written metalinguistic explanation; direct corrective feedback only; indirect WCF; no corrective feedback), the subjects in experimental groups accomplished a collaborative task (correcting five weak examinees' papers) in pairs. Then on three occasions (pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test) the participants were asked to complete seventeen grammar items and write some sentences about the given pictures. Participants in control group did not complete the task so they received no WCF in this study. Before presenting the findings of this study, we will first examine theoretical perspectives for and against WCF then we will offer theoretical objections to effectiveness of WCF raised by Truscott and finally, we aim to review the empirical studies on (in) effectiveness of WCF and the relative efficacy of different types of WCF options.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Empirical Studies on the Effectiveness of Written CF

Early studies divided in to two categories. A set of studies (e.g. Ferris, 1997; Ashwell, 2000; Ferris and Roberts, 2001) worked on the role of CF in revision studies in which researchers compared two versions of the same text. Revision studies have shown the accuracy improvement in a particular piece of writing. However Truscott and Hsu (2008) argued that the finding of these studies cannot be considered as evidence of learning because in their study, Truscott and Hsu (2008) found the group who received WCF for revision significantly outperformed over the content group one week later. Then they asked both group to write a new writing, and result demonstrate that both groups were the same and they concluded that correction did not have any effect on writing development .

The other set of studies (e.g. Polio et al., 1998; Sheppard, 1992; Chandler, 2003; Semke, 1984) were conducted to determined learning effect of CF in new pieces of writing. Some of early studies have resulted in different findings for example while Kepner (1991), Polio et al. (1998), Semke (1984), and Sheppard (1992) found no effectiveness for CF, Chandler (2003) found direct WCF has the impact on the development of students' accuracy; Lalande (1982) reported advantage for indirect CF but this difference was not statistically significant; and Rob et al. (1986) revealed advantage for all four CF groups but they found no significant difference between them.

B. Studies on Relative Effectiveness of Direct and Indirect CF

Lalande (1982) studies 60 intermediate German FL learner ata USA university over ten weeks. She compared one group that received indirect coded CF to another that received direct CF. The result found an advantage for indirect CF over direct error correction. Therefore, she concluded that indirect group was engaged in more form focused activities than direct group. However, the reported difference in accuracy development was not statistically significant.On the other hand, Chandler (2003) who divided 36 music students into four groups (direct CF; indirect underlining +marginal CF; indirect marginal CF; indirect underlining CF) found that although there was no statistically significant difference between direct CF and underlining CF groups, direct CF was the best approach for improving the students' accuracy in writing. She also concluded that because students saw immediately the correction of their error, they would able to "internalize the corrected form better" (p.291). Frantzen (1995) also carried out a 15-week study with 67 intermediate Spanish learners `at a U.S. university. She used an indirect CF group and a direct group that also had extensive grammar reviews. She found no significant difference between the groups on accuracy in their writing. She then concluded that indirect approach is sufficient for accuracy development, at least in this case. All of these studies had serious problem in their design and analysis (see Ferris 2004 and Van Beuningen et al. for a review of these methodological issues). Van Beuningen et al. (2008, 2012) and Bitchener and Knoch (2010b) however in their recent studies claimed that they tried to avoid the design and execution shortcoming because they included a control group to the design of their studies. They also investigated the learning potential of WCF in new pieces of writing.

Van Beuningen et al. (2008) carried out a 3-week study. 62 Dutch multilingual secondary school learners. The participants involved: 1) direct CF; 2) indirect CF; 3) writing practice (control group1); self-correction revision (control

group 2). Van Beuningen et al.'s (2012) 6-week study was conducted in the same condition as Van Beuningen (2008) study. However in this study they used 268 participants. Bitchener and Knoch 2010b also did a 10-week study with 63 advanced learners at a large university in the USA. All these studies found that whereas direct and indirect CF proved to have equal short-term effect in developing learners' accuracy, only direct WCF had a more significant long-term effect than indirect WCF.

C. Studies Comparing Direct CF Types

Relative effectiveness of different types of different types of direct CF drew the interest of some researchers (e.g. Bitchener et al. 2005; Bitchener 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008, 2010a; Sheen, 2007). Bitchener et al. 2005investigated whether two types of direct WCF (direct CF; direct CF+ 5 minutes teacher-student conference) on three types of errors led to increased development in new pieces of writing. The study found a significant effect for the group who received direct WCF plus oral metalinguistic explanation for simple past and definite article but no effect on accuracy improvement for preposition. They concluded that including metalinguistic explanation "would help learners notice the difference between their errors and the correction they receive" (p. 201), and this noticing as Schemidt (1990) stated, is a crucial factor in long-term acquisition.Since Bitchener et al. (2005) did not consider the effectiveness of WCF in targeting different functions of articles, Bitchener (2008) compared the effect of the different types of direct CF for two functional uses of English article systems. He used three types of direct CF (direct CF+ written and oral metalinguistic explanation; direct CF+ written metalinguistic CF; direct CF only) as well as a control group. They found that all CF groups revealed improved accuracy in immediate post-test but participants in written and oral metalinguistic CF group and direct CF group could retain this level of accuracy two months later. Bitchener and Knoch (2008) they repeated Bitchener's (2008) study by including an additional 69 learners. When the study was extended, no differences were reported between the same CF groups and all three CF groups were significantly different from the control groups. According to Bitchener and Knoch (2010a), it might be possible that "the larger sample size eliminated the difference in effect between group 2 and other two treatment groups in the first study by Bitchener (2008)" (p. 199).

Bitchener and Knoch (2009) also conducted a six-month study with three different types of direct CF (direct CF+ written and oral metalinguistic explanation; direct CF+ written metalinguistic CF; direct CF). They found that all three groups significantly improved their accuracy after treatment and suggested that for learners at low intermediate proficiency level, providing a single CF alone might be sufficient. Bitchener and Knoch (2010a) carried out a more longitudinal study in which they aimed to investigate the effect of three direct CF types (direct CF+ written and oral metalinguistic explanation; direct CF+ written metalinguistic CF; direct CF). The study found that all three CF groups outperformed the control group on all post-tests. On the other hand, Sheen (2007) who did a 2-month study on the relative effectiveness of two types of direct CF (direct CF only; and direct CF+ metalinguistic explanation) found that both CF groups performed better than the control group only on immediate post-test but in delayed post-test, participants of direct CF plus metalinguistic explanation group outperformed those in direct CF and control groups. Then she concluded that direct CF with metalinguistic explanation was superior to direct CF alone.

III. THE STUDY

The study was designed to investigate the possible effect of WCF on the accurate use of quantifiers over a two month period. Thus, a pre-test post-test design was used (a pre-test at the beginning of the two month period; and post-tests after one week and two months). The second aim of this study was to discover if there is a possible differential effectiveness for three types of written feedback. Two research questions were therefore formulated to investigate these aims.

1. Does accuracy in the use of quantifiers vary according to three types of WCF?
2. Does accuracy in the use of quantifiers vary over time according to three types of WCF?

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Based on the consensus among researchers regarding the larger the size of the sample, the greater its precision, the researcher invited a total 110 students from four intact classes in three junior high schools in Amol, Iran, to participate in this study at the first stage. All the participants were studying in grade three. There were 50 males and 55 females students in the sample. In order to make the sample more homogeneous, the researcher used the pre-test scores and this homogeneity was not statistically meaningful. Based on the result of the pretests (grammar test& picture description test) in each class, subjects who placed between +/- 1 standard deviation above and below the mean were selected as the main subjects of this study and 40 students were excluded from the study because they had extremely high, or extremely low scores on the test. Then the participants were divided into 3 experimental groups and 1 control group.

B. Target Structures

Compared with earlier studies on the value of written WCF (see Ferris, 2006), that fifteen linguistic error categories have been investigated, this study examined the effect of targeting the use of quantifiers. This structure was targeted

because ten years' teaching experience in grade three of junior high school has shown that students experience difficulties in the use of quantifiers. Difficulties occur when deciding whether countable quantifiers (quantifiers used for countable plural nouns, e.g. many, a few) or non- countable quantifiers (quantifiers used for non-countable nouns, e.g. much, a little) should be used; whether singular nouns or plural nouns should be used after quantifiers like some or a lot of; the students may have difficulty deciding whether singular or plural form of to be verb (is, are) should be used for a particular quantifiers. Accuracy in the use of this structure in the grammar pre-test (13.83) and picture description pre-test (10.93) revealed that students have only partial mastery of the use of the quantifiers.

C. Treatment

One week after pre-test session, the treatment session took place. In this session, the three WCF groups received one type of the WCF on errors made in accurate use of English quantifiersand then in group of two (during student-student interaction) gave direct and metalinguistic WCF on their peers' papers. Participants in WCF group 1, received the corrected forms of the target structure through a key answer sheet. Students were asked to compare their peers' responses in the exam papers with the teacher's key answer sheet and find all existing linguistic errors, then, they were told to give direct corrective feedback with metalinguistic explanation to their peers' papers, as illustrated in Example 1:

Example (1):
The original text: *How many uncle does he have?
Teacher's direct WCF: How many uncle does he have?
Participant's CF: how many uncles because after how many we use plural noun.

In WCF group 2, in addition to teacher's direct CF (key answer sheet), participants were given teacher's written metalinguistic explanation in which the teacher explained the errors made in accurate use of quantifiers. Example (2) illustrated teacher's meta-linguistic CF.

Example (2): metalinguistic CF
Q1. Because bread is uncountable, you should use a little.
Q2. Because book is a countable noun and you should use How many for making question.

In WCF group 3, the researcher underlined all linguistic errors targeted on quantifiers but the correct forms were not provided by the teacher. Instead, pairs were left to work out and correct the erroneous features themselves. For this purpose they were allowed to search the answer from external linguistic resource such as their pair, grammar book or textbook and give their peer's paper metalinguistic CF. It should be mentioned that in all experimental groups, each student must correct the peers' paper in collaboration with another member and their pair-talk will be recorded for analysis. The researcher of the present investigation did not consider any time limit for collaborative peer feedback in treatment session because collaboratively correcting the peers' paper may vary from pair to pair, so it might take about 45 to 90 minutes.

D. Instruments

All three grammar tests (grammar pre-test , grammar post-test 1and grammar post-test 2) required participants to answer some items involve: 7multiple choice items; 5filling in the blank items; 5making and answering question items that all are taken from a popular work book named 'Tajik'. These 17 grammar items were the same in pre-test, post-test 1 and post-test 2. Twenty minutes was given for completing17 items in each test, i.e. pre-test, grammar post-test1 and grammar post-test 2. Besides, the last item of these three tests was a writing activity and required the students to describe what they saw in the given pictures. In the pretest and immediate posttest, participants were given extra five minutes to write five sentences about the pictures, and in delayed posttest, extra ten minutes was given for writing ten sentences about the pictures. Since the vocabulary items that participants needed to use for writing activity were familiar for them, they were told that they could not use a dictionary or have the teacher aid during the activity. The given illustrations in each of the test were different. The picture descriptions were selected because the range of people and objects illustrated had the potential to provide obligatory opportunities for students to use different forms of English quantifier. In order to record the conversation between the participants in experimental groups an MP3 player was utilized. A Nelson Test was also used in pilot study to determine the reliability and validity of the teacher made test.

E. Procedure

As an initial data collection step, the researcher of this study sought permission from the authorities of the junior high schools in Amol and finally, among ten schools that the researcher tried to get permission, the management of two male and one female guidance schools allowed the researcher to utilize their students for carrying out the study. Because the two schools that participated in this study were male schools, the researcher needed the aid of two male teachers; therefore the next step was to obtain consent from two male teachers; and fortunately among five male teachers, two of them accepted to cooperate with the researcher. After getting the consent of the authorities and the two teachers, the pretest was piloted by 21 students who were randomly selected among the subjects in the three schools. During this pilot phase, test sections were revised and prepared for the main subjects.

The present study was mainly concerning with investigating and analyzing whether using collaborative peer feedback through the teacher's direct and indirect WCF on students' exam papers may lead to learning corrected grammatical forms. For this purpose, based on the pre-test scores, the subjects were screened into four groups involved direct CF

group; direct CF with metalinguistic CF group; indirect CF group and no CF group. Then the subjects in CF groups completed an editing task involved participants' classmates' exam papers. In fact, instead of using a standard text with errors implanted as Lee (1997) suggested, the researcher used the students' papers to examine the participants' performance in error correction of a their classmates' exam papers where errors occur naturally. Participants were asked to provide their peers' papers with direct and metalinguistic feedback. Subjects in control group completed the tests (i.e., pre-test and post-tests) only. They did not perform the editing task (i.e., correcting their peers' papers) and did not receive any feedback but instead followed normal classes. Students in CF groups received a digital voice recorder to be placed between each pair. Then after one week all groups were given the post-test1in order to recognize the subjects' ability in accurate use of quantifiers after treatment. Finally, after two months, the second post-test were given to four groups in order to probe accuracy in the use of quantifiers.

A few days prior to the pretest, the students of all groups were provided with information about the study. Each experimental group (in separate sessions) was explained the type of WCF that they were asked to give their peers' papers and they were emphasized that this activity would be done in pair. When the researcher made sure that the students became familiar with the approach used in the study, the two teachers who took part in this study were also briefed on the procedures. This study utilized quantitative methods of data analysis with the aim of investigating whether using collaborative peer feedback through teacher's direct and indirect WCF on students' exam papers can internalize grammatical forms. In this study corrective feedback was the independent variable and three sets of tests (pre-test, post-test1and posst-test2) were the three dependent variables. The data collected via the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest was firs coded and then SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) datasets were used for descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics for the pretest and the two posttests were calculated separately for the four groups. To establish whether the differences in the four groups' scores on the pretests were statically significant, a one way ANOVA was performed. Because, there were no statistically significant differences on the pretest scores, one- way ANOVA was chosen again to address the research question. Post-hoc multiple comparison tests were computed to isolate the exact points where the significant differences lay among the group.

V. RESULTS

Table 1 below shows the descriptive statistics for the three treatment groups and the control group at the three different testing times (pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test).

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR MEAN TEST SCORES BY GROUP AND TESTING PERIOD

|		Direct CF (N= 16)		Meta CF (N=16)		Indirect CF (N=16)		Control (N=22)	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Pre-test	Grammar	13.68	0.91	13.88	1.09	13.79	1.16	13.93	1.03
	Picture description	10.00	4.69	11.27	3.64	11.18	2.00	11.13	2.91
Post-test 1	Grammar	18.32	1.93	19.54	0.72	19.50	1.23	13.23	1.81
	Picture description	18.12	3.22	19.11	1.84	19.81	0.54	10.22	4.62
Post-test2	Grammar	18.14	2.23	19.44	0.97	19.39	0.75	13.34	1.23
	Picture description	17.90	3.71	19.05	1.31	19.12	1.13	10.95	4.01
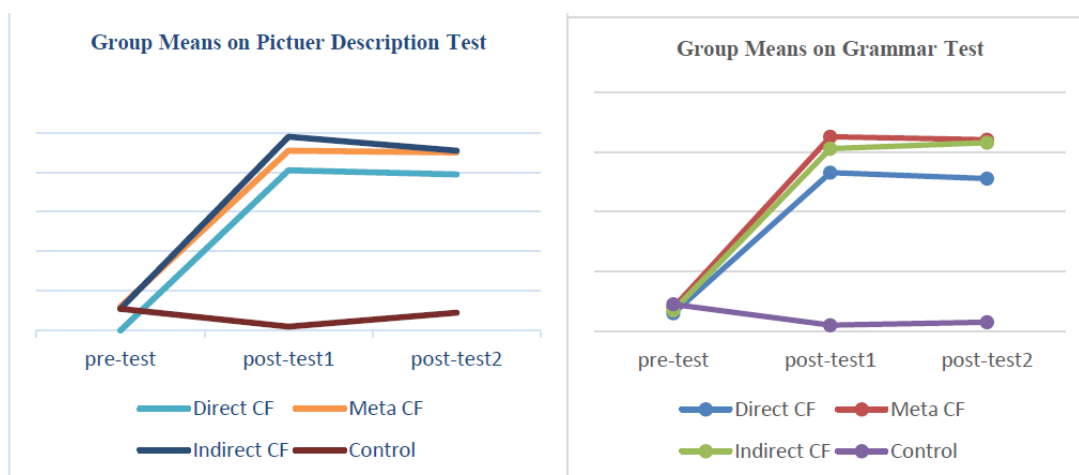
Figure1: Accuracy of whole sample across the three grammar tests and picture description tests

As the result of the grammar pre-test was revealed in table1, the means of all groups in grammar were so close to each other ranging between13.68 to 13.93, i.e. there is not a large numerical difference among the measures of four

groups in grammar pre-test. The same story can be seen about picture description pre-test that is the means of all groups were so close each other ranging between 10 to11.27, i.e. there was not a large numerical difference among the means of the four groups in picture description pre-test.

Table 1 also reveals the means of all four groups in grammar post-test1. The means for all experimental groups were so close to each other ranging from 18.32 to 19.54 while the mean of control group (13.23) is numerically so different from the experimental groups. Similarly in picture descriptive post-test 1, as the result of table 1 suggests, the means of all experimental groups are so close to each other ranging from 18.12 to 19.81while the mean of control group (10.33) is numerically so different from the experimental groups. According to Table 1, the means of all experimental groups in both grammar and picture description post-test 2 were so close to each other ranging from 18.14 to 19.44 in grammar and 17.90 to 19.12 in picture description while the mean of control group both in grammar (13.34) and picture description (10.95) post-test2 was numerically so different from the experimental groups. In order to compare the treatment groups' test scores, a series of one-way ANOVA was computed. Table 2 below shows.

TABLE 2
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR GRAMMAR AND PICTURE DESCRIPTION PRE-TEST AND POST-TESTS
BETWEEN GROUPS

		df	F	sig
Pre-test	Grammar	3	0.188	0.904
	Picture description	3	0.514	0.674
Post-test 1	Grammar	3	78.716	0.000
	Picture description	3	40.871	0.000
Post-test 2	Grammar	3	87.90	0.000
	Picture description	3	35.63	0.000

As Table 2 shows, regarding the grammar (F= 0.188; df =3; p= 0.904) and picture description pre-test (F =0.514; df =3; p = 0.674), the ANOVA did not reveal a significant difference across the four groups because the calculated level of significance was more than 0.5. In term of the grammar post-test 1, as the ANOVA results suggested (F =78.716; df =3; *p = 0.000< 0.05), there were significant differences among four groups. To statistically examine the exact places of differences among groups, post hoc multiple comparison tests were performed. These indicated that probability (sig) among experimental groups was much more than 0.05, i.e. there was no significant and meaningful difference among experimental groups whilst the probability (sig) among control group and experimental groups is 0.000 i.e., there was a significant and meaningful difference among control group and experimental groups.

Regarding the picture description post-test1, according to Table 2, the ANOVA test revealed that there was a significant difference among four groups at the level of 0.05 (F = 40.871; df = 3; *p = 0.000< 0.05). Post hoc multiple comparison further showed that the statistically significant differences were located between the control group and three experimental groups because probability (sig) among experimental groups was much more than 0.05, i.e. none of the three experimental groups differed from each other whilst the probability (sig) among control group and experimental groups was .000, i.e. the control group was statistically significant different from all other groups experimental groups.

In term of the grammar post-test 2, as can be seen in Table 4.2, the ANOVA indicated that since the calculated level of significance (0.000) was lower than .05, there was a significant difference among groups (F= 87.204; df = 3; *p = 0.000< 0.05). In order to locate the exact places of differences in subjects' performance, a post hoc test was run. The result showed that at the time of delayed post-test (post-test 2), participants in the three treatment groups significantly outperformed those in the control group, but that the three treatment groups did not differ from each other.

Similarly, one-way ANOVA showed statistically significant group differences in the picture description post-test2, (F = 35.631; df = 3; *p = 0.000< 0.05). Post hoc multiple comparison test revealed that probability (sig) among experimental groups was much more than .05, i.e. there was no significant and meaningful difference among experimental groups but the probability (sig) among control group and experimental groups was .000, i.e. there was a significant and meaningful difference among control group and experimental groups.

VI. DISCUSSION

The first research question investigated whether or not there was a differential effect on accuracy for the different types of CF. It found that all three treatment groups (direct CF only; direct CF in conjunction with metalinguistic CF; indirect CF groups) outperformed the control group in the immediate post-test.in other words, all three CF groups gained improved accuracy scores immediately after they had received WCF on their editing task. The results also showed that there was no significant difference between the three treatment groups on the immediate post-test. Therefore, it might be suggested that any one of these three types of WCF could have the same positive effect.

This finding is in line with some other research that investigated the relative short effect of direct and indirect CF. Van Beuningen et al. (2008, 2012),and Bitchener and Knoch (2010b) for instance, found that both direct and indirect CF groups made the accuracy gains turned out to be significant. Moreover, they significantly outperformed the control groups. On the other hand, although Chandler (2003) found no statistically significant difference between direct and indirect CF, claimed that direct approach was the best option for the students' accuracy. Lalande (1982) reported advantage for indirect CF but she did not find statistically significant difference between direct and indirect CF.

According to the results of immediate post-test, the simple provision of error correction was just as effective as the additional provision of metalinguistic explanation. The same result was reported by Bitchener (2008) Bitchener, Knoch (2008, 2009, 2010a), and Sheen (2007). In each of these studies, the effectiveness of direct CF only and metalinguistic explanations were evident in immediate post-test. Bitchener et al. (2005) however, reported different results. They did not find any statistically significant effect for direct CF alone. Bitchener et al. found that direct CF with teacher's metalinguistic comments on errors resulted in significant gains in accuracy in two grammatical forms. They believed that participants who received direct CF alone did not have opportunity to discuss their corrected errors.

It can be contented that the finding of this study in general gain support from previous research in term of learning potential of CF regardless of the type of correction (Lalande, 1982; Rob et al., 1986; Ferris, 1997; Lee, 1997; Ashwell, 2000; Ferris and Robert 2001; Chandler, 2003; Bitchener et al 2005; Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener and Knoch, 2008, 2009, 2010a, 2010b; Sheen, 2007; Ellis et al., 2008; Van Beuningen et al., 2008, 2012). However, some research findings claimed the opposite (Semke, 1984; Kepner, 1991, Sheppard, 1992; Truscott, 1996, 1999; 2007; Truscott & Hsu, 2008). For example, Truscott's (1996) review of early studies by Semke (1984), Kepner (1991), and Sheppard (1992) claimed that CF did not have a significant effect on improving language accuracy. The finding of this study however did not confirm his claim. Truscott (2007) has argued not only that CF is ineffective but also it is harmful to learners' accuracy development because it encourages learners to avoid producing complex structure and leads to simplified writing. The findings of this study oppose this claim. Only in CF groups, the new sentences written by participants in post-tests were more accurate and complex than what they wrote in pre-test. For example, sentences such as "there are three boys in the picture." or "there are breads on the table." Were frequently observed in participants' writing before the treatment session but in post-test sessions, pupils who received CF could improve accurate use of quantifiers and produce more complex writing such as "I see a few birds in the picture." or "there is some cheese on the table."

The second research question was formulated to investigate whether this level of accuracy was retained 2 month later. It revealed that all three CF groups significantly performed better than the control group in the delayed post-test. Results also found no statistically significant difference among three types of CF. in other words, the achieved level of improvement across the 2 months period were retained by all three CF groups. This finding is in contrast with some research (e.g. Bitchener and Knoch, 2010b; Van Beuningen et al. 2008, 2012) which claimed that direct error correction had a more significant long-term effect than indirect CF. However Rob et al. (1986) found no significant difference among direct and indirect CF groups and claimed that all CF groups improved over time.

Regarding the effectiveness of two types of direct CF (direct CF alone, and direct CF plus written metalinguistic CF), the result of this study is in line with Bitchener& knoch (2008, 2009, 2010a) which investigated the relative effectiveness of three types of direct CF and found that all direct CF groups (direct CF alone; direct CF with written and oral metalinguistic CF; and direct CF plus written metalinguistic CF) significantly improved over time. The findings of this study however, contrasted with other research (e.g. Bitchener et al. 2005; Sheen, 2007; Bitchener, 2008). For instance, Bitchener et al. (2005) found a significant effect for the group who received direct CF with metalinguistic comments but no significant effectiveness was reported on accuracy improvement for direct CF alone and control groups. Similarly, Sheen (2007) reported that participants in direct metalinguistic CF group outperformed direct CF and control groups in delayed post-test. Then, she concluded that direct CF only promotes awareness but direct CF with metalinguistic explanation promote both awareness and understandingBitchener (2008) although, reported that only two of three directCF groups (i.e., direct CF alone; and direct CF with written and oral metalinguistic CF group) performed better than control group but he found no statistically significant difference between those who received direct CF plus written metalinguistic CF and control. Bitchener claimed that "the single provision of written metalinguistic explanation may not have been sufficient for it to have had a significant effect" (p.114).

As it can be seen, reporting different results in effectiveness of CF types was not observed only in our study. These differences in effect were evident in three other studies (Bitchener et al. 2005; Sheen, 2007; Bitchener, 2008) Bitchener and Knoch (2010a) explained reasons such as the effect of sample size, getting additional input between pre-test and post-tests or differences in amount and delivery of CF. It seems that in my study, the frequency and the way of offering and receiving CF in treatment session might be reasons for the differences. In the present study, before immediate post-test, participants in CF groups were allocated 90 minutes to complete an editing task in which they were asked to correct five papers of their classmates' pre-test while receiving one type of the teacher's feedback. But most of studies mentioned above, (e.g.; Van Beuningen et al. 2008, 2012) allocated fewer time for treatment session. For example, Bitchener et al. (2005) Sheen (2007) Bitchener (2008) Bitchener and Knoch (2008, 2009, 2010a, 2010b) asked participants to look at the correction made by the teacher for 5 minutes. Regarding Van Beuningen (2008, 2012) studies, students were allocated 20 minutes to revise all errors corrected by the researchers.

Unlike previous study in which participants were asked to revise only their own pre-test writing, in this study students were asked to work in pairs and correct five pre-test papers completed by their classmates. Additionally, each pair had to give direct oral and written metalinguistic CF to each paper. Thus, they frequently needed to refer to their teacher's WCF. Besides, repeatedly articulating the corrected forms during correction, as Lantolf (2006) mentioned, may facilitate memorization the new forms or consolidate structures that have already been learned. Regarding the importance of repetitions, Storch (2007) also stated that "a repetition by the learner of the corrective feedback offered indicates that the learner has 'noticed' the correction given or the suggestion made" (p.155).

VII. Conclusion

The aims of this study were to investigate the efficacy of WCF on targeted linguistic error categories (English quantifiers) over time and to explore if there was a differential effect on accuracy for three corrective feedback types (direct CF; direct CF plus metalinguistic CF; indirect CF). The study found that participants who received WCF performed better than those who received no CF and this level of improvement continued over a 2-month period. With respect to the second aim, the study revealed no difference in effect between the three treatment groups.

The finding of this study is good news for teachers who spend a lot of time and energy providing error feedback on their students 'papers, it has shown that a focused approach to the treatment of linguistic errors does not involve extensive amount of class time and may be resulted in helping students be able to make effective use of WCF and reduce the error frequency of the targeted categories. It can be concluded that the present study has benefits for both students and teachers. Regarding students, it may improve students' ability to give and receive feedback about each other's writing and encourage them to take more responsibility for their own learning. Teachers may gain better insight about different types of WCF and pair work. They may also learn some practical advice about using WCF options in their classrooms.

Despite these positive findings, like any kind of research, the present study suffers from a number of limitations which will pose inevitable restrictions upon the generalization of its result. First, because of the difficulty in using subjects over a long time, the sample size, while acceptable, was smaller than one would have wished for. Therefore it lacks generalizability powers. Second, the researchers used students' pre-test scores for homogenizing the participants and clearly it is a restriction upon the generalization of its result. Third, the writing test in picture description part of pre-test and post-tests involved the production of relatively short text (only one sentence for each picture). Forth, the study examined the effect of CF on just accurate use of English quantifiers and clearly the result cannot be generalized to other areas of grammatical accuracy.

With regard to the present study, the following areas may be worthy of future investigation. (1) This study only considered the effectiveness of WCF on the accurate use of English quantifiers. However, it would be suggested that further research is needed to investigate the extent to which the positive findings of this study apply to other linguistic error categories. (2) This study only investigated the effectiveness of two types of direct CF and one type of indirect CF. Although it has filled another gap in the research, further studies are now required to examine the relative merits of different types of indirect CF and Direct CF alone.

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Fatemeh Esfandiar holds an M.A. in TEFL from Islamic Azad University, Ayatollah Amoli, Science and Research Branch (Amol, Iran, 2013). She has been an English instructor since (2003). Her main area of interest include Written Corrective Feedback, Pair Work interaction, Collaborative Dialogue and Teaching English to young adults.

Baqure Yaqubi is an assistant professor at Mazandaran University (Babolsar, Iran). Dr. Yaqubi received his PH.D. at University of Leeds (UK). His main areas of interest are interlanguage Pragmatic, Classroom discourse, Task-based Language Teaching and Learning, and Theories of Second Language Teaching and Learning.

Amir Marzban is an assistant professor at Islamic Azad University, Qaemshahr Branch, Iran. Dr Marzban obtained his Ph.D. from Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch, Tehran, Iran. His research interests are Applied Linguistic, ESP, CALL, and Materials Development.

A Feminist Reading of Fitzgerald's *Winter Dreams**

Lihua Zhang
School of Foreign Languages, Beijing Institute of Technology, Beijing, 100081, China

Liying Cui
School of Foreign Languages, Beijing Institute of Technology, Beijing, 100081, China

Abstract—Winter Dreams, **one of F· S· Fitzgerald's short stories, tells about a young man's dream about a "golden Girl" Judy Jones. To read the story from a feminist perspective, it exposes misogyny in Fitzgerald's text. Judy's transformation from a beautiful flapper, a rebellious young girl, and a luring Circe, into a meek creature of "angel in the house", indicates that even in the 1920s of American society, women still have no ways out except to surrender to the dominant patriarchal ideology.**

Index Terms s—**men, women, misogyny, feminism**

I. INTRODUCTION

F. Scott Fitzgerald (1896-1940), is prestigious for his novels and short stories chronicling the excesses of America's "Jazz Age", or the Roaring Twenties. By the time of his death, he was discarded as a failed literary hope, a writer victimized by his own indulgences. But since 1940s his literary reputation has steadily risen. Today, he is universally acknowledged to be one of the major American prose writers of the 20th century (Stavola & Thomas, 1979). Fitzgerald was basically the man of the twenties, who was part of the era and eventually died with it. He was either a victim or a keen observer of its extravagance, gaudy, fancy dreams and its inevitable gloom and disillusionment as seen both in his personal life and his fictional world. From a genteelly prominent but financially declining background, Fitzgerald did never have a bit sense of security but was restless about climbing the social ladder for recognition throughout his lifetime. His hopeless love with the Southern belle Zelda Sayre compelled him to write in a rapid succession in order to live in a vanity fair of endless cocktail parties, grandeur and ostentatiousness. He was the highest paid short story writer of his time. His personal dream for the wealthy life of high society, therefore, was fulfilled. Called "the angels of the twenties", they became a pattern of youth, wealth and beauty. To a larger extent, his fictional world is autobiographical, for he interwove his personal life with the glittering debauchery of his contemporary society by epitomizing the American Dream—a dream all seen in a male protagonist's dream over a "golden girl".

American dream means that in America, the new world of opportunities, one might hope to satisfy every material desire and thereby achieve happiness. It is deceptive because it proposes the satisfaction of all desires as an attainable goal and identifies desire with material. Fitzgerald's literary achievement lies in the fact that he found intuitively in his personal experience the embodiment of that of the nation and created a myth out of American life in his days. Fitzgerald once said, "America's great promise is that something is going to happen, but it never does. America is the moon that never rose." (Stavola & Thomas, 1979, p. 90) In his stories, Fitzgerald dealt most with the American dream in terms of love and money. Whereas, in the process of dream accomplished a sense of loss and disillusionment comes with the failure embodied fully in the personal tragedy of a young man whose "incorruptible dream" got smashed into pieces by the relentless reality. Fitzgerald himself commented on this decade, "this is an age of miracle, this is an age or art, this is an age of big splendors, and also an age of satire." (Stavola & Thomas, 1979, p. 90) His masterpiece *The Great Gatsby* and many short stories like *Winter Dreams* follow a clear pattern: There is, at first, a dream, then a disenchantment, and finally a sense of failure and despair. Through these he described the emptiness and nothingness of American worship of wealth and the unending American Dream of love, splendor, and fulfilled desires.

Winter Dreams, a short story by Fitzgerald, shares the same themes with the author's most successful novel—*The Great Gatsby*: the disillusion of American Dream, the relationship between wealth and love, the way of dealing with true love and love in the illusion, by portraying the flashy surface of upper-class extravagance and the confusion, emptiness and selfishness in people's inner hearts in American society during the 1920s.

Dexter, a young man from middle-west America fell in love with Judy when he was a teenage caddie. However, Judy was a wealthy girl who always lived luxuriously in the upper class and would never be with any man without money. In order to make his American Dream come true, which is to win Judy's heart, Dexter made great efforts to become rich and finally succeeded. However, Judy married Lud Simms, a rich person who turned out to be a dissipated man, and her

beauty faded soon with the unhappy marriage. Dexter ended up with a depressed and meaningless life, feeling grievous and regretful for Judy's tragedy.

Following the male writing tradition, F· S· Fitzgerald's stories are mainly narrated by a male protagonist, who has been passionately devoted to the Golden Girl, however, only to end up as disillusionment. Dream as the major storyline goes through to the end. His short story, *Winter Dreams*, with Dexter Green, the male protagonist as an omniscient narrator, tells about his dream about a woman, Judy Jones, which covers ten years plus, spanning from his early youth to adulthood.

II. NARRATIVE VOICE OF *WINTER DREAMS*

Winter Dreams speaks from the masculine standpoint. Dexter Green serves both as a narrator and a protagonist at the same time, thus establishing his dominant voice in this narrative piece. With his comment from time to time, the narrator Dexter makes sure that the readers' attention always falls on him, Dexter, the protagonist. What's more, Dexter's psychological life is in the foreground throughout the entire story, which further consolidates his authoritative narrative position. In contrast, Judy has been kept silent. Her psychological activities are missing in the narration; what she looks like and how she feels about everything, are all interpreted by the male. The history of gender oppression helps to account for her silence. For quite a long time woman is supposed to be a rib taken from man, born to be congenitally deficient; as a result, woman has traditionally an eternal object of literary representation, stereotyped, speechless, and soulless. In the landmark masterpiece of feminist movement, *The Madwoman in the Attic,* Sandra Gilbert and Susan Gubar have discoursed upon two stereotypical images that all too often appear in literature by male writers before the nineteenth century: "the angel in the house" and "the mad woman in the attic". The former is a pure and noble image, of beauty and frailness, who is supposed to realize that her physical and material comforts are gifts from her husband; the latter is a freakish monster, an enticing "adulteress", a malicious "shrew", or a domineering "bossy woman". These two women images fail to portray women as creative, rational people, but deliberately construct women images conceived in the imagination of males. Women are simply categorized at will, treated as "the other" and their images are distorted in every possible way. The distortion with the image of woman, reflects not only the superiority of Male chauvinism, but the trepidation in man facing women's overstepping of authority and challenging traditions. In *Winter Dreams*, the two major images of women have made their appearance, with Irene Scheerer and Judy Jones as the representatives respectively. It is worthy of attention that Judy Jones, the rebellious flapper, the extreme pole of Irene in personality, did eventually make compromises with traditions and did turn into a sacrificing "the angel in the house". Her transformation and the consequent tragic martial life clearly show that women still have to conform to the prescribed sex roles dictated by the 1920s' American society. Simultaneously, they uncover misogyny in Fitzgerald's text, a term Elaine Showalter uses to describe the male hatred of women. Throughout *Winter Dreams* comparison and contrast have been used to horizontally as well as vertically: the comparison before and after Judy's marriage, and the comparison between Judy and Irene as a young girl. They both take the survey and verdict of man's gaze, as Paris of Troy in Greek mythology makes his choice among the three beautiful goddesses. Man's gaze, rather than the magic mirror in *Snow White,* works ubiquitously to define and interpret women, both physically and internally.

Irene Scheerer is Dexter's fiancée, who has been presented as a lady of the upper class in both the portraying of the narrator, and the eyes of Dexter. Being easy-going, gentle and loyal, naive and kind, Irene is a symbol for the traditional virtues of women. As expressed in *Winter Dreams*, to Dexter, "Irene would be no more than a curtain spread behind him, a hand moving among gleaming tea-cups, a voice calling to children….". Here, Irene perfectly meets the social requirements for her internal side, "the angel-in the house" role she is supposed to play, instead of a living person to be herself; her internal emotional needs completely fade out. Women will get respect, especially respect from men, only when they are playing the supposed traditional of the society. Irene is of course quite popular. Through the narrator, Dexter expresses, "she was so sturdily popular, so intensely 'great'." Irene does her job well. She lives a life as the obedient daughter, the sacrificing lover and will be a gentle mother. Her goal of life is to please her husband, to attend to his every comfort, and to obey him. Through these selfless acts, she finds the utmost contentment by serving her fiancé

Irene Scheerer is silent. Woman, as the object in literary works, has to be silent. They are characterized as symbols either for virtues and kindness, or for desire and evil. For the former, woman, like Terra Mater, reflects the ideal image; the latter, however, like the siren, seduces the seamen to dash into the rocks to death. In effect, in terms of Carl Rung's "archetypal theory", both images personify the female inner personalities that a male possesses. (Lu Yang, 1999) Rung maintains that in the unconscious of the male, there is an archetype, expressed as a female inner personality, called anima. Anima is the totality of the unconscious feminine psychological qualities that a male possesses. It is a symbol for dangerous temptation, embodied by a woman, which has its light and dark sides. Positively speaking, it is a life-giving and creative force. Negatively speaking it may cause petrifaction and physical death. In this sense Irene is the goddess of grace, the light side of anima, whereas Judy is the Circe, an enchanting witch figure, the destructive and self-destroying force.

III. THE IMAGE OF JUDY JONES IN *WINTER DREAMS*

Judy—a seductive Circe

The author spares no effort in depicting the beauty of Judy; he stresses this point quite many times from men's point of view. When Judy was only 11, her beauty already stood out, "…shining through her thin frame in a sort of glow"; at the age of 18, she grew to be stunningly beautiful: "She was arrestingly beautiful. The color in her cheeks was centered like the color in a picture—it was not a 'high' color, but a sort of fluctuating and feverish warmth, so shaded that it seemed at any moment it would recede and disappear." What's more, the story highlights her sensual beauty by lavishing words on her lips and smile: "Not only that, but he was treated to that absurd smile, that preposterous smile—the memory of which at least a dozen men were to carry into middle age… When the scarlet corners of her lips curved down, it was less a smile than an invitation to a kiss." Everything thing, every expression of Judy's is dangerously tempting to man. It is no wonder that Mr. Hedrick defines Judy as an enticing Circe, "'Good-looking!'" cried Mr. Hedrick contemptuously, 'she always looks as if she wanted to be kissed! Turning those big cow-eyes on every calf in town!'"

Alluring in appearance, Judy is none other than a fatal poison to the man. In her style of behavior, she walks away from the passive role tradition of women, actively gives free play to her physical charms, and gets quite many men to lose their mind. She plays with a dozen of rich men and makes them lose their head, and then abandons them. Particularly when Dexter finally loses hope in her and gets engaged with Irene, Judy goes back and snatches him away; but within only one month, she turns her eyes away to other men. Judy follows her heart and behaves as she likes; she employs her feminine charm as the weapon, fully controls her love. In this way, she is definitely a rebel against the social conventions and norms of her time, that is, before and after the First World War.

What's more, Judy breaks the social rules with her own style as "flapper", who chases after individual freedom and enjoys a life of pleasure and speed. "Flapper" is one important symbol of the 1920s — a young woman who discarded corsets, sported bobbed hair, the short skirt, heavy makeup, smoking and drinking, and dancing wildly. Having lost husbands, brothers, and boyfriends in the war, and parents in the influenza epidemic of 1919 to 1920, they exhibited a carefree wildness and independence that represented an entirely new version of the American woman. They had the vote and a strong sense of freedom that encouraged boldness never expressed before. (Robert V Remini, 2008) Flappers represented the youthful rebellion, carefree attitudes, and female independence. By 1921, the longer skirt, which was usually long and uneven at the bottom was out of date. The short skirt became very popular by 1925. The manufacturing of cosmetics was also started from this decade. The powder, the lipstick, the rouge, the eyebrow pencil, the eye shadow, and the colored nails, women had them all. Moreover, sex came to be discussed with a new frankness during the 1920s. Much of the talk was derived from a spreading awareness of Dr. Sigmund Freud. "By sheer force of violence," explained the *New York Times* in 1929, the flapper has "established the feminine right to equal representation in such hitherto masculine fields of endeavor as smoking and drinking, swearing, petting, and upsetting the community peace." (Gorge Brown Tindall, 2007, pp. 977-978)

As a pioneer to "flappers", Judy lives a similarly stunning life besides her dazzling love life: she is a frequent visitor to the golf club, where she competes with the men; she is good at swimming, which did not turn to be popular among middle class of Americans till 1950s; she takes the speed as a source for pleasure, and drives motorboats audaciously; she drives freely around different places; she defies the male classification as the other and claims herself as an existent and significant player in such spheres as sports, clubs, and arena of love, which used to be male-dominating. Accordingly, Judy is portrayed as a formidable woman, aggressive, self-motivated and self-asserted. She casts away all cliché taboos and is held in infamy by custodians of public morals. In the eyes of men it is not surprising that women like Judy are of destructive power.

In truth the story elaborately depicts Judy's "beauty" and the destructive consequences of her "beauty" in a very detailed way. When the "beauty" bursts, like Pandora's box in the Greek mythology, the disasters befall human beings one after another, with no place to hide. To Dexter and many other men, Judy is a beautiful dream, and a horrible nightmare as well. The lad Dexter fell in love with 11-year-old Judy at the first sight at the golf field, and immediately quit the well-paid job as a caddie, to plan his life in order to win the favor and heart of this beauty. This is the start of Dexter dream. At 23, he ascended to the upper class and ran into the even more charming Judy on the tender moonlight. After that, to Dexter, "The helpless ecstasy of losing himself in her was opiate rather than tonic." At the same time, his nightmare unveiled. Judy's passion did not stay stable and she acted quite on impulse; therefore, Dexter suffered a lot and finally went to his downfall. Only when he completely gave up Judy, did he get his new life: he went away to New York, and made his career and fame at 30.

It is safe to conclude that in her maidenhood Judy is a seductive "new woman": tempting young men first and then abandoning them ruthlessly. She represented the attitude about sex for the quite open-minded flappers. She played love as a game, and as the rule-setter, she was up high and of great influence. She was the one to give the demand. When she met with Dexter on the moon night, she spoke first as a commander, since the author used the verb "demand"; at the banquet to cater her lovers, she replaced her father as the host, symbolizing her deprivation the male of their authority; after getting fed up with others, when she met again Dexter at the club, she was still taking the upper hand in their communication. "She turned and he followed her." "She was not a girl who could be 'won' in the kinetic sense… She was entertained only by the gratification of her desires and by the direct exercise of her own charm." It is no exaggeration that Judy the girl is a sexy femme fatale for men to woo and fight for; she was not "owned" by any of

them; instead, she played with them.

Judy—"The angel in the house"

But that does not mean Judy does not want to have the marriage, or, she has to have the marriage. The First World War did a lot of contribution to raising the social status of women, with more new women going out of the family for economic independence; still, a large number of these new women were forced to get into the marriage decided by their parents, especially among the upper class. Judy started playing golf at a quite early age, but she did not grow into a professional player like Jordan Baker in *The Great Gatsby* and became independent financially; instead, she followed the arrangement of her parents, and married a guy who loved her at a suitable moment; after that, she was fully devoted to her family life; unfortunately, under the torturing of her cruel and abusive husband, her beauty faded away surprisingly fast. At that moment, Judy, no longer decisive and licentious, turned to resign herself to her fate. According to the Detroit businessman, Lud Simms fell in love with Judy in a crazy way. The relation between them turned to another direction surprisingly after they got married: Lud Simms abused Judy and racketed about. As a matter of fact, this is exactly the characteristic of the patriarchal society. Simone de Beavior said "humanity is male and man defines woman not in herself but as relative to him" (1986, p. 23). In the patriarchal society marriage for so long has been seen as man's possession of woman (Gao Xiaokang, 1996, pp. 143-144). For the woman, this act of being possessed will ruin her aspiration and creativity since she has to perform her duty as a docile wife and caring mother rather than as a self-assertive significant person in her own right; while for the man, his act of possession will bore him soon, since woman is "used as his extension", "a device for showing him off" (Jane Tompkins, 1989, p. 2). To Lud Simms, he has been subjected to his desires all the time; in a traditional society, man is the conqueror, and woman is only the trophy for his victory, and attachment to life; when he "owned" Judy, he was bored and destined to chase after other women. Judy, though she used to follow her own heart and personality, used to love herself only, and used to pay attention only to her own value and needs, once getting into the marriage, she had to give up herself, change herself from a Circe into "the Angel in the house" (Gao Xiaokang, 1996, p. 155), play the role of a virtuous wife with this marriage-oriented attitude, even at the cost of her individual happiness; she had to destroy the self of her youth time once for all, get accustomed to feeling of belonging brought to her by marriage, focus on the economic security, the internal peace and stillness rather than motion.

At the level of narration, Judy is represented from the male perspective as the Circe first, and the angel later. The story tells about how Judy got love and marriage, with her beauty; and as a matter of fact, it ignores the real needs of women. Many men fell in love with Judy because of her beauty, longed to "own" her and failed to do it. Even for Dexter, Judy is a tempting body, mindless and helpless; when the body was no longer charming, his dream ended forever. When Dexter heard about what happened to Judy later, he murmured to himself, "Long ago," "long ago, there was something in me, but now that thing is gone. Now that thing is gone, that thing is gone. I cannot cry. I cannot care. That thing will come back no more." Others took Judy as a toy, a Circe, which displayed the misogyny to some degree. "The symptom of misogyny in literature is that women's struggle for their own rights is always depicted as horrible disasters, and rebellious women are distorted into dragon ladies, like demons" (Kang Zhengguo, 1994, p. 48). This is well displayed by the relation between Judy and Dexter. Mr. Hedrick refers women as "crazy women", condemning Judy being too voluptuous and outrageous; and even the narrator says that Judy is too unscrupulous in personality.

IV. CONCLUSION

Judy's misfortune, just as Mr. Hedrick commented on the next tee, was doomed in that patriarchal society. "That Judy Jones!" "All she needs is to be turned up and spanked for six months and then to be married off to an old-fashioned cavalry captain." Judy has to get married one day and it indicates that she will be shackled and will be possessed and dominated by her husband. The only thing that Judy can do is to try to postpone this moment. It arouses sympathy of course when Judy was busy crowding through and was open to rumors before getting married and became a devoted wife and mother later. The society says that beautiful women must bear patiently their suffering and accept the fact that they are victims of the circumstances of life. Men have suppressed the female, by not giving voice and value to women's opinions and responses. In a man-dominating society, woman becomes the sacrifice for love due to her subordinate status, and is elevated to a noble mother. Through the narration of Dexter's dream over Judy, Fitzgerald reveals the falseness of American dream of wealth and pleasure in the Jazz Age. Dexter's failure to hold Judy firm predicts to a great extent the end of the American dream.

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Lihua Zhang was born in Shandong, China in 1979. She received her master's degree in linguistics from Xiamen University, China in 2003.

She is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Beijing Institute of Technology, Beijing, China. Her research interests include Applied Linguistics, and American literature.

Liying Cui was born in Hebei, China in 1977. She received her master's degree in translation from Beijing Normal University, China in 2001.

She is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Beijing Institute of Technology, Beijing, China. Her research interests include Applied Linguistics.

The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Learners' Beliefs about Language Learning: Iranian Advanced EFL Learners in Focus

Zahra Ghanadi

English Language Department, Faculty of Foreign Languages, University of Isfahan, Hezarjarib Street., Isfahan, Iran

Saeed Ketabi

English Language Department, Faculty of Foreign Languages, University of Isfahan, Hezarjarib Street., Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—The aim of this study was twofold: (1) to see whether there is any significant relationship between emotional intelligence and learners' beliefs about language learning and (2) to examine whether emotional intelligence can predict learners' beliefs about language learning. The participants of this study were 138 undergraduate EFL learners at two universities in Iran. To this end, two self-reported questionnaires including Trait Emotional Intelligence–short form (TELQue-SF) and Beliefs about Foreign Language Inventory (BALLI) were employed to gather the data. Results revealed that there was a positive and significant relationship between emotional intelligence and learners' beliefs about language learning. Furthermore, emotional intelligence can predict learners' beliefs about language learning. The findings could have some implications for EFL teachers and practionairs.

Index Terms—emotion, emotional intelligence, belief about language learning, EFL, Iranian learners

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the important issues in the realm of education is that to what extent learners' emotions may influence on language learning. Introducing the concept of emotional intelligence is the crucial event in interdisciplinary fields of study especially in the moral education during the last twenty years. Psychologists of education contend that incorporating emotional intelligence (henceforth, EI) is the underlying goal of teaching and learning especially in to the higher education (Cohen, 1999; Vandervoort, 2006). But, there is a lively debate underway within about the effect of integrating emotional intelligence in to academic performance, educational policy and learning environment. Aragao (2011) mentioned that emotions and beliefs, fundamental in life, play an important role in foreign language learning. To date, as of writing this article, no published work has addressed whether emotional intelligence correlates with learners' beliefs about language learning. The major aim of this study is to cover this lacuna by: 1) investigating the relationship between emotional intelligence and learners' beliefs about language learning and also 2) predicting learners' beliefs about language learning by emotional intelligence.

II. EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The concept of emotional intelligence was first put forward by Payne (1986). Then, this concept developed formally by two pioneers in the field of psychology, Salovey and Mayer (1990). Mayer and Salovey (1997) defined emotional intelligence as "the abilities to accurately perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth". Emotions as one of the basic elements of emotional intelligence have an outstanding influence on learners' education. Since the inception of emotional intelligence theory (EI), several models were defined and introduced by (Goleman, 1995; Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Bar-On, 1997). Horward psychologist, Daniel Goleman (1995) defined emotional intelligence as "abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustration; to control impulses and delay gratification; to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swapping the ability to think; to emphasize and to hope" (p.34). Based on this definition, Goleman (1995) created a model that was combined five essential elements: 1) knowing ones emotion, 2) managing emotions, 3) motivating oneself, 4) recognizing emotions in others, 5) handling relationships. The existence of various models of emotional intelligence. Later, Goleman (1998) reformulated his first definition of emotional intelligence and broke down emotional intelligence into twenty-five different emotional competencies, among them political awareness, service orientation, self-confidence, consciousness, and achievement drive (See Pishghadam, 2009).

Sometimes, educators believe that lack of success in both learners' education and life might be due to the academic intelligences which are measured by IQ tests. Zalesne & Nadvorney (2011) defined learner's academic intelligence as "about more than simply cognitive skills; it's akin to culture, including not only cognitive, but also affective and social

skills, all of which contribute to a student' level of success" (p.264). But, Van Der Zee, Thijs & Schakel (2002) declare that academic intelligence seems not sufficient for everyday problem solving. They state that emotional intelligences are better predictor of success in real life and education than academic intelligence. For two decades, there has been growing interest in investigating the concept of emotional intelligence (EI) in different fields of studies such as mental, social and physical health (Extremera & Berrocal, 2006; Martins, Ramalho & Morin, 2010) and task performance (Carmeli & Josman, 2006). Until recently, emotional intelligence has been the main concern of many educational researchers especially in the field of academic success of second language learners (Stottlemayer, 2002; Petride, Frederickson & Furnham, 2004). More published studies in this area have been concerned the importance of emotional intelligence in EFL/ESL context. Pishghadam (2009) explored the pivotal role of emotional intelligence in students' academic scores in reading, listening, writing and reading. His studies revealed that second language learning was strongly associated with several dimension of emotional intelligence. In another research attempt, Shao, Yu and Ji (2013) investigated the relationship between EFL students' emotional intelligence and writing achievement among 68 non-English major freshmen in a university in Hang Zhou. They found that there was a relatively strong positive relationship between EI and writing achievement. But yet, more attention has been required to the ways which foreign language learners' emotional intelligence could be raised. Arnold (1999) considered the importance of affect and emotion in the realm of education for two reasons:

1) Attention to affective dimension can lead to more effective language learning

2) This attention to affective factors can even reach beyond language teaching and even beyond what has traditionally been considered the academic realm.

According to Garette and Young (2009) "Affect and emotion are concepts that have been in the shadows of discussion of classroom foreign language learning, where the primary focus has been on the development of knowledge and use of new language" (p.209).

III. BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING

Conceptualization of learner's beliefs on language learning has been introduced into second language literature by Horwitz (1985, 1987& 1988). Bernat (2008) asserted that "in the SLA field almost two decades of research has revealed how learners' beliefs have the potential to shape their cognitive and affective processes in the classroom and impact on their actions" (p.1). According to Sakui & Gaies (1999), Beliefs are central construct in every discipline which deals with human behavior and learning. Based on the definition of beliefs, Barcelos (2003) classified his studies in to three approaches:

The first category of this approach denotes to "Normative Approaches". The normative approach refers to ''beliefs about SLA as indicators of students' future behavior as autonomous or good learners". The type of data collection in this approach entails using Likert- type questionnaires ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). One of long-establishes questionnaire to explore beliefs is Horwitz's (1985) beliefs about language learning inventory (henceforth, BALLI). Since then, many researchers employed and modify this self-report questionnaire in their studies (Yang, 1992; Mantle-Bromley, 1995). The next approach refers to "Metacognitive Knowledge". Wenden (1987) defined metacognitive knowledge as "the stable, sometimes incorrect knowledge that learners acquired about language learning and language learning process" (p.163). According to Wenden (1999) the concept of beliefs in this category is different from knowledge. The methodologies used in the approach encompass both semi-structure interview and self-report questionnaires. The third and the more recent approach is called "Contextual Approach". The aim of this approach is to get a better understanding of learners' beliefs in specific contexts. Different methods have been adopted including ethnographic classroom observations, diaries and narratives (See Barocel, 2003).

The importance of studying learners' beliefs towards language learning has recently been drew attention of many researchers (Simon & Taverniers, 2011; Yoshiba, 2013; Fisher, 2013). Miccoli (1997, 2000) maintained that "avoiding speaking in class is because of learners' fear of criticism of other classmates along with conceiving the class as a judgmental environment" (Cited in Aragao, 2011, p, 304). These behaviors may be due to learners' beliefs which are influenced by their emotions in learning environment.

Most of the research studies addressed the importance of learners' beliefs in relationship with other variables. Yang (1999) conducted study on 500 Taiwanese learners to investigate the relationship between EFL learners' beliefs about language learning and their use of learning strategies. He found that learners' self-efficacy beliefs about learning English were strongly related to their use of all types of learning strategies. Cheng (2001) explored the relationship between learners' beliefs and language anxiety among 167 EFL students at one university in Taiwan. He found that there was a significant and positive relationship between learners' beliefs and their level of anxiety. Hung and Tasi (2003) investigated the relationship between learners' beliefs and their proficiency level among 89 Taiwance high school students. Their study revealed that high proficiency learners had more positive language learning beliefs than low proficiency learners. In another study, Li and Liang (2012) examined the relationship between EFL learners' beliefs about language learning in and proficiency in a Chinese context. They found that such relationship was existed among these two variables. Despite of the host of findings regarding how to enhance learners' beliefs towards language learning, relatively little attention has been paid to the effect of emotion on learners' beliefs. So, this study aimed to shed more light to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and learners' beliefs about language learning.

IV. THE PURPOSE AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The primary purpose of this study was aimed at investigating whether there is any significant relationship between emotional intelligence and EFL learners' beliefs about language learning. The current study attempts to explore the effect of emotional intelligence in relationship with learners' beliefs about language learning and to examine whether emotional intelligence is the predictor of learners' beliefs bout language learning.

Based on the purpose mentioned above, the following research questions will be addresses in this study:

1. Is there a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and learners' beliefs about language learning?
2. Can emotional intelligence predict learners' beliefs about language learning?

V. METHOD

A. Participants

A total number of 138 senior EFL learners participated in this study, comprised of 92 females and 46 males between the age of 20 and 26. All of the participants were university learners majoring in English language literature and translation. They were all Persian native speakers and have not yet been to an English speaking country.

B. Instruments

Considering the objective of the study, a number of instruments were prepared and used. We described and delineated these two self-report questionnaires in the following order:

1. Beliefs about Foreign Language Learning Inventory (BALL)

In this study Horwitz's (1987) beliefs about language learning inventory was administrated to investigate foreign language learners' beliefs on language learning. This questionnaire contains thirty- four items in five main areas: Difficulty of language learning (six items), Foreign language aptitude (nine items), Nature of language learning (six items), Learning and communication strategies (eight items), Motivation and expectation (five items). The Likert Scale items will use a scale ranging from 1(strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). This questionnaire had an index reliability of Cronbach's Alpha =.69

2. Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire–Short Form (TEIQue-SF)

According to Petrides and Furnham (2001, 2003), there are two types of emotional intelligence constructs, i.e., trait EI and ability EI. Trait emotional intelligence requires the use of self report questionnaires and relates to the realm of personality. Ability emotional intelligence is measured through maximum performance tests and pertains to the realm of cognitive ability. This 30-item self-report scale, developed by Petride and Fernham (2006), was designed to measure global trait emotional intelligence (trait EI). It is based on TELQue full form (Petride & Fernham, 2003). Sample items include "I often pause and think about my feelings", "I tend to change my mind frequently", and "I am usually able to find ways to control my emotion when I want to". Respondents rate themselves on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 'Completely Disagree' (number 1) to 'Completely Agree' (number7). The internal consistency reliability of the test was found to be high Cronbach's Alpha = 0.88.

VI. PROCEDURE

This study used correlational design and was conducted in two universities in Iran, University of Isfahan and Razi University. A total number of 138 EFL learners were randomly selected to participate in this study. A revised and translated Persian of two self-report questionnaires including Trait Emotional Intelligence–short form (TELQue-SF) and Beliefs about Foreign Language Inventory (BALLI) were employed. We explained the purpose of the study to all participants and assured them that their data would be confidential. It took participants approximately 30 minutes to complete questionnaires. To investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and learners' beliefs about language learning, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used. To further identify whether emotional intelligence can predict learners' beliefs about language learning, Linear Regression was run. All statistical analyses in this study were submitted directly to SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Science) version 21.

VII. RESULTS

To report quantitative data of this study, including Emotional intelligence and learners' beliefs about language learning, both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the data (See, Table 1). Before addressing the research questions, we make sure the normality of distribution with the Kolmogoro-Smironov test.

TABLE 7.1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTIC OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING

Research Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Sig
Emotional	138	4.04	0.599	0.306
Learne' beliefs about language learning	138	4.13	0.587	0.418

The first research question of this study concerned whether there was a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and learners' beliefs about language learning. To answer this question, Pearson Product Moment Correlation was conducted on EI and learners' beliefs scores. As revealed in Table 2, there was a significant and positive relationship between EI and learners' belief about language learning ($P < 0.05$).

TABLE 7.2
CORRELATION BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LEARNERS' BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING

N	Pearson Correlation	Significance(two tailed)
138	.854**	0.00

**Shows the existence of the significant relationship at the level of 0.05

To address the second research question of this study, linear regressions was run to find whether emotional intelligence can predict learners' beliefs about language learning. As reported in table 3, emotional intelligence can predict learners' beliefs about language learning.

TABLE 7.3
PREDICTION OF LEARNERS' BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING BY EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

R	R^2	F	Sig	B
0.854	0.729	356.98	0.000	0.874

As revealed in table 3, emotional intelligence can predict approximately 0.73 of variance in learners' beliefs about language learning ($R^2 = 0.729$, Sig= 0.00).

VIII. CONCLUSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Based on the first and second research question of this study, interestingly enough, emotional intelligence yields positive and significant relationships with learners' beliefs about language learning. Furthermore, emotional intelligence can predict learners' beliefs about language learning. The positive relationship between emotional intelligence and learners' beliefs about language learning in this study also lends support to the findings by Mayer & turner (2002) who found that emotions are intertwined in teachers' instructional responses and students' beliefs and action. According to Ellis (2008), learners hold beliefs not just about the cognitive aspects of language and language learning but also about affective aspect. Besides, knowing one's emotion and motivating oneself in Goleman's (1995) EI model facilitate learners' beliefs about language learning. In this study a question may arise as how does emotional intelligence play a fundamental role on beliefs of EFL learners towards language learning. This question may be acknowledged if one ponder over at least two crucial issues: 1) in keeping with those reported by Aragao (2011), learners' emotions including worry, shyness, lack of self-confidence and fear may affect their beliefs towards language learning. Making aware of one's and others' emotions helps learners to cope with emotional obstacle that may influence on learners' beliefs towards language learning, and 2) with regard to EFL learners' beliefs, we grasp the fact that changes in learners' emotions can both promote and impede learners' beliefs towards language learning. Considering emotional aspects of language learning and teaching help teachers understand and manage learners' emotional intelligence and provide opportunity for EFL learners to foster positive beliefs towards language learning and remove emotional obstacles that make learners having negative beliefs towards language and learning environment. The findings of this study are in line with those reported by Mendez López (2011) who reported that "supporting students' emotions in language learning classroom can help learners to cope with feeling inherent to language learning experiences and to the development of a positive attitude towards themselves language learners" (p.44). .So, one of paramount dilemma in realm of education is that to what extent affective factors influence learner's beliefs towards language learning. Broadly speaking, understanding and recognizing one's and others' emotions enable both instructor and learner come down to the importance of applying emotional intelligence program in increasing learners' beliefs about language learning.

The information gathered by this study will likely help instructors better understand the interplay of emotional intelligence and learner's beliefs about language learning. The result of this study may provide the educators with a better understanding of the influence of emotional intelligence on the learners' beliefs about language learning. Furthermore, this study will also indicate that emotional intelligence has outstanding potential as a mediator of learners' positive beliefs about language learning. The findings of his study may suggest that instructors need to be aware of learners' beliefs about language learning. Making aware of learners' beliefs helps teachers and instructors to promote positive beliefs and also come down the negative beliefs of EFL learners that inhibit learning. Teachers can help learners feel comfortable speaking in the classroom with other classmate by providing them positive feedback and non-threatening environment.

IX. LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

Some limitations of the study must be acknowledged. Firstly, this study doesn't take age and gender in to account, more studies are called to generalize the result across different variables like age and gender. Secondly, this study doesn't take in to account a large sample of EFL learners. To select a large sample size, we could yield reasonable

results than they are now. Thirdly, this study only examines the relationship between emotional intelligence, learners' beliefs about language learning and it doesn't indicate the causality between aforementioned variables. Finally, this study employed self-report questionnaires to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and learners' beliefs about language learning. Further study can be conducted to use different data collection methods such as classroom observation, video tape recording, and checklist to explore such relationship.

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Zahra Ghanadi is an MA student in Applied linguistics at the University of Isfahan, Iran. Her interest includes second language acquisition and cognitive aspect of language and learning.

Saeed Ketabi has a PhD in Applied linguistics from University of Cambridge, England and is currently teaching ELT courses at the University of Isfahan, Iran. His research interests include English teaching methodology and material development.

Peer Teachers' Online Learning Community for Diversified College English Teaching Research: Cooperation and Contribution

Li Wei
Liaoning Police Academy, Dalian, China

Abstract—Network English teaching research has attracted the attention of many college English teachers who are keen on the application of information technology and the seamless communication between teaching and learning participants since network technology was applied into foreign language teaching. The article introduces an online learning community titled Sharing & Improving among inter-college English teachers and excellent college students with the main focus on creating a communicative platform to discuss the hot issues concerning English education, and to explore those English teaching and learning problems troubling teachers and students. This is a platform advocating the equal and open dialogue between community members regardless of experts, teachers, and students. This is also a diversified and interactive stage promoting multi-dimension assessment mechanism in college English writing and multi-level discussion mechanism in English teaching research. After 6-month-research, this online learning community not only fulfils software of Four-dimension College English Writing Assessment Models, but also conducts a series of academic discussions concerning English teaching prospects and strategies. Those college students become very sensitive to English through constant training in English communication and discussion, thus promoting their comprehensive development in English skills. Ultimately, all the community members realize their initial goal to achieve the common progress in humanistic qualities by means of experiential and interactive learning in English.

Index Terms—peer teacher, online learning community, college English teaching and research

I. INTRODUCTION

Confronted with the problems caused by the college English teaching reforms, the front-line English teachers often run across many puzzles, reflecting on their regular teaching practice at the same time. As more and more information technology entering into our foreign language teaching and research, English teachers commence to explore the principles and practice of the network teaching and research. The Chinese internet has been swept by a "Blog whirlwind" since 2006, hence a lot of well-known education blogs and resources websites came into the sights of teacher's community. Some English teachers made full use of this latest network platform to share their own teaching plans, videos, software, and even reflections, which became a popular way of sharing in individual research achievements. With the wide use and recognition of the network teaching and research, a vast majority of English teachers engage in network teaching through setting up online learning community to construct a new world of personal voice cyberspace on their own.

At the moment, many experts and scholars turn their attentions to this new pattern of teaching research, drawing a timely conclusion on its rules, methods, patterns as well as strategies. For instance, they tend to believe that the traditional teaching activities are confined to the space range and the financial support leading to the limited number of participants and face-to-face instruction featured by entering into the spot and conducting collective instilment. Fortunately, the network teaching research has the great advantages over the traditional one with such characteristics as low participation costs, wide range of participants, abundant resource sources, higher-leveled sharing, and flexible organizational patterns. Under such online learning community on the basis of learning interests, teaching subjects and common goals, the community members can convey their own voices and strong desires for sharing experiences and improve themselves accordingly. (Gong, 2008) Till now, there have been three kinds of network teaching research including self-reflection based on blog, cooperative research based on forum, and resources sharing and editing based on subject resources websites. (Li, 2007) For any kind of research pattern, it always demonstrates the following features: the teacher basis, peer cooperation, and major guidance. Up to now, the space to meet the needs of network teaching researchers has been set up, hence the network teaching research turned from the initial stage of platform construction to the critical stage of exploring the operational mechanism. This article focuses on the diversified operation mechanism of an online learning community for inter-college English teachers by means of various forms and perspectives of demonstration and performance of peer teacher's interactions, discussions and presentations through on-the-spot network teaching research.

II. THEORETICAL EXPLORATION OF DIVERSIFIED TEACHING CONCEPT AND PEER TEACHERS' ONLINE LEARNING
COMMUNITY

A. The Analysis of Diversified Teaching Concept and Its Significance

The concept diversification is a comprehensive one which can describe the diversified characteristic of any creatures in the world. Diversification is a kind of objective existence. Any creature living in the world is existed as an objective subject regardless of genetic diversification in biology, cultural diversification in social lives, or students' individuality and learning environment diversification in education. (Ren, 2010) Diversification is an ultimate goal put forward by education field. In ancient times in China, some educators advanced the basic educational principle of teaching according to different talents which emphasized that the teachers should teacher the students in different ways in accordance with their practical conditions and individual differences. This traditional teaching principle can match with diversified teaching concept of today. But due to the present teaching system, the enlarged number of classmates and the limited teaching resources, to perform diversified teaching is nothing more than a beautiful teaching ideal. If fact, diversified teaching is the highest goal in our education, and at the same time, it's a practical concept which refers to the curriculum practice and development. The ultimate goal of our education reform is to increase teaching efficiency and teaching quality, contributing to the students' all-round development. Only adopting diversified teaching methods, teaching materials, teaching objectives, and teaching organizations can our education system adjust to the force of international competitions and the requirements of different learners. As the network teaching research, online learning community members have to practice the diversified teaching concept through setting up a complete network teaching research community in the form of diversified and cooperative teaching coordination. They can conduct multi-perspective teaching discussion, teaching practice, and teaching reflection among all the community members by means of service mechanism, cooperative pattern, assessment and encouragement mechanism.

B. The Analysis of Peer Teacher's Concept and Its Cooperative Learning Functions

Peer, in Chinese dictionary, means fellows of the same generation with the similar age, status and interests. Peer teachers refer to the teachers with the same major, subject background, and inclinations without limitations of age, status and identity. Here, on one hand, the connotation of peer is extended to that of colleague which reflects that they can help each other holding the common faith persistently, and on the other hand, the peer relation breaks through the serious restriction which make peer relation have the nature of colleague relation and inter-college teacher relation. In view of this tendency, it is believed that peer teachers' teaching and learning can help create a relative easy atmosphere to make professional dialogues with feedbacks and reflections. Peer teachers can interact with each other in a more free and natural way to find a commonly-interested topic which improves their learning motives and self-confidence, developing their critical thinking abilities to resolve the problems, and their responsible efforts to fulfill learning tasks. (Tsuei, 2011) From Topping's points of view, there are five interactive types of peer teacher's learning: peer tutoring, peer modeling, peer monitoring, peer assessment, and peer counseling as well. (Topping, 2001)

C. The Organization of Inter-college Online Learning Community and Its Distant Cooperation

An organization has to possess the particular members, amount, sphere, structure, rules and values. (Chang, 2005) Wenger, as the first person to invent practical community, upholds that the practical community requires that the organizing form acknowledges the significance of passion, relation, and volunteer activities. The core concept of inter-college online learning community is to make more and more members to participate into the learning and developing process of online learning community willingly. In general, inter-college online learning community is composed of inter-college teachers, learning assistants, students, and experts. These community members have the common ideals and the same learning objectives because of inter-college curriculum cooperation and teaching exploration. Teachers are the main organizers to initiate inter-college cooperation; they usually have three functions: to design and organize the students to learn before constructing the online learning community and in the process of its operation; to design and promote dialogues among all the community members including students, teachers, and experts as well; to conduct various learning guidance. (Anderson & Elloumi, 2013) Telementoring is the nature of online learning community. Under this kind of leaning pattern, the experienced guide and young beginners share relative knowledge and skills in order to help beginners achieve their learning goals or improve their learning abilities. (Wang, 2003) In the process of inter-college cooperation, teachers' covert and overt teaching experiences and professional knowledge are highly shared by community members from various colleges so as to inspire and promote peer teachers' intelligence which not only contributes to the multiple and complementary elements in inter-college cooperative teaching, but also constitutes the key point to construct inter-college peer teachers' learning team.

III. ORGANIZATIONAL STRATEGIES AND APPLICATION OF INTER-COLLEGE COLLABORATIVE ONLINE LEARNING
COMMUNITY FOR COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

A. The Logic and Organizational Strategies of Inter-college Online Learning Community

In the perspective of differentiated cooperation, the logic of inter-college cooperation is the individual differentiation among different colleges. The most direct approach to realize individual development and create educational speciality is to conduct multiple teaching practice and exploration. This kind of approach is typical of diversity in teaching objectives, curriculum, resources, teaching activities and assessment as well. The front-line teachers is the main body who design their own teaching methods and strategies on the basis of mutual learning and assessment, reflection on others' experiences and specialities in order to achieve the success in training the talents with diverse abilities. Admittedly, network teaching research mechanism provides a platform for sharing resources and experiences. What's more, teachers from various regions can learn a lot and get revelation from other teachers' achievements, and thus, they can design unique teaching plans out of their own thinking and teaching experiences.

Online learning community members should be driven by the common ideals to construct an inter-college cooperative mechanism. To have the general recognition among members is the fundamental element to collect the group power. At the same time, the coordinator management mechanism should be used to permit the existence of different cultures, organizations and interests deriving from different colleges. The coordinator is responsible for developing the core members in the community through a period of observation and interaction. To search for the suitable cooperative fellows and develop multi-levelled inter-college virtual team is the second task of coordinator. There are three types of virtual inter-college teams including students' inter-college cooperative team focusing on research study or comprehensive project development; theme-based inter-college cooperative team focusing on theoretical research or case study; whole class inter-college cooperative team focusing on network communication instead of task assignment. (Li, 2013)

B. The Organizational Design of Inter-college Collaborative Online Learning Community

The author launched a proposal to set up an online leanring community among college English teachers with its main component coming from Liaoning Police Academy in October, 2013.This online learning community is entitled with Sharing & Improving underlining resources sharing in English study and keep improving in inquiring spirits. It is composed of three organizaitonal elements: the organization of community members, the setting of ideals and objectives, and the operation of coordinator mechanism. In order to embody the features of inter-college collabration and equal dialogue among teachers and students, the author specially invited 7 outstanding college English teachers and 36 excellent college students from 7 universities and colleges to join this online learning community. These universities include Liaoning Normal University, Nanjing Normal University, Bohai University, Liaoning Engineering and Technology University, Chuxiong Normal University, Dalian Mediacal University, and Liaoning Police Academy. At the same time, the community has set up definite ideals and objectives which include fufilling inter-college English teaching collabration and exchanges through network interaction about English teaching approaches, effects and assessments, realizing inter-college students' mutual studying and simulating through reading others' online products, discussing English learning techniques, and resolving English problems together, and promoting the common improvement in humanistic qualities among all the community members. In the process of iner-college cooperation, teacher coordinators mainly finish the following tasks: to design inter-college cooperative projects; to guide the students in their universities to conduct iner-college distant collaboration; to take part in mentoring inter-college coorpration. Student coordinators usually take charge of inter-college students' interactive activities which include making arrangements for regular interactive topics, schedules of regular activities, and resolving the communicative problems. Figure 2 presents us the framework of organizational design of inter-college collaborative online leanring community.
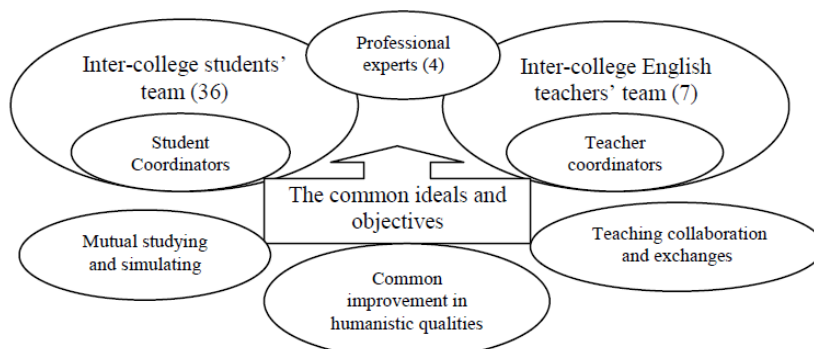
Figure 1: The organizational design of inter-college collaborative online learning community.

C. The Deversified Operational Mechanism of Inter-college Collaborative Online Learning Community

Construction of diversified assessment mechanism in college English writing: In Sharing & Improving, there are four-leveled writing assessments: self-assessment, peer assessment, teacher's assessment, public assessment. All the student members upload their compositions after self-assessment and peer assessment to the group sharing, English teachers in community will give very serious and cautious assessment and revision. Till now, the group sharing has

stored fifty excellent compositions. Figure 2 is the screenshot of these uploaded compositions in group sharing and in chat room.
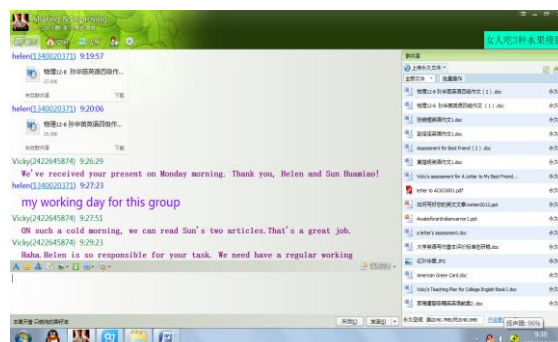
Figure 2: English teacher Helen is uploading two assessed compositions by her to the group sharing.

The following is the assessment model made by the author, the group leader Vicky. This letter is written by one of his students, a freshman majoring in criminal science technology. After his self-assessment and peer assessment, Han Gang uploaded his writing to group sharing for his English teacher's assessment.

A Letter to My Best Friend

Written by Han Gang,   Assessed by Vicky

(Criminal Science Technology Department, Class 2 Grade 2013)

Dear Ma,

How is going?

Although we often keep up correspondence, I still miss you very much. One day, *(when)* I watched TV at home, *(;)* suddenly I saw the TV play is old *(I saw an old TV play). (, which)* It *(it can be replaced by which)* reminded me of the time with you. At that time, we were young.

(Comment: to use the greetings as the beginning of the letter is very common, but you'd better use how everything is, or how you are doing to replace your "how is going". Besides, the second paragraph can be combined with the greeting to make the first paragraph rich and complete. It's a good attempt to use a TV play to introduce the beautiful time you spent with your best friend.)

When we were children, we played games together every day, and it remained *(left)* us wonderful *(memories of)* childhood *(or it remained in our cherished childhood memories)*. The beautiful memory *(Those beautiful memories)* reawakes (reawake) in my mind every now and then. *(This is a good sentence using reawake and every now and then.)*

(Comment: this short paragraph can be regarded as a transitional paragraph leading to the main part of this letter.)

Time goes by, *(;)* we both grow up. *(Today)* You and me *(I)* have *(our)* dreams to come true, So *(so)* we are *(have to)* struggle at *(for)* our career.

(Comment: this is a faulty part. There are many errors in this paragraph including punctuation mark and the usage of the pronoun, the capitalized word and the preposition as well. The last sentence is a wrong one. What's more, this paragraph doesn't have close connection with the previous one. You'd better recall the beautiful times you spent with your friend instead of using this sentence without detailed descriptions about your friendship. This sentence can be put in the latter part.)

Do you remember those things *(beautiful or funny days)* the *(that)* we had spended *(spent)*? Aha, you copy *(copied)* my homework all the way because you aren't *(weren't)* much of a hand at doing homework. Beside(s) I said that there is a will, there is a way. *(This sentence hasn't step-up relationship with the previous one, so it should be changed or deleted. You can change it to "But I always encouraged him to work hard at his school work by telling him that there is a will, there is a way.)* When we had done homework *(After finishing our homework)*, we hung out *(on)* the same corner, or I rode bike and you settled into the back seat *(to see the sunset together).* What's more, we climbed the trees to pull out the bird's nest *(to take eggs from the bird's nest)*, or went to a river to catch frogs. Every time *(we spent together),* we both had a good time *(a great ball)*. Now, *(come to think of it)*, I think of (delete) it's really exciting, *(such an unforgettable memory.)* and it's a fine memory (delete it).

(Comment: This paragraph is the main body of this letter which describes the good old days these two friends spent together in a very vivid way. It tells us his friend is a little lazy copying his pal's homework. Both of them are very naughty and lovely who take eggs from the nest and catch frogs. In a word, they have wonderful childhood with two friends helping each other and enjoying their favorite hobbies. But you'd better avoid some errors in verb tense and logical relationship between two sentences. Besides, you should try to use some beautiful words and sentence structures to brighten your essay.)

Last but not least, I only *(do)* hope that we don't *(won't)* lose touch *(with)* each other. Best wish *(es)* to you--------my old neighborhood *(pal).* Please keeping *(keep or stay) (yourself)* healthy *(and happiness)* in the distance.

(Comment: This is the closing remark for this letter. You express your hope to keep in touch with each other and good wishes to keep healthy. Good job! Here, you have to pay attention to some minor mistakes, and you'd better add some expressions to bring about your friend's emotional response.)

Take care.

Yours,

Han Gang

The final comment: The article can keep to the subject of Best Friend expressing the deep love that the author has for his best friend; the content is intact but not very rich; the expression of ideas is relatively clear in setting out his points of views and arguments; the language performance is basically correct but with some grammatical and spelling errors; the structure of the article is basically reasonable with clear levels and coherent meanings, but some coherence isn't very natural; the writing of this article is rather standard in format and number of words which achieves the communicative purposes. The final score is 78 (the full score is 100).

Construction of diversified communication and discussion mechanism in English teaching research: Sharing & Improving is an equal platform for communication and discussion regardless of teachers and students. The students' voices are paid great attention in this learning community because they determine the ultimate effects and directions of English teaching. Without student's participation and voices, the English teaching research will be meaningless and ineffective. In Sharing & Improving, the fundamental principle is that every community member is equal in communication and discussion with anonymous English names so that there is no differentiation between teacher and student. And they can communicate with each other equally and actively concerning educational issues or English learning and development problems. Figure 3 and Figure 4 display the real experiences of this communication. And the detailed recordings of each communication from QQ information come as follows. In this learning community, the concept of equality and democracy has been interpreted totally and vividly.
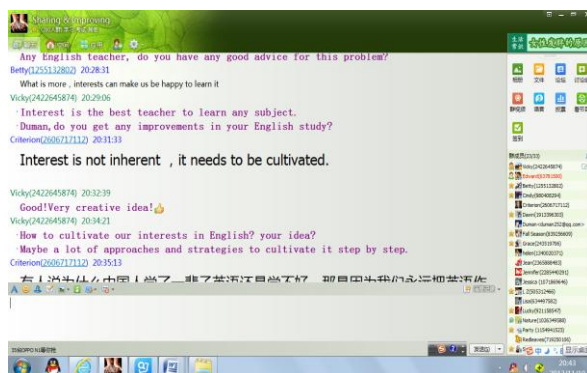
Figure 3: The group leader Vicky is discussing the issue of how to cultivate the students' interest in English learning with student members Criterion and Betty equally

2013-11-19

Vicky (2422645874) 20:19:07

Now Let's discuss a hot issue: How to maintain the students' passion for English learning if without CET4 or CET6? I'm looking forward to your unique points of views or suggestions.

Criterion(2606717112) 20:19:57

good topic

Betty(1255132802) 20:22:29(a freshman)

Teacher,l like studying English from the bottom of heart,because l think it is relaxing to study in your teaching manner.

Vicky (2422645874) 20:23:42

First of all,we should unify our understanding that the goal of learning English is not to pass any kind of exam including TOEFL, GRE,CET4 and CET6.

Yeah, I agree with your point of view. To learn something out of your interests and passion can make you learn effectively and easily.

Vicky (2422645874) 20:25:45

Only by this active way of learning can you learn it with great efforts, and of course, with great benefits.

Vicky (2422645874) 20:27:31

Any English teacher, do you have any good advice for this problem?

Betty (1255132802) 20:28:31

What is more, interests can make us happy to learn it

Vicky (2422645874) 20:29:06

Interest is the best teacher to learn any subject.

Duman (a minority junior), do you get any improvements in your English study?

Criterion (2606717112) 20:31:33(a junior)

Interest is not inherent，it needs to be cultivated.

Vicky (2422645874) 20:32:39

Good! Very creative idea!👍

Vicky (2422645874) 20:34:21

How to cultivate our interests in English? Your idea?

Maybe there are a lot of approaches and strategies to cultivate it step by step.

Figure 4: The group leader Vicky is discussing with Helen, an English teacher in Bohai University
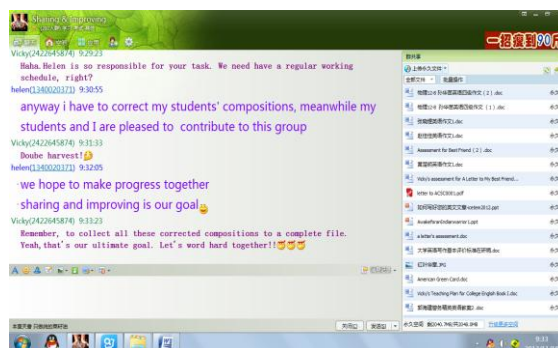on the issue of how to inspire students' desire for English in big class more than 60 students.

2013-10-24

Vicky (2422645874) 13:55:18

The establishment of this group not only aims to hold routine English teaching activities and carry on English teaching research, but also lends those students passing CET4, CET6, or postgraduate entrance exam a good hand to fulfil the task of deep-levelled learning.🤷

Vicky (2422645874) 14:21:02

English teaching and learning is an interactive process, teaching can be inspired by learner's desires and questions, and learning can be encouraged and improved by teaching.

Jean(2365888483) 17:34:28 (an English teacher in Liaoning Police Academy majoring in English Literature)
Iagree with you.I'm encouraged and improved by my teaching now,especially for my writing.I enjoy it very much.By the way,thank you very much for your precious advice!

Helen (1340020371) 19:45:50

I'm not teaching the English major. We hardly have any discussion in class. Firstly, the class is so big, at least 60.

Secondly, students are reluctant to speak English although I ask them in English. Thirdly, in order to pass the CET4/6, students have to learn English in the way it is examined.In a word, it is really a headache for me to inspire the students to SPEAK!

Vicky (2422645874) 19:54:12

Helen, I can understand your difficult condition! Anyway, don't be in despair! If you have some class with no more than 40 students someday in the future, you'll display your talent to inspire your students to speak English, to put forward their points of views in English very actively. But for 60 students, it's really a problem. How to improve students' speaking skills in such a big class; this is a good question to probe into. Give us solutions, my dear colleagues!🙄

Vicky (2422645874) 20:00:30

How to inspire your students to speak English in a big class more than 60 students?

This is our first topic to discuss, and anybody in this group can contribute your creative ideas!

2013-10-25

Jessica (1071869646) 9:25:59

As to this question ,you can change the mind that a small class has a perfect listening and study atmosphere,and teach them in a big class, let them sit alone aiming to divert the students' attention and make them relaxed.

Helen (1340020371) 9:29:27

Thank you. Sit alone? You mean sit separately?

Helen (1340020371) 9:29:36

No partner?

Jessica (1071869646) 9:29:55

Yes.

Helen (1340020371) 9:32:10

Oh, perhaps it won't work because of the seating capacity of the classroom.

Jessica (1071869646) 9:32:32
They can't communicate.
Helen (1340020371) 9:33:09
The students prefer to communicate on their phones.
Helen (1340020371) 9:33:35
It can be applied to some students.
Jessica (1071869646) 9:34:36
You can build a micro message.
Helen (1340020371) 9:34:40
There are always a few who choose to sit by themselves
Jessica (1071869646) 9:38:02
Speak more and they have confidence
Vicky (2422645874) 9:38:38
Jessica is good at English learning. Sit with partner or sit alone, it doesn't influence her attention to English teaching. But for those with lower interests in English, they should have a better learning atmosphere. They can have a partner who loves English very much to give them positive influence. Am I right?
Helen (1340020371) 9:39:37
Our teaching aim?
Helen (1340020371) 9:39:53
Pass the tests or improve oral English? Or simply arouse the students' interests?
Helen (1340020371) 9:40:34
The measurements?
Vicky (2422645874) 9:42:45
Learning interests is the premise to learn well.
And teaching aim of English is to develop students' English skills in five areas. Not only to pass CET or oral English tests only.
Jessica (1071869646) 9:44:41
I cannot agree more.
Helen (1340020371) 9:44:58
Aims, means, how to measure your experiment, the CET?
Vicky (2422645874) 9:45:36
Oral English is one part of English output, which is to display how they can speak English freely and correctly.
They also have to improve their listening, reading, and writing abilities. But all these abilities' further development should be based on initial interest in English and abundant training programs.

IV. Conclusions

Network English teaching and research, as a new type of research approach, has become a mega trend among college English teachers. The author and her project team members depend on network platform and cloud computing technology to conduct a series of English teaching researches into educational issues, English teaching strategies, English learning problems, and hot issues as well. They create Sharing & Improving, an equal and active online learning community, to realize the general goal of promoting common improvement in humanistic qualities among inter-college English peer teachers and excellent college students. The basic principle of this learning community is equality and open dialogue between teachers and students who can discuss any problem concerning English and education freely and equally. The basic operational mechanism is diversified cooperation and contribution which mainly include diversified assessment mechanism in college English writing, and diversified communication and discussion mechanism in English teaching research. The results of this research prove that network English teaching research can obtain the great harvest through collaborative interactions among inter-college English teachers and college students who engage in communication with other members to explore the answers of the latest English teaching and learning problems, establishing constant and stable interactive mechanism to promote the in-depth development of English teaching research.

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Li Wei, born in Feb. 1972 in Liaoyang, China. BA of English, Liaoning Normal University, 1993, Master of English, Liaoning Normal University, 2007. She is a professor in Liaoning Police Academy, the author of one EI indexed paper. She has published more than 40 papers in Chinese academic journals including World Ethno-national Studies, Shandong Social Sciences, Social Sciences in Xinjiang, Academy, and 20 English papers published in international journals and international conference proceedings. Her concentration centers around the Multicultural education, the Canadian Studies and network assisted Foreign Language Teaching.

Professor Wei is a candidate for the Police Liaison Officers of the Public Security Ministry of China.

The Impact of Recast versus Prompts on the Grammatical Accuracy of Iranian EFL Learners' Speech

Azar Hosseini Fatemi

English Department, Faculty of Letters and Humanities, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran

Nazar Ali Harati (Corresponding author)

English Department, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, International Branch, Mashhad, Iran

Abstract—This quasi–experimental study, conducted in English–as–a–foreign–language (EFL) classrooms at the university level in Iran, is aimed at investigating whether corrective feedback (CF) could enhance grammatical accuracy in the learners' speech; and if it could, which type of CF is more effective than the other one. The 96 participants of the study, who were selected out of 169 freshmen students on the basis of a written pretest, took a picture description test the results of which were the criterion for their random divisions into three homogeneous groups. Whenever language learners in two experimental groups made any grammatical errors during the study, consistent CF, recast for one group and prompts for the other one, was provided for them and students in the third group, who functioned as the control group, received no CF for their morphosyntactic errors. Analysis of the results in the posttest revealed significant differences between the two CF groups and the control group on the one hand and between the recast and the prompts groups on the other hand. These results suggested that though the provision of two CF types significantly increased accuracy in the use of present forms of the verb 'to be' and the syntactic agreement associated with '–s inflection', the remarkable outperformance of students in the prompts group over the other two groups indicated the relative efficacy of this type of CF.

Index Terms—focus on form, recast, prompts, grammatical accuracy

I. INTRODUCTION

CF, defined as "the feedback that learners receive on the linguistic errors they make in their oral or written production in a second language (L2)", has fascinated scholars, researchers and language teachers in recent years because of its "significance for the development of theories of L2 acquisition" and the important role it plays "in L2 pedagogy" (Sheen and Ellis, 2011, p. 593). The growing attention to CF emanates from the theoretical turning points that took place within L2 pedagogy in 1980s when Krashen's (1982) Input Hypothesis, with the assumption that the provision of comprehensible input in an affectively non–threatening environment would make language acquisition inevitable, convinced some advocates of communicative approach to recommend that language teachers should say farewell to what Long (1991) termed focus–on–forms (FonFs) in their classrooms. Besides, CF was also deemed to be unnecessary both in strong and weak version of this Hypothesis (VanPatten and Benati, 2010). However, the implementation of Krashen's ideas in Canadian immersion programs were not very satisfactory and studies revealed that language learners' productive skills, after years of receiving sufficient comprehensible input, were not comparable to those of native speakers in terms of accuracy (Harley & Swain, 1984; Lightbown and Spada, 1990). Therefore, the widespread outcry 'against comprehensible input' (White, 1987; McLaughlin, 1987) culminated in the emergence of some theoretical and pedagogical remedies in which CF lends a helping hand, namely Long's (1983, 1996) Interaction Hypothesis, Swain's (1985) Output Hypothesis and Schmidt's (1990) Noticing Hypothesis as well as form–focused instruction (FFI) (Lightbown and Spada, 1990; Long, 1991).

Long's (1991) distinction between focus–on–form (FonF) instruction, which "overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication" (pp. 45–6), and the traditional FonFs instruction, which "always entails isolation or extraction of linguistic features from context or from communicative activity" (Doughty & Williams, 1998, p. 3) seemed convincing enough for a number of scholars, researchers and practitioners to jump on the bandwagon of FFI to put an end to form–meaning imbalances in learners' outputs within communicative approach since it was considered to enable a language learner to (1) notice "a form/word for the first time in the input, potentially leading to a conversion to intake", (2) notice "that an IL [Interlanguage] form is at odds with the TL [target language] input ("the gap"), leading to destabilization of that form", and/"or" (3) incorporate "a new form into the developing IL" (Williams, 2005, p. 686). Hence, CF, as a reactive approach to FFI, became the apple of researchers' eyes once again after a decade during which studies on CF had

waned because of the advent of communicative language teaching (CLT) which was under the influence of Input Hypothesis (Spada, 2013).

Not long after the birth of FFI, controversies over the possible CF strategies to be implemented in FFI to resolve form–meaning imbalances in communicative approach grew. In an oft–cited paper, Lyster and Ranta (1997) opened up the Pandora's box of CF strategies and cast serious doubt on the efficacy of 'recasting' as the only remedy at language teachers' disposal. That is, their findings revealed that recasting, which was the most widely used CF by the teachers in Canadian immersion programs, was the least successful technique in stimulating learners to respond to this type of feedback and four other types of feedback, called prompts, were much more effective in pushing learners of their study to self repair, namely 'elicitation', 'clarification requests', 'metalinguistic feedback', and 'repetition' in a descending order. Most of other research studies conducted on CF types have focused on recast so far and their results indicate that its provisions are more noticeable for learners when phonological and lexical errors are the main targets rather than morphosyntactic errors (Carpenter et al., 2006; Ellis et al., 2001; Han, 2008; Lyster, 1998; Mackey et al., 2000; Sheen, 2006).

Some scholars have underscored the need for empirical studies to target two questions: "(a) which grammatical structures are most amenable to CF and (b) whether recasts and prompts have differential effects on different kinds of grammatical structures" (Yang & Lyster, 2010, p. 240). Ellis (2007, p. 360), for example, suggests that "what is needed in future research is to determine how linguistic factors may determine when different types of feedback will work for acquisition" or Sheen (2011, p. 165) points out that "we cannot assume that because CF has been shown to assist the acquisition of one grammatical feature it will necessarily do so for all features". Therefore, as indicated in a recent review of studies on oral CF, this call for conducting studies to examine the efficacy of CF in accuracy development has been welcomed by some researchers and examples of a few grammatical features that have been examined in various settings and languages are "questions, passive forms, past tense, articles, and possessive determiners in English; gender attribution and noun–adjective agreement in French; adverb placement, object topicalization, and gender agreement in Spanish; aspectual forms, adjective ordering, and locative constructions in Japanese" (Lyster et al., 2013, p. 22). This study aims to examine the impact of provision of recast in comparison with that of prompts on the grammatical accuracy of Iranian EFL learners' speech. More specifically, it focuses on accuracy development in the use of present forms of the verb 'to be' and the syntactic agreement associated with '–s inflection'.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Types of Oral CF

Based on a labyrinthine taxonomy put forward by Sheen and Ellis (2011), oral CF can be classified into two broad categories of 'input–providing' and 'output–prompting'. While the techniques in the former (i.e., conversational recasts, didactic recasts, explicit correction only and explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation) are used to provide correct form to the learner, the latter contains a set of strategies that withhold correct form (i.e., repetition, clarification request, metalinguistic clue, elicitation, paralinguistic signal) and are means to push learners toward self– or peer correction. CF strategies in each category are further divided in terms of whether they are implicit or explicit. That is, conversational recasts within input–providing category as well as repetition and clarification request among output–prompting CF strategies are considered implicit and the rest are classified as explicit. Table 1 summarizes the taxonomy of oral CF strategies along with their definitions.

TABLE 1.
A TAXONOMY OF ORAL CF STRATEGIES (ADAPTED FROM SHEEN & ELLIS, 2011, P. 594)

	Implicit	Explicit
Input–providing	• Conversational recasts (i.e., the correction consists of a reformulation of a student utterance in the attempt to resolve a communication problem; such recasts often take the form confirmation checks where the reformulation is followed by a question tag as in "Oh, so you were sick, were you?").	• Didactic recasts (i.e., the correction takes the form of a reformulation of a student utterance even though no communication problem has arisen). • Explicit correction only (i.e., the correction takes the form of a direct signal that an error has been committed and the correct form is supplied). • Explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation (i.e., in addition to signaling an error has been committed and providing the correct form, there is also a metalinguistic comment).
Output–prompting	• Repetition (i.e., the learner's erroneous utterance is repeated without any intonational highlighting of the error). • Clarification requests (i.e., attention is drawn to a problem utterance by the speaker indicating he/she has not understood it).	• Metalinguistic clue (i.e., a brief metalinguistic statement aimed at eliciting a correction from the learner). • Elicitation (i.e., an attempt is made to verbally elicit the correct form from the learner by, for example, a prompting question). • Paralinguistic signal (i.e., an attempt is made to non–verbally elicit the correct form from the learner).

B. The Role of CF in Second Language Acquisition

Ellis (1997) argues that acquisition can be considered as the internalization of new forms or as an increase in control over forms that have already been internalized. This distinction might shed some light on a number of empirical studies conducted on CF and resolve some controversies that have lingered on since Lyster and Ranta's (1997) seminal paper. As noted above, recasts and prompts are distinguished from each other in terms of whether they are input–providing CF (supplies the correct reformulation) or output–pushing CF (withholds the correct reformulation and encourages learners to self–repair). The former tends to engage learners in cognitive comparison in the working memory (Ellis, 1994) and the latter might encourage learners to retrieve information from long–term memory. Therefore, while recasts may pave the way for the internalization of new forms, prompts seem to boost control over forms that have already been internalized since they might provide an opportunity for the learners to revise or restructure their partially internalized forms.

Some scholars interested in the acquisition of new knowledge have advocated the provision of conversational recasts in cases a communication problem arises because such input–providing CF is believed not to break the flow of communication and helps make input more comprehensible and thereby promote acquisition (Long, 1983). Hence, drawing upon Noticing Hypothesis which underscores the importance of conscious noticing for the input to be turned into intake (Schmidt, 1990), some researchers have used this type of CF as a tool to verify its effectiveness in their empirical studies on FFI (e.g., Doughty, 2001; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Long & Robinson, 1998).

However, this type of implicit CF has not been immune to criticism. First, inconsistencies in operational definitions of recasts in various studies, which have made Ellis & Sheen (2006) to compare recasts to a chameleon, have almost resulted in incomparability of the results of a number of studies which tend to look at the same thing through different perspectives (Nicholas et al. 2001). Second, it has been argued that implicit recasts can be ambiguous since learners might conceive them as signs of approval rather than negative feedback (Lyster, 1998; Lyster, 2004) which, in turn, may make it difficult to draw learners' attention to form in FFI (Musumeci, 1996; Pica, 2002; Tomasello & Herron, 1989). As a reaction to the second criticism, some researchers have tried to make recasts more explicit through the use of rising intonation to signal the error clearly (Doughty & Varela, 1998; Erlam & Loewen, 2010). In Doughty & Varela's (1998) study, for instance, the teacher repeated the student's erroneous utterance and made use of stress and rising intonation to draw learners' attention and if the learner did not respond to such CF, the teacher provided a recast in which the verb form was stressed. However, as Lyster & Mori (2006, p. 276) point out, since "the teacher consistently used repetition to draw attention to the error and then used recasts only when students made no attempt at repair, the study provides more support for prompting techniques than for recasting".

Looking at the other side of the acquisition coin, Lyster et al. (2013, p. 13) assert that "the ultimate goal of instruction is not to continuously present only new knowledge to students, without providing enough subsequent opportunities for assimilation and consolidation of that knowledge". Therefore, they underscore the possibilities that prompts can provide for language learners to "retrieve and restructure their knowledge of the target language". Prompts are justified on the basis of Swain's (1985) Output Hypothesis which posits that the production of language facilitates pinpointing the gap between one's interlanguage and the target language. That is, output triggers noticing which, in turn, might result in its modification. Therefore, the efficacy of output–prompting CF has been investigated in light of this cognitive processing (e.g., Ammar & Spada, 2006; Lyster, 2004; McDonough, 2005). Furthermore, skill–acquisition theory (Anderson, 1983, 2005; Johnson, 1996) is considered to give a green light to the provision of prompts too. That is, since repeated practice is claimed to play a major role in changing the declarative knowledge into procedural one (Dekeyser, 1998, 2001), prompts are considered to be "effective both for developing accurate knowledge by restructuring their already existing knowledge and for enhancing the practice effect by pushing" the learners to self–repair their erroneous utterances (Sato & Lyster, 2012, p. 594).

C. Studies on the Efficacy of Recasts versus Prompts

As noted above, few studies have compared the efficacies of recasts and prompts in eradication of learners' grammatical errors. Ellis (2007), for example, launched a study to examine the effects of metalinguistic feedback, a type of prompt, and recast on learners' accuracy by focusing on two grammatical features, namely regular past tense –ed and comparative –er. He hypothesized that the latter would be more difficult to acquire since it contains both morphology and syntax, occurs less frequently, emerges after –ed in terms of learnability, and the rule to be learned explicitly is more complex. ESL learners in a private language school formed the participants of the study who were divided into one control group and two experimental groups. While the three groups participated in one–hour communicative tasks performances, the treatment included the provision of recast for one group and metalinguistic feedback for another one and control group received no CF. Results of the study revealed that the provision of metalinguistic feedback was more effective for the acquisition of comparative adjective than past tense and those who received recast showed no significant improvement over the control group on the two grammatical features.

Lyster (2004) examined the effects of FFI and CF on French immersion students' acquisition of grammatical gender. While FFI was provided for three experimental groups, each group was distinguished from the other in terms of whether oral CF (recast versus prompts) was provided or not. The fourth group was the control group that received neither FFI nor CF. The findings revealed that the participants of FFI–prompt group significantly outperformed the participants of FFI–recast group in written production but not in oral production. Overall, of the eight posttest measures, the performances of FFI–prompt group were significantly better than those of control group in all eight measures, FFI–

recast group outperformed the control group in five measures and the results of FFI–only group were significantly better than those of control group in four posttests.

Sato & Lyster (2012) conducted a quasi–experimental study to examine the effects of peer interaction and CF on second language development when learners would be trained to provide CF (recast versus prompts) for each other. Building on Levelt's (1983) perceptual theory of monitoring and the declarative–procedural model of skill–acquisition theory (Anderson, 1983, 2005; Johnson, 1996), Sato & Lyster's (2012, p. 595) suggest that the provision of CF by teachers or peers may facilitate learners' monitoring when they cannot pinpoint or edit their own errors. That is, the provision of CF may pave the way for "comparison of the erroneous utterance (via recast), or with an opportunity to test another hypothesis (via prompts)" during interaction. Based on their findings, they argue that CF provision may correlate with both accuracy and fluency development as long as the learners would be form oriented and need to proceduralize their rule–based knowledge to access it during spontaneous production. The impact of recasts and prompts on accuracy development was revealed to be the same in this study.

Yang & Lyster (2010) conducted a quasi–experimental study to examine the effects of recast, prompts, and no CF on regular and irregular past–tense verbs. They predicted that representational and acquisitional processes of these verbs would be different since the former verbs were rule–based and the latter ones were complex and unpredictable. The results of their study revealed that the provision of prompts were more effective for the accurate use of regular past–tense forms than that of recasts but these two types of CF had similar effects on improving accuracy in the use of irregular past–tense forms among adult EFL students in China.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Participants of this study were 96 students who were selected, on the basis of their grades, out of 169 male EFL freshmen students who took the standard and valid test of CELT (Comprehensive English Language Test) at a university in northern Iran. That is, 96 students who were one standard deviation above and below the mean of the test were selected. On the basis of their performances on a picture description test, the 96 subjects were divided into three groups through matching procedure (it will be explained below).

B. Instrumentation

The instrumentation used in this study included two pretests, a treatment and a posttest. The first pretest was a general language proficiency test of CELT. The test comprised three sections: *structure section* containing 75 items, *vocabulary section* including 75 items, and *reading comprehension section* having 24 items. All the items were in multiple choice formats.

The second pretest was a picture description test which was devised to find the grammatical accuracy of the students' speech in terms of syntactic agreement associated with '–s inflection' and the present forms of the verb 'to be'. The pictures were selected in such a way to elicit these two types of grammatical structures. The pictures, which included three parts, for the picture description test were selected out of 6 parts through a pilot study done on 10 freshmen students whose grades were between one standard deviation above and below the mean of the CELT but did not participate in the main study. The time devoted to picture description test was around four minutes and thirty seconds, based on the pilot study. Of course, the students in the pretest were not told that they would take the same test for posttest (See appendix 1 for the picture description test). The treatment of this study included the provision of two types of CF, recast and prompts, each of which was used in one experimental class. The control group did not receive any treatment. What follows summarizes a set of procedures used in order to achieve the purpose of this study.

C. Procedures

The CELT was administered to 169 subjects at the very outset. The time given was 100 minutes and the correct answer for each item received one point. There was no correction for guessing. After taking the exam, each subject was rendered a grade based on his performance on the CELT. Out of these students, 96 students whose grades were between one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected.

Then, the picture description test was administered to the 96 subjects which lasted for almost four minutes and thirty seconds for each student. The obligatory occasions for the use of third person singular present tense and the present form of the verb 'to be' were 37. The criterion for giving grades to the students' performances was based on the violation of syntactic agreement associated with –s inflection and the present forms of the verb 'to be'. That is, each correct use of –s inflection or the present form of the verb 'to be' received five points.

On the basis of the students' performances on the picture description test, they were divided into three groups through matching strategy. That is, for example, the first top grade was put aside as a member of group 1, the second top grade as a member of group 2, the third top grade as a member of group 3, the fourth top grade again as a member of group 3, the fifth top grade as a member of group 2, etc. Such a strategy culminated in three sets of thirty two grades. These three groups were randomly assigned as one control group and two experimental groups. Because of some limitations it was not possible to tape record students' performances in the pretest and posttest and, as a result, each student's performance was rated unobtrusively as he described the pictures and the errors were ticked on a paper. The

procedure for rating was quite objective since each violation of syntactic agreement associated with –s inflection or the present forms of the verb to be was considered as one error.

The research project was conducted in conversational classes held in the university as extracurricular activity where Interchange 1 (3rd Edition) was used as the textbook. As part of class activities, three picture stories were selected from a book entitled 'Sequences: Picture Stories for ESL' (Julich & Chabot, 2006) and each was worked with the students for 20 minutes in three separate sessions during the course so that students would be familiar with how to do picture description tasks. The second researcher in this study was the teacher for the three groups of students.

The treatment included the provision of two types of CF to experimental groups and the control group did not receive any treatment. That is, recast, conversational and didactic techniques, was provided to one experimental group and prompts, all types except paralinguistic signal, to the other one (see table 1). While students were involved in oral practices with their peers or the teacher, their erroneous utterances in *recast* group were reformulated minus the errors even if no communication problem had been arisen. For example, if a student said "*He comb his hair", the teacher would say, "He combs his hair". The following example, taken from the study, illustrates the provision of recast as a reaction to a student' erroneous use of past tense:

Student: * My father go to work at 7 o'clock.

Teacher: So he goes to work at 7 o'clock. (with an approval sign)

Student: Yes, he goes to work at 7 o'clock.

Four techniques of 'repetition', 'clarification request', metalinguistic clue' and 'elicitation' were used separately or in combination to feedback on students' erroneous utterances in prompts group. While the common features of all these four prompts are withholding correct forms and signs of approval along with pushing learners to self–repair their own erroneous forms, the provisions of correct forms and approval signs form the distinguishing features of recast. The examples that follow taken from the data of the present study illustrate the application of four techniques of prompts.

Repetition: teacher repeats the student's ill–formed utterance, adjusting intonation to highlight the error.

Student: * John play football.

Teacher: * John PLAY football? (rising intonation on the word 'play')

Student: John plays football.

Clarification requests: clarification request indicates to the students either that their message has not been understood by the teacher or that the utterance is ill–formed in some way and that a repetition or a reformulation is required. A clarification request includes phrases such as "pardon?" and "I don't understand".

Student: * My neighborhood are very crowded.

Teacher: Pardon?

Student: My neighborhood is very crowded.

Metalinguistic clues: teacher provides comments, information, or questions related to the well–formedness of the student utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form. Metalinguistic comments generally indicate that there is an error somewhere. For example, "Can you find your error?" Metalinguistic information generally provides either some grammatical metalanguage which refers to the nature of the error (e.g. 'The subject noun is singular') or a word definition in the case of lexical errors. Metalinguistic questions also point to the nature of the error but attempt to elicit the information from the student (e.g. 'Is the subject plural?').

Teacher: Look at the picture and say what you see.

Student: There is a woman.

Teacher: Can you tell me what the woman looks like?

Student: * She is tall and her hairs are long.

Teacher: HIIRS? This is an uncountable noun.

Student: So it cannot take plural 's'. Ok. Her hair is long.

Teacher: That's right.

Elicitation: teachers directly elicit a reformulation from the students by asking questions. First, teachers use various questions to elicit correct forms. For example, "How do you say Gorbeh (cat) in English?" Second, teachers elicit completion of their own utterance by strategically pausing to allow students to 'fill in the blank.' For example, "It is called a ... ." The following example was taken from this study:

Student 1: * My brother studies physic.

Teacher: We call this field of study Fizik in Farsi, but in English it is called …? (the teacher pauses and lets the student to self–correct himself)

Student 2: Physics. (peer correction)

Teacher: That's right.

Student 1: Ok. *My brother studies physics and I like these fields of study.

Teacher: THESE FIELDS of study? Look! that 's' at the end of the word "physics" does not make it plural. This is an uncountable noun. (Metalinguistic prompt)

Student 1: I see. I like this field of study.

Finally, at the end of the term which lasted for 12 sessions, one session a week, the same picture description test used in the pretest was administered as the posttest and each student's performance was rated manually in an unobtrusive manner. (in the pretest the students were not told that they would take the same test at the end of the term)

D. Data Analysis

A number of statistical procedures were used in this study. First, to find the homogeneity of the 96 subjects who formed the control and two experimental groups, the one–way ANOVA technique was used. To do this, subjects' grades on the picture description test in the pretest were used. Next, another one–way ANOVA was used to find the effectiveness of the treatments in the posttest. Since the F ratio was significantly higher than the F critical, a Scheffe test was used to find the exact location of the difference. Then, three paired t–tests were used to compare the mean of each group in the pretest with that of the posttest. Finally, a two–way ANOVA was used to find the main effects of the method. The data of pretest, which functioned as the covariates, entered in the SPSS (version 16) after the main effects, which were the method.

IV. RESULTS

This study was conducted to find an appropriate answer to the following research question: Is recasting a more effective negative feedback type than the provision of prompts for the eradication of grammatical errors of the Iranian EFL students' speech? In order to do so, several statistical procedures were utilized the results of which are presented in the following sections:

A. Analysis 1

A one–way ANOVA was used to find whether the control and two experimental groups were homogenous after the matching procedure was utilized. To do so, their grades in the picture description test of pretest were used. The results are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2.
ONE–WAY ANOVA FOR PERFORMANCE ON THE PICTURE DESCRIPTION TEST IN THE PRETEST

Source	D.F.	SS	MS	F ratio	F critical
Between group	2	18.7500	9.3750	.0104	3.09
Within group	93	84121.8750	904.5363		

P<.05

As the results of the one–way ANOVA show, F ratio does not exceed the F critical value. This implies that there is no significant difference among the control and two experimental groups and, as a result, the three groups are homogeneous.

B. Analysis 2

A one–way ANOVA was conducted to see how the control and two experimental groups performed in the posttest and whether the differences among their means were significant. The results are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
ONE–WAY ANOVA FOR PERFORMANCE ON THE PICTURE DESCRIPTION TEST IN THE POSTTEST

Source	D.F.	SS	MS	F ratio	F critical
Between group	2	40252.0833	20126.041	30.2883	4.62
Within group	93	61796.8750	664.4825		

P<.01

As the results of the one–way ANOVA in the table 3 show, F ratio exceeds the F critical value implying that there is a significant difference among subjects' performances on the different forms of CF. To find where this difference is located, a Scheffe test was carried out the results of which were presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4.
SCHEFFE TEST WITH SIGNIFICANT LEVEL .05 FOR THE PERFORMANCE ON THE PICTURE DESCRIPTION TEST IN THE POSTTEST

Mean	Method	Group		
		1	2	3
103.7500	Group 1 (Control)			
132.1875	Group 2 (Recast)	*		
153.7500	Group 3 (Prompts)	*	*	

(*) Indicates significant differences which are shown in the lower triangle

Table 4 shows that these differences lay between group 1 (control group) and group 2 (recast group), group 1 and group 3 (prompts group), and group 2 and group 3. In other words, recast group and prompts group performed better than control group and prompts group performed the best of all.

C. Analysis 3

To see how each group performed in its pretest and posttest, paired t–test technique was utilized to compare the means of each group in its pretest and posttest performances. The results were presented in Tables 5, 6, and 7.

TABLE 5.
T–TEST FOR PAIRED SAMPLES OF CONTROL GROUP

Variable	Mean	SD	t–value	DF	2–tail Sig.	t–critical
Posttest *control*	103.7500	28.141	.18	31	.855	2.042
Pretest *control*	102.8125	30.132				

95% CI (– 9.410, 11.285)   p<.05

The results in the Table 5 indicate that the t–value does not exceed the t–critical. Therefore, there is no significant difference between performance of the control group in the pretest and the posttest.

TABLE 6.
T–TEST FOR PAIRED SAMPLES OF RECAST GROUP

Variable	Mean	SD	t–value	DF	2–tail Sig.	t–critical
Posttest *recast*	132.1875	22.716	4.56	31	.000	2.042
Pretest *recast*	101.8750	30.074				

95% CI (16.758, 43.867)   p<.05

The results in the Table 6 show that the t–value exceeds the t–critical implying that the *Recast* group performed significantly better in the posttest than in pretest.

TABLE 7.
T–TEST FOR PAIRED SAMPLES OF PROMPTS GROUP

Variable	Mean	SD	t–value	DF	2–tail Sig.	t–critical
Posttest *prompts*	153.7500	26.182	7.23	31	.000	2.042
Pretest *prompts*	101.8750	30.020				

95% CI (37.243, 66.507)   p<.05

As the results in the Table 7 show, the t–value exceeds the t–critical implying that the prompts group performed significantly better in the posttest.

D. Analysis 4

To get satisfactory results, a two–way ANOVA was used to find the main effects of the method. The data of the pretest which functioned as the covariates entered in the SPSS after the main effects. The results were presented in the Table 8.

TABLE 8.
TWO–WAY ANOVA FOR THE PRETEST AND POSTTEST

Source of variance	Sum of square	DF	Mean square	F	Sig of F	F critical
Main effects	40252.083	2	20126.042	30.935	.000	3.09
Method	40252.083	2	20126.042	30.935	.000	3.09
Covariates	1941.949	1	1941.949	2.985	.087	3.94
Pretest	1941.949	1	1941.949	2.985	.087	3.94
Explained	42194.032	3	14064.677	21.618	.000	2.70
Residual	59854.926	92	650.597			
Total	102048.958	95	1074.200			

The results in the Table 8 show that the F ratios of the main effects, which is the method, exceeds the F critical values, while the covariates, which is pretest, does not. The F ratio of main effects, 30.935, is quite pure, since the effect of pretest is not involved in it.

Therefore, the results of the above–mentioned analyses reveal that the hypothesis formulated in this study can be rejected with caution. That is, prompts seem to be more suitable for the eradication of grammatical errors in the students' speech than recast.

V. DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether corrective feedback (CF) could enhance grammatical accuracy in the learners' speech; and if it could, which type of CF is more effective than the other one for the eradication of morphosyntactic errors in learners' speech. The results of the study indicated that negative feedback in general and prompts in particular may have a facilitative role in foreign language acquisition. However, as the students in recast group, who were rarely provided the chance to self–repair, achieved fewer gains in the posttest, the prompts group's enhanced performance in the posttest might signify the value of provision of frequent opportunities to the learners to initiate self–repairs so that they can boost their control over those internalized forms that have not been proceduralized. Although the provision of CF can result in uptake, defined as a student responses to CF (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) which might be a sign of noticing (Mackey et al., 2000), it seems that the value of uptake after the provision of prompts is not

the same as that of recast since the provision of recast might result in repetition. As Panova and Lyster (2002) suggest, "uptake consisting of a repetition may not have much to contribute to L2 development, because of its redundancy in an error treatment sequence where the repair is both initiated and completed by the teacher within a single move" (p. 579).

Some studies have revealed the inefficacy of morophosyntactic recasting in comparison with phonological and lexical recasts (see for example Mackey et al., 2000; Carpenter et al., 2006). However, Carpenter et al. (2006) threw doubt on Lyster's (2004) results, which indicated that prompts are more effective than recasts for eradication of morphosyntactic errors, on the ground that he obtained his findings in immersion programs and they called for replication of such study in other settings. Based on the results of this study, one reason for the effectiveness of prompts over recasts in reducing the grammatical errors might be the relative length of prompts. The following two examples, the first one taken from the classroom treatment in recast group and the second one from that of prompts group, reveal that the CF in the prompts group is longer than the one in recast group (six words as opposed to one) and, as a result, it might have been better noticed. While each learner in these two cases repairs the erroneous word, the student's reactive words to the CF in the second example (i.e., "ah yes") indicate that his declarative knowledge has been tapped by the CF and it seems that his awareness of the gap between what he knows and what he can say is much more profound in comparison with the student in recast group who might have just repeated the correct word without any awareness. While the provision of prompts, as illustrated in (2), can be considered as time–consuming undertaking which might block the flow of communication, Rod Ellis et al. (2009, p. 329) suggest that metalinguistic feedback does not intrude unduly in the communicative flow of the activity. It constitutes a brief time–out from communicating, which allows the learner to focus explicitly but briefly on form. The effectiveness of the metalinguistic feedback, therefore, may derive in part from the high level of awareness it generates and in part from the fact that it is embedded in a communicative context.

    (1) Student: Ali go to the library =
        Teacher: = Goes
        Student: goes to the library.
    (2) Student: Ali need a book =
        Teacher: = need a book > Ali is a third person pronoun
        Student: ah yes, Ali needs a book.
        Key: = signifies overlapping comment; > signifies rising intonation

In conducting any research project, there are a few limitations that might contaminate the results of the study. First, only male students formed the participants of this study. Therefore, one can also examine the impact of CF types on the grammatical accuracy of the female as well as male students' speech and compare their performances in order to find out whether their performances are significantly different or not. Second, since third person singular present tense and the present forms of the verb 'to be' delimited the examination of grammatical accuracy in this study, determining the efficacy of various forms of CF for other grammatical points might be promising. Third, no delayed posttest was included in this study to compare its results with that of immediate posttest. It would be of interest to determine how long any effects of CF types persisted over a longer time frame using an appropriate longer term measures. Fourth, a picture description test was used to verify the efficacy of CF types. It seems that the incorporation of some written measures, such as cloze test, might fortify the results of the study.

<div align="center">VI. CONCLUSION</div>

The results of the present study revealed that (a) the provision of prompts and recast were significantly more effective than no CF for boosting the grammatical accuracy of Iranian EFL learners' speech, and (b) students receiving prompts significantly outperformed the recast group. It seems that the provision of prompts, which not only draws language learners' attention to problematic areas but also might make them self–correct their malformed output, provides appropriate opportunities for learners who have relevant declarative knowledge to proceduralize their knowledge of grammatical features. The relative inferiority of morphosyntactic recasting might be ascribed to the ambiguity it creates for the learners in such a way that they might not be certain whether the classroom teacher's comments were a sign of approval or a negative feedback (Lyster, 2004).

While this study focused on two grammatical structures, future research studies are needed to examine the relative impact of CF types on other grammatical features. However, the results of such studies must be considered with caution since they might not be straightforward solutions to be readily applied in any classroom settings. Many questions regarding the practice of CF might occupy student teachers' minds in any language pedagogical courses. Nonetheless the answers to these questions are too complex to be formulated as some simple remedies. Ellis (2012), for example, chops this onion and underscores individual learner factors, such as the extent of their language proficiency, working memories, phonetic coding abilities or language analytic abilities, as mediating factors that might affect the choice of CF types. By the same token, Yoshida (2008) reports a mismatch between teachers' choice and learners' preference of CF types in Japanese–as–a–foreign–language classrooms. That is, while teachers of the study preferred to provide more recasts to language learners because of being aware of learners' cognitive styles and shortage of class time, the students yearned for the chance to self–correct. While one should accept that the quest for the Holy Grail of the best CF type which functions as one–size–fits–all classroom settings might come to naught, future well–rounded research studies on

CF, preferably action research studies to be launched by language practitioners in their own specific socio–cultural settings, might shed more light at this precious but multifaceted pedagogical procedure.

APPENDIX. PICTURE DESCRIPTION TASKS FOR PRETEST AND POSTTEST

1. Compare and contrast picture A with picture B.
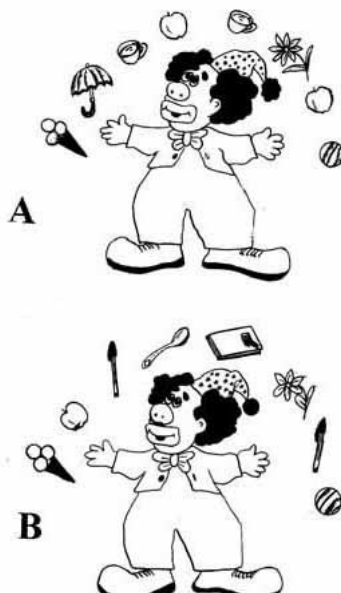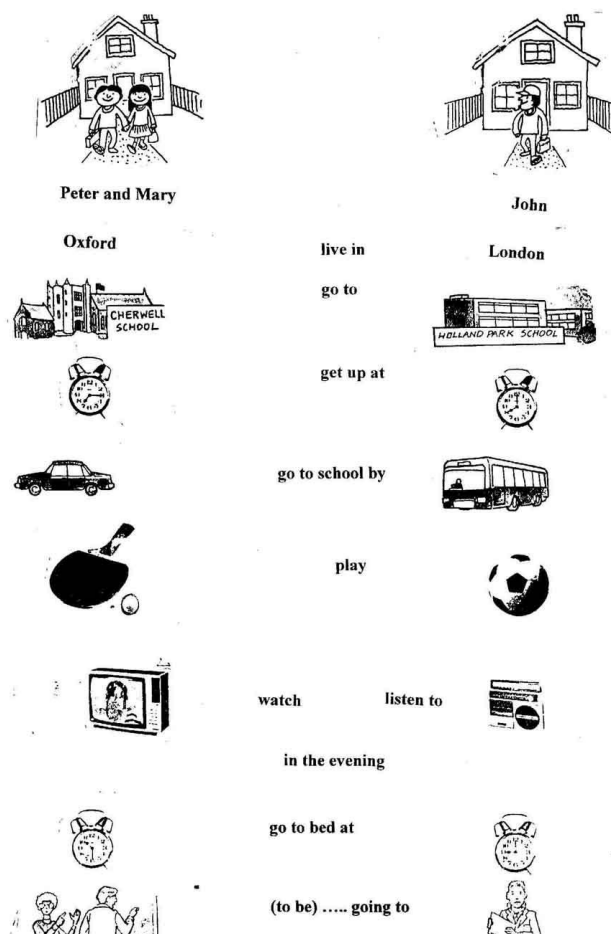

2. Compare Peter and Mary's life with that of John.

3. Describe what John does in the morning before going to work.

A. wake up
B. get up
C. take a shower
D. brush...teeth

E. wash...face
F. comb...hair
G. shave
H. get dressed

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Azar Hosseini Fatemi was born in 1951 in Mashhad, Iran. She got her BA degree in English Language and Literature from Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran. She has received MA degree in TEFL from New Mexico, State University, USA in 1980, and

Ph.D. degree from Panjab University, India. *Her field of interests is research, teaching and learning a second language, and sociolinguistics*

She is an ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR of TEFL at Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran. She has 29 years of teaching experience at university level. In addition, she is the HEAD of ENGLISH DEPARTMENT at Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran. She has published more than 20 articles in different journal. Some of her articles are as follows: Azar Hosseini Fatemi. The Predictive Power of Vocabulary Breadth & Depth, and Syntactic Knowledge in Reading Comprehension Performance of Iranian Advanced EFL Students., Ferdowsi Review, Volume (2), 2012–11, Pages 3–22. Azar Hosseini Fatemi, Reza Pishghadam, arezoo asghari, Attribution Theory and Personality Traits among EFL Learners , International Journal of Linguistics , Volume (4) , 2012–6, Pages 229–243. Azar Hosseini Fatemi, On the alleged relationship between LOC, L2 Reading comprehension, and use of language learning strategies, Ferdowsi Review, Volume (1) , 2010–11, Pages 21–47.

Dr. Hosseini Fatemi is the executive manager and a member of editorial board of "Ferdowsi Review, An Iranian Journal of TESOL, Literature and Translation Studies".

Nazar Ali Harati was born in 1969 in Ghoochan, Iran. He got his BA degree in English Language and Literature from Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran. He received his MA degree in TEFL from Iran University of Science and Technology and he is currently a Ph.D. candidate of TEFL at Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, International Branch, Mashhad–Iran. His areas of interest include second language acquisition, discourse analysis and academic writing.

Study on Chinese Spatial Metaphors at Lexical Level

Jihua Fan

School of Foreign Languages, North China Institute of Science and Technology, Beijing, China

Abstract—Study of spatial metaphors is a major theme in cognitive linguistics. This paper tries to make a full survey on Chinese spatial terms that are metaphorically extended to other domains and make a simple study on how they are metaphorically extended, with the aim of supporting and completing the contemporary cognitive theory of metaphor. Firstly this paper investigates the research state at present, then it briefly discusses the expressing form of spatial concepts in modern Chinese language, this defines the scope where our study can find the metaphorical extension of spatial concepts at linguistic level. At the same time, we still argue that some of them emerge directly from our spatial experience and some are metaphorically derived. There still exist the spatial expressions that are combined by body-part nouns plus spatial terms, which are also metaphorically used in Chinese expressions. Through these analyses, we can find some implication to the development of Chinese lexis.

Index Terms—spatial metaphor, Chinese lexis, spatial concepts

I. INTRODUCTION

Over past two decades since Lakoff and Johnson (1980) discussed the spatial metaphors, a number of studies have been made about this aspect. Such studies talk much on the linguistic phenomena occurring in various languages and try to explain them from a cognitive viewpoint. However, attention paid to this field is far from enough. As we move through the world, new visual, auditory, sensory inputs are continuously presented to the brain. We use such sensory and motor information to construct an internal representation of the space we perceive. The nature of this representation and the neural mechanisms underlying it has become a topic of great interest on cognitive neuroscience (Colby, 2000). Spatial perception allows us to achieve the concept of space directly through our bodily experience. Therefore, such basic concept is inevitably used in other expressions. Study of this linguistic phenomenon can throw some light on human cognition.

Space exists in the objective world. People living in such a world, can sense it through their interaction with the world as well as to express it through their languages. For the differences existing in the languages, the expressions in deferent languages may have some difference. To make this point clear, we take comparison between western languages and Chinese language.

II. STUDIES ON SPATIAL METAPHORS

A. Western Studies on Spatial Metaphor

For spatial metaphors, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) have talked more by using English expressions. They say human beings build up a great number of spatial concepts: such as up/down, high/low, front/back, large/small etc. They claim such spatial terms are metaphorically extended to other concepts. What they claim is supported by many scholars (e.g. K övecses 1995, 2000a, 2000b, Li 1995, Yu 1995, Alverson 1994, Shinohara 1998, etc.).

Lakoff and Johnson (1980) take spatial metaphors as one of their main classifications. They use a good number of linguistic expressions in English to analyze the extension of spatial terms used in other concepts. They loosely define such kind of metaphors as "that organizes a whole system of concepts with respect to one another…since most of them have to do with spatial orientation: up-down, in-out, front-back, on-off, deep-shallow, central-peripheral". But Lakoff and Johnson just simply exemplify spatial metaphors linked with spatial terms in English to verify their conceptual metaphor theory.

As we know, spatial metaphors belong to conventional ones, which we hardly recognize as metaphors when they are used in our daily life. For example, when we say "before 6 o'clock" "after 10 a.m.", we hardly sense they are metaphorically used here at all. However, such metaphors are governed by our experience as well as our culture customs. People with different culture customs may have different interpretations to space. For example, some regard "past time" as "front", "future time" as "back". While others think this in a contrary way: "past time" as "back", "future time" as "front".

The major studies of spatial metaphor lay on the representations of time and emotion. Spatial terms used in time are studied not only in English but also in other languages (Nuñez and Sweeter 2001, Yu 1995, Li 1995, Alverson, 1994).

Another extension of spatial terms is emotion, that is to say, spatial terms are metaphorically used in emotional expressions. For instance, the metaphor HAPPY IS UP can be embodied in the following linguistic expressions:

(1) a. I'm feeling up.
    b. You're in high spirit
    c. That boosted my spirits.
    d. My spirits rose.
    e. You're in high spirits.

For this spatial metaphor, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) also explain the physical basis to form it: Drooping posture typically goes along with sadness and depression, erect posture with a positive emotional state. On this aspect, Kövecses (1995, 2000a, 2000b) has done much research. Apart from time and emotion, spatial terms also expand to other abstract concepts such as CONTROL, STATUS, and VIRTUE etc.

Based on the above discussion, we can conclude that these studies mainly focus on up/down and front/back, which are metaphorically extended to emotion and time, we can illustrate this in the following figure:
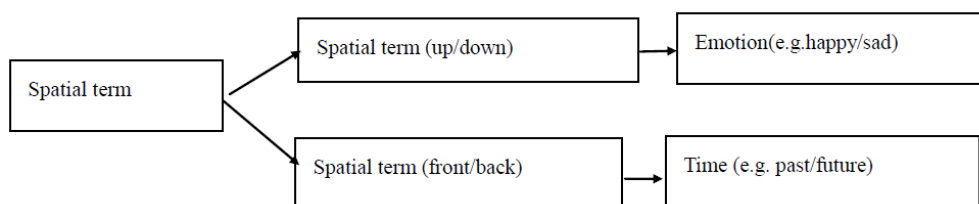

Figure 1

However, these studies just discuss some of the spatial terms from a cognitive prospect and support Lakoffian empiricalism. There still exists a lack of detailed study on spatial terms and their metaphorical extension in language, from which we can have a systematic look at the metaphorical extension of a set basic concept, in order to achieve some enlightenment, and provide a persuadable explaining theory and an able analyzing method to describe the working mechanism of metaphor, and, thus, to complete the cognitive theory of metaphor.

B.   Studies on Chinese Spatial Metaphors

Integrating modern theories of metaphor, many scholars have done research on spatial metaphors by using real-life data in Chinese language, such as Lan (1999), Zhou (2002), and etc. But Lan only discusses the use of Chinese spatial terms shang/xia (up/down). Zhou only talks about the spatial terms qian/hou (front/back) used in the concept of time. From the aspect of a comparative linguistics, Yu (1995), Li (1995) and Alverson (1994) have also studied Chinese spatial metaphors. They have found quantities of linguistic evidences to support cognitive theory of metaphor. But they don't systematically study how Chinese spatial terms are metaphorically extended to other concepts. These studies are just based on the research of Lakoff and Johnson's and focus on spatial terms up/down and front/back. They don't discuss other spatial terms metaphorically used in Chinese language. They don't do further research in this field so as to find an effective way to explain metaphor. Even some of them give incomplete interpretations to Chinese spatial metaphors. For instance, Lan's explanation of why "up/down" use in Chinese time representations cannot work for other linguistic expressions such as zao shang (early up, which means early morning) and wan shang (late up, which means evening). Alverson (1994) only gives one sole conceptualization of time in Chinese. This is not true to Chinese spatial metaphors used in time. For this, we will further discuss in next paper.

On the other hand, some of the Chinese scholars (e.g., Huang 2001, Hu 2001), especially those with Chinese background, that is, those who had majored in the Chinese language and whose main concern is also in this language, are suspicious of the new theories that are being constantly generated by their western counterparts. They still adhere to traditional rhetoric to study metaphor. So their studies still linger at the linguistic level. In this situation, it is necessary for us to apply the new western linguistic theories to the research on Chinese language. In doing so, we can also contribute to a general theory of language, because our new findings with our mother tongue will enrich the borrowed theories. It will also help us to have a better knowledge of the characteristics of our mother tongue.

Based on the above disscussion, we can conclude that studies on Chinese spatial metaphors are mainly divided into two groups, we can illustrate this in the following figure:
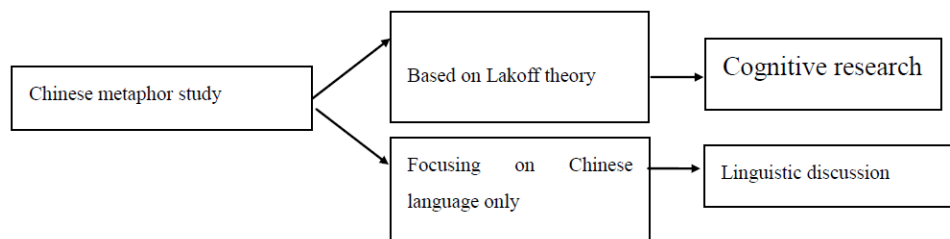

Figure 2

The first group has a foreign language background and the area of their concern is also in this language. The second group is majored in Chinese language and their concern is also in Chinese language. Both groups should try to learn from each other and cooperate with each other. Only in this way, can the study on Chinese metaphor be more efficient. We try to make use of western contemporary theory of metaphor to analyze the phenomenon of metaphor in Chinese language. We hope this theory can present a totally new thought for Chinese metaphor study.

III.   REPRESENTATIONS OF SPATIAL CONCEPTS IN CHINESE

Langman Modern English Dictionary defines 'Concept' as 'a general idea, thought of understanding'. According to Zheng (2001), concept reflects the basic characters of object or phenomenon, as the unit of thought. However, at linguistic level, concept is embodied by lexical expressions and sentences. According to Lakoff and Johnson, spatial concepts arise directly from our experience. They play an important role in our daily life. Limited by our body structure, biological organs and G-force, we get the concepts such as up/down, front/back and so on from our interaction with the world around us.

In English, when people talk of spatial system, they often mention the terms: up/down, front/back, high/low, in/out and etc. As for spatial system in Chinese language, Qi (1998) divides it into three subsystems, which include direction system, form system and seat system. These three systems are independent of each other as well as related to each other. Direction system is used to express direction. The words that are used to describe direction are called "directory words". Qi (1998) divides these words into three types according to different reference points they take. The first type is dong (east), nang (south), xi (west), bei (north). These words can denote direction without the help of reference point. To people who live on the earth, they know well their reference point. For instance, dong (east) is the direction where the sun rises. At linguistic level, such directory words still can be combined with affixes bian / mian / tou / fang, such as dong bian / dong mian /dong tou /dong fang, which also refer to the direction of east. The second type is qian/hou (front/back), shang/xia (up/down), zuo/you (left/right), which take one object as their reference points. For example, qian (front) refers to the direction one object faces. Shang (up) refers to the high part of one object. But for zuo/you (left/right), Qi argues that they are defined according to qian/hou (front/back). At this point, we think qian/hou (front/back), shang/xi (up/down), zuo/you (left/right) arise from our human body structure. We can take zuo/you (left/right) as an example to illustrate this. In the experience, people come to know the right hand is more agile than left one. They gradually distinguish them and gain the concepts of them. Then they use the concepts to describe other objects. For instance, we can say, " On the left of library is a hospital". For the third type, Qi says these directory words take one object added to the context as a reference point. Such directory words are li (in), wai (out), nei (in), zhong (middle), jian (middle) and pang (beside). These words can be combined with suffix tou/mian/bian, or with prefixes zhi/yi, for example: li tou (in), zhi jian (middle), yi nei (in).

For form system, Qi divides it into point, line, surface and volume. And then he discusses how the directory words are used within different forms, for example, "in" a form can be expressed by the directory words nei (in), zhong (middle), li (in), "out of" a form can be expressed by wai (out), jian (middle), pang (beside), dong (east), nan (south), xi (west), bei (north), qian/hou (front/back), zuo/you (left/right). In fact, form system has its own spatial concepts such as kuan/zhai (wide/narrow), cu/xi (wide/slender), hou/bao (thick/thin), qu/zhi (bent/straight), da/xiao (large/small) etc.

For seat form, Qi says one existing object must seat (occupy) some place. The object can be stationary or dynamic, which is relative according to its reference object. In modern Chinese, stationary seat of an object can be described by directory words. Dynamic seat of an object can be described by directory words as well as by verbs that have the meaning of "moving". For example: lai/qu (come/go), shang/xia (go up/ go down), jin/chu (come in/come out), hui (come back), qi (get up), guo (pass) and etc.

Macwhinney's (1999) also develops direction system into three types. He claims that the shape of human language is strongly influenced by the way in which perspective promoted the extraction of embodied meanings. He argues that spatio-temporal reference frames belong to such perspective-taking system. In fact, Qi's three types of "directory words" fall into Macwhinney's three alternative spatial frames. Qi's first type of "directory words" are Macwhinney's the environment-centered frame, which enforces a perspective based on fixed external landmarks, such as the position of a mountain range, the North star and so on. Qi's second type of "directory words"is Macwhinney's ego-centered frame, which encodes the perspective of the speaker. The terms that are grounded in the self's position and perspective include forward, backward, up, down, left and right. Qi's third type of "directory words" is Macwhinney's object-centered reference, which treats external objects as the centers of a complete ego perspective. In this sense, object-centered reference is best viewed as an extension of ego-centered reference grounded on a shift of perspective from ego to an external object.

On the other hand, apart from the spatial terms mentioned above, we believe there is another kind of spatial terms that come from human-body-part nouns by the means of metaphor. Human body plays an important role in understanding the world. As Kővecses (1999) suggests human biology influences the conceptualization of the different aspects of the concepts in different ways. Its influence seems to be stronger in ontology. Through investigating on the "container" metaphor of anger in English, Chinese, Japanese and Hungarian, Kővecses proposes that such cross-cultural similarity in conceptualization of anger should attribute to similarities in human body and its functioning in anger. In spatial conceptualization, human body senses the existing space and presents it to the brain, which forms some similar

spatial representations in many languages. On the other hand, human also maps its own body parts onto other objects and forms the object-part nouns based on our body-part nouns. Through the study on Japanese language, Matsumoto (1999) finds such phenomenon existing in Japanese language. His explanation for this is that our body part has correspondent location on an object onto which human body is metaphorically mapped. Just because of this similarity of location, the object-part nouns that are based on human body-part nouns easily tend to become spatial terms. For example, human body part "foot" is expanded to the bottom of mountain and forms "the foot of maintain". In Chinese words, we can find a large number of such expressions such as: shan jiao (foot of mountain), shan tou (head of mountain), shan ji (backbone of mountain), shan yao (waist of maintain)… They're still many other Chinese lexical terms reflect such metaphorical thinking, for example:

for body part "mouth", there are ping zui　(mouth of bottle), cha hu zui (mouth of teapot).

for "nose", men bi'er (nose of door), zhen bi'er (nose of needle)

for "teeth", ju chi (teeth of saw), shu chi (teeth of comb)

for "eye", quan yan (eye of spring), zhen yan'er (eye of needle)

for "leg", zuo tui (leg of table), ban deng tui (leg of bench)

In fact, such linguistic expressions can be found in many languages. In English, we speak of the hands of a clock, the teeth of a zipper, and the foot of the mountain. In Apache, the penchant for body-part metaphors carries over to describing the parts of an automobile. The tires are the feet of the car, the battery is its heart, and the headlights are the its eyes (Macwhinney, 1999). According to K ö vecses (1999), such cross-cultural similarity ought to attribute to the similarity in human body structure. Mastumoto (1999) divides the similarity between body part and object part into three types. The first is similarity of location, such as body part "foot" similar to the bottom part of mountain. The second is similarity of shape, such as body part "teeth" similar to the correspondent part of a saw. The third is similarity of function, such as body part "leg" has the function similar to the supporting part of a table. Mastumoto (1999) also claims that the first type is much easier to develop into spatial nouns than last two types. As for this point, we agree on Mastumoto's arguments because similarity of location forms the location-based terms, which belong to "seat system" termed by Qi (1998). Based on the above discussion, we conclude the classification of Chinese spatial terms in the following figure:
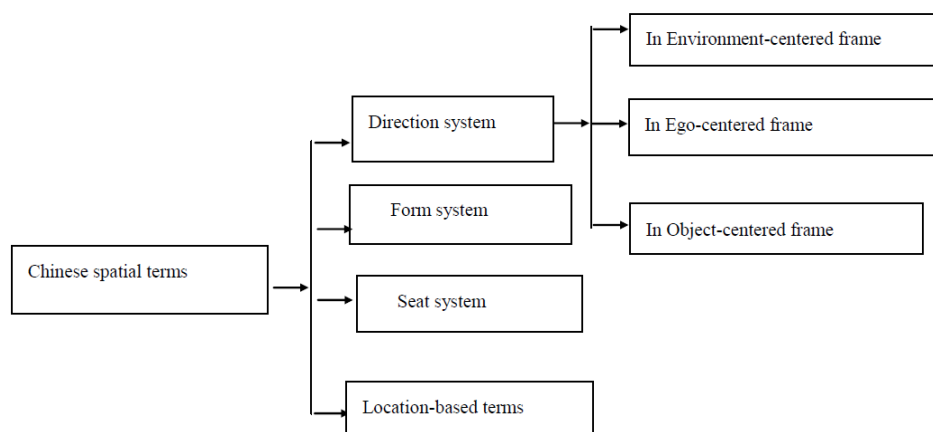
Figure3

The spatial terms metaphorically adopted from location-based similarity with human body are less extended again. But this provides us a new way to study metaphor, that is, to study how our body parts are metaphorically extended and to what extent they are extended. For the goal of our study, we will leave this out.

IV. METAPHORICAL EXTENSION OF SPATIAL CONCEPTS IN CHINESE

Based on the above discussion, we can conclude that most of spatial concepts arise directly from our interaction with the surroundings. Parts of them are developed through metaphor and have fewer tendencies to further metaphorically used on other terms. It is the spatial terms directly derived from our bodily experience that form the base on which we build up many other abstract concepts.

A. Spatial Extension Represented in Chinese Lexis

For spatial extension, Chinese lexical expressions provide amount of proof in their collocations. The compound words in Chinese language occupy an outstanding position. Their combinations present us much implication.

Let's first take shang/xia (up/down) as an example. Referring to leader and subordinate, Chinese has the following expressions, which involve shang/xia (up/down):

(2) Leader   subordinate

　a. shang　ceng   xia　　ceng

up	level	down	level
b. shang	si	xia	shu
up	manage	down	belong
c. shang	mian	xia	mian
up	suffix	down	suffix
d. shang	tou	xia	tou
up	head	down	head
e. shang	ji	xia	ji
up	grade	down	grade

This is the extended expression of metaphors CONTROL IS UP and UNCONCTROL IS DOWN. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) have discussed such metaphors in English expressions. Since CONTROL IS UP, if people want more power to control, they should try to be up. So in Chinese, there are such expressions:

(3) Ta   xiang   jin   le   banfa   wang   shang   pa
    he   think   all   ASP   way   to   up   climb
    "He thinks all the ways to climb up."

(4) Ni   hai   you   jihui   sheng   shang   qu
    you   still have   chance   ascend   up   go
    "You still have chance to be promoted."

(5) Ta   you   bei   tiba   shang   qu   le
    he   again BEI   promote up   go   ASP
    "He is promoted again."

Up/ down can also be expanded to the concepts of GOODNESS/BADNESS. We can find their extension in following words:

(6) GOODNESS   BADNESS
    a. shang deng   xia   deng
       up   class   down   class
    b. shang ce   xia   ce
       up   strategy   down   strategy
    c. shang pin   xia   pin
       up   quality   down   quality

In Chinese, besides up/down, there are still other spatial terms metaphorically used in lexis, such as:

    d. kuan   hou
       wide   thick

Its metaphorical meaning is "honest and pure-hearted to people"

    e. shen   hou
       deep   thick

Its metaphorical meaning is "profound"

    f. qian   bo
       shallow   thin

Its metaphorical meaning is "lack of knowledge".

In modern Chinese, there are still many spatial terms used to modify some abstract concepts. For example, we say the following expressions frequently:

(7) a. da/xiao   wenti   da   shiye
       big/small problem   big   business
    b. xiao   qingxu   da   qihou
       small mood   big   climate
    c. xiao   piqi   cu   hua
       small   temper   thick words
    d. cu   huo   xiao shou wan'er
       thick work   small   wrist
    e. xiao chongming   xiao   jiqiao
       small cleverness   small   technique
    f. xiao   baogao   xiao   xin yan'er
       small   report   small   mind's eye

The spatial words such as small/big, thick often are used to describe the form and seat of an object which exists in the space. In above examples, these spatial words are used to modify other abstract concepts such as temper, mood, cleverness, climate and so on. Such usages just reflect some metaphorical patterns. For instance, "big problem", "big business" and "big climate" right reflect the metaphorical pattern BIG IS IMPORTANT. This metaphor recurs across broad and unrelated languages. Grady (1997) finds this metaphorical pattern recurring in Zulu, Hawaiian, Turkish, Malay and Russian. In each of these languages, the term "big" which literally refers to the spatial form of a physical

size can also refer metaphorically to degree of importance. This is a conceptualization with very wide cross-linguistic distribution. But how about the spatial term "small" in "small temper" and "small mood", "thick" in "thick talk" and "thick work"? Do their metaphorical patterns recur in many languages or only in Chinese? If not, why? For this is much complex to explain, we will talk it in latter research.

B.   Implication to Chinese Lexical Collocation

According to the theory of conceptual metaphor, most of human concepts are organized through spatial metaphors. The above discussions give us some implication on how some Chinese compound words are formed. As we know linguistic system links with conceptual system. Metaphorical thinking process activates conceptual system, which can be embodied in linguistic system.

For a basic concept such as "UP" can metaphorically extend to a set of abstract concepts and forms the metaphors: HAPPY IS UP, CONTROL IS UP, and GOOD IS UP. Therefore, the concepts of HAPPY, CONTROL and GOOD can be united into one sort. Such consistency united by one spatial concept, makes these abstract concepts coherently collocated with the spatial term and form the collocations that are widely used in our linguistic expressions. For example, "good" plus "up" forms top-grade (shang hao), "low" plus "bad" forms inferior (di lie). On the other hand, one concept also can unite a set of spatial terms which are closely linked in spatial expressions. For example, "low status" unites "low" and "down" into di xia (low status), "profound" unites "high" and "deep" into gao shen (profound). There are still many such compounds in Chinese like kuanhou, shenhou, gaogao zai shang, zhi gao wu shang and so on.

V.   Body-part Nouns Plus Spatial Terms

In Chinese language, there still exists another phenomenon, that is, body-part nouns plus some spatial terms express not only location but also other abstract concepts such as time and status. For example, Chinese words like mu qian (in front of eyes), yen qian (in front of eyes), yan xia (under the eyes), yan di xia (under the eyes) often used to express time rather than location in their practical usage. In this phenomenon, we take time as a moving object: when an object comes to us, it is our eyes first catch it. So when the time comes to us and arrives in front of our eyes or under our eyes, it is present time. Body-part nouns plus spatial terms such as mian qian (in front of face), shen hou (behind one's body) also can be used to express time in their daily usage, for example:

(8) Mian qian   de shi'er   jiu   gou   nan   chuli   le
    face front   DE matter   just   enough hard deal with ASP
    "It is hard to deal with current matter."

(9) Shen   hou   yao ban   de   shi'er   hen   zuo
    body   behind to do   DE   things   very   many
    "Later there are many things to do."

Here mian qian (in front of face) refers to present time, shen hou (behind one's body) refers to later time. For these two terms, we will explain their usages in next paper. Another body-part term "head" is located in the highest point in the whole body and is also the most important part. So the position above head must be higher and the position below head must be lower. Thus "head" plus spatial terms UP/DOWN is metaphorically mapped onto the social status: "up head" (shang tou) refers to superior; "down head" (xia tou) refers to subordinate. So Chinese has such expression:

(10) Shang   tou   zenyang yaoqiu,   xia   tou   jiu   zenyang   qu   duo
     up   head   how   demand,   down   head   PRT   how   go   do
     "The subordinate do what the superior demand."

For another body part "hand" can manipulate many things, and spatial term "down" metaphorically means lower STATUAS, they combine together into " hand down" which in Chinese can refer to subordinate.

VI. Conclusion

This paper mainly discusses present state of studies on spatial metaphors at home and abroad. Since language provides us with a good clue to discover the underlying metaphorical concept in our cognitive system, in this paper, we mainly focus on Chinese spatial concepts and try to explore how some spatial terms are metaphorically expanded to other concepts at linguistic level. Through the study on Chinese lexis, we find some spatial terms are metaphorically used in this field. From this aspect, we say metaphor is an important way to develop the lexis in Chinese language as well as to interpret its development.

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Jihua Fan was born in Henan, China in 1975. She received her M.A. degree in linguistics from Hunan University, China in 2003.
She is currently an associate professor in the School of Foreign Languages, North China Institute, Beijing, China. Her research interests include cognitive linguistics and language teaching.

Information Structure and Direct Object Indexation in Persian

Fatemeh Bahrami
Department of Linguistics, University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran

Vali Rezai
Department of Linguistics, University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—Object indexation is a grammatical phenomenon in which a clitic pronoun, co-referential with the free nominal object, appends to the verb. Optionality of indexation in Persian leads us to consider the role of pragmatic factors in its occurring. The present study aims at investigating the influence of information structure on direct object indexation in Persian. To do this, the data of standard spoken Persian including 540 cases were extracted from various resources and then analyzed within the framework of Role and Reference Grammar. The high frequency of topical direct object indexation confirms the role of information structure in direct object indexation. Analyzing the few cases of focal direct object indexation indicated that all cases of both topical and focal object indexation necessarily involve identifiable referents. Hence, the basic requirement in direct object indexation in Persian is identifiability of its referent. Considering the syntactic position of direct object in Persian clauses shows strong overlap of topical and focal objects. The post-core slot only belongs to the topical direct object and focal object cannot be placed there. Therefore, in order to identify the pragmatic relations of direct object in a clause, considering the context of the discourse is highly important.

Index Terms—object indexation, information structure, topic, focus, identifiability

I. INTRODUCTION

Object indexation occurs when a co-indexed clitic is placed on the verb beside the overt accusative noun phrase in the clause (Belloro, 2007, p. 72). This grammatical phenomenon is also available in Persian. In the following transitive clauses, in addition to the obligatory subject agreement marker, a pronominal clitic which is co-referential with the object is also joined to the verb.

(1)	mɑn	**dɑ̃niɑ̃l**	o[1]		tanhɑ̃	bozorg.**e**ʃ[2]		kɑrdɑm
	I	Daniel	OM		lonely	large.obj index3SG		do.PAST.1SG

I raised Danial by myself.

(2)	**behʃɑd**	pesɑr.e	ʔɑ̃qɑ̃.ye	moxtɑ̃ri	ro	miʃnɑ̃s.i.**ʃ**
	Behshad	son.EZ	Mr.EZ	Mokhtari	OM	know.PRES.2SG.obj index3SG

Do you now Behshad, Mr. Mokhtari's son?

The point to be mentioned in these structures is that joining these pronominal clitic is optional; but this does not mean that all accusative noun phrases can be freely indexed. Rather, it seems that discoursal factors such as definiteness, identifiability and information structure of object noun phrases are also effective in indexation. In the present study, we are to investigate the indexation of direct object in Persian using the functional approach of Role and Reference Grammar; the issue not having been adequately considered in structuralist approaches due to ignoring pragmatic aspects of language.

Considering relatively free word order of clause elements in Persian on the one hand, and optionality of direct object indexation on the other hand, the information structure theory in Role and Reference Grammar seems to provide an appropriate tool for analyzing this grammatical phenomenon in Persian. In this study, we aim at answering the question of whether the pragmatic relationship of a direct object (its focus structure) and the object's referent status in terms of identifiability are effective in indexation. The second question is whether the topical and focal objects occupy different positions in the clause. To do this, after a brief review of some studies done on this issue, the theoretical framework is introduced in section 3. Afterwards, Persian examples are investigated and analyzed according to information structure theory.

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1 . "râ", "ro" and "o" are allomorphs of the same morpheme i.e "object marker"
2 . Object Indexation Marker can join to the verbal or preverbal component of a compound verb

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The linguistic evidence illustrates that object indexation is available in Roman, Balkan–Slavic, Albanian, Iranian, Celtic and Greek among the Indo-European family, Semitic languages among the Hemic-Semitic family and Bantu branches of East Africa (Borer, 1984; Anagnostopoulou, 2003; Torrego, 1998; Belloro, 2007 & etc.). Object indexation depends on various factors in different languages including identifiability, animacy, person, number and information structure (Comrie, 1981&1989; Croft, 1988 & 2003). Some of the most relevant studies are refered to in this section.

Kallulli (2000) states that direct object indexation in Albanian and Greek is used not only for animate-referring noun phrases, but also for definite and inanimate ones. The only constraint for indexation is on placing object in focal position; in this situation, in spite of the definiteness of the noun phrase, indexation is not allowed. In Larike (one of the Indonesian languages) object indexation depends on its discoursal prominence and in case of not being prominent, only one of the elements can be used, nominal or indexed one (Laidig & Laidig, 1990). In Macedonian, definite noun phrases have obligatory indexation in direct and oblique object positions. Petkova Schick (2000) believes that in this language, the indexed structures do not interact with information structure of clauses. This phenomenon works independently from topicality of the object noun phrases and only works as a grammatical tool to focus on definiteness. Also, in Swahili, there is a close correlation between object indexation marking and its topicality (Seidl & Dimitriadis, 1997). In Chicheŵa, object indexation is dependent on topicality of the accusative noun phrase. Also, the presence of object indexation may lead to deletion of the co-referential noun phrase which is dependent on contextual information (Bresnan & Mchombo, 1987).

In studying Ruwund, from the Bantu languages branch, Woolford (2001) points out that in this language no feature affects object indexation in isolation and various combinations of features are involved, including: [+animate, +identifiable]; [+identifiable, +focal]; [+animate, +target] and [+animate, +benefactive / malefactive]. Taking into account the universal aspects, Woolford (1999) adopts a typological approach to investigate the evidence from four African languages and presents various hierarchies in object indexation that these languages follow. With regard to information structure, she considers the influence of focal > non-focal hierarchy in these languages. Following optimality theory, to justify hierarchies involved, she relates the features to some constraints that are violable when in lower ranks.

Weissenrieder (1995) regards the nature of object indexation as agreement marker; however, she points out that object indexation is optional, contrary to subject agreement, and involves factors such as topicality, animacy, definiteness and specificity. Suñer (2000) mentions that indexation of independent pronouns is obligatory in all Spanish dialects because they always refer to the presupposed elements. Gutiérrez Rexach (2000) claims that indexed presupposed elements are necessarily non-focal and focal noun phrases cannot be indexed. Nevertheless, Suñer (1988, p.420) mentions some cases in which indexation of accusative noun phrases occurs in the focal position.

In order to completely describe the effective conditions on the occurrence of object indexation in Spanish, Belloro (2007) applies a functional approach and examines discursal factors. According to her, whenever the referent of a direct object is cognitively available, indexation is available. Reversely, in the case of oblique object indexes principally appear when the referents of their objects are inactive in the discourse. Accordingly, Belloro presents a precise explanation for indexation occurence in Spanish, without facing counter examples. Rarity of the indexed indefinite object is related to lack of identifiability.

Recently, some aspects of clitic elements have been studied in Persian; however, the pragmatic aspects of indexation have not been adequately considered. Megerdoomian (2006, p.16) states that although the function of accusative pronouns is limited to spoken language; they often appear in journalistic texts too. They have the possibility of being attached to prepositions and transitive verbs. Furthermore, they can join to preverbal element or the verbal part of compound verbs. Samvelian & Tseng (2010) present a similar analysis.

Rasekh Mahand (2005 & 2010) gives the most detailed discussion with respect to the grammatical nature of indexed accusative elements. Rasekh Mahand (2009) affirms that clitic elements only co-occur with definite direct objects and does not go with non-definite ones. However, witnessing some cases of indefinite direct object indexation, we present evidence which shows that definiteness may not be considered as a necessary condition in Persian direct object indexation. An example is presented here.

(3)	xodã	**harki**	ro	biʃtɑr	dus.eʃ	dãre	biʃtɑr
	God	everybody	OM	more	friend.obj index3SG	have.PRES.3SG	more
	gereftãr.eʃ		mikone				
	pushed.obj index3SG		do.PRES.3SG				
	The more God loves one, the more he troubles him.						

We will return to this issue, in section 4-1.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In Role and Reference Grammar theory which focuses on the interface between syntax and semantic/pragmatic factors, information structure, as its pragmatic part, forms one of the basic components of grammar. This approach

assumes a correlation between formal structure of sentences and the linguistic and extra-linguistic contexts in which sentences are used as units of propositional information. In RRG, the approach taken to information structure builds upon Lambrecht (1994, 2000) and is based on the idea that the structure of a sentence reflects in systematic and theoretically interesting ways a speaker's assumptions about the addressee's state of mind at the time of an utterance. Lambrecht (1994, p. 340) asserts that this approach answers the basic but often-neglected question of why grammars provide so many different ways of expressing the same proposition. In the following lines the most important parts of this theory will be introduced.

A. Focus Structure of the Clause

The most important concepts related to information structure include: presupposition, assertion3, topic, and focus. Lambrecht (1994) takes topic and focus as two information states related to referential expressions which have the pragmatic-discursal role and are not defined in terms of their syntactic position in the clause. In defining the topical and focal relations, he refers to the concepts of presupposition and assertion.

Lambrecht (1994, p. 52) defines presupposition as "the set of propositions lexico-grammatically evoked in a sentence which the speaker assumes the hearer already knows or is ready to take for granted at the time the sentence is uttered". He, in fact, takes the old information of a sentence as pragmatic presupposition and the presupposed entity constitutes topical elements in a syntactic structure. More precisely, the topic of a sentence is a referential expression whose referent is in the center of interest in the conversation and communicative interaction and about which more additional information is available to the addressee. Lambrecht insists on the fact that only by being presupposition or old information an element cannot be taken as topical, rather in addition to the mentioned condition, topical elements must enjoy centrality in discourse and communicative interaction (ibid).

According to him (1994, p. 52) the pragmatic assertion is "the proposition expressed by a sentence which the hearer is expected to know or take for granted as a result of hearing the sentence uttered". In general, it can be said that a referent is considered as the topic of proposition if in a specific communicative act, the proposition is basically ABOUT that referent i.e. it contains the information related to that referent (Lambrecht, 1994: 118). In Erteschick-Shir's opinion (2007, p. 20), previous mention is an indication of topichood; however topics are not necessarily associated with previous mention. Lambrecht (1994, p. 120) points out that the discourse context has a significant role in determining the topic in languages such as English in which neither grammatical relations nor linear configuration of structures act as a reliable tool in representing topic structure. Considering this issue in analyzing Persian is highly important.

Focus is the semantic component of the pragmatically structured proposition and whereby the presupposition and the assertion DIFFER from each other. Focus is basically the unpredictable or pragmatically non-recoverable element in an utterance (ibid, pp. 206-207). Lambrecht necessarily does not take the focal element as equivalent to new information (1994, p. 211). He defends his position by presenting the following example.

(4) Q: Where did you go last night, to the movies or to the restaurant?
     A: We went to the RESTAURANT.

In the response to this question the denotatum of the noun phrase the restaurant is discourse-active because it was mentioned in the immediately preceding question; therefore, information is not considered as new, but it is considered as non-recoverable or unpredictable at the time of utterance.

Lambrecht (1994, 2000) takes three foci which are as follows: argument focus, predicate focus and sentence focus. In argument focus, only a single constituent like subject, object or verb can be placed in focus relation. In Role and Reference Grammar, this focus is called narrow focus. The predicate focus is related to the unmarked topic-comment sentences in which the predicate is the focus and the subject (plus any other topical elements) is in the presupposition. Lambrecht (2000, p. 615) believes that this structure is the most unmarked information structure. The topic or the subject constituent is pragmatically presupposed and the comment ABOUT it contains new information. Finally, the sentence focus refers to a situation in which both topic and comment are new information; therefore, focus extends over both the subject and the predicate (minus any topical non-subject elements).

Since the topic-comment structures are assumed to be unmarked, subject is generally the sentence topic; however, this is not always the case and sometimes other structures may play the role of topic, too. This situation is presented in the following example provided by Lambrecht (1994, p. 146) in which the object is the topic and stress falls on the last constituent of the sentence.

(5)   Pat said they called her TWICE.

According to Lambrecht (ibid, p. 147) the fact that in topicalization, a non-subject noun phrase can be topic does not entail that the subject must lose its topic status, but sometimes a clause may have two topics; the subject as the primary topic and the pre-posed structure as the secondary one. These two points have great importance in investigating the focus structure of indexed direct objects.

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3. Van Valin (2005: 69) points out that Lambrecht's pragmatic assertion is equivalent to the concept of "comment" in Gundel (1998).

Lambrecht distinguishes marked narrow focus from unmarked one; the distinction depends on the position of focus constituent which is various in different languages. In Persian, the unmarked position of the focus is preverbal (Rezai & Tayyeb, 2006, p. 19).

Another distinction refers to the difference between the potential focus domain and the actual focus domain proposed by Van Valin (1993). The actual focus domain is the part of the sentence in which the focal element occurs and the potential domain refers to that part of the sentence in which the focus may potentially occur. In English and Persian, the potential focus domain is the whole sentence and therefore, the narrow focus can occur in every position of the sentence; however, based on its position it can be considered marked or unmarked.

In different languages, various strategies are used to encode the information status of structures, which mainly include morpho-syntactic tools, intonation and prosodic properties. In Persian, the narrow focus structure is indicated by putting stress on the focal element; in addition, the topicalization is also available as a syntactic tool. In the predicate focus structures, the focal stress falls on the predicate and the subject is in the topic position. Therefore, its presence is not obligatory and has the potentiality of being absent. But in the sentence focus, because of the presence of subject in the focal position, it cannot be deleted. As Van Valin (2005, p. 71) states, the most common function of sentence focus is in presentational structures and in Lambrecht's words (1994, p. 180), the most common presentational clauses among languages are those types whose predicates often have strictly non-agentive argument; like have, arrive, live, be at, be and their equivalents in other languages.

Rezai & Tayyeb (2006, p. 19) present the following discussion regarding the focus structure in Persian. The configuration of sentence structure in Persian is not always free and information structure imposes some constraints on the configuration of structures. As an example, the focus costituent cannot occur in the post-verbal position 4. Furthermore, contrary to the expectations, the presence of the subject noun phrase is not always optional in Persian and if placed in the focal position, its presence is obligatory. As Van Valin (1998) points out, in SOV languages the preverbal position is the unmarked focal position and Rezai & Tayyeb (2006) confirm this claim by investigating Persian evidence. Also Yar Mohammadi (2002, p. 15) states that in Persian unmarked focus structures the stress falls on the element placed in preverbal position, but the marked focal position occurs in the sentence initial position. Therefore, narrow focus elements can be placed in the initial position as well. Rezai & Tayyeb (2006, p. 19) mention that in addition to focus elements, other non-focal elements can be influenced by topicalization and occur in the sentence initial position; however in this situation they lack prosodic prominence while focal elements are necessarily stress-bearing. As Lambrecht (1994, p. 201) remarks the possibility of topicalization is available for both focal and topical constituents in many languages and the only difference lies in their being stressed or not. If for some reasons, like prominence or emphasis, non-focal non-subject noun phrase is placed in the initial position of the clause, it will not be stress-bearing. As a summary, the configuration of the transitive clause constituents, especially direct object position in different kinds of focus, is presented in table 3-1. The focus elements are in bold.

TABLE I
THE CONFIGURATION OF STRUCTURES IN DIFFERENT KINDS OF FOCUS EXTRACTED FROM REZAI & TAYYEB (2006: 17)

Focus Type		Word order of the clause
predicate	unmarked (in situ)	(subject) + **object** + **verb**
	marked (initial position)	**Object** + **verb** +(subject)
Sentence	unmarked (in situ)	**Subject** + **object** + **verb**
	marked (initial position)	**Object** + **subject** + **verb**
narrow	unmarked (in situ)	**Subject** + object + verb Subject + **object** + verb Subject + object + **verb**
	marked (initial position)	**Object** + subject + verb Object + **subject** + verb

Roberts (2005, p. 22) examines the scrambling process in Persian based on focus structure and different syntactic positions. He also asserts that since Persian, in spite of its unmarked configuration of SVO, has a free word order, in addition to the stress position, the focus structure of the clause are encoded through the syntactic strategy, too. Exploring the Persian evidence and using the ideas of Mahoutian (1997), Rezai (2003) and Ganjavi (2003), he presents the syntactic position of the clause elements, and the direct object among them, regarding the information structure.

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4. It should be noted that this situation is mainly true for transitive sentences but in ditransitive clauses, a focal oblique object can be placed in post-verbal position.

TABLE II
DIRECT OBJECT NOUN PHRASE PLACEMENT POSSIBILITIES IN PERSIAN EXTRACTED FROM ROBERTS (2005: 28)

	in situ (preverbal)	pre oblique	PrCS	PoCS	LDP[5]
Definite topical DO	-	-	+	-	+
indefinite topical DO	-	-	+	-	-
definite focal DO	-	+	+	-	-
indefinite focal DO	+	+	-	-	-

Although Roberts presents a detailed account of the syntactic structure of the clause in the framework of Role and Reference Grammar, his analysis of the clause focus structure and the position of topical and focal elements is not sufficiently precise. This analysis does not allow the possibility of the presence of the focus and topic in some positions of the clause which is not consistent with Persian evidence. This issue, especially with respect to the direct object noun phrase, has a great significance, concerning our subject matter and we will refer to it in section 4-2.

Having introduced the clause information structure, now another part of this theory is given, which refers to the cognitive state of the referents in discourse.

B. The Activation States of Referents

Role and Reference Grammar presents the cognitive state of referents based on the classifications by Prince (1981) and Chafe (1987), and believes that the speaker, according to the hearer's familiarity with the referents, chooses the proper linguistic forms to refer to them. Chafe (1987) affirms that the term "identifiability" is applied to differentiate between the present elements and the elements which have not yet come into existence in the universe of discourse. The unidentifiable referents refer to the elements which have not yet been shaped in the audience's mind and are not referable deictically. Using linguistic expressions, the speaker creates a new mental representation that can be recoverable in the next discourse. Lambrecht (1994, p. 77) metaphorically calls this primary mental representation as a new "referential file" in the discourse register, to which further elements of information may be added in the course of the conversation and which can be reopened in the future discourse; hence, the referent becomes identifiable for the audience. In Role and Reference Grammar, there are five levels of activation which are now presented and defined based on Van Valin (2005, p. 79):

Active is a referent which is actively under consideration in the discourse by means of direct mention. Zero and pronominal forms or unstressed referential expressions are used to represent these referents.

Accessible is a referent which is not actively under consideration but readily recognized by the addressee due either to knowledge of the world or to occurrence in the immediate environment of the speech situation. These referents are in the addressee's peripheral consciousness and the addressee has background knowledge regarding them, but at the time of utterance they are not in the center of attention. Chafe (1987, p. 22) uses two expressions of textual accessibility and inferential accessibility in order to refer to different kinds of accessible referents. Lambrecht (1994, pp. 99-100) adds the third kind of accessibility called situational accessibility. A textually accessible referent is deactivated from an earlier state, but because of being placed in the participants' peripheral consciousness, it still enjoys accessibility. In inferential accessibility, by referring to one referent, all referents associated to the related cognitive schema or framework will be accessible and finally sometimes referents of a noun phrase become accessible because of its presence in the text-external world.

Inactive refers to previously mentioned referents which are not actively under consideration at the time of utterance and not assumed by the speaker to be recognized by the addressee. These referents are in the participants' long-term memory and are not paid attention to. They may also be inactive until unknown time; however, as soon as they are referred to in discourse, they will become active. These referents are usually represented in the form of a stressed noun phrase.

Brand new-anchored is a referent which was not previously mentioned, but is related to something already introduced or accessible. In other words, this referent is anchored to another noun phrase or constituent in the text and is bound to it.

Brand new-unanchored is a referent not previously mentioned and not related to anything previously mentioned. Both kinds of brand new noun phrases are represented in the form of indefinite noun phrases (e.g. a guy). But in case of a brand new anchored referent, the indefinite noun phrase accompanies a definite noun phrase (e.g. a guy I work with).

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5. Roberts (ibid) believes the possibility of the presence of a definite topical direct object in the left detached position and to confirm his claim he refers to an example presented by Mahoutian (1997:124). Regarding this issue, it should be noted that this example is a two-clause compound sentence; while in the present study, only one-clause sentences are considered. In addition, according to Lambrecht (1994:182), the most important criterion for identifying a sentence having the left detached position and its difference from clauses having object indexation is obligation of resumptive pronoun co-referential with the noun phrase, while in the example provided by Roberts and every other sample with direct object indexation in Persian, the indexed pronoun co-referential with the object is optional. Therefore, there is no evidence indicating the presence of the direct object in the left detached position in clauses with object indexation in Persian.

All active, accessible and inactive referents are identifiable, but brand new - unanchored and anchored referents are unidentifiable. More precisely, the identifiability decreases passing from active referents towards new unanchored referents.

Lambrecht (1994, pp. 110-111) by presenting an example, considers the activation states of the referents of noun phrases in discourse, to which we will refer to clarify the discussion. The relevant referential expressions are underlined. Small capitals indicate main points of pitch prominence.

(6)   I heard something TERRIBLE last night. (Ø) remember MARK, the guy we went HIKING with (Ø), who's GAY? His LOVER just die d of AIDS.

The deictic pronouns I, we and the first Ø are active and receive their salience from the text-external world. The referents of the anaphoric pronominal expressions who, his and the second Ø enjoy active status because of the text-internal world and they refer to the noun Mark which was previously mentioned. The active state of these referents is expressed via pronominal coding and absence of prosodic prominence. The referent of the noun phrase something terrible is brand new-unanchored, while Mark and AIDS are inactive. All three mentioned noun phrases are prosodically prominent. The referent of the temporal phrase last night is situationally accessible being deictically anchored with reference to the time of utterance. Due to its deictic status, it may go unstressed. Finally, the referent of the noun phrase his lover is inferentially accessible; both because of its relationship with the cognitive framework of the word gay and the anaphoric relationship with the now active referent Mark instantiated in the possessive determiner his. However, because of being stress-bearing, it is not active in discourse. In order to supplement the discussion, Lambrecht (ibid) expands his example:

(7)   Mark is terribly UPSET.

Following Lambrecht, if the speaker after some dialogue about the person died of AIDS shifts back to the person called Mark using the utterance (7), the referent of this noun phrase will be textually accessible. This referent cannot be coded by pronouns because due to the intervening discourse it has already been deactivated; however, it is still present in the current discourse and accessible. Therefore, it is coded via the lexical noun phrase and based on the speaker's assumption about the addressee's mental ability in recovering the referent it can be stressed or unstressed

One of the most significant issues with respect to information structure is the natural interaction between focus structure, the form of coding of the noun phrases and the activation states of the referents in the discourse. Role and Reference Grammar presents a hierarchy which shows the interaction between the pragmatic role (topic and focus) and their mode of coding. According to this continuum, by distancing away from the right, the identifiability of the referent decreases.
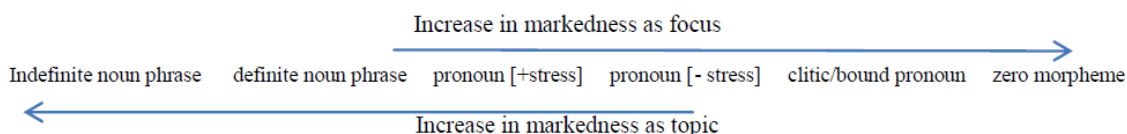
Increase in markedness as focus

Indefinite noun phrase   definite noun phrase   pronoun [+stress]   pronoun [- stress]   clitic/bound pronoun   zero morpheme

Increase in markedness as topic

Figure1. the relationship between the pragmatic role and the mode of coding extracted from Van Valin and LaPolla (1997**: 205**)

According to the figure, zero coding is the most unmarked form for topic and the indefinite noun phrase is the most unmarked choice for focus. Interestingly, the inactive referent cannot be used as a topic, but an active referent can be placed in the focus position. From another perspective, the relationship between two sides of the continuum is asymmetric, i.e. indefinite noun phrases (e.g. common nouns) can take the topic role according to the property of identifiability (see Lambrecht, 1994, pp. 167-170); however, no focus element can be coded as zero form or clitic.

Lambrecht (1994, p. 160-167) affirms that although the concepts of topic and identifiability are related to each other, it should be noted that they are totally different. The topical relation is not responsible for coding the referent activation state, but it establishes the referent of a noun phrase as the discussed issue in a clause, about which more additional information is available for the addressee. In other words, there is no obligation for all identifiable referents to be construed as topical. However, identifiability is the necessary (but not sufficient) condition for construing a referent as a topical constituent (ibid, p. 163) because some degree of identifiability of the referent is needed to consider it as a topic. It cannot be expected that more information should be available about a referent which has not been activated in discourse and has not been identifiable for the addressee yet. Accordingly, Lambrecht (1994, p. 165) presents the Topic Acceptability Scale, which indicates the relationship between the pragmatic relation of the referents and their activation level.

Active >accessible >inactive > brand new anchored > brand new unanchored

Figure2. the topic acceptability scale extracted from Lambrecht (1994, p. 165)

Having presented the theoretical framework, we will examine and analyze the Persian evidence in the following.

IV. DISCUSSION AND RESULTS

The data are analyzed in two separate sections. At first, the role of information structure in occurring indexation is examined. Afterwards, the positions of the focal and topical direct objects in the clause will be discussed.

A. The Role of Information Structure

As mentioned, object indexation in Persian is optional and the objective of the present study is to consider the role of the clause information structure in its occurrence. To do this, linguistic evidence including 540 samples of object indexation extracted from more than 90 TV shows, miniseries, lectures and some dialogues from standard spoken Persian were collected and scrutinized in terms of information structure. To be natural, the data were extracted from various TV programs so that a specific genre's or speaker's influence might not be imposed on the data. Furthermore, the daily live programs with diverse topics and several administrators in different days of the week were considered in data collection. In this line, it should be noted that only those conditions which make object indexation possible are of special importance in the present study and hence, even a specific genre's or individual's influence do not distort the data. However, it has been attempted to select randomly from diverse data sources. The results of investigating the data in terms of direct object indexation are presented in the following table.

TABLE III.
FOCUS STRUCTURE STATUS OF INDEXED DIRECT OBJECTS IN PERSIAN EVIDENCE

	topical direct object	focal direct object	total samples
sample	465	75	540
percentage	86.1	13.9	100

The Persian evidence illustrates that despite the high frequency of topical direct object indexation which allocates to itself about 86% of the sample, some cases of focal direct object indexation are also observed. Therefore, in this regard, Persian is similar to Chicheŵa, Swahili and Spanish, and different from Ruwund and some other African languages of Bantu branch (see Bresnan, J. and S. Mchombo, 1987; Woolford, 1999; and Suñer, 2000). Consequently, Persian confirms with the following hierarchy in direct object indexation.

Hierarchy of information structure: topical > focal

In this regard, the answer to this basic question is of great significance: how can one justify the high frequency of topical object indexation and a few cases of focus objects? Is it basically possible to explain all cases of object indexation in Persian based on a single criterion? To this end, the other part of information structure theory i.e. the identifiability of the indexed object referent, including both topic and focus, should be taken into account.

Lambrecht (1994, p. 262) points out that while the referent of a topical constituent should be identifiable and have some degree of pragmatic prominence in discourse; the focus structure is free from identifiability and activation. He adds that although new referents are generally placed in the focus position, the presence of the active referent in the focus position is also possible. Analyzing the Persian evidence in terms of the identifiability of the indexed direct object referents illustrates that not only do all topical and focal objects have identifiable referents, but they also are located in the higher levels of the continuum. It means that in the case of the presence of a single referent, deictic reference, possessive reference, anaphoric reference via pronouns and relation with a cognitive framework, the referent of object noun phrase in discourse is generally active and in some cases accessible, while not even a single case of direct object indexation with a new referent was found in the present data. In order to clarify the discussion, some instances of focal direct object indexation are presented here:

(8) ʔemruz **pesɑr.e** **mɑrhum** **soleiman** o sɑrɑfrɑ̃z.**eʃ** kɑrdin
today son.EZ deceased Soleiman OM unbowed.obj indx3SG do.PRES.2PL
Today, you have honored the late Soleiman's son.

(9) **xɑ̃nom** o d͡ʒelo.ye bimɑ̃restɑ̃n piɑ̃dɑ.**ʃun** kon
lady OM front.EZ hospital walk.obj indx3PL do.IMP.2SG
Would you please drop the lady in front of the hospital?

(10) ʔin d͡ʒɑʃnvɑ̃re **kodum** **bɑxʃ** ɑz ʔin ʔertebɑ̃t ro mitune
this festival which part from this relation OM can.PRES.3SG
taqviɑt.**eʃ** kone
revival. obj indx3SG do.PRES.3SG
Which part of this relationship can this festival reinforce?

(11) mɑn ʔemruz ʔenʃɑ̃lɑ̃ mixɑ̃m **ʔin** **bɑhs** o
I today if God wishes want. PRES.1SG this discussion OM
bɑ̃z.**eʃ** konɑm ke...
open. obj indx3SG do.PRES.1SG that...
Today, if God wishes, I want to raise this discussion that**…**

In the above examples, the referents of indexed focal elements in discourse are totally identifiable (8-9 situationally and 10-11 textually). Therefore, all instances of direct object indexation in Persian, including topical and focal, are accounted for in terms of a single criterion. In addition, the high frequency of the indexation of topical objects can easily be justified because all topical elements are necessarily identifiable. This fact is in line with the Lambrecht's hierarchy of topical acceptability. Conversely, focal elements generally enjoy new referents and are unidentifiable in discourse. They just have high identifiability in a few cases. Therefore, it is not surprising that focal direct object indexation allocates to itself only 14% of the total data of the present study.

In section 2, it was mentioned that indefinite direct object indexation has been observed in some cases, which is unexpected according to Rasekh Mahand (2009). In this regard, considering the example (3) in terms of information structure will be helpful. To better introduce the context in which the utterance has been used, the speaker's previous sentences are presented as well.

(12)

?ensãn	bãyad	dar	saxti.hã	moqãvemat	kone	va	?etemãd.ef
man	should	in	difficulty.PL	resistance	do.SBJN.3SG	and	trust.POSS
be	xodã	ro	?az	dast	nãde.	xodã	**harki**	ro	biftar
to	God	OM	from	hand	NEG.give.SBJN.3SG	God	everybody	OM	more
dus.ef		dãre		biftar	gereftãr.ef		mikone.
friend.obj index3SG		have.PRES.3SG		more	pushed.obj index3SG		do.PRES.3SG

A <u>man</u> should persist against calamities and shouldn't lose <u>his</u> trust in *God*. The more God loves <u>one</u>, the more *He* troubles <u>him</u>.

Lambrecht (1994, p. 95) claims that generic pronouns like English *you* and *they* and German *man* or words like *people* which have common referents, are undoubtedly active in discourse because their referents are so general that they may always be taken for granted and need not be activated. Accordingly, the referent of the word "?ensãn" (human being) at the beginning of the utterance has the property of identifiability and is active in discourse due to being general in Persian. Later on in the dialogue, one can see that the indefinite pronoun "harki" (everybody) replaces the word "?ensãn" (human being) and is still considered as a common referent for the mentioned humankind. In addition, due to its anaphoric reference, it is considered active in discourse; therefore, the necessary condition is provided for its indexation. On the other hand, in terms of information structure, it enjoys the topical state since it forms the presupposed part of proposition and is already at the core of concentration and communicative interaction. In other words, it is the element which has previously been mentioned in the context and about which some more additional information is available for the addressee. Consequently, in this sentence, there are two topical participants: the subject "xodã" (God) as primary topic and the direct object "harki" (everybody) as the secondary topic.

B. Possible Positions for Direct object

As a complementary discussion we are to review the syntactic position of both kinds of topical and focal direct objects in Persian clause. As mentioned in the introduction, due to the relatively free word order of Persian clauses, the issue which appeals to the attention is the possible syntactic positions for topical and focal direct objects in a clause.

Roberts (2005, p. 28) limits the possibility of placing topical definite and indefinite direct objects to the pre-core slot position (clause initial position) and clearly affirms that topical direct objects cannot be placed in situ (preverbal), i.e. before oblique object and in post-core slot positions (clause final position). However, our data illustrates the presence of a topical object in each of the mentioned places. Interestingly, in more than half of the cases, the topical direct object is found in the preverbal position. It should be noted that, in his classification, Roberts does not make it clear whether the topical direct object has been used in transitive or ditransitive clauses, but the examples he refers to include both kinds of transitive predicates. In the present study, it was identified that in 195 cases of transitive clauses, direct objects are placed in immediately preverbal position, which is the unmarked object position in Persian, a SOV language. In the ditransitive clauses, there are 8 cases in which direct object is placed in the preverbal position and the oblique object is in the post-verbal site. Here, just two examples of the topical direct object in the preverbal position in transitive and ditransitive clauses are referred to:

(13)

pitf.e	baqal	dasti	ro	bãz.ef	kardam
screw.EZ	beside	hand	OM	open. obj indx3SG	do.PAST.1SG

I unscrewed the adjacent screw.

(14)

?edʒãze	bede	**to**	ro	befrestam.**et**	pif.e	?unã
allow	give.IMP.2SG	you	OM	send.PRES.1SG. obj indx2SG	beside.EZ	them

Let me sent you to them.

Furthermore, the presence of a topical direct object before oblique object and in post-core slot is confirmed in Persian; the positions which are not allowed according to Roberts. Here, an example is provided for each of them.

(15)

ye	deiqe	**?in**	o	be	man	midi.ʃ?
one	minute	this	OM	to	I	give.INT. 1SG. obj indx3SG

Can you give it to me for just a minute?

(16) | ʧeqɑd | mɑn | dus.eʃ | dɑrɑm | ʔin | ʔɑdɑm | o |
|------|-----|--------|--------|-----|-------|---|
| how much | I | friend.obj index3SG | have.PRES.1SG | this | man | OM |

How much I love this guy!

In addition, topical elements can be placed after the oblique object and also before and after the adjunct, about which Roberts has nothing to say. Now, one example is referred to for each of the mentioned issues respectively:

(17) | bɑ | ye | ʧɑkoʃ | nowdʒɑvun | o | tɑhqir.eʃ | konim |
|----|----|-------|-----------|---|-----------|-------|
| with | one | hammer | teenager | OM | disdain. obj index3SG | do.IMP.1PL |

Do not disdain a teenager with a hammer!

(18) | ʔagr | ʔun | nowdʒɑvun | o | dar | hozur.e | dustɑʃ | baqal.eʃ |
|------|-----|-----------|---|-----|---------|--------|----------|
| if | that | teenager | OM | in | presence.EZ | friends.POSS | embrace.obj index3SG |
| konin | | vɑkoneʃ | neʃun | mide | | | |
| do.SBJN.2PL | | reaction | show | give.PRES.3SG | | | |

If you embrace that teenager in the presence of his friends, he will react.

(19) | mɑ̃ | bɑ̃yad | tu | hamin | hafte | ʔaxtar | o | ʃowhar.eʃ | bedim |
|-----|-------|-----|-------|-------|--------|---|-----------|-------|
| we | must | in | this | week | Akhtar | OM | husband.obj index3SG | give.SBJN.1PL |

We should marry Akhtar this very week.

It can be concluded that there is no limitation regarding the position of a topical direct object in Persian. As Roberts indicates, only in case that the topical direct object is indefinite, it cannot be placed before oblique object (dative). In this regard, it should be noted that absence of an indefinite direct object in this position is due to the semantic considerations of the verb itself not its topicality. In fact, semantically, the collocation of indefinite direct object and oblique object (dative) in a clause is impossible because basically an indefinite element lacking referential property cannot be related to an oblique object and be in some relation with it. For example, in case of the ditransitive verb "gereftan" (get) someone (subject) necessarily gets something (direct object) from someone (oblique object) whose identity is known to both interlocutors or only at least to the speaker. However, in case that by oblique object we mean every kind of objects except direct ones, it should be noted that there is no limitation for the presence of an indefinite topical direct object after or even before some oblique objects e.g instrument. This is the issue which should have been considered in Robert's analysis. The following examples confirm this claim:

(20) | mɑn | gɑ̃hi | ʃokolɑt | ro | bɑ̃ | ʧɑ̃qu | teketek.aʃ | mikonɑm |
|-----|-------|---------|----|-----|------|-----------|---------|
| I | sometimes | chocolate | OM | with | knife | slice.obj index3SG | do.PRES.1SG |

I sometimes slice the chocolate with a knife.

(21) | mɑn | gɑ̃hi | bɑ̃ | ʧɑ̃qu | ʃokolɑt | ro | teketek.aʃ | mikonɑm |
|-----|-------|-----|------|---------|----|-----------|---------|
| I | sometimes | with | knife | chocolate | OM | slice.obj index3SG | do.PRES.1SG |

I sometimes slice the chocolate with a knife.

Regarding the focal direct object, Roberts takes the admissible position as preverbal, before oblique object and pre-core slot positions. As Rezai & Tayyeb (2006) and Rezai (2003) assert, a focal direct object cannot be placed in the post-verbal position in Persian and because the post-core slot is necessarily placed in the post-verbal position, no example of the presence of a focal direct object in the post-core slot is observed. Below, there are some examples of the presence of the focal object in the mentioned positions respectively:

(22) | baʧʧe.hɑ̃ | ro | hamɑ̃me.ʃun | mikardam |
|-----------|----|-----------|---------|
| children | OM | bathroom.obj index3PL | do.PAST.1SG |

I gave the kids a bath.

(23) | mɑn | ʔin | hadiye | ro | barɑ̃ | to | xaridam.eʃ |
|-----|-----|--------|----|------|-----|-----------|
| I | this | present | OM | for | you | buy.PAST.1SG. obj index3SG |

I have bought this present for you.

(24) | hamey.e | barge.hɑ̃.ye | ʔamal | o | ʔun | ʔemzɑ̃.ʃun | karde |
|---------|-------------|-------|---|-----|-----------|-------|
| all.EZ | sheet.PL.EZ | operation | OM | that | sign. obj index3PL | do.PAST.3SG |

He has signed all the operation sheets.

In the present linguistic evidence, the focal direct object is also observed in the positions after and before the adjunct.

(25) | ʔenqad | mɑn | o | ʔazɑ̃b.am | nade |
|-------|-----|---|---------|------|
| so much | I | OM | torment.obj index1SG | NEG.give.IMP.2SG |

Don't annoy me please.

(26) | ʔinke | mɑhrox | o | nɑ̃xɑ̃ste | ʔaziat.eʃ | konam |
|-------|--------|---|---------|-----------|-------|
| that | Mahrokh | OM | inadvertently | bother.obj index3SG | do.SBJN.1SG |

…that I inadvertently bother Mahrokh.

Therefore, the only difference in the positions of focal and topical objects is the impossibility of focal direct objects occurring in the post-core slot.

The last point to be regarded is that 64 cases of focal objects are positioned in predicate focus which is not unexpected due to the unmarkedness of topic- comment information structure. Only 2 cases are allocated to the narrow focus in which the direct object is in the form of question word and in the remaining 9 cases, the focus domain extends over the whole clause. The following examples indicate the narrow, predicate and sentence focuses respectively.

(27)   **kodum**   **ketãb.ɑm**   o   ʔandãxti.ʃ
       which   book.POSS   OM   throw out.PAST.2SG. obj index3SG
       Which book of mine did you throw out?

(28)   **dãdãʃ.e**   **doqolu.m**   o   motãd.eʃ   kɑrdɑm
       brother.EZ   Twin.POSS   OM   addicted.obj index3SG   do.PAST.1SG
       I addicted my twin brother.

(29)   ʔun   do   nɑfɑr   **mã**   ro   loxt.e.**mun**   kɑrdɑn
       that   two   people   we   OM   naked.EZ.obj index1PL   do.PAST.3PL
       Nothing happened; those two guys (bandits) stripped us.

V. CONCLUSION

The indexation of topical direct objects occurs in such a high percentage in Persian that there is no doubt regarding the possibility of their indexation and it seems unlikely that there is any limitation for indexation of topical objects. But, in case of focal direct objects, there is no sufficient evidence about the possibility of indexation in all cases. The common property of both kinds of focal and topical indexed direct objects is their referent identifiability. Therefore, according to the second part of information structure theory, it can be concluded that what firstly plays a role as the basic condition in direct object indexation is the pragmatic status of both definite and indefinite object referent which should necessarily have some degree of identifiability and be preferably active in the discourse. Based on the topic acceptability scale which refers to the correlation between the topical element and identifiable referent, it seems unarguably logical that topical direct object indexation overtakes that of focal object because topical elements mostly enjoy high identifiability and are always active in the discourse in our data.

The comparison of the position of the topical and focal objects reveals that there is no limitation with respect to the syntactic position of focal and topical direct objects in Persian and it is possible to place them in any position of the clause. The only limitation is the impossibility of placing focal direct objects in the post-verbal and post-core positions. The syntactic tool of topicalization (positioning a constituent in pre-core slot) which creates a marked focus structure is used for both kinds of focal and topical objects and only the presence of stress on the pre-posed structure indicates its being focal. Therefore, as Lambrecht (1994, p. 120) claims, when neither grammatical relations nor the linear order of constituents do act as a reliable tool in recognizing a topical structure, the discourse context has a basic role in determining topics.

ABBREVIATIONS

DO	direct object
EZ	ezâfe
IMP	imperative mood
INT	interrogative mood
LDP	left detached position
NEG	negation
obj.index	object indexation marker
OM	object marker
PAST	past tense
PL	plural
PoCS	post core slot
POSS	possessive pronoun
PrCS	pre core slot
PRES	present tense
SG	singular
SBJN	subjunctive mood

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Fatemeh Bahrami was born in Isfahan, Islamic Republic of Iran. She is a PhD student in General Linguistics at the University of Isfahan, Iran. She completed a Master's degree in General Linguistics at the University of Isfahan in 2009 and got a BA in German Translation.

She has been teaching at University of Isfahan for four years. She also published several papers on Linguistics among them "Silbenstruktur des Deutschen und des Persischen" in ISI "Zeitschrift Für Germanische Linguistik" Journal. Her main Research Interests are Syntax, Typology and Pragmatics.

Vali Rezai is assistant professor of linguistics at the University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran. He received his Ph.D degree in General linguistics from the University of Isfahan in 2003. His primary research interests concern syntactic theories, typology and functional grammar. He has published many articles in Iranian and international journals.

Integration of Cultural Teaching into Cultivating College Learners' Communicative Competence

Qian Li

Foreign Languages Department of Shandong Jiaotong University, Jinan, China

Abstract—It is a universal consensus that language is a part of a certain culture and the acquisition of a foreign language is also the acquisition of a foreign culture. The study of communicative competence has recieved increasingly more attentions in the field of English teaching and learning, and a great deal has been discovered about the cultural teaching and communicative competence. This dissertation aims at prasenting a brief analysis of how we cultivate college learners' communicative through the way of cultural teaching. Firstly, the theoretical issues on culture and communicative competence are presented. An experimental study is conducted and analyzed in the second part. And pedagogical implications of cultural teaching is made accordingly. The integration of cultural teaching into the practice of English teaching as a foreign language acquisition is proved to be an effective way to cultivate college learners' communicative competence.

Index Terms—Integration, Cultural teaching, Communicative competence

Applied linguists and language teachers are increasingly aware that a foreign language can rarely be acquired or learned without addressing the culture of the community in which it is spoken and used. Linguistic competence is not enough to ensure a successful cross-cultural communication. A widely accepted idea is that cultural teaching must be taken as an essential part to cultivate and develop the college learners' ability for communicating.

I. THEORETICAL ISSUES ON CULTURE AND COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

A. Culture

In 1957, Robert Lado submed cultural teaching under foreign lanugage teaching (Lado, 1957). Since then numerous works and papers focused on cultural teaching have been released at home and abroad. Hall (2005) claimed that the notion of culture had always been considered an important concept in applied linguistics.

There are almost 200 definitions of culture in numerous ways. However it is defined, culture influences how we adapt and learn language, it also shapes people's thinking, acting and communicating according to group expectations.

There would have been a great deal of agreement concerning the major characteristics of culture regardless of many definitions we could have examined. The characteristics of culture can be summerized as the following: culture is a learned but not inherited behavior through communication; culture is shared by a group but not an isolated person; culture is symbolized with language as the most important symbolic system; culture is a unity and culture is never static.

Language does not exist in a vacuum. The relationship between language and culture cannot be ignored since culture is a set of values and beliefs which are prevalent within a given society or section of a society. If communication is assumed as swimming, then language is the swimming skill, and culture is water. Without language, communication would remain to a very limited degree in very shallow water; without culture there would be no communication at all. The relationship between language and culture can be supposed as the following

From a communication view:

$$\text{Language} \quad + \quad \text{culture} \rightarrow \text{communication}$$

$$\text{swimming skill} \qquad \text{water} \qquad \text{swimming}$$

On the basis of the above theory, language and culture cannot be seperated from each other.

B. Communicative Competence

Communicative competence is a complicated concept and has been put greater emphasis on in the foreign language teaching practice. Many definitions exit in the second language acquisition academy with the aim to reveal the nature and law of the language. The study and exploration of a second language is different from that of the mother-tongue which is of a more natural process. It can not be denied that the ultimate goal of the foreign language teaching is to cultivate the communicative competence of the learners. Bearing the purpose in mind, learners will have to posses a sort of competence, with which they might be able to use language appropriately and effectively. And this kind of competence is known as communicative competence.

Communicative competence is an extremely complex system of knowledge and ability, which includes a person's language knowledge, social background knowledge, literature knowledge, cognitive competence, emotional elements,

and so on. Just as Kramsch pointed out, language was the guide to social reality (Kramsch, 2000). Therefore, the task and goal of foreign language teaching can not be limited to passing on linguistic knowledge.

C. Culture and Communicative Competence

During the process of cross-cultural communication, ignorance of cultural aspects is a major factor hindering achieving successful communication. Therefore, foreign language teaching should lay special emphasis on cultural teaching with the aim of cultivating college learners' communicative competence.

The aims of cultural teaching are as to help students to develop an understanding of the fact that all people exhibit culturally-conditioned behaviors and to help students become more aware of conventional behavior in common situations in the target culture. Cultural teaching is also expected to help students increase their awareness of the cultural connotations of the words and phrases in the target culture and then stimulate students' intellectual curiosity about target culture and eventually help students develop the necessary skills to locate and organize information about the target culture and so on.

The aims of cultural teaching should be combined with the practical teaching situation in the teaching of culture course to reach more comprehensive cultural aims, that is, increasing learners' cultural awareness and cultivating their communicative competence. To be exact, the college learners of English as a foreign language must bear the following aims of cultural teaching and learning in mind. First of all, the cultural teaching is to help the learners to develop an understanding of the fact that all people exhibit culturally-conditioned behaviors. Next, it is to help the learners to increase their awareness of the cultural connotation of the words and phrases in the target culture. Also, the cultural teaching is to help the learners to develop the necessary skills to locate and organize the information on the target culture.

Brown (2002) argued that there are some teaching principles the instructors must attach great importance to in the teaching practice. Teachers should follow the following cultural teaching principles for the development of students' preliminary culture awareness in the teaching activities. First of all, target language should be used as the primary vehicle to teach culture. Secondly, negative effects of native culture on target culture teaching should be prevented. Also important is cultural comparison method should be employed in the process of cultural teaching.

The main purpose of cultural teaching which aims at enhancing the learners' communicative competence is to produce certain language forms in an acceptable way. Dodd claimed that "Intercultural effectiveness is the goal of intercultural communication" (Dodd, 2006, p.26). The teacher's overall purpose is to prepare the students with the necessary linguistic forms and the necessary links between forms and meanings. The teachers should also help the learners to gain insight into general concepts of culture and acquire the ability of critical thinking and action regarding the target culture.

In consideration of the principles and purpose of cultural teaching mentioned above, the selection of the contents of cultural teaching is of great importance. The following contents should be taken into consideration. Cultural connotation of words, expressions and idoms with distinct target culture features, cultural factors that interfere with verbal ommunications and nonverbal communications, knowledge of politics, economics, history and contemporary social situation of the English-speaking countries, differences of cultural values and thinking patterns and their influence on the communication patterns and so on.

II. AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF CULTIVATING LEARNERS' COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE THROUGH CULTURAL TEACHING

A. Objective of the Experiment

Despite the well known fact that cultivating college learners' communicative competence is one of the main tasks we face in the foreign language teaching, little attention is paid to doing this. The study of English not only includes developing language skills but also understanding the significance of behaviors, values and other cultural background of the English-speaking countries. Because language is inseperable from culture, the acquisition of a foreign language is also the acquisition of a foreign culture. Therefore, the purpose of the experiment is to see whether college learners' communicative competence can be developed through culture teaching.

B. The Subjects

Due to the situational limitations, it was difficult to choose the subjects by means of random sampling, so I adopted a convenience sampling instead. Convenience sampling, as the name suggests, means that elements are selected as the sample for the convenience of the researcher. So I chose 97 students of my own classes as the subjects for the experiment.

The subjects are 97 sophomore students in Shandong Jiaotong University. The students are all Chinese, aged from 18 to 20. They entered this university in 2011 and they are from all over China. They are undergraduate students and most of them have studied English for about eight years. They are non-English majors and science department students. One class is from the Automobile Engineering Department and it is treated as the Experimental Class (E-C). Another one is from the Mechanical Engineering Department and it is regarded as the Controll Class (C-C). During the teaching process, cultural teaching is adopted consciously in the E-C and unconsciously in the C-C.

The subjects from these two classes have common entry assessment and curriculum approaches. All of them have learnt English for about 8 years in junior and senior high schools and for one year at college. The sizes of these two classes are 48 and 49 students respectively. The subjects are of intermediate level in English. In other words, they are non-English majors with limited proficiency in understanding and speaking English who need intensive instruction in English.

In this study, all of the subjects in my classes responded to the questionnaire, which was used as a supplementary research tool in this study. As a result, 97 students' data were adopted for statistical analysis.

C. Instruments and the Designs

Based on the related theories, the present study attempts to verify the feasibility and effectiveness of cultivating learners' communicative competence through cultural learning and teaching. Therefore, data will be collected to explain the phenomenon from tests and the questionnaires. In order to be congruous with the research purposes, the instruments used in the present study are pre-survey questionnaire, pretest, post-test and post-survey questionnaire.

D. Procedure

In the first semester of 2011 to 2012 academic year, the experiment was carried out, which was divided into six stages and finished in 18 weeks. (See Table 2.1)

TABLE 2.1
TIME ALLOCATION OF THE EXPERIMENT

Week	content
Week 1	Pretest & pre-survey questionnaire
Week 2-6	Culture-loaded words and idioms
Week 7-11	Verbal communication and non-verbal communication
Week 12-16	Difference of cultural values and thinking patterns
Week 17	Post-test & post-survey questionnaire
Week 18	Summary

The first stage is carried out at the very beginning of the experiment. A pretest and pre-survey questionair are conducted with the aim of making sure that the two classes are in the same ground. Thus, the releability and authority of the experiment can be assured. Another important reason for doing this is that we can find out the main factors hinding the college learners' communicative competence and what are the effective measures we can adopt in the following stages of the experiment to develop and enhance college learners' communicative competence.

At the second stage, culture-loaded words and idoms are taught in the experiment. With the development of foreign language teaching, cultural factors have been paid an increasing attention to vocabulary teaching. Deng Yanchang and Liu Runqing stated that the learning of a foreign language is more than merely mastering the pronunciation and grammer but also the behavior of the society. (Deng Yanchang & Liu Runqing 1989). Suitable use of the words is inseperable from the precise understanding of its cultural background information.Therefore, the direct motive to teach culture in vocabulary is to enable students to use words and experissions appropriately in particular context. A typical example illustrates the importance of the learning of the cultural loaded words. In the textbook, *New Horizon College English,* book 1, there is a passage entitled "The Trashman". Two words are listed as new words in the word bank, they are "trashman" and "garbageman". It seems like these are two simple words and don't belong to the core vocabulary. But the fact is that these are two important words with deep cultural meaning. "Garbageman"or "trashman"can also be addressed as "environmental engineers" or "sanitation engineers" and this kind of phenomenon is known as euphemism. The college learners are aroused great curiosity of the learning of euphesism. They are encouraged to find more examples. "shoemaker" is called "shoe rebuilder" and "dishwasher" is called "utensil maintenance man" and so on. The following sentence is my favorite to be used as an example and the learners will definitely momorize the importance of learning the cultural knowledge when studying language. It is an advertising slogan and expressed as "Shoes for street walkers, come in and have a fit". It seems that there is nothing wrong with the sentence. In fact, there is a serious mistake in it. "street walkers" does not refer to the people who walk on the street but the prostitute instead. The cultural meaning which is attached to the euphemism cannot be ignored in the study of a foreign language.

The study of verbal communication and non-verbal communication is the main task of the third stage. It cannot be denied that both verbal and non-verbal communication can be quite different in the target culture and the native culture. Therefore, students are encouraged to explore the simmiraties and defferences of both verbal and non-verbal communication between native culture and foreign culture in this stage. For example, the concept of time and space is quite different among the people who come from the west and the east. Being unable to understand the difference between people's concept of time and space is one of the major barriers to the failure of cross-cultural communication. A series of activities are designed and conducted for the purpose of helping the learners understand the importance of non-verbal communication in practice.

The forth stage focuses on the learning of differences of cultural values and thinking patterns. As is known to all, cultural differences not only refer to the superficial differences such as the language, dressing and food etc, but also the invisible differences existing in the deep structure of a culture which includes the values, ideas, and thinking patterns. In this stage, students are helped to extend their vision and expand their mind while understanding the target culture. Also,

it is important to adapt to the thinking patterns of the target culture with the aim of communicating appropriately with the target culture. One of the most common barriers to the foreigners in the cross-cultural communication is the different thinking patterns which will directly lead to the different organizations of discourse. According to Tao Jiawei, western people prefer to express their ideas directly and openly whereas eastern people like curved mode of thinking. (Tao Jiawei, 1998). Besides, western people like thinking explicitly and eastern people prefer thinking implicitly. Culturally-oriented thinking mode has a direct and profound influence on the improvement of the learners' writing skill. To lick this problem, the analysis of the structure of the discourse is taught at this stage since grasp of grammatical rules is far from enough to guarantee a successful communication.

The post-test and post-survey questionnaire is conducted at the fifth stage. The post-test is used to examine the changes of E-C and C-C after the experiment which is significant to the success of the experiment. The post-survey questionnaire was to examine the sample students' attitude and reaction to this experiment which can be used as an instrument to measure whether this experiment is successful or not.

At the sixth stage, a summary of the experiment is made.

E. Results and Discussions of the Experiment

Data are collected and analyzed after the experiment. The results and discussions of the experiment are as the following:

According to the pre-survey, the major elements hindering college learners' development of communicative competence are the relatively weak cultural awareness, motivations of learners and the negative effects of the CET-4 and etc.

As to motivations, 18(37.5%) students from the E-C class and 19(38.8%) students from the C-C class choose "English is useful" as their answer; 8(16.7%) students from the E-C class and 9(38.8%) students from the C-C class choose "to follow the fashion"; 21(43.6%) from the E-C class and 24(48.9%) students from the C-C class choose "for a good job"; 16(33.3%) students from the C-C class and 14(28.6%)students from the E-C class choose "to be a postgraduate"; 38(79.2%) students from the E-C class and 42(85.7%) students from the C-C class choose "English is required by school and I have to pass CET-4"; 18(37.5%) from the E-C class and 17(34.7%) students from the C-C class choose "I like English and I want to learn more about the World" as their answer.

It is clear that students of different levels have different motivations. Motivations can be quite different among those who are of the same level. The statics above show that the sample students' goals are functional and they lack enthusiasm and interest in the English study.

There are also many effective ways put forward by the sample students such as learning cultural knowledge in combination with the content of textbooks, spending some time on each class to learn the cultural knowledge, obtain the cultural knowledge through learning some idoms and expressions and so on. Teaching activities are the means by which our teaching aims are fulfilled. It is obvious that our teaching activities are more flexible and rich than before and modern teaching methods give priority to teaching and learning practices which aim to develop college learners' cultural awareness. The sample students suggested a variety of teaching activities leading to culture-oriented learning such as enhancing the ability with of help of the films and the study of English idoms, word-guessing games, role-playing controlled through cues and information and so on.

III. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF CULTURAL TEACHING

It can not be denied that cultural teaching has been attached increasingly greater importance in the college because learning a new language is inseperable from the learning of its culture. The fact that the college learners' cultural awareness and communicative competence are still relatively weak makes the college educators realize the importance of integrating cultural teaching into the practice of developing students' communicative competence. The experiment conducted above gives us some pedagogical implications.

A. Arouse College Learners' Interest in Cultural Teaching

As is often stated, interest is the best teacher for learning. Nevertheless, the fact is that the majority of the Chinese college students attach great importance on the study of the linguistic competence but often ignore the examination of the communicative competence because of the constraints of CET-4. Therefore, the first step to implement cultural teaching is to arouse college learners' interest in it. There are many ways to arouse and increase the college learners' interest and curiosity of learning English as a foreign language. Listening to the classic English songs and appreciating the films, especially those which won the Oscar award, do bring a lot of benefits to the students. The teachers are also suppose to help the students to combat the fear the making miatakes in the process of learning. Once the students are brave enough to speak and write in English, their interest in learning English will greatly boost.

B. Cultivate College Learners' Awareness in Cultural Teaching

Cultural awareness is the term we have used to describe the sensitivity to the impact of culturally induced behaviors on language use and communication. Cultural awareness turns out to be one of the most important steps toward developing students' communicative competence. In the book, *Context and Culture in Language Teaching*, the author

Kramsch (1993) stated that developing cultural awareness means being aware of members of another cultural group.

Davis believed that there are four levels of cultural awareness. (Davis, 2001). At the first level, the learners hold superficial stereotypes and they regard the foreign culture as exotic and bizarre things. Cultural conflicts occur at the second level because learner become more familiar with the target culture and differences in values and behaviors are discovered. Significant subtle contrasts are made at this level. At the third level, the learners shift their attitudes toward the culture, progressing from "unbelievable" to "believable". At the forth level, the learners have taken cultural awareness as an inside element. The learners need to achieve at least the third level in order to become effective intercultural communicators.

The result of the experiment concerning cultural teaching indicates that before the experimental study, most students from both the EC and CC have a weak cultural awareness. After the experiment, the students from the EC have a significant increase in their cultural awareness. The experiment of cultural teaching proved to be an effective way to increase the college learners' cultural awareness. For example, in the process of the cultural teaching, students are encouraged to find out the exact meaning of such abbreviations as "DINK", "CEO", "KFC" and so on. Though these abbreviations are often used in our daily life, most students don't know what precisely they stand for. After the experiment of cultural teaching, a majority of the student from the EC pay special attention to the English used in the daily life instinctively. Developing cultural awareness means being aware of the behaviors, expectations and values of another cultural group. It also means the learners of the foreign language attempt to understand the native speakers' reasons for their beliefs and actions. Ultimately, this needs to be converted into skills in communicating across cultures. Therefore, it is necessary for the second and foreign language learners to become learners of the culture which is the context of the language.

C.   Make Cultural Teaching a Conscious and Purposeful Activity

Traditional English classroom teaching focuses mainly on the development of the linguistic competence. To meet the demands of the society, cultural teaching which aims at improving and enhancing the communicative competence of the college learners should become a conscious and purposeful process. A vatiety of teaching activities, such as presenting models and theories of culture teaching, inviting learners to share their experiences, can be taken during the teaching process. Moran (2004) put forward several guidelines for teaching culture. The guidelines include teachers should be learners of culture, the teachers must play different roles in each stage and so on. By triggering awareness and understanding of the nature, learners can articulate their intentions and identify appropirte strategies to advance their culture learning.

A model for cultural learning, which is distinct from others, was put forward by Gochenour and Janeway in 1993. In their opinion, the process of cultural teaching and learning is such an acticity with specific intention. The learners of this kind of activity will have to accomplish a series of tasks in the culture consciously.

IV.   Conclusion

Language is one of the most often used tools for communication. The purpose and the most fundamental task of language teaching is to cultivate the college learners' communicative competence. Since communication always occurs in a certain occasion, a qualified communicator should use effective communicative strategies with the aim of achieving successful communication.

The experiment illustrated in this thesis proved that integration of cultural teaching into cultivating college learners' communicative competence is a feasible way in modern learning environment.

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Qian Li was born in Baoding, Hebei province. The author graduated from Chongqing University in Chongqing, China in 2001 and gained the Bachelor's degree of Arts, majoring in English. In 2008, the author gained the Master's degree of Arts in Shandong Normal University.

She has been an English teacher from July of 2001 till now in Shandong Jiaotong University. In October of 2006, she gained the qualification of being a lecturer. During these years from 2001 to 2013 she has taken the foreign language teaching seminars organized by the foreign language teaching and research press for six times in the summer holidays. She has published 21 articles concerning foreign language teaching and researching in recents years. Some of the articles published are as the following: Oversears English, (Hefei, China, Anhui Science & Technology Publishing House, 2010); Journal of Changchun University of Science and Technology, (Changchun, China, Editorial Board of Journal of Changchun University of Science and Technology, 2011); Time Education (Chengdu, China, Publishing Press of Time Education, 2010). Cross-cultural communication, teaching methods and the study of English as a foreign language are the current research interests of the author.

Ms. Li was the associate editor of *Foreign Language Research and Practice* which is published by Jilin University publishing press and was awarded "The Best Ten English Teachers of Shandong Province" in 2006.

Phonetic and Phonological Investigation of Tati Kajal Dialect (Khalkhal)

Mohammad Asadi

Department of Linguistics, Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tehran, Iran

Mehdi Bagheri Hariry

Department of English Language, Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tehran, Iran

Razzagh Kiyani

Department of Linguistics, Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tehran, Iran

Abstract—This article is an attempt to investigate and describe Tati Kajal dialect of Khalkhal in Ardebil city that has not ever been studied thoroughly. The article studies the general Phonetic aspects of the dialect. The dialect is one of the dialects in the north-western Iran which has maintained its ancient characteristics and subsequently distinguished itself from Persian language. Some of the characteristics are as follows: ergative structure, passive voice, grammatical gender and mood. Phonetically speaking, in addition to all existing vowel and consonants in standard Persian the dialect also includes such phones as ö, ü, ə, γ, but there is no glottal stop /ʔ/ in Tati Kajal, because it doesn't have total distribution in the onset, nucleus and coda of the syllable but it is sometimes used as the middle phoneme. The dialect has kept the vowel /-a/ at the end of lexical morphemes and substitution of vowels in some of the verbs as well.

Index Terms—Tati, Tats, Khalkhal, Kajal, conversion, Elision, Epenthesis, Metathesis

I. INTRODUCTION

Dialectology is the search for spatially and geographically determined differences in various aspects of language. For each village or region that they study, dialectologists want to know the typical local vocabulary or pronunciation. As a result, their subjects of choice are usually older people who have lived all their lives in one location and who have had a minimum of education. Once found, they are quizzed by the fieldworker for names of objects or pronunciations of words or strange expressions. Careful plotting of different variants permits dialectologists to recognize major regional differences. Geographical differences continue to provide grist for the sociolinguistic mill, but the studies have become more complex as the influence of other factors has been accepted. A recent study of the Mexican-American border, for instance, indicates that distance from the border is indeed one of the explanations of Spanish language maintenance among people who have crossed into the United States, but that it needs to be set against other sociological factors such as education and mobility. Geographical space, in other words, is not enough to account for language variation. This becomes clear if we look at the regular discussion of the difference between a language and a dialect. From a linguistic point of view, regional dialects tend to show minor differences from their immediate neighbors, and greater differences from distant varieties. Thus, one can demonstrate the existence of a chain of dialects from Paris to Rome. At the Franco-Italian border, however, although there is no linguistic break in the chain, the political distinction is enough to make it clear that one has moved from dialects of French to dialects of Italian. The decision of what language a dialect belongs to is therefore social and political rather than purely linguistic. The kinds of differences in patterns of variation that are produced by geographical or special isolation are regularly transformed into powerful mechanisms for asserting and recognizing social differences.

Iranian languages and accents are precious treasures that represent the ancient and historical culture and civilization of the land, hence a scientific study and gathering or recording the words, phrases and idioms not only can revive languages and dialects, but also are preludes for other language related studies. Because of the fact that language of a nation reflects its culture, beliefs, conventions and historical background and exterminating it means to eliminate the cultural legacy of the society, the importance and usefulness of language researches seems more necessary. In order to prevent the language death a systematic attempt is required to investigate and describe native dialects and languages with their socio-cultural roles. The linguists of inside and outside the country have always considered the variety of Iranian dialects, the similarities and differences between Persian language and these dialects, the ancient Iranian languages and middle and modern periods. Despite the relationship between these languages, they are distinguished from each other and such a distinction is created based upon the principles of particular changes of each language in different periods and specific historical conditions of the people who speak in this language. Meanwhile, the investigation of commonalities and particular changes of Iranian languages in phonological, morphological and syntactic areas can help to study the linguistic problems including historical linguistic researches.

Generally speaking, Tati dialects can be divided into two categories:

A) Northen Tati, B) Southern Tati.

A: The northen Tati is spoken in the following regions:

Daghestan (Darband), Northen-east of Azerbaijan Republic in Ghafghaz, Apshroun Peninsula, Baku, Surakhani, Balakhani, Mashtagha, Bouzona, Amirkhan, Daghestan Afroojeh and Darband Abshooran.

Northen Tati falls into several categories, namely 1) Muslim Tats,

2) Jewish Tats who call themselves "Dagh Joodi"   (mountainous Jew) that often live in Daghestan, 3) Christian Armenian and Northen – east Azerbaijan Tats (Divichi, Lakhij and Apshroun Peninsula in eastern Baku) (Smith, 2004, P.489).

B: Southern Tati is spoken in different regions of Iran such as:

1) some areas in the south-west of Ghazvin including Takestani, Shali, Khiyarji, Ebrahim Abadi, Sagaz Abadi, Dansefani, Esfarorini and Khoznini varieties (Yarshater, 1969, PP.17-18). 2) Eshtehard of Karaj (ibid.).

3) Khalkhal: Including Eskestani, Asbooi, Dervi, Koluri, Shali, Dizi, Karini, Kehli, Lerdi, Gilvani and Taharemdashti varieties in Shahrood and Kajali and Karanghi varieties in Khoreshrostam.

4) Zanjan: In Kholeen, sixty kilometers away from south-west of Zanjan Province and Taremelia (including Nokiani, Siavarodi, Hezarroodi, Jamalabadi, Baklouri, Kalesari and Shavaee Cherzehee Varieties) (ibid.:17).

5) Eastern Azerbaijan: Including Harzand, Dizmar, Karingan, Kalibar and other areas.

6) Roodbar, Alamout and foothill. In Jirandeh section of Roodbar, people in Nash, Estalkh mountain, chichal, Liavalelia, chalvan sar, Ghoshalaneh, Sepestanak, Garzanehchak, Koshkosh, Jalaldeh, Lyaval sefli and Barehsar Villages speak in Tati and in Farab section, people in Anbooh, Kelishom, Khormkooh, Viah, Navah, Layah, Nodeh farab and Yekunom villages speak in Tati as well.

7) Northen Khorasan, Shoghan Plain and the region of chardah Sankhoast (Safarzadeh, 2003, P.23).

In some regions of Iran there are some people who consider their language as Tati, but their claim can not be taken as valid since the geographical distribution of Tati language can be depicted and completed just on the basis of scientific research and true linguistic characteristics.

It is worth mentioning that the village is situated eighty kilometers away from Khalkhal in Khoreshrostam region that is one of the provincial towns of Khalkhal and the people in all surrounding villages speak in Turkish.

In spite of the fact that this dialect is surrounded by Turkish speaking communities, it has not been influenced by that language and has always been resistant; however, it is on the verge of extinction like never before. There are some reasons involved the most important of which is the attitude of people specially that of the young couples towards their mother tongue. Actually, such people have a negative attitude to Tati dialect and always try to speak in Persian. On the other hand, the young people of this village migrate to other cities in search of work and the only people who remain here are the elderly who speak in Tati and that is why the dialect is threatened with extinction and undoubtedly will have no speaker in the near future.

Statement of the Problem:

The present study attempts to final that how Tati Kajal behaves phonetically.

A review of the written books and articles that implicitly or explicitly address Tati dialect and critically study the language indicates that the dialect has not ever been investigated scientifically and there are many ambiguous aspects that require the ambition and desire of those linguists and Iranologists who are interested in Iranian identity. It may be possible to say that Ahmad Kasravi was one who first introduced Tati seriously and argued about "Azeri Language". In fact, the book "Azeri or the Ancient Language of Azerbaijan" that was written more than eighty years ago was a beginning for different scientific and non-scientific debates between Azeri adherents and the followers of "Turks Immigration to Azerbaijan" hypothesis in one hand and those who deny the language as well as those who believe that Turk language has its origins in Azerbaijan on the other hand. The following people critically pursued Kasravi's thoughts: Mohammadamin Adib Tusi, Reza Malekzadeh, Manoochehr Mortazavi, Yahya Zoka, Ehsan Yarshater, Abbas Eghbal Ashtiani, Fereydoun Joneydi, Manoochehr Sotoudeh, Rashid Eyvazi, Jamaloddin Faghih, Mohammad Ghazvini, Hosseinali Katebi, Yahya Mahyar Navvabi, Mohammadmohit Tabatabaea, Mohammad Moghaddam, Naseh Nategh and Saeed Nafisi, etc; However, a few of them directly addressed Tati and the history, culture and demography of Tatis. But, the following points are important about Tati Khalkhal; The dialect is common in two sections, namely A: Shahrud section, and B: Khoresh Rostam section. Tati in Khoresh Rostam section of Khalkhal is spoken in two villages, namely Kajal and Karnagh that are ninety kilometres away from each other and are mainly different in terms of dialect so that most of the times they hardly understand each other. Meanwhile, Tati Kajal is so different from Tati Shahrud. There are some researches about Tati kajal dialect (that is the subject of the present study) including, an article named "The Tati Dialect of Kajal" and a thesis titled "The Phonological Investigation of Tati Kajal Dialect Based on Modern Linguistic Methods", by Mari Aradgoli, under Dr. Seyfollah Najmabadi supervision (unpublished M.A. thesis, Tehran, 1971). It was then that the dialect was comprehensively studied. In addition to field works there are references that can be used for description and investigation of the dialect. The following studies on Tati Khalkhal have led up to compilation of some works that can be used as literature:

1. Yahyazadeh, Akbar (2004). *The Linguistic Investigation of Tati Shahrud Khalkhal Dialect*. (Unpublished M.A. Thesis). Under Dr. Mohmoodreza Dastgheyb Beheshti supervision. Shiraz University.

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Research Question:

Is Tati Kajal dialect different from Persian Phonetically as well as phonologically?

Research Hypothesis:

Tati Kajal is different from Persian Phonetically as well as phonologically.

II. METHODOLOGY

Since the research investigates Tati Kajal dialect, the methodology of conducting the research is that of descriptive that is performed in the modern linguistic theoretical frameworks and the data were gathered in two different ways. In diachronic studies the research used library method and in synchronic studies of the dialect both library and field works were used. In diachronic studies after studying every subject area related reference, the researcher provided note-cards and in synchronic studies the speakers of the mentioned dialect were given some questionnaires or were interviewed.

Background of the Study:

There are various viewpoints about the historical background of the dialect and about whether Tati is a dialect or a language, but according to the researches done in the field by Iranian and foreign researchers, it is the remains of one of the ancient Iranian languages of western Iran which was once spoken in the entire Azerbaijan, Ghazvin, and Gilan. In fact, the problem is that the varieties of Tati dialect are so different that in spite of observable resemblances, one variety may not be understood at all in other Tati-governed region. That's why it can not be easily considered as an individual language. There are some researchers outside Iran who have studied Tati, including Oranski, Miler, Giger, Dren, Diakonov and Hening, but linguistically speaking, this dialect has not been studied comprehensively.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Phonetic and Phonological Investigation:

1) Tati vowels: The dialect includes the following vowels:

1-1. Vocalic Phonemes: The vowels that have Phonological value in this dialect contain five short vowels (o - ö- ə - e - a) and four long vowels (â- i -u -ü).

1-2. Diphthongs: These vowels do not have phonological value in Tati dialect, but only phonetic value. The most important Tati diphthongs are as follows:

/ey/   beyna   (outside)
/ow/   howlig   (sister)
/oy/   hoy   (hey)
/ ây/   har ây   (shout)
/ay/   ay   (wow)

1-3. Mid vowels: Like Persian and other Iranian dialects, this dialect has often a vowel between two morphemes or two adjoining consonants that is called mid-vowel. Some mid-vowels in the dialect are as follows:

[a]: as in j ân -[a]-var (animal)

[e]: as in b âq-[e]-b ân (gardener)

[i]: as in huš-[i]-y âr   (conscious)

2) Tati consonants: Like standard persian, Tati Kajal dialect is composed of 23 consonants, but there is not any glottal stop /ʔ/ in the dialect because it does not have total distribution in onset, nucleus and coda of a syllable, but it is sometimes used as mid-vowel.

The dialect has a fricative consonant instead that is known as voiced Malazi /ɣ/. Similar to Persian, all consonants in Tati Kajal are articulated through egressive pulmonic airstream. i.e. exhalation. The phonemic characteristic of each of the Tati consonants is obtained compared to minimal pairs and all Kajal consonants might be appeared in onset, nucleus and coda. Each of the consonants has itself a group of phones that in spite of fundamental articulatory similarities have some differences that are not big enough to change the phonetic identity of the phonemes and cause semantic contrast.

3) Syllable structure: Again similar to Persian, the syllable in Tati dialect is a continual Phonetic chain with a structure of (c) v (c) (c) that is composed of one vowel and one to three consonants. Vowel is the centre or nucleus of the syllable and the rest is/are consonant (s). Since the onset in this dialect is a phonetic reality (not phonemic), there are

some syllables without consonant, that is to say the vowels are found in the onset, nucleus and coda of the syllable. (Sabzalipour, 2010: 33).

4) Consonant clusters in the coda of the syllable:

Like Persian there are two adjoining consonants in Tati dialect; in other words, the longest syllable is that of (c) v (c) (c).

5) Phonetic Processes: In Tati dialect as in Persian there are some of these processes like the following:

5-1 Assimilation:

dasta $\longrightarrow$ dassa   (handle)

be + har $\longrightarrow$ bahar   (eat!)

5-2 Dissimilation:

muškel $\longrightarrow$ mušgel (difficult)

5-3 conversion: changing *r* into *l* in the following example:

anjir $\longrightarrow$ anjil   (fig)

5-4 Elision: elision in the end of the word like the following:

Šâh $\longrightarrow$ šâ: (king)

5-5 Epenthesis: the addition of a sound to the middle of a word:

be + ši – y â $\longrightarrow$ beššiya (she went)

5-6 Metathesis: a reversal in position of two adjoining sounds like *b* and *r* in the following:

tabriz $\longrightarrow$ tarbiz   (the name of a city in Iran)

6) Phonetic differences between Tati dialect and standard Persian:

In the contrastive analysis of Tati dialect and standard Persian some Phonetic differences can be observed that are not comprehensive, but involve very limited words; therefore, there is not a general rule for them. Moreover, comparing the dialect with Persian language does not necessarily mean that they have lexical relations. The differences are of two kinds, namely consonantal and vocalic:

6-1 Consonantal differences: the most important differences are as follows:

• instead of [b] in standard Persian, [f] , [v] or [m] are sometimes used in Tati Kajal:

Tati Kajal	**Standard Persian**	
Âsif	sib	(apple)

• instead of [d] in standard Persian, [t] , [v] , [z] , [y] and [b] are sometimes used in Tati dialect:

Tati Kajal	**Standard Persian**	
Mаččet	Masjed	(mosque)

• instead of [v] in Persian, [b] is sometimes used in Kajal:

Tati Kajal	**Standard Persian**	
Baf â	Vaf â	(loyalty)

• instead of [r] in Persian, [l] is used in Tati dialect:

Tati Kajal	**Standard Persian**	
Anjil	Anjir	(fig)

• instead of [z] in Persian, [j] is used in Tati dialect:

Tati Kajal	**Standard Persian**	
T âĵa	T âze	(new)

• instead of [j] in Persian, [č] is sometimes used in Kajal:

Tati Kajal	**Standard Persian**	
čuwâl	Juvâl	(a kind of bag)

• instead of [g] in Persian, [v] is sometimes used in Kajal:

Tati Kajal	**Standard Persian**	
Varg	Gorg	(Wolf)

• instead of [x] in Persian, [h] or [j] are sometimes used in Kajal:

Tati Kajal	**Standard Persian**	
Hošk	Xošk	(dry)

• instead of [h] in Persian, sometimes [x] and sometimes [v] are used in Kajal dialect:

Tati Kajal	**Standard Persian**	
Xana	Han â	(henna)

• instead of [q] in Persian, [x] is sometimes used in Kajal dialect:

Tati Kajal	**Standard Persian**	
Vaxt	Vaqt	(time)

• instead of [n] in Persian, there is sometimes used a group of consonants such as [nd] in Kajal dialect:

Tati Kajal	**Standard Persian**	
Sind	sen	(age)

• instead of consonant group [nb] in Persian, [mb] is sometimes used in Kajal dialect:

Tati Kajal   Standard Persian
Tambal   Tanbal   (lazy)

• instead of constant group [nj] in Persian, [mj] is sometimes used in Kajal dialect:

Tati Kajal   Standard Persian
B âdemj ân   B âdenj ân   (eggplant)

• instead of [m] in Persian, [n] is sometimes used in Kajal dialect:

Tati Kajal   Standard Persian
T âm ân   Tam âm   (finish)

• instead of [z] in Persian, [ž] is sometimes used in Kajal dialect:

Tati Kajal   Standard Persian
Bežan   Bezan   (Hit!)

Sometimes the consonant of the coda after the vowel or the coda consonant of some of the consonant clusters in Persian does not exist in Tati Kajal dialect:

Tati Kajal   Standard Persian
ču   čub   (wood)

• instead of [š] in Standard Persian, [j] is sometimes used in Kajal dialect:

Tati Kajal   Standard Persian
čakkuj   čakkoš   (hammer)

• instead of the consonant group [xt] in Persian infinitives, [t] is sometimes used in Kajal dialect:

Tati Kajal   Standard Persian
Sutan   Suxtan   (to burn)

• like colloquial Persian in Tati dialect [ʔ] and [h] in the medial or final positions are usually deleted and such a deletion is often accompanied by the adjacent long Vowel:

Tati Kajal   Standard Persian
Ja:ba   jaʔbe   (box)

• the omission of [h] in some of the words in Tati dialect results in the substitution of [ʔ] and [y] consonants:

Tati Kajal   Standard Persian
Taʔammol   tahammol   (tolerance)

7) Vocalic differences: the most important vocalic differences between standard Persian and Tati Kajal dialect are as follows:

• instead of standard Persian [a], [â], [e] and [o] are sometimes used in Tati Kajal:

Tati Kajal   Standard Persian
Âtâš   ʔâtaš   (fire)
Fendeq   fandoq   (hazelnut)
ongušta   ʔangoštar   (ring)

• instead of [i] in Persian, [e], [u] or [e:] are sometimes used in Tati dialect:

Tati Kajal   Standard Persian
yaqen   yaqin   (certainly)
šuša   šiše   (glass)
me:x   mix   (nail)

• instead of [e] in Standard Persian, [i], [o] and [a] are sometimes used in Kajal dialect:

Tati Kajal   Standard Persian
tika   tekke   (piece)
jigar   jegar   (liver)
čolow   čelow   (boiled rice)

Those nouns in Persian that end in the vowel [e] will end in the vowel [a] in Tati dialect:

Tati Kajal   Standard Persian
Parda   parde   (curtain)
n âma   name   (letter)

• instead of [â] in Persian, [a], [o] and [e] are sometimes used in Kajal dialect:

Tati Kajal	Standard Persian	
Âčar	?âčâr	(spanner)
Ašqâl	?âšqâl	(trash)
mola	Male	(trowel)
towestân	Tâbestân	(summer)
Pašt	Pošt	(back)
šel	Šol	(loose)
gandem	gandom	(wheat)
dik(k)ân	dokkân	(shop)
dö	do	(two)
pör	por	(full)
umid	omid	(hope)
tuffa	tohfe	(curio)
pâlâ	polow	(boiled rice)
tü	to	(you)
sür	sorx	(crimson)

- instead of [u] in Persian, [o], [ö], [a] or [â] are sometimes used in Tati Kajal dialect:

Tati Kajal	Standard Persian	
tonel	tunel	(tunnel)
xon	xun	(blood)
pöl	pul	(money)
dör	dur	(far away)
gisa	gisu	(hair)
kana	kohne	(old)
paten	putin	(boot)
târ	tur	(lace)

- instead of [ow] in Standard Persian, [o], [u], [a] and [â] are sometimes used in Tati dialect:

Tati Kajal	Standard Persian	
rošan	rowšan	(light)
jo:har	jowhar	(ink)
nu	now	(new)
tuba	towbe	(repentance)
pâlâ	polow	(boiled rice)

8) Some of the historical Phonological characteristics of Tati Kajal dialect:

Since Tati is one of the north-western Iranian dialects, many of its phonetic changes and alterations are similar to those of other dialects in the north-west of Iran (Sabzalipour, 2010, P.31). Some of the aforementioned phonetic changes of Tati dialect are as follows:

A) Change; *dv of initial position in the ancient Iran (duv- in ancient Persian writing) into b- such as: bar "in" (*dvar-).

B) Change; *dZ in the ancient Persia (Avestan -z- , -d- in ancient Persia from Indo-European *-g(h)-) into -z- such as Zâmâ "groom", Zân – "Know!".

C) Protection; *V- of initial position in the ancient Iran, such as: Varân "rain", Vâ "wind".

D) Protection; *-S in the ancient Iran (-θ - in ancient Persia), such as: âsson "iron".

E) Change; *-tsv- in the ancient Iran (Avestan -sp- , -s- in ancient Persia from Indo-European *-Kw) into -sb- or -sp- Such as: espəj "louse", esba "dog".

F) Change; *-xt- in the ancient Iran into -t- such as the past tense of the verbs *to burn* and *to sew* that are sut- from suxtan and dut- from duxtan respectively in the dialect.

G) Change; -č- in the ancient Iran between two vowels into -j- such as suj- (the present tense of the verb *to burn)* and duj- (the present tense of the verb *to sew*).

H) Protection of the ablaut; in this dialect, the ablaut is kept in some of the verbs, for example:

Transitive Verb	Transitive meaning
gârd - ân - əst - an	to take somebody out
râs - ân - əst - an	to carry
târs - ân - əst - an	to scare

Transitive Verb	Transitive meaning
gard - əst - an	to cruise
ras - əst - an	to arrive
tars - əst - an	to be afraid

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS:

Considering the proposed research question and hypothesis of the research it can be concluded that according to the

mentioned hypothesis, Tati Kajal dialect is phonetically and phonologically different from Persian. The main differences are as follows:

1- The comparison of the vowels in Persian and Tati dialect shows that there are six vowels in Persian language that are (a, e, o, â i, u), but in Tati dialect there are there more distinguishing vowels (ə, ö, ü) that are totally nine vowels in the dialect.

2- The comparison of the consonants in Persian and Tati dialect indicates that there is no any consonant of glottal stop /ʔ/ in Tati dialect, because it does not have total distribution in the ounset, nucleus and coda of the syllable, but it is sometimes used as mid-vowel. The dialect has also a fricative that is known as voiced Malazi /γ /.

3- Comparing the syllables of the two languages (Persian and Tati) indicates that both have six kinds of syllable in the Phonological deep structure that are entirely illustrated as (c) V (c) (c); however, there are the same six kinds of syllable in the phonetic surface structure of Tati dialect, while in Persian there are three syllables in the form of cv (c) (c) that requires an onset in the language.

4 – Comparing Persian with Tati dialect shows that the vowel /a/ is kept in the final position of lexical morphemes in Tati dialect.

5- Comparing Persian with Tati dialect also indicates that the ablaut is protected in some of the verbs.

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Mohammad Asadi was born in Tehran, Iran in May 5th, 1982. He acquired the B.A. of Hausa Language and Literature from Azad University, in 2006. He received his M.A. in Linguistics from Islamic Azad University, Science & Research Branch in 2011, Tehran, Iran.

He works now as an English Teacher in kalam language Institute, Tehran; Talieh kamal Elm Institute, Tehran; Sayi simin Institute, Tehran and Iran-Europe Language Institute Tehran, Iran.

He has published an article (as corresponding author) titled "*The Contrastive Analysis of Gender Factor Manifestation in the language of Advertisement in Iran in 1980's and 2000's*" in International Journal of Humanities and Social Science in 2012, Vol. 2: 151-158.

Mehdi Bagheri Hariry was born in Tehran, Iran in August 24th, 1979. He acquired the B.A. of English Language Translation from Payame Noor University, Tehran in 2005. He received his M.A. in translation studies from Islamic Azad University, Science & Research Branch in 2010, Tehran, Iran.

He works now as an English Teacher/Professor in kalam language Institute, Tehran; Iran-Mehr (N.B.E) Language Institute, Tehran; Hermes Language Institute, Tehran and Payame noor University, Bagher-Shahr Branch, Iran.

He has published an article (as second author) titled "*The Contrastive Analysis of Gender Factor Manifestation in the language of Advertisement in Iran in 1980's and 2000's*" in International Journal of Humanities and Social Science in 2012, Vol. 2: 151-158.

Razzagh Kiyani was born in Khalkhal, Iran in Apr. 4th, 1977. He acquired the B.A. of English Language and Literature from Azad University, in 2004. He received his M.A. in Linguistics from Islamic Azad University, Science & Research Branch in 2011, Tehran, Iran.

He works from 2002 to present as an English Teacher in Sina English Institute, Tehran, Iran.

Analysis on the Generalization of the Address Term "Teacher" in Chinese from the Perspective of Sociolinguistics

Chenghong You

School of Foreign Languages, Polytechnic University, Tianjin, China

Abstract—"Teacher" is a respectful form of address towards those who are engaged in education. Under new historical situation, person who is called teacher nearly cover all trades and professions. Teacher is not only an address, which carries professional connotation, but becomes an extensive use of society. In Chinese, the translation equivalent is "laoshi". This paper aims to discuss the developing trends of "teacher" and the reasons of its generalization from the perspective of sociolinguistics.

Index Terms—teacher, generalization, phenomenon, reasons

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Literature Review

Address term is one of the most popular topics in Chinese linguistic studies. According to the Chinese Modern Dictionary, address terms is the words used to address somebody in speech or writing. The way in which people address one another usually depends on their age, sex, social group and personal relationship. In some languages, such as Chinese dialects and Japanese, words expressing relationship, e.g. *father, aunt*, or position, e.g. *teacher, lecturer*, are used as address terms to show respect and/or signal the formality of the situation, for example, Mandarin Chinese: *baba qing chi*; Japanese: *sensei dozo*! The address forms of a language are arranged into a complex address system with its own rules which need to be acquired if a person wants to communicate appropriately.

The study of the address term has interested linguistics for some time. Chen (1990) debated the problem of generalization a deficiency of the Chinese address forms in general and broad, but he didn't offer a detail analysis. Address term system mainly includes two aspects in general: kinship address terms and social address terms. The kinship address terms are mainly used between people who keep kinship. The social address terms are applied in the social situations to inflect the relationship between people. (Li, 2004)

"Teacher" is a social address towards those who are engaged in education originally, in Chinese it is pronounced as "laoshi". But the usage of it has experienced overall change in 20th century especially. It is reasonable to say that the research about the address term "teacher" is comparatively rear in current.

The statistical results can be stated in the following table:

year \ Kind	2013	2012	2011	2010	2009	2008	2007	2006	2005	2000 ~2004	2000
Journal papers	2	2	2	1	1	1		2	2		1
theses			1				1				

(Retrieve data from CNKI.)

Analyzing the data in the data base of CNKI, an authoritative and the largest data base in China, we can have a macroscopic view about the status in quo of the research on the address term "teacher". The study of it started in the 1980s. We will find out 16 papers on the specialized study about the address term "teacher" altogether via putting the key words "teacher" "the address term" and "the address term 'teacher'", in which includes 2 Master theses and 5 journals published on the core journals. The earliest is published in 1988.

Originally, researchers tended to explore the history of the address term "teacher", for instance, how to address a teacher in ancient China and the origin of this name. The representative is Zhen (1989) of Beijing Normal University. He investigated almost the overall cultural and historical literature and dated from the real origin of "teacher". He also explained the variants of the address term in various periods.

Gradually, learners began to pay attention to the evolution and the generalization of the address term. A few of discussion appear on some journals bit by bit. Among these discussions, only 6 papers describe this problem from the point of sociolinguistics and others are concerned with the semantics and word formation. Huang (1988) did a survey about the address term "teacher" used on people who are not real teachers. His project was carried out in the circle of literature and art. So being more accurate, the generalization of the address term "teacher" started from him. When it comes to 21st century, we have to keep a watchful eye on two women Wang E (2005) and Yang Qing (2005). They

launched a more comprehensive study about the address term "teacher" from the semantics and culture. And they discuss the change of the address term from the perspective of social change, and national address term principle. By contrast with other hot debated issues, the research of the address term "teacher" needs more broadening.

B. Research Question

The linguistic theory should be used to explain the phenomenon occur in communicate. The paper will explore the reasons of the evolution and the generalization of the address term "teacher" aim at the linguistic phenomenon and describe the variants of the address term and try best to put forward reasonable explanation of the generalization.

II. A BRIEF INTRODUCTION OF THE HISTORY OF "TEACHER"

The Chinese term "laoshi" (teacher), as a title for educators, has experienced a long-time development. We first need to look back to the origin of the "teacher". Compared with "laoshi" in modern Chinese, there exists a big difference in grammar between them. In ancient literature, Lao has its real meaning, while in modern Chinese; Lao carries no real meaning, only a prefix. That is to say, "lao" and "shi" were two separated words. "lao" meant seniors and "shi" refered to the people who conveyed knowledge to others. These two words were used together in the Mencius for the first time (Xu, 2011). In the Confucian literature before the Tang and Song Dynasties (before 618 A.D.), "laoshi" corresponded to Daru, Suoru, meaningdgreat man of learningd. In Tang Dynasty, "laoshi" indicated monks. In the the Five Dynasties, "laoshi" was the address term of craftsperson. From now then, "laoshi" contained the meaning of respect. In Jin Dynasty, the meaning of "laoshi" was close to the modern usage, it referred to the person who taught students. In the Tang and Song Dynasties, "laoshi", as a religious term either in Taoism or Buddhism usually referred to preachers instead of worldly educators. After the Reign of Jiajing in the Ming Dynasty, influenced by the imperial examination system, "laoshi" evolved into an honorable title used by the disciples on their masters. (Tian&Zhang, 2007) At that time, "laoshi" was used to address the examiners in imperial competitive examination, and it was only limited to the examinees.Within the next 300 or 400 years, "laoshi" gradually changed into an honorable title used by common students to refer to their teachers. In the 20th century, with the surging of the modern schools and the abolition of the imperial examination system, the title "laoshi" finally lost its connection with the imperial examination system. It is after the founding of the People's Republic of China that "laoshi" has really become a popular honorable title for common educators. In 1940s, "laoshi" first popularized in elementary and secondary schools, which indicating the respect towards teachers. Until the middle of 1950s, it became fashionable in colleges gradually instead of "xiansheng". But in the 1960s and 1970s, it was forced to be abolished for some political reasons. It was desterilize from the late 1970s.

Nowadays, "laoshi" as a title for educators embodies rich traditional cultural connotations. It not only displays the professional identity of the teachers properly, but expresses the esteem and expectation of the society towards teachers' morality and integrity.

III. GENERALIZATION

The term generalization is widely used by linguists in the second language acquisition. It can also be used in another way sociolinguistics to refer to the language use.

A. Definition of Generalization

It may be helpful at this point to define the term "generalization". Here, it means that different form of address has different manifestation according to certain context. The generalization of the social address term refers to the phenomenon that the address form reflecting some social relationship "incorrectly" used on some occasions. Those occasions do not manifest the relationship the address represents. It could be regarded as the variants of "laoshi" according to various situations.

For instance, "laoshi" belongs to the category of social address term, and it implies the character of "conveying knowledge and educating students". While in some cases, "laoshi" has become a common term. Engineers, doctors, actors and lawers all can be called "laoshi" in daily life. However, some people who don not work on the career of education are called "laoshi" currently. This phenomenon is what we called "generalization". In fact, generalization has been a growing feature of the address term of "laoshi" in Chinese.

B. Generalization of "Laoshi" in Chinese

Through the previous state, we know about the evolution of the address term of "laoshi" from ancient to modern. It is not to say that it has come to an end. At present, the meaning and usage of "laoshi" is still experiencing subtle changing in language use. It has exceeded the traditional limit of fields and boundary. It is no longer used to show the fixed career, identity or profession. This term has been popular and generalized in many social situations. There are some occasions we are familiar with.

1. "Laoshi" Used on the Campus

Teacher is the person who teaches students the knowledge, tells students the way to live and answers students' questions. It is suitable for us to call the person "laoshi" who working as a teacher. But what deserves our attention is

that, we may call the other employers "laoshi" on the campus in daily life. There are a lot of sections in a school in addition to teaching section, such as logistics department, administrative department and security section. We are used to calling the title of the staff for administrators for their status; but have no idea of their titles; we have to give them the title of "laoshi" as insurance. As for the staff for logistics, like the librarians and security guards, we call them "laoshi" or "shifu" maybe for politeness. To sum up, almost all of the staff on the campus can be titled as "laoshi". This phenomenon can be categorized into the generalization of "laoshi".

Zhu (2009) did a detail survey in a university in Beijing, aiming for probe in the generalization of "laoshi" in college. She interviewed 100 students and distributed 100 questionnaires to the college students. The result manifested that 72.2% of students called "laoshi" to the administrators in schools, and 46.9% of students called "laoshi" to the staff in logistics department. Also, 61.9% of students still use the term "laoshi" without knowing the other's occupation.

2. "Laoshi" Used on the Teachers' Relatives

There is no appreciate address term for the teachers' husband or wife in Chinese. When it comes to a male teacher's wife, the students may call her "shimu" in Chinese. But what should the students call for the female teacher's husband? There is no corresponding address term. In order to avoid of embarrassment, we students have to borrow the female teacher' identity and call her husband "laoshi" uniformly, even if he may not be a teacher. It becomes necessary for students to choose the term. The choice is a matter of remedy. It is difficult to put forward an ideal answer. Maybe some people think of "shizhang(师丈)" or "shigong(师公)", but they hear so weird in Chinese. Also, we do not use this kind of expression in daily communication. This kind of generalization can be categorized as compensation to the deficiency of the address term system.

3. "Laoshi" Used in the Cultural Knowledge Fields

As an address term "laoshi" is not only applied in the educational fields, but also in some other cultural knowledge fields.

Huang (1988) did a famous survey in Beijing. The survey aimed at the term "laoshi" used in various domains in spoken language. It was in the form of questionnaire and interview by quantitative research and qualitative research. He interviewed and surveyed totally 50 people involved 5 fields and 12 sections. The five fields included the circle of literature and art, the circle of press, the circle of radio and television, the circle of publish and the circle of sports. His report inevitably mirrored the facts from two angles. Internally, besides the education area, "laoshi" was widely used in the above five areas to varying degrees. The address term "laoshi" was spreading to various kinds of contexts gradually. Externally, an interest result, "laoshi" was utilized in the circle of literature and art most frequently, with the percent of 80. The rate decreased with the circle being further to the circle of literature and art. The author guessed it was due to the social statue of the showfolk. This conclusion may seem very satisfactory, since it is object and the results conform to the popular psychology. Nevertheless, this may require extra linguistic viewpoints to add to the explanation.

4. "Laoshi" Used in other Social Occasions

As the language varies, the term "laoshi" has gradually lost the original meaning of "teaching feature". It is often seen, some doctors in the hospital call their colleagues as "laoshi", no matter they are equal in the position or not. The appellation "laoshi" is such an adaptable title that will not cause any offence. Similarly, we sometimes hear hairdressers call their colleagues "laoshi" as well. Likewise, we can see the young actors or the audience call the old actors "laoshi" in the TV shows. It's the same to the experts who are always called "laoshi" by others. Still, people from different business also choose "laoshi" to greet each other, even if they have no disparity in both age and qualifications. For example, when a businessman greets an intellectual, he would tend to call the opposite "laoshi" (Wang & Yang, 2005). On one hand, this can be attributed to the semantic vagueness of the word "laoshi" as some researcher's state. On the other hand, this phenomenon roots in the diversification of professions which are more or less share certain similarity to teaching job.

IV. THE REASONS OF THE GENERALIZATION

if we look at what is involved in addressing another, it seems that a variety of social factors usually governs our choice of term: the particular occasion; the social status or rank of the other; sex; age; family relationship; occupational hierarchy; transactional status (.i.e. a service encounter, or a doctor-patient relationship, or one of priest- penitent); race or degree of intimacy (Wardhaugh, 2000).

A. The Aspect of Politeness

Through the choice of promoninal forms and address terms, we can show our feeling toward others—solidarity, power, distance, respect, intimacy, and so on—and our awareness of social customs. Such awareness is also shown though the general politeness with which we use language. Politeness itself is socially prescribed. The concept of "politeness" owes a great deal to Goffman's original work on "face". In discussing "politeness", the concept of interest to them, Brown& Levinson (1987) define face as the "public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself". They also distinguish between positive face and negative face. Positive face is the desire to gain the approval of others. The positive consistent self-image or "personality"...claimed by interactants. Negative face is the desire to unimpede by others in one's action, "the basic claim to territories, personal preserves, rights to non-distraction...freedom of action and freedom from imposition. Positive face looks for solidarity; negative face, however, is more problematic for it

requires interactants to recognize each other's negative, .i.e. the need to act without giving offence. (Wardhaugh, 2000)

Politeness is treated as the strategy to saving face (face-saving strategy) in communicate. The one with high solidarity has more freedom in choosing the address terms. While, for the one with low solidarity, one has to consider the face of the opposite. The address term should maintain the positive face and the negative face at the same time. In the light of this theory, "laoshi" seems the best one to title some seniors. For example, audience can call a host "teacher"; an actor can call another actor as "laoshi". The address "laoshi" has the denotation of pundit and decency, so "laoshi" conveys the respect toward others on some level, which maintains their faces. Beyond that, "laoshi" itself possesses a sort of intimacy, which is good to remove the feeling of strange.

B.   The Aspect of Power and Solidarity

"Power" is self-explanatory, but solidarity is harder to define. It concerns the social distance between people—how much experience they have shared, how much social characteristics they share (religion, rare, occupation, interest, etc.), how far they are prepared to share imtimacies and other factors. Although individuals perform different tasks and often have different values and interest, the order and very solidarity of society depends on their reliance on each other to perform their specified tasks (Hudson, 2000). Choosing the right terms of address to use in a hierarchical organization may not always be easy. How does one decide to choose the address term, it must refer to both power and solidarity.

From the history of "laoshi", in Chinese, "laoshi" is an address term with more power and social position. On the on hand, when we need to address a person with more power, "laoshi" is full of commendatory and it reflects the distinction between each other. On the other hand, people tend to give the other more power in the communication for politeness or praise even if they are equal in social position. Of course, the praised one should be somewhat accomplished in certain area or has some power, or it would be a more or less ridiculous and flattering. For instance, staffs in school, besides the teachers, own more power in the eyes of students, such as the administrators, who are in charge of the students' issues. But, it seems that few of students may address "teacher" to a cleaner in the school. The achievement matters are always reflected in the relationship between junior and senior in other businesses like doctors and engineers. They are skilled and specialized in their own area, so others give them the title of "laoshi". At the same time, there will be high solidarity between the speaker and hearer if "laoshi" is used.

One interesting hypothesis about address terms (Robinson, 1972) is that, in those society in which a person's status derives from his or her achievements, few distinctions in address are made.

C.   The Aspect of Culture and Language

The relationship between language and culture is deeply rooted. Language is used to maintain and convey culture and cultural ties. Different ideas stem from differing language use within one's culture and the whole intertwining of these relationships start at one's birth (Hudson, 2000).

We all know culture is the kind of knowledge which we learn from other people, either by direct instruction or by watching their behaviors. Since we learn culture from those around us, we may assume that we share it with them, and in particular when we use language.

China is a country with an ancient civilization of five thousand years. Especially the Confucian School with its wide and expert connotation of thought is greatly worshiped by Cater generations. In ancient China, people treat etiquette as the most important part of the culture. The obsession of hierarchy: monarch-subject relationship and father-son relationship are the core concept of the etiquette. Under the influence of the strict feudal hierarchy order and high ethical and moral standards, people pursuit the ethical morality of respect for seniority. "Laoshi" is the ones who have the knowledgeable merit and impart knowledge to commons. It stands to reason that "laoshi" is a high-ranking role and they should be admired by others. Moreover, as the old saying goes, "a teacher of one day is a father of a lifetime", so the address "laoshi" has an unshakable position in the tradition thought.

In modern China, although the feudal hierarchy order has been abolished thoroughly, the "brand" of culture is remained. In addition, education is becoming important increasingly. The title of "laoshi" is endowed with new connotation and sense, especially many metaphors. For example, "Teachers are engineers of human soul".

Gradually, the meaning of "laoshi" extends more widely. It can be used to the person who has some influence on us or the idols in our minds. From this angel, we may understand why the actors are called "laoshi" by people.

D.   The Aspect of Context

Language is a social fact. A social context is a semiotic structure which we may interpret in terms of three variables: a "field" of social process (what is going on), a "tenor" of social relationships (who are taking part), and a "mode" of symbolic interaction (how are the meaning exchanged). So field refers to the situational setting in which a piece of language occurs, and embraces not only the subject-matter in hand but the whole activity of the speaker or participant in a setting. Tenor refers to the relationship between participants, not merely variation in formality, but, such question as the permanence or otherwise of the relationship and the degree of emotional charge in it. Mode refers to the channel of communication adopted: not only the choice between spoken and written medium, but much more detailed choices. Firth thinks that the context corresponds more or less to what sociologists would regard as the status and role of the participants.

Address terms are chosen in the limit of the context. Some social contexts operate the pattern of address terms.

However, the social context is so flexible that the language system may disable to deal with the changes. But one must keep sure that the language in communicate should be tact and appropriate, which make the hearer feel comfortable. Then, the language with semantic vagueness may be the best alternative.

In some cases, the social context is easy to distinguish and we can give out a correct response rapidly. (Zhou, 2013) For example, when a student meets his teacher on the campus, he can call the teacher "laoshi" without hesitation. There is nothing to be said against it. But when the student is in the library and need help of the librarian, he is not able to give the librarian a reasonable title. Then, "laoshi" is the idea most insurance. In other cases, the social context is so complicate recognize and we disable to reply the dilemma. For example, when a lot of participants in various grades and ranks are on the spot, there needs a skill to save faces especially the faces of the lower ranks'. We should not use the address terms with clear marks. Here, "laoshi" is a gentle and neutral term. It expresses the feeling of admire and gives the hearers equal positions, which can make the conversation tact and smoothly.

E. The Deficiency of the Address Terms

It is necessary to give a definition of deficiency. A simple stated was given by Chen Jianmin in 1990. "As the society develops and the concept updated, there will be a lack of tact and exact address terms in certain social occasions. This leads to the problem of the deficiency of the address terms." (Chen, 1990)

In societies which claim to be egalitarian there may be some doubt as to what is the appropriate address term, and consequently none at all may be used between, say, in English, husband and wife' mother; son who is learning a lowly job in a company and father who is the company president; police officer and young male offender; and older male and much younger feminist (Hudson, 2000). In Chinese, how to address a female teacher's husband? One consequence is that choosing the right terms of address to use in a hierarchical organization may not so easy.

Nowadays, people's social circles are expanding little by little. In some cases, people have to confront more strangers. That is to say, people need to address those beyond relatives. A whole society which is undergoing social changing is also likely to show certain indications of such change if the language in use in that society has a complex system of address (Hudson, 2000). How to choose a suitable address needs to think twice. On the short view, "xiansheng" and "xiaojie" is the commonest used addresses. But these two words are too formal to use in the daily life, because they are fit for the formal situations like business and conference. Their usage is toughly limited.

V. HYPOTHESIS

The address "laoshi" has burst the restraints of campus and its scope of application is spreading rapidly. There is no exaggeration to say that there is trend for it to transform to a phatic expression. For example, it is widely used in some area in Shandong province when someone needs to ask for help from a stranger or to greet others. It conforms to the modernists' social psychological of emotional and practical. And so on, "laoshi" will be more popular in the future via the semantic generation. Of course, this is just a hypothesis.

VI. CONCLUSION

Our goal of this paper was to investigate the manifestations and social reasons of the generalization of the address term "laoshi". We looked back to the evolution process of the term and illustrate various cases of its generalization. The key point is to explore the reasons in the perspective of sociolinguistics. In the end, we put up with a hypothesis that the address "laoshi" may become a phatic expression by the above analysis. This is just a problem of time to judge its rationality. It must remain to be seen and practiced.

As we all know, in Chinese, some addresses like "laoban" and "lingdao" are usually used to address the people who are not a boss or a leader. This is the phenomenon of generalization. But no matter the speaker or the hearer will not take it seriously. However, when it comes to "laoshi", the core meaning is maintained in the address, it contains the meaning of respect, power, politeness or order more or less. This makes the generalization of "laoshi" deserves more study of researchers.

Nevertheless, the generalization should cause us to ponder the linguistics phenomenon. That is the generalization needs to be standardization in the process. It is not necessary a good thing to use the address at will. At least, the core meaning of respect and admired should be remained. Otherwise, the generalization may change degenerated to abasement. Therefore, we must be cautious about the generalization phenomenon. That is to say the reasonable should be encouraged and the irrational should be impeded.

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Chenghong You was born in Jinzhong, China in 1988. She received her Bachelor degree in English linguistics and literature from Taiyuan Normal University, China in 2011.

She is currently a postgraduate in the School of Foreign Languages, Polytechnic University, Tianjin, China. Her research interests include foreign languages and applied linguistics.

Written Corrective Feedback: Focused and Unfocused

Bita Alimohammadi

English Language Department, Faculty of Foreign Languages, University of Isfahan, Hezarjarib Ave., Isfahan, Iran

Dariush Nejadansari

English Language Department, Faculty of Foreign Languages, University of Isfahan, Hezarjarib Ave., Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—Finding the effects of Focused and Unfocused written corrective feedback is one of the commonest issues influencing the feedback methods currently in vogue. Broadly speaking, the way the instructors provide feedback is of great significance in terms of the improvement the students may make as a result of the supervision they are offered. This study tries to take a look at the major lines of research regarding the effects of focused and unfocused written corrective feedback as well as other studies which have focused on feedback provision in English as a foreign language context. The paper raises a number of questions the answers to which might pave the ground for further research on the nature of feedback and the potential effects they may have on the students' improvement.

Index Terms—focused feedback, unfocused feedback, writing ability

I. INTRODUCTION

The fact pertaining to the existence of various kinds of "written corrective feedback", with differing effects on the students' writing accuracy, fluency, proficiency, and ability as a whole, has received great attention on the part of second language writing researchers. There are several kinds of written corrective feedback which have proven to be of differing effects and caused various amounts of improvements in different areas of writing. Consequently, each and every single one of these feedback types is briefly reviewed first and then the studies carried out in each type are shortly discussed. Finally, this study raises a number of issues the investigation of which might prove to be of significance on the nature of feedback and/or the way its different types may function on the students' linguistic processing.

II. WRITING IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Writing has been described as an annoying activity by Widdowson (1978) and it has been told of as an activity which is preferred to be steered clear of as much as possible. This may probably reside in its complex nature. Writing, eventually, continues to be one of the most difficult areas for teachers and learners of foreign languages to deal with. As a matter of fact, as Ferris (2002) points out one of the significant distinguishing features between first and second language learners is the fact that non-native writers' errors are resultant from their inter-language related to their L1s and also to the lack of proficiency they have in their second language. Though L1 student writing is not completely error free, the errors made are different in quantity and nature. Because L2 students are simultaneously improving their writings are also involved in the process of L2 acquisition, extra support is required for them on the part of their writing instructors to make up for such deficiencies and devise strategies for finding, correcting, and avoiding errors. In fact, it is generally believed that when writing strategies are acquired in L1, the strategies are transferred to L2, and it is assumed that L2 writing ability is not determined simply by becoming "more proficient in the linguistic code of the new language" (Jones, 1985, p.96; cited in Raimes, 2006). Cumming (1988) believes that writing performance in a second language is influenced both by mother tongue writing expertise and by proficiency in the second language (cited in Wong, 1994).

However, undoubtedly, it goes back a long way with any language program. As Raimes (1983) argues the need to communicate is not the main reason why writing is an inseparable element in such a program and he also holds that writing helps the learners learn at least in three different ways. The First one is in the sense that the new grammar and vocabulary that have recently been taught by the instructor are practiced and reinforced through writing. In the second place, writing contributes to students getting more adventurous with language and going beyond the boundaries of what they already know. Thirdly, with the application of writing, learners are given the chance to unearth new methods of sharing their thoughts when they are attempting to jot down their ideas. Trying to make improvements in teachers' and learners' attitude toward foreign language writing, therefore, is to be considered as a major goal of research in the field.

III. WRITING ASSESSMENT AND RESPONDING TO STUDENTS' WRITING

It may seem strange to some people to consider assessment as separate from teaching. It is apparent that assessment is part of teaching (Gannon, 1985, p-11). Hyland (1996) believes that teachers often regard assessment as an unwelcome task with the potential to undermine the relationship they have created with their students and the confidence students have gained in their writing (P.212). But in fact evaluating student performance is a crucial aspect of teaching and it is considered as a formative process closely related to the planning, design, and teaching strategies. It is worth noting that evaluative feedback contributes greatly to the learning of individual students and to the development of an effective and responsive writing course. In fact, assessment refers to the variety of ways used to collect information on a learner's language ability or achievement. Assessing is one thing and responding to student errors is yet another thing. Some teachers assess students' writing to get to know how they have taught and they may provide the students with the scores they have gotten. Some other instructors may, preferably, offer feedback to their students.

As it has always been seen, there has always been some confusion about whether the instructors ought to mark student errors at all. Process writing fans have asserted that too much focus on the errors students make might result in the students' inefficient writing and thinking process, which turns writing into a kind of dull practice of forms and not a path to illuminate meaning (Zamel 1982, 1985). One strategy, in fact, to consider writing accurately is to take into account the errors made by the writers. As a matter of fact, "Error treatment is one of the key second language writing issues faced by classroom teachers, teacher trainers, and teacher researchers" (Ferris, 2002). Errors have, in fact, been viewed differently for an excessively long time. "Because of the influence of behavioral psychology and structural linguistics on second language teaching, teachers gave a great deal of attention to students' accuracy or lack thereof, constantly correcting all errors so that no bad habits would form" (Ferris, 2002). Teachers also taught students grammatical forms and rules assumed to be problematic because of contrasts with students' native languages. Error correction and grammar instruction were, as a result, considered the most important components of writing instruction.

According to the followers of Skinner, errors are evil signs and should be totally avoided. They firmly believe that as soon as an error occurs, it should be entirely corrected. This way, teachers who follow behaviorist perspectives tend to focus on form-focused instruction. In this method, students, instead of learning how to communicate in the second language, learn some explicit rules. In fact, Sanz & Morgan-Short (2004) argued that students learn rules or explicit information in the form of grammatical explanation or corrective feedback (as cited in Ostovar Namaghi, 2010, p-5). In this way, students become grammatically competent but communicatively incompetent.

Conversely, in a cognitive view towards errors, Chomsky (1959) and his followers believe that errors are signs of learning; they shouldn't be avoided at all. According to Corder (1967), errors provide evidence of progress. Krashen and Terrell (1983) did not approve of correcting errors due to the fact that as they put forth correction was of no significance in a natural approach. These insights were transferred into SLA theory in the 1980's predominantly through the work of Stephen Krashen who argued that competence in a second language was acquired implicitly, only through comprehensible input (Krashen, 1982). In both behaviorist and cognitive theories of L2 learning, feedback is seen as contributing to language learning. In both structural and communicative approaches to language teaching, feedback is viewed as a means of fostering learner motivation and ensuring linguistic accuracy (Ellis, 2009).

In fact, in terms of second language acquisition, it must be noted that it is unrealistic to expect L2 writers to write natively without errors. On the other hand, due to the fact that SLA takes a lot of time, the students are not supposed to improve overnight. Besides, L2 writers need direct instruction and focus on different linguistic issues, feedback on the errors they make, and instruction related to their linguistic shortcomings and their needs to improve learning strategies. (Ferris, 2002)

In order to find a practical solution for such a matter, an integrated approach was suggested by Long (1977) in which Communicative Language Teaching was not merely focusing on forms but it was predominantly related to form. One method for achieving an integrated approach is to provide error correction while learners are using the language to communicate.

IV. To Give or Not to Give Feedback

The advent of the process approach in L1 and L2 writing instruction in the 1970s and 1980s led to a decreased focus on student errors. Since then, a number of scholars have questioned the appropriateness of this trend, some conservatively noting that L2 writers may be distinct enough from L2 writers to merit different pedagogical strategies (e.g., Leki 1990; Nelson and Carson 1998; Silva 1993; Zhang 1995; as cited in Ferris, 2002).

Truscott(1999) argues that there is no convincing research evidence that error correction ever helps student writers, as error correction as typically practiced overlooks SLA insights about how different aspects of language are acquired, and that practical problems related to teachers' and students' ability and willingness to give and receive error correction may differ. He concludes that error correction is not only useless to student writers but that it is actually harmful in that it diverts time and energy away from more productive aspects of writing instruction. Ferris (1999), in his own response to Truscott argues that his conclusions are premature, primarily because the body of research evidence he cites is inadequate and inconsistent in its methodology and subject characteristics, and that further research on error correction is necessary before final recommendations can be made to ESL writing teachers. While it may be fair to say that "those who claim editing instruction or corrective feedback is useful have the burden of demonstrating such effectiveness"

(Polio, Fleck, and Leder, 1998), there are nonetheless several compelling reasons for teachers not only to continue the practice of giving error feedback and providing editing-strategy training but to seek ways to improve the effectiveness of these practices (as cited in Ferris, 2002).

The first reason is that some works of research (Fathman and Whalley 1990; Ferris 1997; Lalande1982) have proved that written correction may contribute to the learners' development in a short period of time. In a recently completed study (Ferris et al. 2000), it was revealed that 92 second language writers, having received their teachers' feedback, managed to correct the errors they had committed. Truscott (1996) and Polio, Fleck, and Leder (1998) correctly point out that there is little evidence that error feedback helps students improve their accuracy over the long term and that if students do show improvement, this may probably be attributed to other factors such as additional writing practice and exposure to the L2. Indeed, it is challenging to measure long-term improvement in students' written accuracy and to attribute such development, if any, mainly to teacher feedback. Nonetheless, it undoubtedly may be argued that long-term development is unlikely without observable short term improvement, at least in the ability to attend to and correct errors when pointed out by teachers. Thus, this small but booming research line, while it does not answer all theoretical questions related to error correction, should not be overlooked.

In the second place, as some researchers point out, students consider their teachers' feedback on their errors as important and think that it contributes to their writing development (Cohen 1987; Cohen and Cavalcanti 1990; Ferriset al. 2000; Ferris and Roberts 2001; Leki 1991; Radecki and Swales 1988). Truscott (1996) considers this argument and responds that "students believe in correction…but that does not mean that teachers should give it to them" and that teachers should, rather than giving into this student desire, help students find solutions for the absence of grammar correction.

Finally language writing teachers ought to dig deep some strategies contributing the learners to grow independent (Ferris 1995). It can be because accuracy is important in the real world to which student writers go. Both anecdotal and research evidence suggests that at least in some settings, university professors and employers find ESL errors distracting and stigmatizing (Hendrickson 1980; Janopolous 1992; Santos 1988; Scarcella 1996; Vann, Lorenz, and Meyer 1991).

Student writers' lexical, morphological, and syntactic accuracy is important because a lack of accuracy may both interfere with the comprehensibility of their message and mark them as inadequate users of the language. Writing instructors surely have some responsibility to arm their students with the knowledge, strategies and recourses they will need to function effectively outside of the ESL writing classroom. Though research may still be inconclusive as to the best ways to accomplish these goals, it seems clear that if L2 writing teachers do not take the responsibility, students are not likely to develop their editing skills and general accuracy.

In fact, while it is crucial to admit that the research database on error correction is not comprehensive yet and that researchers have drawn oppositions to error correction in EFL, most teachers still assume that error correction, grammar instruction, and editing-strategy training to are helpful to improve the students' writing ability.

As it was mentioned earlier, there is disagreement among the scholars on the necessity and usefulness of teacher feedback. As cited in Ferris (2002), Corder 1971; Ferris 1999, James 1998, Reid 1998, & Truscott 1996, take issue with the matter that whether feedback and formal instruction can result in the students' improvement in written accuracy over time. Ferris (2002) points out that based on the adequacy of teacher feedback, it is necessary to address a charge that has been leveled by several researchers and reviewers: that a major reason why studies have failed to show positive effects for error correction on student accuracy is that the feedback given by teachers is incomplete, idiosyncratic, erratic, and inaccurate (Cohen and Cavalcati 1990; Cohen and Robbins 1976; Truscott 1996; Zamel 1985).

V. DIFFERENT KINDS OF WRITTEN CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

Having come up with the fact that error correction is highly effective; researchers have focused on different kinds of feedback. There are various ways through which teachers can provide their students with feedback. Ferris (2002) has pointed out that a number of researchers over the past years have investigated the influences error correction may prove to have on the students' accuracy development (Ferris 1995, 1997; Polio, Fleck, and Leder, 1998).

A. Positive or Negative Feedback

Ellis (2009) divides feedback into two major categories: positive or negative. Positive feedback approves that a learner response to an activity is correct. It may signal the correctness of the content of a learner utterance or the linguistic veracity of the utterance. In pedagogical theory positive feedback is viewed as essential since it provides affective support to the learner and fosters motivation to continue learning. In SLA, on the contrary, positive feedback has received little attention, in part because discourse analytical studies of classroom interaction have shown that the teacher's positive feedback is frequently ambiguous since sometimes the teacher's approval of what the student has said does not necessarily mean they are correct. It may sometimes be followed by the paraphrase of what the student has uttered. Negative feedback signals, in one way or another, that the learner's utterance is not correct or is linguistically deviant. In other words, it is corrective in intent. Both SLA researchers and language educators have paid careful attention to corrective feedback (CF), but they have frequently disagreed about whether to correct errors, what errors to correct, how to correct them, and when to correct them (e.g. Hendrickson, 1978 and Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Corrective feedback constitutes one type of negative feedback. It takes the form of a response to a learner utterance

containing a linguistic error. The response is another initiated repair which may contain (a) a sign that an error was made, (b) the correct form of what has been made, (c) metalinguistic data on why something is to be used or even a mixture of some of the cases (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006). CF episodes are comprised of a trigger, the feedback move, and (optionally) uptake, as in this example of a CF episode from Ellis and Sheen (2006), where the teacher first seeks clarification of a student's utterance containing an error and then recasts it, resulting in a second student up taking the correction.

B. Recasts, Elicitation, Meta Linguistic Feedback

One of the methods is the use of recasts. Recasting is defined as the instructor's rephrasing of a part or the whole of what the learner has uttered, without the erroneous part (Lyster and Ranta, 1997; as stated in Reiko Mori, 2011, p-3). Recasting, according to Lightbown and Spada (2006), is, actually, to correctly paraphrase a student's incorrect utterance while maintaining the central meaning of the utterance. Another error correction method which has considerably drawn attention is elicitation. This way, the teacher does not simply provide the student with the correct form but rather tries to have the student self-correct. Another type of feedback, yet, is to provide the students with meta-linguistic information concerning the error; e.g. to provide the student with extra information about the error. Bitchener (2005) and Sheen (2007) came up with this conclusion that meta-linguistic elaboration is superior to direct feedback.

C. Direct and Indirect Written Corrective Feedback

Most frequently, the studies on feedback, in a broader sense, have put corrective feedback in two major groups; namely' direct and indirect. Direct CF is the one supplying the correct form of the erroneous part somewhere close to the error. This kind can also include the deleting of an excessive part, the provision of a necessary section, and the insertion of the exact form. Bitchener (2010) puts it this way that lately, direct corrective feedback has also embraces some elaborations or even oral demystifications. Indirect Corrective feedback, conversely, is what in a way shows an error has been committed. This kind does not contain explicit elaborations, however. It may consist of signaling an error or even writing the number thereof. This way, instead of giving the student the correct form, the students are supposed to solve the error which was implicitly mentioned. Experts in the field of English as a second language strongly hold that since indirect kind of feedback leads the students to working on the problems on their own and also assures a more lengthened acquisition, it is more desirable(Reid,1998; as cited in Ferris, 2001). Hendrickson (1980) advocates a combination of direct and indirect error correction. Any way each kind of method has had its own pros and cons. Followers of indirect method believe that it is useful since it engages the students in a problem solving situation and activates them to think deeply about the error. Supporters of the direct method, on the other hand, believe that through direct feedback students are not confused. They, furthermore, argue that direct feedback is more immediate; it's also more explicit and helps the students apply the same rule for the problems similar to the one on which they are provided with feedback.

Based on Bitchener (2010), research works that have examined the comparative advantages of various kinds of feedback have mainly focused on the following classifications (1) direct and indirect types of feedback; (2) different types of indirect feedback; and (3) different types of direct feedback. As for the first type, the ones that investigated direct and indirect kinds of feedback, Lalande, 1982 (cited in Bitchener, 2010, Young & Cameron, 2005) reported an advantage for indirect feedback; Robb, Ross, and Shortreed (1986) and Semke (1984) reported no difference between the two approaches; and Chandler (2003) reported positive evidence for both direct and indirect feedback (Bitchener, 2010). Due to the restrictions in terms of the procedure and processing of these research works and the inherent dissimilarities among the students, it is not really possible to examine the accuracy level of the claims. Studies by Ferris and Roberts (2001) and Robb (1986) investigated the relative effectiveness of different types of indirect feedback and found no difference between the different types (Bitchener, 2010).The implementation of indirect kind of feedback, on the other hand, needs further inquiry into the way different constructs have been operated and put into examination in these research works.

Manifold studies, on the other hand, have investigated the influence of various kinds of direct written CF on students' accuracy development. Bitchener et.al., (2005) compared the effect of direct feedback combinations mostly implemented on advanced level students: (1) direct error correction (above each error) plus oral meta-linguistic explanation in the form of 5 minute one-on-one conferences; (2) direct error correction; and (3) no corrective feedback (Bitchener, 2010). They came up with the fact that students receiving direct CF and oral elaborations did better than second and third groups in terms of the definite article and simple past tense but did not find such a fact in terms of prepositions. The researchers argued that it might have been the use of oral meta-linguistic feedback which has eventually resulted in higher accuracy. It is also worth pointing out that in a study conducted by Ferris et al., 2000, it has been proven that writers managed to correct eighty percent of their errors which were provided by feedback. Ferris (1997), also believed that written feedback in the form of elaborations together with signaling the error in the target text resulted in prosperous correction of errors (Ferris& Barrie, 2001).

D. Focused and Unfocused Written Corrective Feedback

Conversely, a basic disapproval of Truscott's (1996) in terms of feedback provision was concerned with the fact that various classifications of errors are treated equally by teachers though they are actually supposed to be treated

differently since the processes of their acquisition are totally variant. This claim is also substantiated by the results of other previously done research works in this regard. Chaney, 1999; Ferris, 1995; Ferris et al., 2000; Ferris and Helt, 2000; Frantzen & Rissell, 1987; Lalande, 1982; Sheppard, 1992(as cited in D. Ferris, B. Roberts, 2001, p-166) believe that different types of errors should not be treated similarly.

Owing to the fact that different types of errors should be treated differently, more recently, researchers have moved away from broad correction of every error (what is termed "comprehensive" error correction) and turned their attention to focused correction of error, in particular mistakes in the use of definite and indefinite articles. In most of the cases, having provided feedback on special groups of errors, the teachers caused more triumphant student developments (Ferris, 2001). They pointed out that where the error correction is not focused, but comprehensive, it is likely that students will have to receive a considerable amount of correction on a large piece of writing and will not be able to check all their errors. A study carried out by Karimi and Fotovatnia (2010) has revealed that written corrective feedback is of broad pedagogical value, and focused CF and Unfocused CF can equally contribute to the grammatical accuracy in L2 writing. Another study conducted by Farrokhi (2011) proved focused CF as more effective on the students' improved grammatical accuracy than unfocused CF in terms of pedagogy.

In a study carried out by Frear (2010), having compared the differential effects focused direct Corrective feedback on the students' use of past tense to unfocused direct Corrective feedback and another group receiving no feedback, the researcher proved that no difference existed among the three groups. It was found, anyway, that the experimental groups did better than the group receiving no feedback in terms of their performance on second writing.

Rouhi & Samiei (2010) also conducted a research on the effectiveness of focused and unfocused indirect feedback on the use of simple past tense in L2 writing. There were three groups of students, focused group, unfocused group, and control group. Carrying out the research, the researchers came up with no statistically significant difference among the three groups.

In another study conducted by Farrokhi & Sattarpour (2012), the researchers had attempted to find the answer to the following questions: whether direct written corrective feedback (CF) can help high-proficient L2 learners, who have already achieved a rather high level of accuracy in English, improve in the accurate use of two functions of English articles (the use of 'a' for first mention and 'the' for subsequent or anaphoric mentions); and (2) whether there are any differential effects in providing the two different types of direct written CF (focused and unfocused) on the accurate use of these grammatical forms by these EFL learners. There were two experimental groups, i.e. focused and unfocused. After having done the experiment, the statistical analyses indicated that both experimental groups did better than the control group in the post-test, and moreover, focused group significantly outperformed unfocused one in terms of accurate use of definite and indefinite English articles. Overall, these results suggest that focused written CF was more effective than unfocused one; at least where English articles are concerned, in improving grammatical accuracy of high-proficient L2 writers and thus strengthens the case for teachers providing focused written CF.

VI. CONCLUSION

Putting aside different kinds of feedback, we come to student preferences towards feedback. In research works directed on writing in a second language, rather than teaching writing teachers how to teach, more focus was concentrated on the learners of writing. In English as a Foreign language cases, though training the writing teachers has been particularly ignored, more attention has been directed to providing the students with strategies to write efficiently and deal with the demanding task of writing (Lee, 2010). In fact L2 writing teachers are supposed to be totally trained with regard to feedback provision. As Ferris, 1995; Ferris et al., 2000; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Komura, 1999; Leki, 1991; Roberts, 1999 point out L2 student writers want, expect, and value teacher feedback on their written errors. Students are mainly treated as the only receivers while they should actually be actively involved in the CF provision procedures (Hyland & Hyland, 2006, as cited in Lee, 2008). As for the influence of error feedback on student revision, it has been generally proven that students have succeeded in generating more accurate revisions in response to the feedback they are provided with (Ferris, 2002, p. 15). "Few studies of error correction have examined this issue directly by looking at preliminary student drafts and teacher feedback and then tracing the changes potentially attributable to that feedback in subsequent student writing." (Ferris, 2002) In fact, their reaction as well as their preference should be taken into account. So, a growing body of research is called for to investigate the way psychological issues matter with regard to the way students respond to the feedbacks provided by their teachers. On the other hand, few studies have actually investigated the use of different kinds of focused feedback by tracing the students' previous drafts as well as their teachers' feedback and their final piece of writing. Needs for further research targeting different kinds of feedback and their effect on the students' final written proficiency are completely evident.

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Bita Alimohammadi was born in Isfahan, Iran on September 13, 1989. She received his BA degree in English Translation from Sheikh Bahaee University, Isfahan, Iran in 2006. She obtained her MA degree in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) at the University of Isfahan. Her areas of interest include writing in a foreign language, discourse analysis, contrastive analysis, and sociolinguistics.

Dariush Nejadansari is an assistant professor at Isfahan University, Iran. He has been teaching different courses in second language acquisition at MA and PhD level. He has got his MA in teaching English as a foreign Language from Tarbiat Modarres University, Tehran, Iran and PhD in TEFL from Allame Tabatabaei University, Tehran, Iran. His area of interest is different issues in instructed SLA.

Analysis of Constructive Effect That Amplification and Omission Have on the Power Differentials—Taking Eileen Chang's Chinese-English Self-translated Novels as Examples

Hao He
Gan Su Normal University for Nationalities, Hezuo, Gansu, 747000, China

Xiaoli Liu
Gan Su Normal University for Nationalities, Hezuo, Gansu, 747000, China

Abstract—By taking Eileen Chang's two Chinese-English self-translated novels as examples, this paper analyzes the construction effect that employment of amplification and omission has on the asymmetrical power relationships from four aspects of critical discourse analysis: classification system, transitivity system, modality system and transformation system. The conclusion is that the author-translator's adoption of amplification and omission serves for the construction of asymmetrical power relationships, which has negative influence on cultural communication based upon equality between the west and the east.

Index Terms—Eileen Chang, Chinese-English self-translation, amplification and omission, critical discourse analysis

Eileen Chang was a legendary writer in Chinese literature history in 20th century but few people know that she is also an excellent translator. She has translated many English novels including Hemingway's The Old man and The Sea and some of her own works. In recent years, the research on Eileen Chang is very hot whereas the research on her translation, especially on her self-translation is limited. It is easy for us to take for granted that it should be the most faithful that the author translates his/her own works. Actually it is strange that while translating her own novels, Eileen Chang always employed two translation techniques, amplification and omission. Translation is a process of conflict, collision and violence between one culture and another in the aspect of ideology, cultural traditions. It's reflects powers. At the same time translation participates in the construction of power. Translation has become an accomplice to sustain the asymmetrical power relationships among various cultures. In this paper, taking Eileen Chang's two Chinese-English self-translated novels Shame Amah! and Naked Earth as examples, the effect that the employment of amplification and omission has on the asymmetrical power relationships will be analyzed according to four dimensions of critical discourse analysis which stresses the invisible embodiment of power and ideology in text.

I. CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM

Classification is a process or a result in which objects are categorized into different kinds according to their attributes and characters (Sun Zhixiang, 2009, p.78). By virtue of classification system, people can recognize an object and its relations to other objects so as to know the whole world. Language is also a system in which classification is of great significance. When people try to express themselves, they actually classify the world using the words and this kind of classification is controlled by people's linguistic background and their ways to understand which are usually agreed by the whole society. Foucault said that knowledge is power. Here, we could say language is power which penetrates in every aspects of our life. In other words, people classify according to the so-called commonsense. As Fairclough has once pointed out that common sense reflects ideology of a society more or less and helps to maintain the asymmetrical power relations (Sun Zhixiang, 2009, p.83). The classification based on common sense is hence a field in which different groups of people either struggle to keep their classification system or yield to accept classification system of people who have more power. When it comes to translation, cases that dominant culture imposes their classification system on dominated culture are by no means rare and on the other hand it is common that dominant culture disdains and tampers the classification system of dominated culture. During translating process, translators always choose different systems of classification considering such factors as ideology differences and reader acceptance. It is the difference between classification systems in original and target texts that reflects the power differentials. How does classification help to maintain asymmetrical power relations? Next, we will analyze some typical strategies.

A. Overlexicalization

Overlexicalization refers to a way of description by using a great deal of synonyms. Overlexicalization always

demonstrates the experience or value that the language users concern, which helps readers to understand the ideological orientation of the writers (Sun Zhixiang, 2009, p.86). In translation, translators often tend to put synonyms next to each other so that readers are attracted and the meaning that he/she wants to covey is easy to be understood and intensified. In translation of Naked Earth, employment of amplification reflects ideological strategy of overlexicalization.

Example 1:

"你听听，你听听！"李向前对冯天佑说："人家都说出来了，只有你一个人护着他，甘心做他的狗腿子。" (Eileen Chang, 2000, p.14)

"You hear? You hear?" Pao said to Feng. "They are talking. You're the only one who still defends him, content to be his *kou t'ui-tze*, dog's leg." (Eileen Chang, 1956, p.25)

Here the translation of foul language is very thought-provoking. Firstly, Eileen Chang adopted Chinese pinyin to imitate the pronunciation of the word and then explained the meaning of the word through free translation. Furthermore, the word was italicized, which accentuated the foul language. Readers would naturally pay more attention to the word. On one hand, the amplification was used to stress the foul language, which helped to depict an image of ugly Chinese man who was so rude and weird. For western readers, such a people was a real Other, a barbarian, which met their impression on Chinese people. On the other, this was a sentence used by Li Xiangqian, a cadre of Communist Party, to persuade Feng Tian You, a poor peasant to expose the evil behavior of a rich peasant. The amplification of the foul language uglified the image of Communist member and was effective to arouse disgust and anger among western people. Such kinds of examples are not rare. For instance, "阎王债" was translated as "nieng-wong chai, a loan from the king of hell" and "大力干他们" was translated into "ta li kang t'ameng, do them in with great force" etc. All these words intensify the stereotyped image of the eastern people in western people's mind. In a word, the ideological strategy of overlexicalization reflected through amplification serves for the asymmetrical power relationships between China and the western countries and the asymmetrical power relationships are strengthened accordingly.

B. Biased Naming

It is a disputable problem whether a name has special meaning. Russel holds that every name has significant meaning which is the signified of the word whereas in Kripke's opinion, name has no meaning, the relation between the names and the signified is established at the moment the name is given (Sun Zhixiang, 2009, p.90). Actually, process of naming has some conventional elements which demonstrate that naming is a social activity and names do have meaning. In literary creation, writers always pay great attention to naming of the character and a name always infers a people's identity, characteristic or even his/her destiny. For example, in ancient Chinese novel A Dream of Red Mansion, every character's name has significant meaning. As to the translation of names, transliteration is a widely adopted way. While translating names, Eileen Chang employed different methods. In Shame Amah!, she renamed all the characters and in Naked Earth, transliteration and other techniques are used.

Example 2:

支部书记李向前是一个瘦子，穿着一件高领子的白布小褂，一双很精灵的大眼睛，眼泡微微凸出来。(Eileen Chang, 2000, p.3)

The secretary of the Party branch office, Pao Hsiung-ch'ien, Go Forward Pao—a name obviously adopted after the Liberation-was a youngish farmer with thin, birdlike good looks, rather high-shouldered in a high-collared white Chinese shirt. (Eileen Chang, 1956, p.5)

"Xiang Qian" has been a very common name in China since liberation, which expressed the optimistic attitude that Chinese people held towards new China and socialism construction. In English version, the author-translator first adopted transliteration to imitate the pronunciation but the family name "Li" was changed in to "Pao", then English paraphrasing of the word was added. As stated previous, the name in novel can always reflect a person's image or his/her nature. Go Forward Pao is a name which gives readers impression that the man owning the name is a very funny person. Combining with the description of appearance following the name, readers would assume that Li Xiangqian was a funny, deceitful man which is the "classic image" of Chinese people in western people's mind and naturally arouses repugnance among readers. The author-translator used a name with strong ideological color to display image of a Communist member and amplified it through adding explanation. This process of biased naming has close relation to asymmetrical power relationships, while giving name to a person, the translator is naturally in favor of a side of asymmetrical power relationships, as a result, the asymmetrical power relationships was constructed without being noticed.

The employment of amplification and omission, on one hand, intensifies the Orientalist stereotyped image of the east in western readers' mind, which may cause more discrimination form the west. On the other hand, it gets more difficult for the east to get rid of the stereotype. As a result, the communication between the east and the west becomes harder to achieve.

II. Transitivity System

Text has value of representation, experience and relationship, among which experience value is embodied in transitivity and voice of the sentence. The function of transitivity system is to dissect the things that people see, feel or do into process types and then to demonstrate participants and environmental elements of different process through categorizing human's experience by virtue of grammar(Sun Zhixiang, 2009, p.103). In critical discourse analysis, the value of the text is regarded as order of discourse which always reflects certain power relationships, so the micro

process of choice of words always has relation to construction of power relationships. As to translation, choice of transitivity system is controlled by cognition of translator. While translating, translators firstly study the choice of transitivity and its ideological features in original text to analyze and reveal the power relationships reflected in transitivity system. Meanwhile choice of transitivity is also a way for translators to participate social construction.

A.   Implicitation or Explicitation of Participant

In Chinese language, it is common that a sentence has no subject whereas in English a subject is indispensible. It is assumed that a Chinese sentence without subject could be translated into English in passive voice. Translators either use object as subject or just add the subject, in other words, add the participants. But how to add the participants demonstrates the translator's attitude towards power relationships and translators always adopt certain strategies to intensify or weaken the asymmetrical power relationships.

Example 3:

这一向看看乡下情形不对，风声一天紧似一天，他半个月前就想溜，预备留下老婆孩子，一个人逃出去投靠他丈人。(Eileen Chang, 2000, p.13)

He had been scared by the talk of Land Reform and had made an attempt to escape to Peking, leaving his wife and children behind. (Eileen Chang, 1956, p.22)

"He" referred to a coward person who was said to be a landlord and actually hadn't much money. In original text, the reason why he wanted to escape was obscurely mentioned. But in English version, the author-translator added the participant, it was Land Reform that made him want to escape even not caring his family. Here the explicitation of Land Reform intensifies its negative side, which serves for ideology and asymmetrical power relationships between the west and the east. Combining the given background information, the western readers were easy to demonize the Land Reform. Hence the misunderstanding that western people have on Land reform, on Chinese revolution and even on China was getting deeper and deeper.

Similarly, the translator will also adopt method of dissimulation to cover or dilute the negative side of dominant party in power relationships.

Example 4:

他走出来接电话，先咳嗽一声，可是喉咙还有些浑浊。他问道："哈罗？"，然后，突然声音变得极其微弱："哈罗哦！" 又惊又喜，销魂地，等于说："是你么？难道真的是你么？" 他是一大早起来也能够魂飞魄散为情颠倒的。(Eileen Chang, 2003, p.153)

He cleared his morning throat before he picked up the phone. "Hello?" Then his voice grew faint, "Hello-O!" as though overcome.(Eileen Chang, 1962, p.95)

The word "overcome" is usually used as a transitive verb and when used in passive voice it means to be extremely affected by something. But here it was used as if it were a intransitive verb. Both subject and object were omitted. Readers may be puzzled: he was overcome by what? The voice? The ironic effect brought by the eight words "魂飞魄散为情颠倒" has totally disappeared.

B.   Shift in Information Focus

The structure of information distribution was controlled by ideology. In positive or neutral context, the dominant party of power relationships is in subject position, on the contrary, in negative context, the dominated party of power relationships is in subject position (Sun Zhixiang, 2009, p.126).

Example 5:

刘荃在北大的时候，是学生会里的一个活动分子，和其他几个大学里的学生组织经常有接触。他口才虽然不见得好，人很诚实可靠，又是青年团的团员。张励显然很倚重他…… (Eileen Chang, 2000, p.2)

Liu had been active in the Students' Association of Peita, the University of Peking, so he had been in constant contact with similar groups in all the other universities. He was also a member of the Youth Corps and was being considered for admittance into the Party. Chang obviously regarded him as a leader among the students… (Eileen Chang, 1956, p.3)

Comparing the Chinese and English version we could see that in Chinese version Liu Ch'uen was prominent among students because he was active, honest and a member of Youth Corp whereas in English version his prominence had nothing to do with his honest and another reason was added. It was that he "was being considered for admittance into the Party." The passive voice was eye-catching in the whole sentence, which gave readers the impression that admittance into the Party had little relationship to his own willingness, he was just dominated. It was his being dominance that the so-called freedom publicized by the west was hinted. Combining with Liu's betrayal of the Party at the end of the novel, the author-translator successfully fulfilled the task of the novel: to uglify the Communist Party.

III.   MODALITY SYSTEM

Modality system is very complex. In traditional linguistic study, modality is considered as a part of verbal system and linguists' researches on modality system always concern about usage of modality system in morphology and syntax. Actually, application of modality system is by no means limited as what is described in traditional grammar. Kress& Hodge (1979) hold that modality is a way demonstrating the truth, reliability and authority of the discourse. Writers express their opinions and influence the attitude and manner of readers through language. They employ modality system to express their degree of affinity towards the topic, so, although it is only an adjunct of a sentence in form, modality is

a useful way adopted by a writer to emphasize his/her own opinions. Therefore it is meaningful to research the construction of asymmetrical power relationships in translation through analysis of modality system in both original and target text.

Example 6:

只要是个女人，他 (哥儿达先生) 都要使他们死心塌地喜欢他……哥儿达先生把被单枕套衬衫裤大小毛巾一起泡在浴缸里，不然不放心，怕她不当天统统洗掉它。(Eileen Chang, 2003, p.155)

Mr. Schacht had soaked all his sheets and towels and underwear in the tub to make sure that she would wash it all that day. (Eileen Chang, 1962, p.97)

In asymmetrical power relationships, the dominant party always adopts affirmative modal form. The modal verb "要" means let or want to do which discloses the stingy nature of Schacht. But in English version, the sentence was omitted to dissolute the negative side of the dominant party. As for the second sentence, there is no modal verb in original text, but in English version, the modal verb "would" was added and the negative objective clause was changed to affirmative one. One meaning of "would" is "of willingness", and the readers' focuses were transferred from pettiness of Schacht and it seemed that his behavior was reasonable. Obviously, the employment of amplification and omission here is compromise to asymmetrical power relationships between the west and the east.

IV. TRANSFORMATION SYSTEM

As to "transform", different schools have different definitions and in CDA the study of transformation system is closely related to the study of metaphorical system. Metaphor is a very common phenomenon in human language and the study of metaphor has long history. Aristotle held that metaphor was transfer application of one's name to another thing, that is to say metaphor was transformation between nouns. But it is too simple to define it only at lexical level and it's necessary to study grammatical metaphor which should be carried out in certain context. When it comes to the translation study, it is necessary to research how the writers/translators implement ideological strategies by using metaphor to influence the readers and finally to serve for the asymmetrical power relationships.

A. Lexical Metaphor

Lexical metaphor used to be regarded as rhetorical method other than ideological strategy. Actually, metaphor has social, political and ideological significance (Sun Zhixiang, 2009, p.160). The amplification and omission of metaphor may possibly facilitate dissimulation or reification of asymmetrical power relationships.

Example 7:

大家实在困倦得很厉害，不久也就鼾声四起了。(Eileen Chang, 2000, p.5)

The loud snoring around him seemed to have die down as if the sleeping men were now far away from him. Their rafts were well over to the other shore of the night while he still had endless darkness ahead of him. (Eileen Chang, 1956, p.8)

Lexical metaphor usually has the same signifier and the different signified. The signifier "endless darkness" has two different meanings, one is the darkness of the night, the other is the darkness of the society that could only be felt by Liu Ch'uen, the representative of the civilized man, and other people, to be exact, Chinese people are too ignorant to feel the darkness. Through the added sentence, the western readers, especially those who have already had prejudices upon China, would certainly accept the dark terrible image of China, of Land Reform, they would have the same feeling with Liu Ch'uen—in such a society, future was dark. During translation, the author-translator endowed Chinese society with nature of darkness that easily gave rise to negative impression upon China among English readers, which served to construct the asymmetrical power relationships between the west and China.

B. Grammatical Metaphor

Compared with lexical metaphor, grammatical metaphor is much more covert. Halliday once pointed out that grammatical metaphor was what a grammatical structure was substituted by another and noun beame dominant component in construction mode of grammar (Sun Zhixiang, 2009, p.165). That is to say, the typical form of grammatical metaphor is nominalization. Main function of nominalizations is to gloss over the agent's questionable role or manipulate social and cultural focuses of interest and or to foreground as common sense knowledge and opinions (Sun Zhi xiang, 2009, pp.168-170).

Example 8:

有一群人围在车子旁边看着，指指戳戳。(Eileen Chang, 2000, p.4)

A lot of people had gathered around the truck parked on the wayside…They doubled up, slapping their knees, helpless with laughter, as if they were the funniest-looking objects in the world. Men and women, both wearing old little sleeveless blouses of white cloth, also bent down peering and giggling but barking prohibitive phrases at the children. (Eileen Chang, 1956, p.6)

The author-translator added the description of image of Chinese people in the form of nominalization which helped to manipulate focuses of readers. Process of nominalization always change the local or short movement into permanent nature and therefore those description of Chinese people may root in western readers' mind and whenever they think of Chinese people, these descriptions will come into their mind. It became harder and harder for the eastern people to reveal true self to the western people and to communicate equally with them.

V. SUMMARY

Under various asymmetrical power relationships, the author-translator follow the Orientalism discourse by employing techniques of amplification and omission and meanwhile the process of translation, as Niranjana had once said, "embodies and constructs the asymmetrical power relationships manipulated by colonialism"(Wang Yan, 2008). This paper tried to study Eileen Chang's self-translation in historical context to which she belonged so as to help us understand the influence that the asymmetrical power relationships have on translation and on the other hand, to study translation techniques of amplification and omission from a different perspective. Eileen Chang was a superior female Chinese writer and she was a diasposed writer and translator as well. This paper, from certain degree, revealed that the process she tried to integrate into western world was very difficult. Today, inequality between the west and the east still exists, so what kind of effect it has on today's translators and how can the translators diminish the inequality through translation?

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Hao He was born in Gansu, China in 1975. He is a Tibetan. He received his M.A. degree in ALP Department from California State University, East Bay, USA .in 2011.
   He is currently an associate professor in the Foreign Languages Department, Gan Su Normal University for Nationalities, Gansu, China. His research interests include bilingual linguistics and American literature.
   Dr. He is a member of the Chinese Association of Foreign Language Teachers.

Xiaoli Liu was born in Gansu, China in 1973. She received her M.A. degree in Literature Department from Lanzhou University, China in 2012.
   She is currently a lecturer in the Chinese Department, Gan Su Normal University for Nationalities, Gansu, China. Her research interests include Chinese dialect and Chinese literature.
   Mrs. Liu is a member of the committee Chinese language and literature Teachers.

Exploring Stance and Engagement Features in Discourse Analysis Papers

Leila Sayah
English Department, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Mashhad, Iran

Mohammad Reza Hashemi
Department of English and Literature, Faculty of Letters and Humanities, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran

Abstract—Stance and engagement features as the necessary devices in structuring the correspondence between text, readers and social context primarily illuminate the main subtleties of rhetorical functions in most academic writings. Although they have received a pivotal importance in many recent studies, not all the features of stance and engagement have been investigated in different fields of studies. To fill the gap, to some extent, ninety discourse articles published in ISI and non ISI journals on sociology, linguistic and education were selected and analyzed in terms of Hyland (2005) model. We found significant differences in developing features like hedges, self mention and appeals to shared knowledge in either of them. Over application of boosters or hedges observed in some articles attains the necessity to realize the significant preferred communicative style, interpersonal strategies, and organized preconceptions of each researcher in writing discourse analysis articles. We further suggested developing an exclusive content highlighting socio- cultural perspectives as well as providing the students with subtle interactive stance and engagement features in promoting the writers' discursive persona in academia.

Index Terms—stance, engagement features, shared knowledge, self mention, booster

I. INTRODUCTION

There had been influential researches dealing with cross -linguistic and cross -cultural differences using stance features -mainly hedges and boosters - asserting socio- cultural or style differences among a variety of languages. Stance features have been analyzed in different fields and each highlighted the significance of interdisciplinary features within languages' persona to "project both personal modesty and honesty" (Salager-Meyer, 1994). To convince hearers and readers is to use as much vagueness and tentativeness that one could afford to persuade academic members of different disciplines with the new comer's ego stance identity -the stance that seems to be one of the basic essentials in research writings and as Hyland (1996) asserts "writers also need to present their claims cautiously, accurately and modestly to meet discourse community expectations and to gain acceptance for their statements" (p. 477).

Though our confidence, attitudes, shared knowledge, persuasiveness and mutual interaction with the reader (Hyland, 1994, 2000, 2002, 2005, 2008; Salager-Meyer, 1994; Prnice et al, 1982) as the main features of stance and engagement could significantly influence our style or writing, very few studies investigated the mentioned features in different life domains (Hyland, 2000, 2005; Serholt, 2012; Pishghadam, & Norouz Kermanshahi, 2012; Taki & Jafarpour, 2012). A large corpus of studies was dedicated to certain features as hedges and boosters as two major communicative devices. To this end, and since different sections of research articles highlight a 'variety of rhetorical functions which are realized by various linguistic resources' (Salager-Meyer, 1994), it was determined to focus on the introduction section of different research articles -the fundamental section in which the writers initiate the main concepts when summarizing the significance of the study, objective, the research questions, and the problems of the previous studies or as Salager-Meyer (1994) puts it the introduction part allows researchers to establish an "early niche" for their research.

In addressing this issue, it was attempted to examine stance and engagement features as "both of a writer's argument and of a disciplinary context in an unfolding dialogue" (Hyland, 2005) to reveal any possible development of power, "authoritativeness or modesty derived from voice as the cultural inheritance" (Hyland, 2008), possible imitation of leading writers' styles as the comprehensive tool to influence the academia, or applying over application of certain features as boosters or hedges to gain attention and integrity via academia. The three fields of education, sociology, and linguistic thought to almost exclusively integrate cognitive development via linguistic relativity enriched through communicative style of writers in different discursive analysis articles.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Making a stance by personal style and interpersonal strategies were highlighted by different academia in a variety of disciplines each focusing on "positioning" or "adopting a point of view" (Hyland, 2005, p. 175) exercising devices like stance and engagement features. These devices each comprise different sub factors addressed in detail in Hyland's (2005) and other significant studies that are going to be explained in brief in this section.

A. Stance

Relating ones' own authority, opinion, commitments, disguisable involvement, and tentativeness in the texts are expressed by stance features. According to Hyland (2005), it is the ways that "writers intrude to stamp their personal authority onto their arguments or step back and disguise their involvement". He subcategorizes them as hedges, boosters, attitude markers and self mention. (See figure 1).
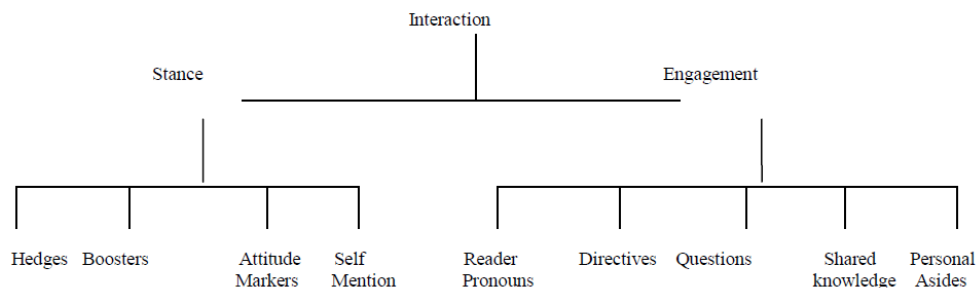
B. Hedges

Academics are crucially concerned with varieties of cognition, and cognition is inevitably "hedged." Hedging refers to words or phrases "whose job it is to make things fuzzier" (Lakoff 1972: 1951), implying that "the writer is less than fully committed to the certainty of the referential information given" (1994. P. 240).   Hyland (1994) asserts that "hedges allow academics to take a rhetorical stance, to downplay their statements and anticipate audience responses by the degree of certainty" (Hyland, 1994, p. 478). According to him, epistemic modality is a central rhetorical means of gaining adherence to knowledge claims and to present them as an opinion than a fact. Hedges refer to possibilities while avoiding direct personal responsibility for one's statements. Slagar- meyer (1994) identifies hedges as "understatements used to convey (purposive) vagueness and tentativeness, and to make sentences more acceptable to the hearer/reader, thus increasing their chance of ratification and reducing the risk of negation". Prince et al (1982) divided hedges into two groups: approximators and shields.

C. Shield.

According to Prnice et al (1982), shields express fuzziness in the relationship between the propositional content and the speaker and which therefore deal with the problem from a pragmatic point of view.

D. Approximators

Approximators refer to the expressions which change the original meaning of a proposition or provide alternative meaning to the proposition.

E. Boosters

Salager- Meyer (1997) view the term 'boosters' as those lexical items by means of which the writer can show strong confidence for a claim and Hyland (1998a; 2005) views boosters as "a tool which strengthen the claim by showing the writer's certainty, conviction, and commitment, helping the writers affect interpersonal solidarity". Boosters can therefore help writers to present their work with assurance while effecting interpersonal solidarity, setting the caution and self-effacement suggested by hedges against assertion and involvement.

F. Attitude Markers

When writers try to convince readers of having an agreement with other researchers while sometimes conveying importance of their work, they may use different comparatives, progressive particles, certain attitude verbs, adjectives or adverbs (e.g. agree, prefer, remarkable, important) to indicate the writer's effectiveness rather than epistemic attitude .

G. Self-mention

Presence of the writers' identity, style and "interpersonal information" (Hyland, 2001) could be achieved by this feature, the feature in which some academics consciously avoid in order not to make misunderstanding or they suppose that one should use passive verbs as much as they afford to be accepted by discourse community members and their voice could be heard by the whole study's outcomes adopting "disciplinary-situated authorial identity" (Hyland, 2005).

H. Engagement Features

According to Hyland (2001; 2005), it is the 'alignment dimension where writers acknowledge and connect to others, recognizing the presence of their readers, pulling them along with their argument, focusing their attention, acknowledging their uncertainties, including them as discourse participants, and guiding them to interpretations' (p. 176).His key resources by which these interactional macro-functions were realized are summarized in Figure 1 and the introduction part of all articles were analyzed on the basis of this figure.

I. Reader Pronoun

The feature for an indirect interaction of readers and writers, giving them the right to judge about the whole text while emphasizing their involvement through *You* and *Your*- the pronouns that are scarcely used in research articles.

J. Directives

Different acts are instructed through different kinds of directives in an imperative form. They are mostly used to have an active engagement with the whole corpus, addressing the main point of the study- textual act- and persuading the readers to have a careful activity- physical act- or trying to reason that involvement consciously through cognitive act.

K. Questions

Dialogic interaction between two partners where the significance of the study is highlighted through invoking the readers' curiosity and interest as well as exploring the addressed issues of the writers in the whole study.

L. Appeals to Shared Knowledge

The notion of 'sharedness' is often invoked by writers to smuggle contested ideas into their argument seeking to position readers within apparently naturalized boundaries of disciplinary understandings (Hyland, 2005). Through this feature, readers are convinced about the uniqueness of the new opinion where influential academics agreed upon.

M. Personal Asides

The writers offer their views while acknowledging the previous studies importance directly. The writers in fact try to initiate their interpersonal opinions in each argument with an indirect writer- reader interaction.

Among different stance features, hedges received more influential literature after George Lakoff's (1972) early work on hedges dealing with the words that make things fuzzier or less fuzzy or increase the semantic fuzziness of the sentence. The effective academic writing actually depends on interactional elements which supplement propositional information in the text and alert readers to the writer's opinion. Significant among these interactive elements are hedges (Hyland, 1994).

Prince et al. (1982) found two categories of hedges as *approximators* and *shields,* "in the propositional content of the studies. Hyland (1994) examined hedging in 22 textbooks focused on lexical items and found that found that many texts failed to clarify the distinction between epistemic and root modality, thereby confusing possibility with necessity.

Salager-Meyer (1994) analyzed 15 articles and found two-way division between low-hedged *methods* and *results* sections as compared to the heavily hedged Introduction and discussion/comment sections of RP and CR. Varttala (1998) investigated hedges in 30 medical articles and found that hedging devices differed according to the communicative situation and lexical hedges occurred in different functions.

Hyland (2000) analyzed the taped interview data and found boosters more visible than hedges and some students tended to shift away from the formulations indicated by the hedges and in another study (2005), he analyzed 240 research articles comprising eight disciplines. He found that questions occurred in the science and engineering papers and reader pronouns frequently used in the soft discipline papers where they appealed to scholarly solidarity, presupposing a set of mutual, discipline-identifying understandings. Shengming (2009) investigated the hedging devices among junior-high, senior-high, and university students and found that the major hedging categories were quantificational approximators, performative shields, modal shields, and pragmatic- marker hedges.

Blagojević (2009) analyzed 45 English and Serbian academic articles in terms of attitude markers and found that by using attitude markers, writers some kind of control over the interpretation of the presented content and suggested cultural, social, and psychological factors embedded in the two writing cultures. Milanovic and Milanovic (2010) investigated 42 business, finance and economics articles. They found high frequency of shields or conventional hedges, especially in the form of modal verbs, they were used to reduce the levels of certainty of the truth of the propositions and also impersonal constructions were used to make references to higher authority.

Hua (2011) recorded 4 college English teachers' classes and found that plausibility shields and adaptors were the two commonly used hedges in the survey and four pragmatic functions of protect face and strengthen cooperation, soften attitude and shorten distance, fill lexical gaps and avoid embarrassment, and improve understanding of culture differences were among the hedges that could foster communication. Abdollahzadeh (2011) studied 60 conclusion sections found higher use of emphatics and attitude markers by American and high avoidance and abstinence from attitudinal language amongst Iranian.

Chang, Luo, and Hsu (2012) investigated attribution hedges in 90 Chinese academic discourse articles and found that "personal attribution" and "impersonal attribution" hedges as both being higher than the "to previous research" and "common knowledge" hedges in the pure humanities and also hard sciences writers demonstrated their objective authorial stance, detachment and avoidance of individuality in their writing. Serholt (2012) studied essays written by Swedish university students and found that females inclined to the propositional information and the male students used hedges more than boosters. Also, both hedges and boosters appeared frequently in the Introduction and Discussion than the remaining sections.

Pishghadam and Norouz Kermanshahi (2012) studied discussion part of 90 teaching and learning English articles. They found that 'textual' stance markers were mostly used in English and Persian articles than 'attitudinal, 'epistemic',

'causation' and 'deontic' and 'Causation' were mostly used by the Interlanguage writers. Taki and Jafarpour (2012) analyzed 120 research Chemistry and Sociology articles and found that *hedges* occurred frequently in English articles and *attitude marker* in Persian articles and regarding *self-mentions*, they found that unlike English writers who aimed to make an argument stronger through first person pronouns, Persian academics highlighted the phenomena under discussion rather than themselves.

III. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Stance and engagement features as the strategies to gain acceptance, certainty, and avoidance of certain responsibility had been explored in different domains and disciplines in few studies, (Hyland , 2000, 2005; Serholt, 2012; Pishghadam, & Norouz Kermanshahi, 2012; Taki & Jafarpour, 2012). The researchers mostly focused on specific stance feature as hedges and very few on boosters examining the rhetorical structures, style and interpersonal identity features of native and non native writers. To this end, we attempted to explore two specific devices as stance and engagement features as Hyland's (2005) model and Prince et al (1982) classification of hedges in different discourse ISI and non ISI journals. The present study seeks to answer the following questions:

Research Questions
1. Are there significant differences between stance features of ISI discourse articles with non ISI journals in different fields of sociology, linguistic and education?

2. Are there significant differences between engagement features of ISI discourse articles with non ISI journals in different fields of sociology, linguistic and education?

IV. METHOD

A. Materials

In this study, introduction part of 90 articles were randomly selected to investigate the stance markers and stance engagement as the model proposed by Hyland (2005) and prince's and et al (1982) different classification of hedges. Discourse analysis and genre analysis on different disciplines of sociology, education and psychology published from 2004 to 2012 were selected. The whole corpus amounted to 29,005 words in non ISI journals and 33,407 words in ISI journals**.** Since some leading journals' articles are not open to access, all articles were selected in terms of availability. The classifications of the articles were as follows:

1. 40 articles from ISI journals as *English for specific purposes, journal of English for academic purposes*, *discourse and society*, *journal of pragmatics*, *assessing writing*, *Linguistics and Education*, and *System* in a variety of social science disciplines, including education, sociology and psychology

2. 40 articles in the same disciplines from journals as *Reading in a Foreign Language* , IBÉRICA, *International Journal of Linguistics*, *Journal of Modern Languages, Journal of Teaching Language Skills*, *International Journal of Language Studies*.

B. Procedure

Primarily, the introduction parts of ISI journals were analyzed in terms of Hyland's (2005) stance and engagement model, and then non ISI journals were analyzed in two weeks interval to prevent any pre judgment in utilization of different features. Finally, the three fields of the mentioned journals were compared using *chi-* square test. The whole process of data accumulation and the precise analysis took four months while centralizing on the following properties and their examples:

1. Stance features:
A. Hedges: Modal verbs, lexical verbs
    a. Shield: seem, appear, suggest, believe, and think.
    b. Approximate: about, approximately, something between, somehow, some, often, kind of, sort of, really, a little bit, quite
B. Boosters: Definitely, obviously, certainly, must, should, have to, substantially, exclusively, significantly, and of course
  C. Attitude Markers
  D. Self Mention
2. Engagement features
    a. Reader pronouns: You, your, the reader
    b. Directives: Textual act, physical act, cognitive act.
    c. Personal aside
    d. Appeals to shared knowledge
    e. Questions

V. RESULTS

Stance Features

In this study, it was attempted to identify different stance and engagement features on the basis of Hyland (2005) model in discourse articles focusing on three fields of linguistics, sociology and education in different ISI and non ISI journals. *Chi* square test was run to realize the degree of the differences between the stance and engagement features in the most prestigious journals and other journals and we found frequent application of "shield" in linguistics articles and "approximates" like *some* and *somehow* in sociology and educational non ISI journals. The other significance was the frequent use of attitude markers in sociological non ISI journals when marginalizing other writers' important works and as it was seen in Table 1, Self mention was the other significant feature applied more in sociological ISI journals (you can compare different features in Table 1). *Chi-* square result of boosters in ISI and non ISI journals was not significant.

TABLE 1.
FREQUENCY AND *CHI-* SQUARE RESULTS OF SOCIOLOGY ISI AND NON ISI STANCE FEATURES

Discourse Articles		Sociology: Observed		Expected	x^2	Asymp. sig
		ISI	Non ISI			
Hedges	Shield	107	117	112.0	.446	.504
	Aprox	45	71	58.0	5.828	.016
Boosters		61	58	59.5	.076	.783
Attitude markers		12	34	23.0	10.522	.001
Self mention		78	50	64.0	6.125	.013

Chi- square results revealed that "Shield", boosters, and self mention were among the features practiced more in ISI journals. Attitude markers and approximates were detected more in non ISI linguistic journals (see Table 2).

TABLE 2.
REQUENCY AND CHI- SQUARE RESULTS OF LINGUISTIC ISI AND NON ISI STANCE FEATURES

Discourse Articles		Linguistic: Observed		Exp	x^2	Asymp. sig
		ISI	Non ISI			
Hedges	Shield	140	118	129.0	1.876	.171
	Aprox	36	52	44.0	2.909	.088
Boosters		67	53	60.0	1.663	.201
Attitude markers		18	23	20.5	.610	.435
Self mention		43	31	37.0	1.946	.163

In terms of Educational articles, the differences were explored more in exercising "boosters" and "self mention" in ISI journals (see Table 3). Other features in educational articles were not statistically significant.

TABLE 3.
REQUENCY AND CHI- SQUARE RESULTS OF EDUCATION ISI AND NON ISI STANCE FEATURES

Discourse Articles		Education: Observed		Exp	x^2	Asymp. sig
		ISI	Non ISI			
Hedges	Shield	123	120	129.0	1.876	.171
	Aprox	46	53	49.5	.495	.482
Boosters		80	48	64.0	8.000	.005
Attitude markers		28	20	24.0	1.333	.248
Self mention		46	22	34.0	8.471	.004

TABLE 4.
REQUENCY AND CHI- SQUARE RESULTS OF ISI AND NON ISI ENGAGEMENT FEATURES IN SOCIOLOGY

Discourse Articles	Sociology Observed		Exp	x^2	Asy. sig
	ISI	Non ISI			
Reader Pronoun	9	41	25.0	20.480	.000
Directives	14	6	10.0	3.200	.074
Personal Aside	16	25	21.0	1.524	.217
Appeals to Shared Knowledge	10	21	15.5	3.903	.048
Question	13	6	9.5	2.579	.108

"Directives" and "appeals to shared knowledge" were two significant differences in applying different engagement features in sociological articles and "reader pronouns" were the most engagement features applied in Non ISI sociology (See Table 4). In Linguistic articles, "Personal aside" and "appeals to shared knowledge" were among the features exercised more in non ISI journals except for the significance of "questions" in ISI journals (see Table 5).

TABLE 5.
REQUENCY AND CHI- SQUARE RESULTS OF ISI AND NON ISI ENGAGEMENT FEATURES IN LINGUISTICS

Discourse Articles	Linguistic: Observed		Exp	x^2	Asy. sig
	ISI	Non ISI			
Reader Pronoun	4	9	6.5	1.923	.166
Directives	6	5	5.5	.091	.763
Personal Aside	17	28	22.0	2.273	.132
Appeals to Shared Knowledge	12	30	21.0	7.714	.005

In the last table, you can kindly distinguish the significance in applying "personal aside" and "questions" features in ISI journals and "appeals to shared knowledge" in non ISI journals of educational field (See Table 6).

TABLE 6.
REQUENCY AND CHI- SQUARE RESULTS OF ISI AND NON ISI ENGAGEMENT FEATURES IN EDUCATION

Discourse Articles	Education: Observed		Exp	x^2	Asym.sig
	ISI	Non ISI			
Reader Pronoun	15	12	13.5	.333	.564
Directives	8	3	5.5	2.273	.132
Personal Aside	26	18	22.0	1.455	.228
Appeals to Shared Knowledge	24	40	32.0	4.000	.046
Question	14	7	10.0	2.333	.127

Different presentations of hedges as modal and lexical verbs could be perceived in Appendix A. Concerning modal verbs, "can" was more significantly used in both ISI and Non ISI journals and "may" occurred more significantly in sociological and educational ISI journal and "Could" was more frequent in non ISI linguistic articles. Considering lexical verbs, "appear" was more significant in ISI linguistic articles while "think" was more significant in educational ISI journals.

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In this study, it was intended to realize the stance and engagement differences between the introduction parts of three fields of sociology, linguistic and education discourse articles and regarding the first question of this study of finding the significant differences between stance features of prestigious journals in which different researchers all over the world try to publish their works by and other journals ,the results revealed significant differences in different features of stance and engagement model as was first frameworked by Hyland (2005).

Undoubtedly, most writers develop their own style of persuasion "while trying to control the personal and cultural identity they are projecting in their writing" (Hyland, 2008) but each language rhetorical structures could be indirectly enhanced in academic writing where features like "self mention" as a "central pragmatic feature of academic discourse contributes not only to the writer's construction of a text, but also of a rhetorical self" (Hyland, 2002, p. 1110). This feature was frequently used by different writers except for Persian articles where writers mostly preferred to use passive verbs as far as they could and scarcely used self mention to project the 'indirectness of their rhetorical structures and their cautious style when expressing opinion" (Scollon,1994; Hinkel, 1997, 2002).

In Sociological articles the intention was observed more in applying self mention feature in ISI journals and though Harwood (2005 a) asserts that personal pronouns are used as marketing tactics to promote one's work in competitive world of academia, we believe that they were one of exclusive features to strengthen the writers' significance presence in the study, to promote the underlying new rhetoric under study, and to highlight the socio- psychological nature of the writers' ego identity and as Tang and John (1999) stated, the first person pronoun is not a "homogeneous entity", but instead it can help to project a number of different roles or identities with varying degrees of authorial presence. This authorial presence was one of the features of ISI journals that made the significance toward non ISI journals and though Scollon (1994) suggests that the use of first person pronouns is largely unacceptable in the traditions of Asian cultures because of its association with individual rather than collective identity, it seems that publishing in prestigious journals helps to exercise more self confidence to share the uniqueness of the study via first or plural person pronouns and crosses the boundary of culture and nations since we observed Asian writers' practicing self mention when publishing in ISI journals.

The crucial emphasis in practicing "shields" and more specifically on modal verbs like "can" in all fields of study was scrutinized to lessen the vagueness and tentativeness of the other modal verbs. "May" was marginalized in ISI journals not only to express the writers' "due caution, modesty, and humility, and to negotiate diplomatically to the work of colleagues and competitors" (Hyland, 1994) but also it had underlying précised authorial property to first direct the readers' attention to have some comparison between the present study and the literature reviewed in the study while not taking any full responsibility of the asserted previous literature and second to preserve their face and to have some pleasant truce with other researchers and avoid any open contradiction. "Could" as the most tentative modal verbs (Hyland 1994) was significant in non ISI linguistic articles to hasten the tentativeness of the arguments.

Concerning lexical verbs, "appear" was a significant lexical verb in just linguistic and "think" in educational ISI articles. It seemed that linguistic articles had a strong tendency to enhance the vagueness of the claims and educational one strengthened the cognitive structures of the whole projects. They all actually invited the readers and professional researchers to correspond to the vagueness and the tentativeness of the study more collaboratively. This vagueness sometimes may confuse the students as being an authorial structure or modesty feature that should be developed in any academic writing since even great figures in academia continuously practiced it in their writings and so some students may blindfully motivate to exercise it as both a fashion style and a crucial need to be accepted among discourse community members.

Approximators as the "institutionalized" language of science (Slager meyer, 1994) were significant more in non ISI journals focusing on words like "some" and "somehow", "often", and "about" and served to clarify the unknown and

unavailable properties of other researches when at the same time highlighting the strength of the underlying features and constructs of the study. Approximates like "sort of, entirely, a little bit, roughly and approximately" were never found in ISI all three fields of study. The significant difference between the application of approximators in ISI and non ISI journals could be traced back to the socio- cultural differences of writers and their most attempts to highlight the vagueness of the literature while indirectly impose their being independent from it.

Boosters as the second frequent feature in experimental literature was significant in educational ISI journals in comparison to non ISI ones and specifically the use of "must and should" was significant in educational ISI journals and also the marginalized application of "no one" and "no" to express the previous literature's lacks was among the significant features developed in both ISI and non ISI journals. Educational articles seemed to develop some kind of authorial self and practice power when viewing the students or readers to do some do's and don'ts while calling for cooperation and partnership at the same time and like hedges they practiced the persuasion while' allowing writers to express their thorough certainty and marking involvement with the audience and the topic alike" (Hyland, 2005). This powerful certainty was clearly pinpointed in the following examples:

Students *must* have knowledge of these taxonomies in order to follow the sequential steps in the solution…….

A progressive pedagogical approach and theory of learning *must be* accompanied by compatible ideologies of learning shared by students, teachers, and policy makers alike.

Along with hedges, they were used to make a balance between full certainty and assertiveness of the claims as well as their vagueness as the cautious devices of not taking full responsibility of the asserted discussions to convince the audience either from academia or novice students. . Though some times in educational articles the excessive use of boosters and hedges_ in just the introduction parts of ISI journals_ may lead to inconsistency where it may confuse the readers whether question the underlying arguments or peacefully accept them while negotiating with the main claims. This confusion could be best exemplified in the following sentences:

Writers *may presume* certain beliefs to be shared that *may not* in fact be held in common or *maynot* generally accepted. These beliefs *will not be* asserted, ..

It *should* be taken into consideration that these analyses *may be* contaminated by *possible* individual predispositions.

Regarding the second research questions in realizing the significance of ISI and non ISI journals considering engagement features, we found that "reader pronouns" were among the least features in three fields under study in "supporting the writer's position and building writer-reader relationships" (Hyland, 1994, p. 241) and though he asserts that we cannot find the pronoun "You" in academic writings and writers use the pronoun "We" instead to bind readers and writers but except for the very few, most first person pronouns that were detected in the introduction parts of linguistic and educational discourse articles were to emphasize the joint attempts of writers to execute certain measures. The significance was just identified in sociological non ISI journals that attempted to emphasize the sociable nature of these articles in enhancing group work, sharedness of reader and writers through the frequent application of "you" and "we". The other lacks was the single concentration of "textual acts" as one of the classifications of "directives" in engagement features "directing readers to a reference rather than informing them how they should interpret an argument" (Hyland, 2005). They were mostly marked in sociological ISI articles enhancing social relationships with the readers and they were practiced least in non ISI educational articles. Two features of physical and cognitive acts were totally ignored in most discourse articles and it seemed that the nature of these fields may maintain writer oriented with less cognitive interaction of readers and writers.

"Attitude markers", "personal aside" and "appeals to shared knowledge" were among the features practiced in all articles. All practiced these features to express commitment to theoretical and experimental literature while searching the degree of truth to persuade the genuineness of the study. Over perseverance of these features in non ISI journals could be interpreted as being over dependent to popular writers' statements *as the best* engagement features with less self confidence to project one's own texts in at least the introduction parts of the study. Over statements and misuse of influential writers' statements could express modesty and respectfulness toward them, try to meet the expectations of the expert readers, and to urge the uniqueness of the study but at the same time may question the professional adequacy and capabilities of the writers. So "all writers need to rely to a greater extent on a personal projection into the text through self-mention and attitude markers to invoke an intelligent reader and credible collegial writers" (Hyland, 2005, p. 188).

Though research objectives could be easily frameworked and developed within the research questions and they are one of the exclusives that could illustrate the" main problems of the study, study's design, and the types of the instruments (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2006; Tabane et al, 2009), they were less marginalized in non ISI articles. Some of them may either neglect the significance of research questions in building open relationships and dialogic interaction with the readers in determining an organized preconceptions about developmental process of the claims or might concede the whole undertakings on readers to develop the whole study's tentative hypotheses, evaluate the procedures and predict the outcomes without posing rhetorical questions in qualitative or quantitative investigations.

Stance and engagement features are necessary devices bonding readers-writers' interaction, group work, and negotiation of meaning. Significant differences explored in different stance and engagement features namely hedges occurring more frequently in linguistic articles, boosters and "attitude markers" in educational articles, and self mention in sociology articles. This significance may confuse the novice readers to either embed as hedges and boosters or other features that they could to empress the academia or develop their own style. In other words whether the writers should

practice authorial self and power over readers or indicate their modesty and honesty that neither" nullifies other feature's influence" (Jalilifar, 2010) nor practice over boosterization or over hedges-ization. Though the second option may seem convenient, many students follow the same path of specific pieces of writings as *the best stance* without substantial instructions. It seems necessary to highlight socio- cultural impressions of these features on construction of rhetorical understandings of the students and to develop an exclusive content providing the students with subtle interactive stance and engagement features necessary in promoting the writers' discursive persona in academia.

APPENDIX A. FREQUENCY OF MODAL VERBS IN THREE FIELDS OF SOCIOLOGY, LINGUISTICS AND EDUCATION

Discourse Articles	Hedges									
Type	Modal Verbs									
	May		Might		Can		Could		Would	
	ISI	Non ISI	ISI	Non ISI	ISI	Non ISI	ISI	Non ISI	ISI	Non ISI
Sociology	24	6	-	4	39	28	4	-	8	6
Linguistics	12	16	10	3	42	31	3	12	8	2
Education	22	6	1	4	41	32	3	1	3	5

APPENDIX B. FREQUENCY OF LEXICAL VERBS IN THREE FIELDS OF SOCIOLOGY, LINGUISTICS AND EDUCATION

Discourse Articles	Hedges											
Type	Lexical Verbs											
	Seem		Appear		Suggest		Indicate		Believe		Think	
	ISI	Non ISI	ISI	Non ISI	ISI	Non ISI	ISI	Non ISI	ISI	Non ISI	ISI	Non ISI
Sociology	2	7	4	3	4	10	-	1	2	3	1	5
Linguistics	5	8	12	2	8	7	4	2	2	2	1	1
Education	5	3	2	1	9	8	8	6	1	7	14	6

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Leila Sayah is a Phd student at Ferdowsi University of Mashhad- Iran. She teaches at Farhangian University of Ahwaz, Iran and other universities. Her major research interests include discourse analysis and TEFL.

Mohammad Reza Hashemi is an associate professor in Applied Linguistics. He is currently at Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran where he teaches translation studies and discourse analysis. His areas of interest include translation studies, discourse analysis, and CDA.

On the English Translation of Cultural Relics in Inner Mongolia Museum—From the Perspective of Translation Approach as Adaptation and Selection

Jianjun Wang

Foreign Languages College, Inner Mongolia University, Hohhot, 010021, China

Xing Tong

China Light Industry International Engineering Co., Ltd., Beijing, 100026, China

Abstract—This paper introduces the Chinese to English (C-E) translation of cultural relics, which is an important part of China's global communication. This paper discusses the C-E translation of cultural relics from the approach to translation as adaptation and selection, which liberates translators from the previous confinement that limits translators to either source-text oriented or target-text oriented, and has provided a new perspective to translation, as well as the translation for China's global communication. By this theory, the authors analyze parts of the C-E translation of cultural relics in the Inner Mongolia Museum with an expectation to show the current situation of the C-E translation of cultural relics and provide possible feasible suggestions for this kind of translation activities.

Index Terms—translation approach as adaptation and selection, C-E translation of cultural relics, Inner Mongolia Museum, translation for China's global communication

I. Definition of the Translation for China's Global Communication

"Communication" can be divided into "domestic communication" and "global communication" by the regions they cover and targets they aim at. From its name, it is obvious that "domestic communication" is a kind of communication targeting at specific region, which can be a province, a city, a town, or more frequently, a country. Strictly speaking, "global communication" is defined as a communication targeting at overseas area by the State Council Information Office. There are great differences between domestic communication and global communication. Firstly, it is the difference of the languages; secondly, it is the difference of the beneficiaries because of the different living methods, customs, values as well as ideology of different cultures. All those have led to the difficulty to control and evaluate the effect of global communication over domestic communication.

An outstanding feature of the translation for China's global communication is the translation from Chinese to other languages, which is to translate numerous information about China in various aspects into other languages, and publish and spread the information through media like books, journals, newspaper, broadcasting, television, and internet, etc., as well as some international conferences and exhibitions. This feature asks for that not only all the translation works to be "faithful, expressive, elegant", but also the translators to be familiar with the principles of "Three Approaches in Global Communication" (which are approaching to China's developing reality, approaching to foreign beneficiaries' requirements to China's information, and approaching to foreign beneficiaries' thinking modes) (Huang Youyi, 2004, p.27-28).

Cultural relics in China are greatly important to the protection of historical storage, and are the remaining evidence for Chinese ancient glory. The C-E translation of cultural relics plays an important role in spreading the cultural connotations to other parts of the world, thus it is an essential component to the translation for China's global communication.

II. General Principles of the C-E Translation of Cultural Relics

Peter Newmark (2001, p.13) combines linguistic functions with translation together. He allocates various kinds of text genres into expressive text, informative text and vocative text, and clearly indicates that the main functions of language are expressive, informative and vocative. He further allocates various types of literature into those three functions, just as the following table shows:

Function	Expressive	Informative		Vocative
Core	Writer	'Truth'		Readership
Author's status	'Scared'	'Anonymous'		'Anonymous'
Type		Topic	*Format*	
	Serious imaginative literature	Scientific	*Textbook*	Notices
	Authoritative statements	Technological	*Report*	Instructions
	Autobiography	Commercial	*Paper*	Propaganda
	Personal correspondence	Industrial	*Article*	Publicity
		Economic	*Memo*	Popular fiction
			Minutes	
		Other areas of knowledge or events		

(Jia Wenbo, 2005, p.54-55)

However, in actual operations, there is seldom any text that has only one kind of the above functions, and the majority of the texts are based on one function, while also include other kinds of functions. It can be noticed that the texts of the translation for China's global communication can be classified into all the three texts. Anyway, based on the features of cultural relics, which are logical and fact-oriented, the names of cultural relics are mainly informative.

Apart from the principles that all the C-E translation should follow, the C-E translation of cultural relics has its uniqueness for its cultural connotations and nationality. Shi Xinmin (2007, p.62) sums up four principles for the C-E translation of cultural relics according to the features of the names of cultural relics.

Firstly, the principle of nationality. Chinese history is very long while Chinese culture is profound, and the cultural relics in different times have their own characteristics. They are treasures not only for China, but also for the whole world. Thus, the C-E translation of cultural relics must be nationality-oriented so as to reflect the cultural connotations and features. Though there are few corresponding expressions in English, they are important to show the national characteristics.

Secondly, the principle of brevity. The translation of cultural relics should be brief and concise. Besides, the acceptability of Western audience should also be concerned, so the translation should also be self-explained, otherwise, it will affect audience's understanding.

Thirdly, the principle of information. The proper names of cultural relics are always embedded with some information, namely the direct or indirect illustration to those cultural relics. The nouns of these kinds are clear in meaning and practical. Thus, the translation of these names should also follow the features in Chinese version without keeping it too long or tedious, only in this way can the translation be convenient to communication.

Lastly, the principle of back translation. The so-called back translation principle refers to the closeness in form and structure between English translation and Chinese names to the greatest extend. In this way, Chinese audience or readers can come up with their Chinese expressions by seeing the English translation of those cultural relics. This is the achievement of dual transformation of information.

III. ANALYSIS OF TRANSLATION APPROACH AS ADAPTATION AND SELECTION

When translating, translators adapt and select. This is a well-known fact, which is often mentioned in the literature. For example, Eugene Nida says that "A translator must engage in thousands of decisions involving both selection and arrangement to fit another culture, a different language, diverse editors and publishers, and finally a reading audience" (2000, p.7). And Peter Newmark says that "Translation theory is concerned with choices and decisions, not with the mechanics of either the source language text… or the target language text" (2001, p.19). Since adaptation, selection and decision-making permeate through translating activities, an approach combining them all may also lead to better and more conscious translation practices.

According to Hu Gengshen's definition, a "translational eco-environment" refers to "the world of the source text and the source/target languages, including the linguistic, communicative, cultural and social aspects of translating, as well as the author, the client, and the readers". Focusing on the activity of translation, especially in terms of the "translational eco-environment", the translation is here defined as "a selection activity of the translator's adaptation to fit the translational eco-environment" (2008a, p.1).

In the triangle of "source text----translator----target text", the "translator" is the subject, while both "source text" and "target text" are the objects. According to Darwinian principles of "natural selection" and "survival of the fittest", it is only the "organic beings" (animals and plants) who have the ability to adapt themselves to the environment. In translating, only a translator is an "organic being" who can adapt to the eco-environment, and since adaptation and selection in translating are taken by translators, it therefore seems that Darwinian principles of adaptation and selection might also be applicable to the translating process. (Hu Gengshen, 2008b, p.90)

In the translating process, the translator must adapt to the translational eco-environment in order to be able to select specific target texts. Within the theoretical framework of translation as adaptation and selection, the process of translation is a production of target texts by "natural" selection by means of the translator's adaptation to translational eco-environment and the translator's selection of both the degree of the adaptation and decision about the form of the final target text in terms of Darwinian principle of natural selection. The process of translation comprises two stages: (1)

The translational eco-environment "selects" the translator; and (2) the translator (who stands for the translational eco-environment) selects or decides the form of the final target text.

The identity of the translator is important for a description of the process of translation in the eco-environment. In the first stage, the main emphasis is on the selection of him or her because he or she is not a prior part of the translational eco-environment. In the second stage, his or her identity has changed and he or she has adapted to and accepted the constraints in the translational eco-environment. At this stage, the translator is not only an important component of the eco-environment, but also the person who rules the eco-environment by making decision and selecting the form of the final target text. Thus, the translator has a dual identity in the process of translation.

This eco-environment, then, comprises the world of the source text and the source/target languages, the linguistic and cultural aspect of translating, and the person involved. Within this theoretical framework, the translation is the production of target texts by "natural" selection through the translator's adaptation to the eco-environment and the translator's selection of both the adaptation and the final-target text in terms of Darwin's natural selection.

This verbal description can be expressed in a formula:

Process of Translation = Translator's Adaptation (to the translational eco-environment) + Translator's Selection (to select the degree of adaptation to the translational eco-environment + to select the form of the final target text)

This formula can be simplified to: Translation= Adaptation + Selection

This is, literally, translation as adaptation and selection (Hu Gengshen, 2004, p.225-226).

This formula is further developed by Liu Yafeng according to the situation of the translation for China's global communication: Translation for China's Global Communication = Adaptation + Selection (2009, p.55). Accordingly, the C-E translation of cultural relics can also be set into this formula: C-E Translation of Cultural Relics = Adaptation + Selection.

When translating the names of cultural relics into English, the translator should adapt to the following factors:

Firstly, linguistic factors. Linguistics is the basis for translation, so the prior concern of translation must be linguistic factors. According to the illustration in previous sections, the proper names for cultural relics belong to the informative text because of their logical, formal and fact-oriented features. When the translator does translating, the formal meaning of the text as well as the social and cultural factors should be concerned with special attention. So are the principles of information, nationality and brevity emphasized.

Secondly, non-linguistic factors. In this respect, the factors like the readers, their ideology and the purpose should be taken into account. The Bible has the various versions of translation in different languages so as to cater to the different requirements of readers, whether they are well-educated or not. The mainstream of the ideology in English-speaking countries also controls the C-E translation of cultural relics. While the purpose of the C-E translation of cultural relics is obvious: to spread Chinese history and culture to other parts of the world, and the adaptation to this factor also asks for special treatment during translation.

Accordingly, the translator should make decisions and select proper translating methods to achieve the best translation for cultural relics.

From the macro-level, the translator should always choose between foreignization strategy and domestication strategy, and between literal translation and free translation. This is a long disputed question. From the approach of translation as adaptation and selection, whether foreignization or domestication, literal translation or free translation, it can be taken as the selection of translating strategies by the translator so as to adapt to the translational eco-environment. Since the approach is neither from the angle of the author/source text, nor from the angle of the reader/target text, but from the view of the translator, the translation strategies adopted should be chosen for the best. The translator should not be limited to any translating method so as to adapt to the translational eco-environment, and make sure the survival of the translated version.

IV. ANALYSIS OF THE C-E TRANSLATION OF CULTURAL RELICS IN INNER MONGOLIA MUSEUM

Inner Mongolia Museum was firstly built in the year of 1957. As the first museum in the autonomous region, Inner Mongolia Museum has played its role well in displaying the culture of national minorities. In 2007, the new museum was completed to welcome the 60th anniversary of Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region. The displaying items are further enriched with a clearer classification, and the C-E translation of those cultural relics is also renewed accordingly. Cultural relics in Inner Mongolia Museum differ from those in other museums in China because of their reflection to the special cultural phenomena in Inner Mongolia, thus the translation should also be taken specially and carefully.

According to the features of the translation for China's global communication and the uniqueness of names of cultural relics, the C-E translation of cultural relics should also follow a set of principles.

Firstly, the adaptability of the C-E translation of cultural relics. "Adaptation" is a natural tendency for the translator during translating activities. In the ternary relation of "source text----translator---target text", the translator is centered, and the "adaptation" during translation is dual based on the translator. The translation must fit in all the elements in the two languages. The "one-way adaptation" to the source text only or to the target text only is unimaginable. (Fang Zhongnan, 2006, p.116)

A lot of containers or articles in ancient China are hardly used currently, so their names are also difficult to recognize because of the complexion in writing and strangeness in pronunciation even for Chinese natives. Therefore, the

difficulty to understand them for foreigners is quite obvious. For example, Jade *Cong* (玉琮) is a kind of jade instrument for sacrifice, especially in Shang and Zhou dynasties; Pottery *Dou* (陶豆) is a kind of pottery food container with a shallow plate and high foot, and is also popular in Shang and Zhou dynasties; Pottery *Zeng* (陶甑) is a kind of round pottery steamer with a square or round hole at the bottom for cooking, which is frequently seen at the relics of Yangshao culture; Bronze *Nao* (青铜铙) is a kind of bronze percussion instrument; Bronze handled *You* (铜提梁卣) is an important wine vessel in the Bronze age. Examples of these kinds are ubiquitous in China's museums. Those instruments or articles played an important role in our ancestors' lives, and they are also unique in Chinese culture. When it is hard to find a direct equivalence in English, proper explanations are necessary. According to the translations in the National Museum of China, all those names are transliterated by their pronunciations in Pinyin, and the notes for their usage will be followed. Take "陶豆" as an example, it is translated as "Pottery *Dou* (food container)", while other examples are treated in the same way. This is a good way to adapt to both Chinese culture and Western culture, and the audience or readers can easily understand those cultural relics by the explanations. However, in Inner Mongolia Museum, notes are not clearly labeled, which may be one aspect for further improvement.

Secondly, the selection of the C-E translation of cultural relics. During the C-E translation of cultural relics in museums, the selection of the translator is not completely free or random. The names for cultural relics are informative and fact-oriented; there are sets of rules for the naming of those cultural relics in Chinese, thus there should also be rules for the corresponding translations. Generally speaking, the English translations of cultural relics should follow the same pattern. For example, the notes for the items of cultural relics will include contents like the name, the time, the unearthed time and place, as well as some explanatory information. Thus, the English translation should also include all those information and follow the same form.

However, the translator of cultural relics also has the right to decide on the different versions of translation even for the same term. For example, the difference has been shown to the translation of "带盖" (*DaiGai*, with a cover). One of the cultural relics in Inner Mongolia Museum is named "妇好带盖铜方彝" which is unearthed from the tomb of "Fuhao" in Shang Dynasty in Anyang, Henan province. It is a wine container with a cover on it, just as the name for it. Another item is named "铜带盖盨". "盨" (*Xu*) is a food container that always has a cover on it. In Inner Mongolia Museum, the translations for them are "Fuhao square *yi* and cover" and "Bronze lidded *xu*" respectively. Though treated differently with the term "带盖", they have achieved the same effect in expressing the meaning. However, from the perspective of reader-friendliness, the authors get them improved as "Fuhao square *Yi* (wine container) with cover" and "Bronze lidded *Xu* (food container)".

Thirdly, the uniformity and normalization of the C-E translation of cultural relics. This point has already been mentioned in the previous two sections. The C-E translation of cultural relics is not done at random, and should be uniform and normalized throughout the museum, and even throughout the country. The problems of this kind are not difficult to be found in Inner Mongolia Museum. For example, there are some pottery articles with three feet, like "三足陶壶" and "三足陶钵". Some of them are translated as "Pottery pot" and "Pottery bowl", while some others are translated as "Tripod pottery pot" and "Tripod pottery bowl", and obviously, the latter versions are better to reflect the full names of those items.

Porcelains are also important articles for China, and even now, they are still popular on the market. They are beautiful because of the colored glaze and various designs and patterns, which can also been shown by the various vases in Inner Mongolia Museum. Qingbai glazed (青白釉) vase, Celadon glazed (青釉)vase, White glazed (白釉) vase and Dark glazed (褐釉)vase are all collected in the museum, but as to the unity and normalization of all those translations, improvements should still be made.

Fourthly, the accuracy of the C-E translation of cultural relics. Because of the informative nature of the names of cultural relics, the C-E translation of cultural relics must be accurate to express the content of those names. For example, an item on display in Inner Mongolia Museum is named "石夯锤", which is a pounder made of stone, so a proper translation for it can be "Stone pounder". However, the translation in the museum is "Stone pounds a hammer", which seems to be a little far away from the actual item.

Another item on display is named "镂空花鸟纹玉饰", which is a piercing jade with flower and bird design for decoration, so a proper translation might be "The piercing jade ornament with flower and bird design". While the translation in the museum is "The jade adorns painting of flowers and birds in traditional Chinese style lines". Several concepts like "painting" and "traditional Chinese style lines" may be confusing to the readers both at home and abroad because of its inaccuracy.

The item named "褐釉剔牡丹鹿纹梅瓶" is also a precious relic in the museum, and similar items can also be found in the National Museum of China. "剔花" is a traditional but special decoration technique for porcelains, so this vase is also a typical example for the extraordinary technique in our ancestors' porcelain-making. A proper translation for this item can be "Dark glazed vase incised with peony and deer design". The translation in Inner Mongolia Museum is "Western Glazed Vase with Peony and Deer Design", which is not accurate enough as some important details are neglected.

Lastly, the historic and cultural nature of the C-E translation of cultural relics. Cultural relics bear the characteristics

to reflect China's history and ancient culture, so the historic and cultural nature of the C-E translation of cultural relics is also important. Inner Mongolia Museum has its specialty for a lot of items on display which are not only the representation to the history and culture of China, but also more specifically the history and culture of national minorities, so special attentions should be paid when translating the cultural relics with particular historic and cultural connotations.

For example, "四子王旗王府卫队乘马牌" is on show in the museum, but the translation of the name is obviously inaccurate, as "Take advantage of that horse plate". "Riding a horse" is not "taking advantage of a horse", and some other important details are also omitted. Here, a better translated version might be "Horse-riding plaque of the prince guard of Siziwang Banner".

Another example is an item named "景教十字纹铜牌", which is translated into "Nestorian bronze plaque with swastika design". This translation is a good example, for it has got all the details and cultures reflected. "景教" (Nestorianism) is regarded as the earliest Christian denomination that was spread to China during the Tang Dynasty, while "swastika" is exactly the name for the design. Thus, it is fairly good for this translation fully to show the content, as well as the history and culture in it.

V. CONCLUSION

The C-E translation of cultural relics, as an important component of the translation for China's global communication follows the general principles of the latter. However, its uniqueness asks for special attentions when translating. This paper starts out from a comparatively new perspective of translation theory - Hu Gengshen's translation approach as adaptation and selection, which emphasizes on: 1) translation to adapt to the translational eco-environment; 2) selecting the final form of the target text when translating; 3) translators' dual identity in the translating process. This theory liberates translators from the set pattern to stick to some kind of translating strategy or method. To achieve the best result of translation, every strategy or method that is best in treating the context and situation should be employed. Accordingly, the formula of the "C-E translation of Cultural Relics = Adaptation + Selection" is deduced.

Based on the theoretical framework, the adaptability, selection, uniformity and normalization, accuracy as well as the historic and cultural nature of the C-E translation of cultural relics are discussed with translated examples from Inner Mongolia Museum.

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Jianjun Wang was born in Inner Mongolia, China. He is currently an associate professor in Foreign Languages College, Inner Mongolia University, China. His research interests include translation and intercultural communication.

Xing Tong was born in Henan, China. She currently works at the Overseas Business Department in China Light Industry International Engineering Co., Ltd. as a translator and interpreter. Her research interests include translation theory and practice.

Iranian EFL Learners' Attitude towards Idioms in English

Maedeh Tadayyon
Department of English, Faculty of Foreign Languages, University of Isfahan, Iran

Saeed Ketabi
Department of English, Faculty of Foreign Languages, University of Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—**Iranian EFL learners have proven to have a positive attitude towards English in general. This study is an attempt to investigate the attitude of the Iranian EFL learners towards learning and producing idioms in particular. A random number of 40 students majoring in English translation and Literature at Isfahan University, Iran was surveyed using an attitude questionnaire. The domains used for the purposes of the study were: a) interest in English, b) attitudes towards learning English, and c) attitudes towards learning and producing idioms. The results revealed that participants have a very high positive attitude towards learning idioms.**

Index Terms—**idioms, attitude, and EFL learners**

I. INTRODUCTION

Among all the various definitions of idioms, Crystal's (1991, p. 170) seems more relevant to the present study. According to Crystal's (1991)

An idiom is "a term used in grammar and lexicology to refer to a sequence of words which are semantically or syntactically restricted, so that they function as a single unit. From a semantic viewpoint, the meaning of the individual words cannot be summed to produce the meaning of the idiomatic expression as a whole. From a syntactic viewpoint, the words do not often permit the usual variability they display in other contexts ..." (p. 170)

The way which idioms are mentally represented and processed is been an issue worth considering. Since, according to its definition, an idiom is a string of words which its meaning is not the sum of its parts, two views are to be considered. On the one hand, idioms are seen as conceptual units, meaning that they encode conceptual representations that have no equivalent in any non-idiomatic linguistic string and thus cannot be paraphrased without loss. On the other hand, since the concepts underlying idioms have internal structure, they are processed in much the same way as other non-idiomatic sequences of words. Thus, as an idioms is heard, the two aspects of it are to be taken into account when processing its meaning. In other words, both the individual constituents of that idiom and the concept underlying it as a holistic unit are activated.

Furthermore, idioms are believed to be stored and retrieved in a similar way as other words are stored in the mental lexicon (Qualls, O'Brien, Blood, & Hammer, 2003). The processing of idioms in the mind of the person is being looked at from different point of views, resulting in a number of hypotheses to explain the way idioms are processed.

The first hypotheses, literal first hypothesis, was stated by Bobrow and Bell (1973) which proposes that idioms are mentally represented and processed as lexical items. Meaning that when facing an idiom string, what is done is to first interpret it literally and later mental idiom lexicon and figurative meaning if and when a literal meaning does not fit the context in which the expression is used, then search is done for that idiom in our mental idiom lexicon and then choose its figurative meaning. However, there also exists an opposing point of view that believes in what is known as parallel processing called simultaneous processing hypothesis. This hypotheses has been put forward by a number of researchers. (Gibbs 1994; Ortony et. al. 1978; Recanati 1995; Sperber & Wilson 1986; Swinney & Cutler 1979). According to this view, "when a hearer/reader encounters the first constituent word of an idiom string, both figurative and literal processing run in parallel". (Vega-Moreno, 2001. p. 3)

Nevertheless, there is another hypotheses being put forward by Gibbs (1980). What figurative first hypothesis claims is even further away from the literal first hypothesis presented by Bobrow and Bell. This hypotheses proposes that idioms are to be considered lexical items whose idiomatic meaning is retrieved directly from the mental lexicon as soon as the string starts to be heard (Gibbs, 1980; Schweigert, 1986).

II. IMPORTANCE OF IDIOMS IN ENGLISH

English is a language well known for its rich use of idioms. As the native speakers of English use idioms frequently, hence, without the use of idioms, English would fall short with much of its variety and humor both in speech and writing (R. De Caro, 2009). Besides, as language learners learn idioms, it enables them to get involved into the real

world. They are then able to speak what is known as the natural English and it is due to the use of idioms that the language is being considered as natural, conversational. Therefore, if our the focus in EFL classes is to enhance students' naturalness and fluency in speaking a foreign language, then it seems only necessary for language learners to learn idioms in order to have better communicative skills.

Additionally, it is believed that learning idioms enables language learners to acquire information about a language's culture (Agar, 1991; Glucksberg, 2001). It is now considered as a common knowledge that idioms are and should be used in a broad range of everyday-life situations. Furthermore, idioms have been considered an area of language which fits better with higher levels of L2 fluency. To support this claim, many researchers (e.g. Ellis, 1997a; Yorio, 1989) have suggested that adequate knowledge and appropriate use of idioms in an L2 is an important indicator of L2 communicative competence. Similarly, a number of researchers (Levorato & Cacciari, 1992; Levorato, 1993) have introduced the notion of figurative competence to explain the process of production and comprehension of idioms.

Idioms are said to be stored and retrieved similar to other words in the mental lexicon (Qualls, O'Brien, Blood, & Hammer, 2003). However, neither teaching nor learning idioms is considered as the easiest part of vocabulary instruction but rather a stumbling block (Laufer, 1997). To support this view, Marton (1977) also states that with the idioms at the advanced level, idiomaticity is believed to have a negative influence on the comprehension of these idioms. This is due to the fact that idiomatic expressions are difficult to understand and learn even when the two languages are similar in the use and meaning (Kellerman, 1978; 1986).

III. ATTITUDE

Learners' attitude towards a language is an important concept because it plays a key role in the language learning and teaching of that language. According to what De Bot, Lowie and Verspoor (2005) claim, "teachers, learners and researchers will all agree that a high motivation and a positive attitude towards a second language and its community help second language learning". (p. 72) In other words, learners' attitude towards a particular language could be either positive or negative. Based on the different types of motivation made by Gardner and Lambert (1972), instrumental and integrative, individuals might generate positive, negative or neutral feelings. This could also be explained due to a language learner's experiences, meaning that a previous experience with a language or the speakers of that language could result in shaping someone's attitude towards that language. However, attitude is subject to changes and it may change over time. Also, as Fasold (1984) suggests that attitudes towards a language are often mirrored in the attitudes towards the members of that speech community. For language learners to succeed in the process of learning a new language, they ought to have positive attitudes towards the target language. According to Prodromou (1992), a successful learner is the one who has positive attitudes towards the target language. In the current educational system in Iran, English is considered as the first foreign language. English is not only taught at various levels, but also it is the medium of instruction in some universities. There is a growing demand for learning English due to the fact that knowing and learning English has progressively become more prestigious and more popular, particularly among high school and university students.

Some researchers, like Moiinvaziri (2008), have investigated Iranian learners' motivations and attitudes towards learning English. Moiinvaziri (2008), alongside Vaezi (2008) and many others proved that Iranian students have very high motivation and positive attitudes towards learning English and they were motivated, either in both instrumental and integrative orientations or both.

Vaezi (2008) conducted a study on Iranian's undergraduate students' integrative and instrumental motivation toward learning English as a foreign language. Using a motivation questionnaire, Vaezi (2008) proved that Iranian students had very high motivation and positive attitudes towards learning English and they were more instrumentally motivated.

Chalak and Kassaian (2010) also investigated the types of motivation, orientation and the attitudes of Iranian undergraduate students towards learning English and English- speaking people. They too, using a questionnaire, suggested that Iranian EFL learners are both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated and also, instrumentally and integratively oriented.

Considering the results of such studies, it seems that Iranian EFL learners have a very high motivation to learn English as a new language. Meanwhile, Rohani et.al (2012) focused their attention on a particular area of language; idioms. In order to carry out their study, the researchers distributed a 10 item questionnaire to 60 intermediate freshmen studying English at a university. The results of their study proved the participants' highly positive view toward learning idioms and their need for helpful and facilitating learning strategies.

All in all, idioms are to be a crucial point within language classrooms and require the instructor to include them within the syllabus. Thus, what the language instructor should bear in mind when teaching idioms, is the level of proficiency of the language learners in the target language. The experimental data in this field are contradictory. In particular, Trosborg (1985) found that the learners' ability to figure out the meaning of unknown metaphorical idioms was correlated with their proficiency in the target language. On the other hand, Johnson and Rosano (1993) concluded that language proficiency did not affect idiom comprehension. Due to the importance of idioms in the daily discourse and their high frequency of use, and because of the dissatisfaction with the way idioms are treated in language, it seems only fair to further investigate on idioms and their role in language classrooms. Moreover, as it was stated earlier, Iranian EFL learners tend to avoid using some aspect of a target language due to various reasons, it was the researcher's

intention to touch upon the area of idioms and Iranian EFL learners' attitudes towards learning and using them with the idea of avoidance in mind. Meaning that this study was designed to also investigate whether Iranian EFL learners' are aware of the fact that they resort to avoidance strategy when using idioms. This was possible to measure with the distribution of an idiom attitude questionnaire that apart from items that determined learners' attitude towards learning English in general and idioms in particular, further included a few items that addressed avoidance in idioms.

Laufer's (2000) study on investigating the avoidance of idioms in a second language is significant because it is one of the first studies to explore avoidance in using idioms; however, this study had some shortcomings. Firstly, there were no pretests in order to homogenize the participants. Homogenizing the participants into a group which are all familiar with the intended concept the researcher was to measure, is of importance in this study because as Laufer (2000) states "The learner cannot avoid something s/he does not know" (p. 1). Hence the first step that had to be taken when choosing the participants was to homogenize them into the ones who are familiar with those concepts under investigation.

Therefore, the focus of the present research will be on investigating the use of avoidance by Iranian EFL learners in English idioms. In doing so, the researcher, on one hand, tends to eradicate the limitations and shortcomings of Laufer's study and on the hand focusing on avoidance in idioms in the context of Iranian learners. Since most, if not all, studies in the Iranian EFL context have only focused on language at the level of syntax and lexical items, and idioms have not yet been touched upon in the Iranian context, it is the researcher's intention to enter this area.

From the theoretical and empirical studies mentioned, it follows that avoidance is a fundamental cognitive strategy. And as mentioned above, a good deal of research had been done on the category of idioms. However, the relationship between avoidance strategy and the use of idioms was only touched upon by Laufer (2000). In the context of Iranian EFL learners, avoidance strategy had only been studied at the level of syntactic and lexical items, and no significant study was conducted about the use of avoidance in idioms in Iranian EFL context. Therefore, this study was aimed to determine whether avoidance of English idioms in Iranian EFL learners is due to the effect of L1-L2 degree of similarity in idioms. It is spurred by a number of motivations. Firstly, this study tries to find an answer to whether Iranian EFL learners avoid using idioms in the target language (English). If so, secondly, it is the researcher's desire to determine whether this use of avoidance is due to the effect of similarity between English and Persian idioms. In order to identify which idiom types in English are mostly avoided by Iranian EFL learners. She also intends to determine whether the level of L2 proficiency is a factor in use of avoidance in idioms. In addition, to determine whether gender plays any significant role in the use of avoidance in idioms by Iranian EFL learners. Finally, it aims at clarifying what attitude Iranian EFL learners have toward both learning and using English idioms. The results of this study could consequently enable both curriculum designers and teachers identify those categories of idioms which need to be highlighted more in the classroom setting that could also result in a more native-like use of language by Iranian language learners.

IV. THE PRESENT STUDY

This study investigated the attitudes Iranian EFL learners have towards leaning and producing English idioms.
Research Questions
What attitudes do Iranian EFL learners have towards both learning and producing idioms in English?
Methodology
Participants
The participants who took part in this study comprised 40 B.A. Iranian students, majoring in English literature and translation fields at Isfahan University. The participants were all chosen randomly. Tables 1.1 and 1.2 summarize the descriptive statistics of the participants of the study:

TABLE 1.1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS

Gender		N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Female	Age	18	19	36	22.83	4.423
	Valid N	18				
Male	Age	22	18	30	21.77	3.131
	Valid N	22				

TABLE 1.2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Age(Total)	40	18	36	22.25	3.754
Valid N	40				

Procedure and Instrumentation
An attitude questionnaire was designed and piloted prior to its distribution. The questionnaire was designed with the reliability of 0.71 with the aim of allowing the researcher to identify Iranian EFL learners' attitude towards both learning

and using English idioms. It consisted of a total of 19 items. The attitude questionnaire was distributed among a random number of 40 B.A. students majoring in English literature and Translation studies at University of Isfahan.

V. Results of the Study

The students' responses to the questionnaire were analyzed in terms of descriptive and inferential statistics. The data was basically nominal and based on frequencies. Therefore, percentages were calculated. The raw data was fed into the computer and a non- parametric test of Chi-square was run by the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 21 software for each case to know whether the distribution was different from what one would expect by chance. In other words, it was done to determine whether the observed frequencies had statistically significant difference with the expected ones or they had just occurred by mere chance.

The first 8 items on the questionnaire were designed to address the risk taking ability of the participants. The next 8 items were, however, addressing participants' attitude towards English idioms. Based on the analysis of the completed questionnaires, the following results were accumulated. Table 1.3 summarizes the results:

TABLE 1.3:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Gender		N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Female	Idiom	18	22	39	30.56	4.204
	Valid N (listwise)	18				
Male	Idiom	22	22	39	30.59	4.272
	Valid N (listwise)	22				

The results indicate that the participants (both female and male) had a very positive attitude towards learning and producing idioms in general. This shows the high interest in learning and using English idioms among Iranian EFL learners.

VI. Conclusion

The main goal of the present study was to investigate the attitude of Iranian EFL learners' attitude towards both learning and producing English idioms. The results indicated that Iranian EFL learners have a very high positive attitude towards both learning and producing English idioms. The results of this study were in line with those obtained from the study of Chalak and Kassaian (2010) which investigated the types of motivation, orientation and the attitudes of Iranian undergraduate students towards learning English and English- speaking people. All in all, this study adds to the previous studies which indicate the high attitude of Iranian EFL learners towards learning English, and most specifically, as the case of this study, the high attitude towards learning idioms in English.

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Maedeh Tadayyon received her BA degree in English Translation from the University of Isfahan in 2010. She is currently an MA student in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) at the University of Isfahan. Her areas of interest include second language acquisition, sociolinguistics and classroom discourse.

Saeed Ketabi is an associate professor of applied linguistics at the University of Isfahan. He has published numerous articles in the area of English language teaching and learning. His main areas of interest are English Teaching Methodology and Materials development.

A Study of Syntactic Transfer in Relative Clause Learning of Chinese College English Majors

Lili Zhu

Foreign Language Department, Dezhou University, China

Abstract—**Language transfer has long been a central issue in applied linguistics, second language acquisition (SLA) and language teaching. In the last few decades, its importance in second language acquisition has been reassessed several times. Based on the theoretical and empirical research findings in transfer literature, this thesis makes a study of syntactic transfer in English learning of Chinese learners. The research focuses on discussing the question: Are there any differences or similarities concerning syntactic transfer between students from different proficiency levels. The results of this study show that the extent of syntactic transfer is particularly large for complex target structures and among learners of lower proficiency level, though higher proficiency level learners may also have relied on the syntactic structures of their Chinese L1.**

Index Terms—**second language acquisition, syntactic transfer, relative clauses, error analysis**

I. INTRODUCTION

Language transfer as an important characteristic of second language acquisition has long been recognized. A learner's second language or foreign language learning is largely influenced by the learner's previous experience in language learning or acquisition. The phenomenon that certain elements of a language are more likely to be transferred than others has been noted by such researchers as Gass, and Selinker. This has raised the question of viewing language transfer in a broader perspective. Kellerman (1977) proposed the notion of *psychotopology*, that is, the distance between the two languages as perceived by the learner. His work (1979, 1983) has figured prominently in the development of language transfer studies by focusing on the principles involved in what he calls the transferability of linguistic elements arguing that there are definite constraints on transfer which go beyond mere similarities and differences of the languages in question and which ultimately involve the learner as an active participant, who makes decision about transferability. The study of language transfer will facilitate language teaching by providing an insight of the differences and similarities between languages and the influence that previous linguistic experience will have on present language learning.

In the past few decades, language activities such as language acquisition, comprehension, and production have been described with increasing emphasis placed on the processual aspects and language learning is modeled as a cognitive process. One of the most important contributions to the understanding of human cognition concerning memory, inferential reasoning, language processing, and language acquisition has been the ACT model proposed by Anderson (1976), in which he makes the clear distinction between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge. His work has given inspiration to numerous studies on language performance and language transfer. In terms of declarative and procedural knowledge, Anderson (1976) claims that as a result of its mode of acquisition and its nonreportability, our knowledge of our native language can be regarded as procedural, while the knowledge of a new language taught by classroom techniques often seems declarative. The activation of this type of knowledge is, according to Anderson, by using general rule-following procedures applied to the rules that the learner has learned and applying this knowledge is a much slower and painful process than applying the procedurally encoded knowledge of the native language. In L2 or foreign language production, the L1 knowledge often acts as a procedural constraint and this will help the learner to achieve an acceptable L2 fluency or fills a perceived or unperceived L2 knowledge gap.

There are other studies presenting evidence of syntactic transfer. Wode (1981), for instance, through a very detailed longitudinal study, offered insight about the development of second language syntax. Gass (1984) surveyed much of the work on second language syntax that had led to a reconsideration of transfer by many researchers in the 1980s. Odlin(2001), using a chapter in his book Language Transfer provided a good discussion on syntactic transfer.

To summarize, despite the fact that transfer in syntax is not so common as in lexis or phonology, transfer do figure as an important factor in the acquisition of some syntactic structures. But it often occurs in conjunction with other acquisition processes, some of which show hints of typological and universal influences at work.

II. METHODOLOGY

This part is the research design of the current study. It presents the research questions, participants and data elicitation techniques employed in this study and the rationale for using them.

A. Research Question

As discussed in the preceding part, there is little agreement among researchers as to the extent of syntactic transfer and to the role that language proficiency plays in transfer. As a result, the present research aims to investigate the following question:

Are there any differences or similarities concerning syntactic transfer between students from different proficiency levels?

B. Participants

The participants of the present study are 60 Chinese college English majors studying at Dezhou College.

At the time of this research, the students had begun their second year study at the college. These students were divided into two proficiency levels by the researcher, namely, proficient group and less proficient group, according to their English scores of the TEM4 model test. The participants have not taken the TEM4 exam when the research is carried out. To ensure the proficiency level, a pretest has been conducted among 70 English majors in two classes. The test is a TEM4 model test in which none of the subject has ever previously completed.

The test consists of five parts. Part One is Writing. It constitutes points. Part Two is listening comprehension consisting of 25 questions, each of which contributing 1 point. Part Three is Cloze with 15 blanks, also each for 1 point. Part Four is Grammar and Vocabulary. There are 25 questions. Each question is 1 point. Part Five is Reading Comprehension. There are 10 questions. Each question is 2 points.

Two English teachers with many years of teaching experience (one is 10 years and the other is 8 years) graded the test papers. The proficient group is composed of the first 30 participates in the test and the less proficient group the last 30 participates in the test. The mean score of the proficient group is 64.7. The mean score of the less proficient group is 53.2.

A detailed description of the two groups of subjects is summarized in Table 2.

TABLE 1
A DESCRIPTION OF THE SUBJECTS INVOLVED

Major	Subjects	Proficiency Level	Average Age	Sex	
				Male	Female
English	30	Less Proficient	20.7	4	26
	30	Proficient	20.5	7	23

C. Translation Test

With regard to direct translation, Taylor (1975:76) commented: (It) has the advantage of (1) forcing the experimental subject to attempt to form a desired target language structure, and (2) assuring that the subject understands the semantics of the structure which he is required to produce. Moreover, by forcing the subject to form a structure he has not completely mastered, the experimenter can gain insights into how he organizes new syntactic construction in his interlanguage. A translation test seems to be the most efficient way to elicit syntactic structures from subjects.

The material used in the study is a Chinese-to-English sentence translation test. The test contains 20 simple Chinese sentences. Among them, every five represents one type of relative clauses: SS, SO, OS, and OO types.

The simple Chinese sentences in the test material actually are the translation work done by the author. The author first reads a lot of English magazines like *Reader's Digest, People* and so on, and then chooses some good sentences containing relative clauses. The word "good" here means they are not so complex and the author can easily translate them into two simple Chinese sentences. After enough sentences are chosen, the author classifies them into four groups ,that is, (1) whether the head noun is a subject or an object of the main clause, and (2) whether the relative pronoun functions as a subject or an object within the relative clause. Thus, these relative clauses are classified into four groups: SS-relatives, SO-relatives, OS-relatives, and OO-relatives. For each group, five sentences are left. Finally, the author translates each of the 20 English sentences into two simple Chinese sentences. The author asks several Chinese speakers to read these Chinese sentences to ensure they are idiomatic enough and have no trace of English.

III. RESULTS OF GROUP TRANSLATION TEST

Error analysis has been an important part in second language acquisition study. The errors made in using relative clauses by Chinese English majors have been used by Schachter (1974) to illustrate avoidance phenomenon in language transfer. The difference in the target and native linguistic forms can lead learners to avoid using some structures. In this part the error ratio would be analyzed first to see how often the participants in the research make errors in using relative clauses. Next, the various errors made by the participants are classified into several categories and analyzed.

A. Results of the Translation Test

In the translation test, the students were asked to translate 20 Chinese sentences into English. The results of this translation test echoed those of the translation test in the individual interview, confirming that a large number of students, irrespective of their proficiency levels, called upon their L1 when producing English output. The findings for the translation task are summarized in Table 2.

TABLE 2
RESULTS OF GROUP TRANSLATION TEST: NUMBERS OF RELATIVE CLAUSE USE

Subjects	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Proficient	30	9	18	13.75	2.832
Less Proficient	30	3	14	9.1	2.682

Table 2 presents the mean values of the numbers of using relative clauses of the two groups. As presented in Table 3, the mean value of relative clause use of the proficient group is higher, which is 13.75, and that of proficient group is lower, which is 9.1. The minimum value of the proficient group (which is 9) is higher than the less proficient group (which is 3). The maximum value of the proficient group (which is 18) is also higher than that of the less proficient group (which is 14).

The results indicate that the students in the proficient group use more relative clauses than those in the less proficient group.

TABLE 3
NUMBER OF CORRECT USE OF RELATIVE CLAUSES

Subjects	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Proficient	12	8	16	12.08	3.204
Less proficient	21	1	11	6.1	2.755

Table 3 presents the mean values of the number of correct use of relative clauses of the two groups. As presented in Table 4, the mean value of the number of correct use of relative clauses of the proficient group is higher, which is 12.06, and the mean value of the number of correct use of relative clauses of the less proficient group is lower, which is 6.1. The minimum value of the proficient group (which is 8) is higher than that of the less proficient group (which is 1). The maximum value of the proficient group (which is 16) is also higher than that of the less proficient group (which is 11).

The results indicate that the proficient group students generally use relative clauses more accurately than the less proficient group students do. All these results as well as the effects of learners' language proficiency on their processing of relative clauses will be explained in the following section.

B.   Errors Types

The results of the use of relative clauses for each group have been presented and analyzed in the previous part. So the question as to how often the students make errors in the use of relative clauses has been answered, and then the next question is what the characteristics and the common types of these errors are. The errors have been analyzed and classified into six categories. They are: pronoun retention, wrong position of RC, *be*-verb omission, lack of relative pronoun, wrong use of pronoun, and subject omission. These six categories of errors will be analyzed in the following part.

a.   Pronoun Retention

Pronoun retention, as illustrated in the following, refers to the maintenance of the pronoun in the relative clause which indicates the head.

[1](2a) *Tom bought a mobile phone which he lost *it* soon.

(3a) *That bank is trustful which I just withdrew my money into *it*.

(5a) *Maggie stands far away and just looks at me who she never see *me* before.

(7a) *She has two beautiful rings which she usually show *them* off to her friends.

When the participants are translating sentences，they tend to make pronoun retention errors. Pronoun retention errors account for a large proportion of the relative clauses error types. The general viewpoint concerning pronoun retention is that it would be influenced by the learners' L1. English does not permit pronoun retention, so the sentence "*Tom bought a mobile phone which he lost it soon" is grammatically wrong. Chinese allows the pronoun retention as in the sentence"汤姆买了一个手机，不久以后他就把它弄丢了". The learners, whose L1 permits pronoun retention, tend to accept the sentence such as "*Tom bought a mobile phone which he lost it soon" as grammatically correct. This kind of error can be attributed to L1 transfer errors.

b.   Wrong Position of RC

The wrong position of RC, as illustrated in the following examples, refers to the situation where the relative clause, though correctly translated, is not embedded correctly after the head noun it modifies.

(3b) *That bank is very reliable *to which I've just deposit money*.

(3c) *That bank is very reliable *where I just put my money in*.

(4a) *This message was told to Mr Li *which was told to Mr Wang later*.

(13a) *Her old brother has studied in the university *who you just talked with*.

When the participants are translating sentences，they tend to embed relative clauses into the wrong position, as in the sentence "*That bank is very reliable to which I've just deposit money", where the relative clause "to which I've just deposit money" should be embedded immediately after the antecedent "that bank". It shows that the subject tried to avoid central embedding. In all the sentences given as example of this error type, the function of the antecedent in the

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[1] Note: * means the wrong sentence the students produced in their test.

main sentences is a subject, and therefore, to be modified by a relative clause. Therefore central embedding is inevitable. But for the students who were not familiar with central embedding, they avoided this process and put the relative clauses needed to be center-embedded at the end of the sentence. This kind of error can be attributed to the difficulty of central embedding, which claims that central embedding is one of the obstacles for learners to understand relative clauses.

c.   Be-verb Omission

Be-verb omission means the participants deleted the *be*-verb in the relative clauses as showed in the following examples.

(12a) *Regret that like arrow stabled into his heart deeply.

(19a) *This machine that bought last year is working perfect.

(19b) *This machine which working well is bought last year.

When the participants are translating sentences，they often omit the *be*-verb in the relative clauses. *Be*-verb omission is another most frequent error type which has been mentioned in a number of studies. The author   attributes this kind of error to over-generalization of the rule of deleting relative pronoun and *be*-verb. The participants who knew the rule vaguely misapplied the rule and deleted the *be*-verb only.

d.   Lack of Relative Pronoun

Lack of relative pronoun, as illustrated in the following, means the participants combined the two sentences only by deleting the subject of one sentence without adding the relative pronoun.

(11a) *John lives in Kansas is a horseman.

(15a) *Bedy, a Chinese born in Shanghai, left China at 8 years old, is his wife.

(17a) *A man talked with my teacher is my uncle.

When the participants are translating sentences, they tend to omit the relative pronouns. Two interpretations can be applied to the lack of relative pronoun. One interpretation is the same with the interpretation explaining the above *be*-verb omission error, that is, the over-generalization of the rule of deleting relative pronoun and *be*-verb. The participants, who knew the rule even more vaguely than those who made the *be*-verb omission errors, didn't know it is only when the relative pronoun and the *be*-verb appear at the same time can they be omitted both. Therefore, they sometimes tend to misapply the rule and delete the relative pronoun. Another interpretation is that the participants knew very little about relative clauses except the disappearance of the identical NP in one of the two sentences. So they simply deleted the identical NP of a sentence and then connected it to the other.

e.   Wrong Use of Pronoun

One participant used a personal pronoun to join the relative clause and the main clause when translating Sentence 13. Please look at the following example:

 (13b) *Her brother was a college student with *him* you had a conversation just now.

The interpretation of this kind of error is that the participant knew little about relative clauses. When he/she was creating a relative clause, he/she only put the identical NP at the beginning of the relative clause instead of using a relative pronoun to replace the identical NP.

f.   Subject Omission

When translating Sentence 20，one participant has deleted the subject of the relative clause. Please look at the following example:

(20a) *The first time to be mother gave me a totally different views which can't learn from psychology course.

The occurrence of subject omission can be interpreted as mismatch of the antecedent. In this relative clause, the subject is "I". The participant has taken "the view" as the subject, so he has omitted the subject. This is the reason of mismatching the antecedent.

As presented above, the pronoun retention and the wrong position of RC account for the largest proportion of the errors. *Be*-verb omission is another frequent error. Another category is the lack of relative pronoun. Some learners even use pronoun to substitute relative pronoun, and some omit the subject in the relative clauses. This section has provided the types of errors detected in the participants' translation work.

IV.   Conclusion

Data collected from the research show that the interlanguage of students from both proficiency levels presented certain kind of influence from their mother tongue, Chinese. However, data from the group translation test and writing test indicate that syntactic transfer from Chinese to English is more widespread among the less proficient students though many proficient students also produce strings that strongly resemble the structures of their L1. When the sentence structures concerned are considered more difficult or unfamiliar, both levels of students tend to rely much on their L1. This suggests that calling upon the L1 when producing output in the L2 is a fairly common compensation strategy among students to overcome their difficulties in the production of unfamiliar target language strings. In this way, transfer as a mental process in second language learning is manifest, that is, "L2 learners make strategic use of their L1 in the process of learning the L2, and in the process of understanding and producing messages in the L2" (Ellis, 1999, P.347).

Despite their more intensive and extensive exposure to positive evidence in the L2 than that of the intermediate group,

the students in the higher proficiency level group tend to rely on the L1 as well. Data from both the translation and writing test show that whereas transfer from Chinese to English is more widespread among less proficient students, many proficient students also produce strings that strongly resemble the structures of the L1. However, when the sentence structures concerned are considered more difficult or unfamiliar, the less proficient students tend to rely much more on the L1 than do the proficient students, suggesting that calling upon the L 1 when producing output in the L2 is a fairly common compensation strategy among students of lower proficiency levels to overcome their difficulties in the production of unfamiliar target language strings. The psychological structure of the learners' Lls, their perception of the L1-target language distance, and their actual knowledge of the target language, all control their use of transfer (Kellerman, 1979).

Based on the theoretical and empirical research findings in transfer literature, the present research was designed to investigate the extent of syntactic transfer from Chinese to English. It also aimed to examine the differences or similarities of the nature and process of syntactic transfer between students from different proficiency levels. With three data elicitation techniques, the written production of Chinese college students was analyzed with the focus on relative clauses. The results of data analyses present confirmatory evidence for syntactic transfer from Chinese to English with regard to relative clause. The extent of syntactic transfer is particularly large for complex target structures and among learners of a lower proficiency level, though higher proficiency level learners may also have relied on the syntactic structures of their L1, Chinese.

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Lili Zhu was born in Dezhou, China in 1977. She received her M.A. degree in linguistics from Shandong University, China in 2008.

She is currently a Lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Dezhou University, Dezhou, China. Her research interests include practical linguistics and American literature.

Evaluating an English Textbook for Application in Iranian EFL Academic Context

Ali Asghar Yousefi Azarfam (Corresponding author)
Department of English Language Teaching, Soufian Branch, Islamic Azad University, Soufian, Iran

Nooreen Noordin
Department of Language Education and Humanities, Faculty of Educational Studies, University Putra Malaysia, 43400, Selangor, Malaysia

Abstract—**This study was aimed at evaluating a textbook, namely Active Skills for Reading, Book 1 by Neil J. Anderson, which is currently used extensively in English as Foreign Language academic context of Iran. In doing so, a checklist developed by Ghorbani (2011) was adapted and applied in order to see to what extent this book conforms to the universally accepted standards of EFL textbooks. Data were collected based on the stipulated criteria which consider the relative realization of the general features of EFL textbooks adapted to the requirements of students. These merit scores were ranging from 0 to 2 showing total lack to perfect match of criteria to their realization in the textbook. Hence, the collected data were exported to SPSS version 20 in order to be descriptively analyzed. The findings for the seven extensive subheadings included in the checklist showed that 79 percent of the textbook under evaluation matched the common worldwide features of EFL textbooks. The results also indicated that the book is really appropriate in increasing the learners' level of reading and vocabulary competence, along with improving the use of reading strategies for Iranian non-English major college students in General English Courses. It is hoped that textbook developers along with language instructors will take into consideration general features in their EFL textbooks by using appropriate checklists in order to come up with their desired textbooks.**

Index Terms—**EFL textbook evaluation, academic context, checklist, Active 1**

I. INTRODUCTION

Textbook selection can be dealt with in a variety of approaches, but the process is often practiced according to personal choices of the educators and might be affected by causes not related to education (Garinger, 2002). Availability, price, and degree of knowledge on the issue can be among the factors influencing the teachers' decisions on the sort of textbook used in classes. According to Tomlinson (1998) a qualified textbook must be appealing to students as well as appropriate to cater to their different learning styles, and make them interested and curious through both its subjects and appearance. At the same time, it must boost their self-confidence and be related to the needs of learners and engage them in authentic use of the language in order to get communicative purposes. It is also of high importance to select the sort of textbook that considers the delayed positive influence of language education in formal situation (Tomlinson, 1998).

This study examines one of the General English textbooks used in Iran's universities for non-English majors, namely Active Skills for Reading, Book 1 by Neil J. Anderson, taking into account the results of the recent studies in syllabus design, and EFL teaching and learning situation in Iran in order to decide to what extent it is in conformity with the universally accepted standards of EFL textbooks. In doing so, this research adapted the criteria for evaluating this textbook from Ghorbani's (2011) checklist which is according to a certain amount of general features that not only agree with the local requirements, but also have adequate flexibility to be applied universally with some modifications.

A. General English Course Specifications

According to the 'implementation guidelines for general courses' by Ministry of Higher Education of Iran (1995), there are some characteristics for the course 'General English' which includes:
- 68 hours for 3 credits
- No prerequisite
- Objective: gaining skill in reading comprehension of English texts by non-English major students in order to get ready for learning semi-professional texts

B. Rubrics of General English course

The following rubrics are also considered for the course 'General English' by the Ministry of higher education in Iran:
- A review of English language structure and vocabulary in high school level through reading texts of around 3500 words with an emphasis on learning skills such as:

- how to use a dictionary,
- building vocabulary,
- outlining,
- summarizing,
- skimming & scanning,
- introducing and practicing complicated grammatical patterns in semi-professional texts, and finally
- simple exercises for finding Farsi equivalent of English words and translating sentences and paragraphs into English.

II. Background of the Study

Having a look back at literature on textbook evaluation, one can find different classifications of it taking two different aspects of 'time' and 'quality' of evaluation into consideration. Concerning the time of evaluation, there exist three different types of evaluation as 'pre-use', 'in-use', and 'post-use' evaluations which are in turn referring to before using or prospective performance, at the time of using, and after using of the textbooks dealing with retrospective analysis (Ellis, 1997). This study follows the procedures of in-use textbook evaluation.

Also, regarding the quality of textbook evaluation, there are considered three general approaches for it. They are referred to as "impressionistic", "checklist", and "in-depth" approaches as claimed by McGrath (2002, p. 25). As the name suggests, the impressionistic model deals with the general impression obtained from the material or textbook. While, the checklist model, which is used in this study, is a relatively objective means of evaluating textbooks consisting of a set of items provided for the purpose of finding the degree of conformity of the intended textbook with the generally accepted criteria. And finally, the in-depth evaluation approach which is based on close analysis of features or sections in a textbook. Since the two methods of impressionistic and in-depth evaluations are not in the scope of this paper, we will only deal with checklist evaluation approach in here. Checklist model has some four advantages of being "systematic", "cost effective", "convenient" to record information, and "explicit" to easily understand the items in checklist (McGrath, 2002, p. 27).

One important point concerning conducting textbook evaluation in an educational setting is that educational managers pay enough attention to this evaluation means by investing in it (Sheldon, 1988). Through comprehensive evaluation of materials and textbooks, the managers and teachers of an institute will be able to distinguish among a variety of available textbooks. This case is even more important in EFL context where textbook plays a much more significant role in English learning of the learners as compared with ESL environment.

On other important issue regarding textbook evaluation is mentioned by Brown (1995) as he recommends the curriculum developers to consider and emphasize both institutional objectives and conformity with classroom setting in evaluating any textbook. Of course, in the context of this study, since the objectives set by the Ministry of Higher Education do not require providing a fully authentic context for learning, the very thing needed for effective learning of English, a revision in the objectives and outlines for the course 'General English' seems quite necessary. Of course, with the purpose of improving the quality of materials and textbooks in EFL context of Iran, there have been done some studies (Davoudi & Khani, 2012; Ghorbani, 2011; Azizifara et al. (2010); Dahmardeh, 2009; Jahangard, 2007), but they mainly speak of school environment and analyzed the high school textbooks for learning English, and the academic setting with a specific look at General English for non-English majors has not been so far taken into account.

III. Book Components

The book comprises 12 units, each covering two chapters that are related to the central theme of the unit. Each unit starts with pictures and some questions that require students to brainstorm for ideas and activate students' background knowledge on the subject before reading begins.

The questions of reading comprehension come after the reading texts, and they are followed by word formation and vocabulary exercises along with post-reading discussion questions.

The final part of each chapter – Real Life Skill – develops the learners' skills to relate and make use of what they have acquired to the authentic world. These after-reading exercises are mostly for the purpose of reinforcing learners' understanding of the new words. There are also some Review Units, recently added to this second edition, which is aimed at assisting learners to improve the reading rate.

IV. Method

After reviewing the related literature and through considering the context of English education in Iran, the researcher searched for the generally accepted criteria to analyze the various aspects of the book Active 1.

A. Adopting the Checklist for Evaluating Active 1

Initially, the earlier available lists were studied and their characteristics taken into account. Subsequently, an attempt was made to find a sense of balance between the real and hypothetical concerns included in considering the norms and

criteria in the adopted checklist to see if it fits the book to be evaluated. Finally, as the context of the study for both studies was locally the same, the validity of the selected checklist to a great extent could be verified.

B. Data Collection

A value of 0 to 2 is seen in the checklist in the second column. A relative significance is given to the fulfilment of each real norm in the textbook being examined closely. According to Ghorbani (2011, p. 514) "a perfect match between the ideal defined criterion and its actual realization in the textbook receiving 2, a total lack a score of 0, and any inadequate match a score of 1".

V. Data Analysis and Findings

In this study the book 'Active1' by Neil J Anderson was analyzed descriptively for non-English majors at universities in Iran. This evaluation was done in order to help the curriculum developers, teachers, and educational administrators to be able to make appropriate decisions regarding the textbook selection and use. The checklist used in the study has seven subheadings which includes: "A. Practical Considerations, B. Skills, C. Exercises and Activities, D. Pedagogic Analysis, E. Appropriacy, F. Supplementary Materials, and G. General Impression" (Ghorbani, 2011, p. 514). This checklist was employed to evaluate to what extent the book - Active 1 book used in Iranian non-English major universities follows the common agreed-upon features of EFL textbooks.

The data collected is based on the actual realization of the criteria in the textbook which includes the merit scores of "total lack" = 0, interpreted as poor, "inadequate match" = 1, interpreted as satisfactory, and "perfect match" = 2, interpreted as good, assigned to 50 items (Ghorbani, 2011; p.514). Then, the data were exported to SPSS version 20 in order to be descriptively analyzed. The findings show that 79 percent of the textbook under evaluation matches the common worldwide features of EFL textbooks. The results for the seven extensive subheadings as shown in the index are explained below (refer to Table 1 and Figure 1).

TABLE 1:
MERIT SCORE

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Poor	2	4.0	4.0
	Satisfactory	16	32.0	36.0
	Good	32	64.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	
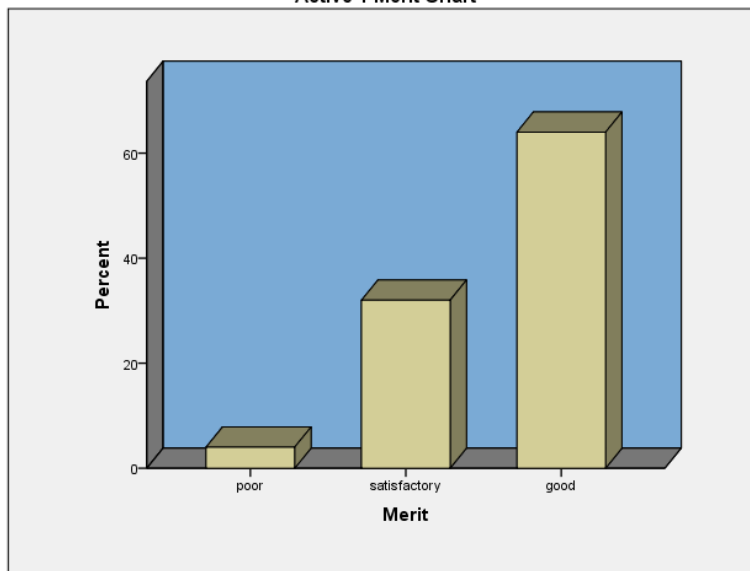
Figure 1: Merit Chart (Active 1)

A. Practical Considerations

Since some publications in Iran do not follow the universal copyright regulations, they can be printed easily without having to obtain prior authorization from the publisher and author and Active 1 is no exception. So, this book is easily available and cost-effective for the English learners though sometimes the quality of paper and color are not given priority and often ignored by the printing companies.

The physical appearance of the book is interesting and appealing. Its high quality printing causes it to look attractive that students would want to read it.   In addition, the book has a distinct and well organized design. No problems could be found in the text types, and on the whole it has a good quality editing. Going carefully through the textbook, the researcher could not detect any errors and the revision and proofreading of the textbook are meticulously done. Overall, the book can be considered a useful book for developing reading skills.

B. Skills

The objectives of the course for improving the reading comprehension of the learners are considered in this book along with a focus on this skill in integration with the other skills which include some multi-skill tasks. The book provides adequate guidance for the learners in order to acquire the knowledge. However, it cannot be claimed that it includes an extensive amount of cognitive skills that could be interesting and thought-provoking to the students as there is very little amount of practice of the skills in the exercises. In addition, there seems to be an imbalance between the objectives of the course and the four skills that learners should be practicing. Because of that other than reading, listening is dealt with just by letting students listen to tape scripts of native accent readings through the lessons in CDs, and writing skill is done by asking learners to compose simple sentences and in later stages to connect them to form guided writing paragraphs in some exercises. Speaking is the least practiced skill and is only found in preview or pre-reading tasks in the lesson along with critical thinking in post-reading activities where they are usually ignored because of time constraint. The integration of skills and the improvement of fluency skills are not paid enough attention, too.

C. Exercises and Activities

The tasks and exercises in this book are mainly promoting learners' language development. They work on vocabulary items, guessing the meaning of new vocabularies, finding synonyms or antonyms and incorporating language related games to new words, quizzes, and word puzzles. In addition, as the context of the reading presents the meaning of new words in a clear format, it becomes easier for students to learn and remember them.

The development of communicative competence of the students is emphasized in this book, therefore, the exercises gradually move from controlled to free ones in order to enable students after comprehending the readings to steps into the field of generating their own ideas. If the exercises on pronunciation practice and sound patterns are fully covered in the class, the phonological gaps between native and foreign language will be filled, and students will be able to recognize and follow standard sounds, stress patterns and intonation.

D. Pedagogic Analysis

This book could be categorized in the series of books which are methodologically consistent with the present global models and applications of language teaching and learning. However, it does not comprise enough quizzes about achievement of the students, and this could be due to the limited range of the book that does not cover an extended body of such tests. Some mechanisms for instructors to give regular feedback to learners in the book are provided as well, but they are not usually fully followed by instructors as the large numbers of students in the class and time constraint do not permit them to give students such feedbacks.

If matching is done between the syllabuses of the course with the book, it can be observed that there is much more content being covered compared to the objectives of the course.   However; the time allocated to cover the content in the book is much less and deemed inappropriate for fulfilling the objectives of the course.

E. Appropriacy

On the whole, this book has suitable tasks and instructions for the students. An extensive range of realistic text types are also included, such as news bulletin stories, interviews, weblog pages, and travel journals, in order to offer a wide range of reading practices and more significantly, encourage reading with certain purposes. With the collection of authentic and real-life themes, learners are probably more driven to study and do practices in English. At the same time, considering the major role of culture in learning a foreign language and knowing that authentic language is inaccessible out of the classroom, the Active 1 book puts a great emphasis on this essential part of language learning.

F. Supplementary Materials

The 'Active 1' book is accompanied with an audio CD, included in the book where instructors can get access to the tape scripts of the listening activities. However, as the teacher's book and workbook are not available in Iran, or at least are not released in the market, the only supplementary material available is the audio CD. The teacher guide and workbook would be of great help to both instructors and students if they were provided.

G. General Impression

All in all, Active Book 1 follows some clear objectives and instructions. It considers the development of the reading skill as a process of previewing, viewing, and reviewing that if followed by learners can result in improved performance particularly in reading skills. The activities are motivating enough for students to make them engaged and interested as they attempt on the tasks. Furthermore, since the book contains articles related to the multi-cultural contexts, it is largely appropriate for application in the EFL context. There is also some guidance provided for the students to be autonomous and assume responsibility for their own learning.

One last point is to see whether the objectives of the course set through guidelines for general courses by the Ministry of Higher Education are achieved or not. It is observed that overall usefulness of the book overweighs the expected results required by those objectives on the condition that the book is appropriately gone through and fully taught.

VI. Conclusion

Having obtained the relative acceptable conformity level of 79 percent for this book and having used it with Iranian non-English major college students in General English Course for more than six semesters, the researcher found the book to be appropriate in increasing the learners' level of reading and vocabulary competence, along with improving the use of reading strategies. The skills of guessing the meaning, scanning, and skimming which help students to develop their reading comprehension abilities are also highlighted in the book.

The results also indicate that the issues such as autonomy and independent learning which are of great concern in today's context are strongly emphasized in this book, and this job is done through including necessary skills for reading and new-word learning in the book.

Unlike the school settings in Iran, there is not one prescribed curriculum and textbook for the universities to follow as a standard benchmark. Despite the opportunities given to the faculty members to decide on the appropriate books for the classes which are in line with the objectives of the courses and needs of the students, there has not yet been provided a guideline that can be followed to decide on this matter. Therefore, it is of utmost importance that textbook developers along with language instructors take into account more general features in their EFL textbooks by using appropriate checklists in order to come up with their desired textbooks. Further research can also be done to get better results of in-use textbook evaluation through analyzing the teachers' journals, and classroom observations.

Appendix. EFL Textbook Evaluation checklist

NO	Criteria for EFL textbook evaluation	Merit Score
A	**PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS**	
1	Is it available locally?	2
2	Is it cost-effective?	2
3	Is the physical appearance interesting and attractive?	2
4	Is there an appropriate mix of graphics and text?	2
5	Is the layout clear and Well-organized?	2
6	Are the headings effectively used?	2
7	Is it appropriate for local situation?	2
8	Does it have an appropriate size, weight and title?	2
B	**SKILLS**	
9	Are the skills presented in the textbook appropriate to the course?	2
10	Does the textbook provide learners with adequate guidance as they are acquiring these skills?	2
11	Do the skills that are presented in the textbook include a wide range of cognitive skills that will be challenging to learners?	1
12	Is the balance between listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills development in the book appropriate to the particular learners and learning situation?	1
13	Is the skills integration given sufficient attention?	1
14	Is the development of discourse and fluency skills given sufficient attention?	1
C	**EXERCISES AND ACTIVITIES**	
15	Do the exercises and activities in the textbook promote learners' language development?	2
16	16. Is there a balance between controlled and free exercises?	2
17	Do the exercises and activities reinforce what students have already learned and represent a progression from simple to more complex?	2
18	Are the exercises and activities varied in format so that they will continually motivate and challenge learners?	2
19	Are there activities for communicative interaction and the development of communicative strategies?	2
20	Are new structures presented systematically and in a meaningful context?	2
21	Is the meaning of new vocabulary presented in context?	2
22	Is there sufficient work on recognition and production of individual sounds for pronunciation practice?	1
23	Is there sufficient work on recognition and production of stress patterns and intonation?	1
24	Is there a summary of new and reviewed grammar?	1
25	In general are the activities in the book neither too difficult nor too easy for the learners?	2
D	**PEDAGOGIC ANALYSIS**	
26	Is the book methodologically in line with current worldwide theories and practices of language learning?	2
27	Does the book contain adequate formal learner achievement tests?	1
28	Is the book enabling learners to use English outside the classroom situation?	1
29	Is the book sufficiently challenging to learners?	1
30	Are there mechanisms for giving regular feedback to learners?	2
31	Are new items reviewed and recycled throughout the book?	1
32	Does the book match the syllabus of the course to a sufficient extent? Is the time allowance indicated appropriate?	1
E	**APPROPRIACY**	
33	Are the materials, instructions, language focus and activities in general appropriate for the learners?	2

34	Will the textbook meet the long and short term goals specific to the learners?	1
35	Does the material match learner objectives?	2
36	Does the material facilitate interactive learning?	2
37	Is the material socio-culturally appropriate?	2
38	Is the material up-to-date?	2
39	Are vocabulary and comprehensible input levels well-graded?	2
40	Is the material age-appropriate?	1
41	Is the material relevant to real life?	2
F	**SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS**	
42	Is a teacher's book available and does it give useful and complete guidance, along with alternative activities?	0
43	Is a workbook available and does it contain appropriate supplementary activities?	0
44	Are audio-visual aids accompanied? And are they of good quality?	1
G	**GENERAL IMPRESSION**	
45	Does it have clear objectives & instructions?	2
46	Does it include reasonable balance & range in skills and activities?	2
47	Does it motivate learners by pleasurable activities or arouse learner interest?	2
48	Does it provide a variety of Communicative activities? Does it promote the use of information/opinion gap?	1
49	Is the cultural tone of the book overall appropriate for use in the setting?	2
50	Does the book encourage learners to assume responsibility for their own learning?	2
Total		79

Note. Adapted from *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, Vol. 1(5), p. 517, by M. R. Ghorbani, 2011

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Ali Asghar Yousefi Azarfam was born in Tabriz, Iran. He has been a faculty member of IAU for almost 10 years. He graduated in ELT in both BA & MA degrees from IAU of Tabriz. He has been teaching in different EFL disciplines as reading and writing skill development, ESP, and CALT.

Having paper presentations in different conferences in Iran, Malaysia, and Turkey, he has also published some papers in this regard. His latest paper presentations were in international conferences in MICELT 2012, and ICELT 2013. His main area of interest is integrating technology into EFL education and skill development. He is also involved in running an English Language Teaching & Literature journal named IJALEL as Editorial Assistant. Now, he is a PhD candidate in TESL at UPM pursuing his main research interest.

Mr. Yousefi has been awarded as a top researcher in IAU in 2011 and 2012. He is also a member of Asia TEFL, Editorial panel of IJALEL, and TESOL Prof Development.

Nooreen Noordin is a senior lecturer at the Department of Language Education and Humanities, Faculty of Educational Studies, UPM. Her research interests include language learning technology, content-based instruction, CMC and learning styles. She has authored and co-authored several book chapters and journal papers. Dr. Nooreen Noordin is currently an associate editor of the International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature.

An Analysis of Prepositional Error Correction in TEM8 and Its Implications for FL Learning

Xiangyue Yu

Department of English, School of Foreign Studies, Huzhou Teachers College, Huzhou, Zhejiang Province, China

Abstract—As English majors, it is necessary to learn prepositions well. Nevertheless, things are not always the case. Many scholars have paid much attention to each section of TEM8, whereas this article will just focus on one issue of one section in TEM8. With view to contributing to FL learning and making English majors and non-English major learners perceive the prepositional real connotation, this article aims to analyze the incorrect use (misuse) of prepositions in proofreading & error correction in TEM8. Firstly, the article reviews prepositions and general situations of English majors' performance in proofreading & error correction in TEM8 and, secondly, analyzes the errors on the use of prepositions and prepositional error correction in TEM8. Finally, mainly on the basis of analyses, the author puts forward some suggestions and summarizes some beneficial implications for FL learning such as referring to the dictionary often, understanding the basic classifications of prepositions, identifying the different meaning between different prepositions, and accumulating different prepositional phrases, with the purpose of facilitating students' language internalization, enhancing their capability of language use, especially strengthening their pragmatic competence as well as developing their abilities of language cognition and critical thinking.

Index Terms—TEM8, proofreading & error correction, prepositional error correction, analyses, implications for FL learning

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Prepositions and Error Correction in TEM8

Prepositions have always been widely used in English, even though the number of them is quite limited. Prepositions belong to functional parts of speech and are rather active. In English, some prepositions are among the most common words. "Linguists argue that English language is a prepositional one, which indicates that the preposition is one of the most useful and active parts of speech in English" (Li, 2007, p.11). The usage of English preposition has got great concern coming from English learners, teachers, and grammarians. As English majors, it is necessary to learn prepositions well. Nevertheless, things are not always the case. The usage of English preposition is an important aspect of testing students' English level, so many scholars choose to study this issue and write books about prepositions, which are increasingly published.

At the same time, TEM8 (Test for English Majors–Grade Eight) is one of the most crucial tests to measure English majors' study result or professional level after four years' college life. One of the necessary sections of TEM8, proofreading & error correction, is to test students' ability of mastering multiple grammar rules and their ability to use language. From the resent years' test paper of TEM8, it is easy for us to find that prepositional error correction becomes an important knowledge point which we should attach great importance to.

B. The Objective of the Study

This article attempts to make a study on prepositions in proofreading & error correction in TEM8. In the past, many scholars have paid much attention to each sections of TEM8, whereas this article will just focus on one issue of one section in TEM8. The author aims to analyze the incorrect use (misuse) of prepositions in proofreading & error correction in TEM8 and, mainly on the basis of analysis, give English majors and non-English major learners some suggestions. Meanwhile, the author summarizes some beneficial implications for FL learning such as referring to the dictionary often, understanding the basic classifications of prepositions, identifying the different meaning between different prepositions, and accumulating different prepositional phrases, with the purpose of facilitating students' language internalization, enhancing their capability of language use, especially strengthening their pragmatic competence as well as developing their abilities of language cognition and critical thinking.

II. THE GENERAL SITUATIONS OF ENGLISH MAJORS' PERFORMANCE IN PROOFREADING & ERROR CORRECTION IN TEM8

English majors didn't perform well in the section of proofreading & error correction of TEM8. According to Li Binbin (2007), she made a survey among 60 students and found that 81.7% of the students thought that the section of proofreading & error correction were most difficult among all the sections of TEM8. As a result, the scores students got in this section were very low, with only about 4 points out of total 10 points.

The prepositional errors cover a large proportion of this section. According to Li Yuying (2007), she made a diagram of proofreading & error correction from 1996 to 2007. From her diagram, we can see that the number of prepositional errors is on the top. If English majors master the preposition better, it is obvious that we can come to a conclusion that they can get an ideal score more easily.

III.   THE ERROR ANALYSIS OF PREPOSITIONAL ERROR CORRECTION IN TEM8

The section of proofreading & error correction is important inTEM8. It is integrated with multiple grammar rules and language competence. Prepositions tend to be one of the knowledge points to test students' mastery of grammar rules and English proficiency.

As we all know, TEM8 is very important for students of English major. It is a criterion to measure English majors' study results or professional level of their four years' college life, so one section of the examination, proofreading & error correction, can reflect English majors' main errors made in their regular courses' study. Based on *Comments on Past Exam Paper of TEM8 over the Years* (Jin, 2008, pp.56-60), the following main errors concerning prepositional error correction are mainly from TEM8 and its simulation tests. The prepositional error in proofreading & error correction can be categorized into three groups: 1) add preposition redundantly; 2) replace preposition incorrectly; 3) omit preposition improperly. The errors analyses are as follows:

A.   Collocating Prepositions

In this kind of error correction, verbs should be collocated with certain prepositions to express the exact meanings. For instance, in the following sentences, "stick" collocating with preposition "to" means "not give up". We should not randomly change the fixed collocation. Take "carry on with" as an example, it is a fixed collocation which means "continue to do something", and "at the end (of)…" and "in the end" are two different fixed phrases with the same meaning. Although the meaning of these two fixed phrases is superficially same, we should consider carefully in practical use, which, in a sense, involves with the sentence's construction grammar. Please look at the following sentences:

a. Things would certainly be simpler for Americans if they **stuck on to** English and made the British learn Greek. ("on"→delete "on")

b. These young adults established a trend of early marriage and relatively large families that **went** for more than two decades and caused a major but temporary reversal of long-term demographic patterns. (add "**on**" after "went")

c. **At** the end, as everyone knows, the two countries adopted the practical and satisfactory solution of **carrying with** the same language as before. ("**At**"→"In") (add "**on**" between "carrying" and "with")

d. Frequently, committees **rely** outside experts to assist in conducting investigative hearings and to make out detailed studies of issues. (add "**on**" after "rely")

e. This power is usually delegated to committees–either standing committees, special committees **set** for a specific purpose, or joint committees consisted of members of both houses. (add "**up**" after "set")

B.   The Confusion between Transitive Verbs and Intransitive Verbs

It is known that objects can be directly after transitive verbs, whereas intransitive verbs can not be followed by objects without any preposition. As for some verbs which can be used both as transitive verbs and intransitive verbs, we should pay more attention to their different meanings. For instance, "handle" can be used as both a transitive verb and an intransitive verb. The transitive verb "handle" means "deal with", while, as an intransitive verb, the meaning of "handle" is different. Another example is "emphasize" which is only used as a transitive verb. Let's refer to the following two sentences:

a. To handle **with** the crop of 1919, the government appointed the first Canadian Wheat Board. ("**with**"→delete "with")

b. The fact that such noises are similar on the lips of Frenchmen and Malaysians whose languages are utterly different, serves to emphasize **on** the fundamental difference between those noises and language proper. ("**on**"→delete "on")

C.   The Mixing between Different Usages

If a verb has different usages, it is easy for us to mix them up. For example, "provide" can be either used individually, which means "supply", or used in the structure such as "provide something for somebody" and "provide somebody with something". Even the fixed phrase "provide for" means "support, stipulate or make the necessary preparation or arrangement for the future". Let's look at the sentences below:

a. Plant foods provide **for** 60 percent to 80 percent of the Kung diet, and no one goes hungry when hunt fails. ("**for**"→delete "for")

b. Today, the Internet is free resources and commercial services that provide databases and computer files **with** people. ("**with**"→"for")

c. Rivers and lakes provide us **for** water transport and irrigation.("**for**"→"with")

d. Her father always ensured she was well provided. (add "**for**" after "provided")

D.   The Confusion between Simple Prepositions and Complex Prepositions

There is a wide spectrum of opinions about the classification of English preposition. According to Quirk et al (1985), "English preposition can be classified into two types: simple preposition and complex preposition" (Min, 2004, p. 9). Simple prepositions refer to the common prepositions with only one word, while complex prepositions refer to the prepositional phrase with more than one word. For instance, "despite" and "in spite of" are synonyms; meanwhile, one is a simple preposition, the other is a complex one. We tend to get wrong in use. Please refer to the following sentence:

Interestingly, if they escape fatal infections or accidents, these contemporary aborigines live to old ages despite **of** the absence of medical care. ("**of**"→delete "of")

E.   The Habitual Usage

As far as foreign language learners are concerned, what they lack is not the grammar knowledge, but the idiomatic expressions. Grammar knowledge is limited, so it is easy for them to master in a short time, while the number of idiomatic expressions is much larger, they have great difficulty in full mastery in a short period of time. So, Newmark(1982) draws a conclusion "That is why you cannot translate properly if the target language is not your language of habitual usage" (p.88). Examples are as follows:

a. The next, more subtle test of mental ability is to **see what** level an animal can think about something when it is not there. (add "**at**" between "see" and "what")

b. But in fact some grammarians have called them "empty" words as opposed **with** the full words. ("**with**"→"to")

c. They often have not been exposed **against** known risk factors, experts find. ("**against**"→"to")

d. But few of them are correlated **to** early childhood depression. ("**to**"→"with")

e. Congressional investigations therefore represent one important tool available to lawmakers to **inform** the citizenry and to arouse public interests in national issues. (add "**of**" after "citizenry ", constituting "inform sb. of sth.")

F.   Fixed Phrases

Any word in the fixed phrases can not be changed. For example, "at one's disposal" means "ready to assist the person concerned in any way they wish", which should not be changed in any of the words. Another two examples are as follows:

a. The English speaker has **in** his disposal at vocabulary and a set of grammatical rules which enable him to communicate his thoughts and feelings. ("**in**"→"at")

b. Although the United States maintained its dubious distinction of having the highest divorce rate in the world, the temporary decline in divorce did not occur **in** the same extent in Europe. ("**in**"→"to")

G.   The Slight Difference between Different Prepositions

Different prepositions have different implied meanings. For instance, "on" and "in" are only different from the relationships of time. We can say "**in** the morning" but we can only say "**on** a cold morning". For example:

I forgot jogging **in** a cold morning. ("**in**"→"on")

However, "onto" and "on" are not the differences in time relationship, which is closely relevant with the prepositional semantic cognition. For example:

A new study uses advanced brain-scanning technology to cast light **onto** a topic that psychologists have bewildered over more than half a century. ("**onto**"→"on")

IV.   Implications of Prepositional Error Correction for FL Learning

Actually, it is really not easy for foreign language learners to use prepositions correctly and even appropriately, for any one of the prepositions can have different usages and functions. Therefore, based on this point, we should learn to observe and use a preposition not only grammatically but also from the perspective of pragmatics and even broad stylistic context. Let's take "at" as an example. It mainly has 18 kinds of usages in most of the dictionaries. "If we come across some special prepositions like marginal prepositions, it will be more difficult to use prepositions properly" (Chi, 2003, pp. 325-349).

What should we do to solve these thorny problems? With view to contributing to FL learning and making English majors and non-English major learners perceive the prepositional real connotation and get the enlightenment, we put forward several suggestions as follows:

A.   Referring to the Dictionary Often

We may as well consult the dictionary first whenever the problems on prepositions occur. The dictionary becomes a main tool for foreign language learning. We may refer to the dictionary when we come across a certain new content word, while seldom will we consult it for the empty word like preposition. As a matter of fact, most dictionaries have listed the main meanings and usages of all kinds of prepositions through impressive examples. The dictionary not only shows us the meaning of prepositions, but also gives us the common collocation of prepositions.

Beyond our expectation, prepositions in the dictionary are well introduced and interpreted in detail. Here we take *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (Longman Publishing House, 1998, p.1087) as an example, it tells us a

lot which will give a clear clue about preposition and make us make fewer mistakes in the test.

B. Understanding the Basic Classifications of Prepositions

What is preposition? A preposition is a word which is used to show the way in which other words are connected. Preposition may be single words such as "by, from, over, under", or they may be more complex and composed of several words such as "apart from, in front of, in spite of, instead of". Where are prepositions used? Prepositions have objects and are usually followed by a noun, pronoun, or a gerund, but sometimes prepositions' objects can also be a clause, infinitive, adjectives, and prepositional phrases, etc. In the following sentences, "in" is a preposition.

a. Write your name **in** the book.

b. This tea is too sweet. There is too much sugar **in** it.

c. There is absolutely no point **in** complaining.

d. I am very interested **in** what you have just said.

When using, we should pay attention to the following two points:

(1) A preposition + a clause as the object

When a clause is used as the preposition's object, usually this clause can't be "that-clause", in this situation, "the fact "should be added after the preposition. For example:

a. I was astonished **by the fact that** she had quit her job.

b. The judge paid no attention **to the fact that** she had just lost her husband.

However, "that-clause" can be directly followed after the preposition which expresses "except..." such as *except, but*. For example*:*

a. He has not changed at all **except that** he is no longer so talkative.

b. He would have helped me **but that** he was short of money.

(2) A preposition + prepositional phrase as the object

There are not many prepositions which belong to "a preposition + prepositional phrase as the object". Firstly, there is *from*, secondly there are *since, until, till*, etc. For example:

a. The phrase has been in wide use **from before 1950's**.

b. She's lived there **since before the war**.

c. The secret was never told **until after the old man's death**.

C. Identifying Different Meaning between Different Prepositions

What do prepositions mean? Unlike some other languages, English frequently makes use of prepositions to express basic relationships between words' relationships of time and place, for example, the following sentences are usually expressed by the use of a preposition.

a. I can see you **on** Monday/**in** August/**at** 8 pm/**for** half an hour/**during** the holiday, etc.

b. I'll meet you **at** school/**in** Rome/**on** the corner/**outside** the cinema/**under** the station clock, etc.

"The teaching of a preposition may start by introducing a visual representation of the proto-scene and emphasizing the spatial physical configuration" (Wei, 2006, p.79), but prepositions are used to express many other different kinds of relationships, for example:

a. reason–I did it **because of** my father/**for** my mother/**out of** duty.

b. manner–She spoke **with** a smile/**in** a soft voice.

c. means–I came **by** bus/**on** foot/**in** a taxi, etc.

d. reaction–I was surprised **at** his attitude/**by** his refusal, etc.

Note that a particular preposition can often be used to express more than one kind of relationships. For example, "by" can be used for the following relationships:

a. time–**by** next week

b. place–**by** the window

c. means–**by** working very hard

The entries for prepositions in the dictionary will show us which relationships they can be used to express.

D. Accumulating Different Prepositional Phrases

Prepositions are often part of fixed phrases in phrasal verbs, collocations, and idioms. Sometimes the combination of a verb with a preposition has its own particular meaning, such as "call on, look after, send for, care for, abide by, differ from, bring about" and so on. Some nouns, verbs, and adjectives are often followed by particular prepositions such as "application for, a demand for, resign from, prohibit from, afraid of, doubtful about". The prepositions which can be used with particular words are shown at the entries in the dictionary. Typical collocations (groups of words which "naturally" go together through common usage) will also be shown in the dictionary entries. These collocations often show a fixed use of prepositions such as "by the name of, in view of, with view to, in consideration of, in accordance with, beyond help, for fear of, in any event, in safe hands" (Zhang, 2004, pp. 111-145).

"Prepositions have a strong ability to collocate with nouns, verbs, and adjectives, which is a key point that makes prepositions so difficult to learn well" (Lan, 2008, pp.107-108). "A preposition can be followed by a series of syntactic units such as a noun, a non-finite clause (e.g. infinitives and gerunds), and a nominal clause" (Zhang, 2007, p.44).

However, in this article, the author only lists some collocations as examples for English majors or non-English major learners to refer to, and only the collocation means is shown. The accumulation of different prepositional phrases will be left for them to learn and acquire during the course of their English learning.

1. The Collocation Between Prepositions and Verbs

(1) verb + sb.+ of + sth.

This structure is apt to use incorrectly.

For example: You do not need to **remind** people their mistakes all the time. (add "of" after "people", constituting "remind sb. of sth.")

There are many phrases belonging to this structure such as "convict sb. of sth. assure sb. of sth., convict sb. of sth., convince sb. of sth., relieve sb. of sth., cure sb. of sth., rob sb. of sth.", etc.

(2) verb + sb./sth.+ of + sb.

For example: He will agree to do what you **require from** him. ("**from**"→"of")

This structure is often used to express requirement or hope such as "require sth. of sb., ask sth. of sb., demand sth. of sb., request sth. of sb., want sth. of sb.", etc.

(3) verb + object + from

For example: The editor **deleted** the last paragraph **with** the article. ("**with**"→"from")

Phrases applied to this structure are as follows:

delete from, deter from, discern from, dispense from, dissuade from, excuse from, inherit from, omit from, release from, save from, separate from, etc.

(4) verb + object + into

For example: We were **deceived to** believing that he could help us. ("**to**"→"into")

There are many phrases belonging to this structure such as "deceive into, argue into, change into, cheat into, frighten into, reason into, persuade into, scare into, shock into, terrify into, trick into", etc.

(5) verb + object + with

For example: **Combine** the eggs **into** a little flour and heat the mixture gently. ("**into**"→"with")

Phrases applied to this structure are as follows:

combine with, associate with, confuse with, fill with, furnish with, present with, provide with, supply with, trouble with, etc.

(6) verb + object + for

For example: The priest **reproved** people **from** not coming to church. ("**from**"→"for")

There are many phrases belong to this structure such as "reprove for, criticize for, denounce for, forgive for, praise for, punish for, scold for, thank for", etc.

(7) verb + object + to

For example: She **attributes** her success **from** hard work and a bit of luck. ("**from**"→"to")

Phrases applied to this structure are as follows:

attribute to, admit to, compare to, confess to, limit to, restore to, etc.

(8) verb + about

For example: Let's **argue with** whether it is safe to go swimming in this weather. ("**with**"→"about")

Phrases with "about" are as follows:

argue about, bring about, come about, face about, fuss about, inquire about, leave about, lie about, roll about, set about, see about, move about, turn about, etc.

2. The Collocation Between Prepositions and Adjectives

(1) adjective + to

For example: Her latest book is quite **dissimilar with** her previous one. ("**with**"→"to")

Phrases with "to" are as follows:

dissimilar to, adequate to, advantageous to, analogous to, alive to, blind to, closed to, common to, contiguous to, deaf to, parallel to, proportional to, susceptible to, true to, convenient to sb., etc.

(2) adjective + for

For example: Only native-born citizens **are eligible to** the U.S. Presidency. ("**to**"→"for")

The adjectives which can be collocated with "for" are as follows:

eligible for, answerable for, concerned for, desperate for, distinguished for, eager for, eminent for, greedy for, notorious for, ripe for, thirsty for, etc.

(3) adjective + of

For example: Her husband felt **ashamed with** her behavior. ("**with**"→"of")

Phrases applied to this structure are as follows:

ashamed of, appreciative of, bare of, doubtful of (about), economical of, envious of, hopeful of, ignorant of, innocent of, liberal of (with), negligent of, oblivious of, profuse of, shy of, thoughtful of, tired of, tolerant of, worthy of, etc.

(4) adjective + with

For example: By 1929, Mickey Mouse **was popular to** children as Coca-Cola. ("**to**"→"with")

There are many phrases belong to this structure such as "popular with, comparable with, handy with, lined with, sick

with, thick with, wrong with, tired with", etc.

(5) adjective + in

For example: He was unexpectedly **generous to** his comments on the article. ("**to**"→"in")

The adjective phrases with "in" are as follows:

generous in, accurate in, deficient in, engrossed in, lacking in, successful in, weak in, etc.

3. The Collocation Between Prepositions and Nouns

(1) noun + for

For example: He felt great **affection to** her sister. ("**to**"→"for")

Nouns usually collocate with "for" are as follows:

affection, ambition, anxiety, cause, consideration, charge, preference, match, provision, fancy, compensation, appetite, bent, outlet, contempt, budget, candidate, etc.

(2) noun + between

For example: He points to **analogies with** the two events. ("**with**"→"between")

These nouns can be collocated with "between" are as follows:

analogy, balance, difference, link, etc.

(3) noun + to

For example: The only **access of** the farmhouse is across the fields. ("**of**"→"to")

Nouns applied to this structure are as follows:

access, answer, appeal, approach, claim, contrast, disgrace, exception, index, preface, etc.

(4) noun + over

For example: He had an **advantage upon** us; He had more money. ("**upon**"→"over")

There are many nouns belong to this structure such as "advantage, anguish, authority, control, check, superiority, triumph, victory", etc.

(5) noun + in

For example: Public **confidence on** him has been restored. ("**on**"→"in")

The noun phrases with "in" are as follows:

confidence, delight, degree, improvement, skill, belief, defect, proficiency, etc.

V. Conclusion

All in all, as to the incorrect use (misuse) of prepositions in proofreading & error correction in TEM8, based on the analyses, this article has given some suggestions for English majors and non-English major learners and also drawn some beneficial implications for FL learning.

In view of many practical reasons, the present study is limited to the above aspects. First, in English language, there are more than one hundred prepositions, so, due to space limitations, they will not be entirely discussed in this article. Second, there are many approaches for prepositional analysis. This study tends to show some general means to solve some problems in the examination. Third, this study is basically descriptive. Its value and application in foreign language teaching and learning have been proposed, but they have not been further examined by detailed data.

In consideration of the limitations mentioned above, we tentatively put forward some suggestions for addressing the relevant problems. First, more studies should be carried out to see whether some other analytic approaches can be used so that they can be more clear for students to understand the errors of the usage of prepositions. Second, the value and application of the present study need to be further verified with the deepening of foreign language teaching and learning. Third, the applied linguistics researchers and language teachers who are interested in this field should work together to develop more concrete, systematic and visual learning networks of prepositions in English.

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Xiangyue Yu is associate professor at Department of English, School of Foreign Studies, Huzhou Teachers College, Zhejiang Province, PR China and director of the Institute of Business Foreign Languages. His research direction and academic interest are foreign linguistics and applied linguistics, and he is mainly engaged in the studies of Chinese and foreign language contrast, pragmatic rhetoric, translation and Business English.

Identity Manifestation in Second Language Writing through Notion of Voice: A Review of Literature

Shiva Javdan
University of Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—**Voice, a discourse related notion, is a required criterion for writing acceptable English. However, L2 learners from cultures other than English might face problems in realizing it, or even ignore it all through their writing. In this connection, researchers seek to look at it through different angels. A well-known definition for it is given by Hyland (2008) as "the ways writers express their personal views, authoritativeness, and presence" (p.5). Also, researchers try to find the relationship between this notion and various aspects of writing like overall quality, identity manifestation and so on in order to improve the quality of writings produced by L2 writings. This is supposed to assist L2 writers to create more native like and smooth writings.**

Index Terms—**voice, identity, rhetorical features, discursive features**

I. INTRODUCTION

Communication in writing is of great importance in today's world, despite the fact that it may take the forms of so called, traditional paper and pencil writing or electronic mail. Such importance calls for encouraging and nurturing writing as a communicative activity in second language learners' programs of language studies.

However, producing a communicative successful written text is a complex task which requires simultaneous control over a number of language factors in consideration of the ways the discourse must be shaped for a particular audience and a particular purpose (Olshtan, 2001).

Regarding language factors affecting a written text, Fox (1994) holds that language use is both culturally and socially determined. In other words, written texts are shaped by factors that differ not only cross- culturally, but also within a single culture.

Rhetorical styles are one of such differing factors. According to Stapleton (2002) the rhetorical styles of second language writers and the manifestation of them on the page is the topic of debates in second language writing.

The notion of voice is one of the language factors and rhetorical styles that Stapelton (2002) contends is an important part of writing and communicating, and aspects of it are essential at the higher levels of academic writing where authors are aiming to publish.

Among various definitions offered for voice, a well known definition for voice is given by Hyland (2008) as "the ways writers express their personal views, authoritativeness, and presence" (p.5). Authoritativeness and presence is of high importance in western cultures writing. Therefore, he believes that is not an optional extra but an aspect of how the writer positions himself in relation to his community. Importantly, Hyland argues that writers do not construct the self-representation from an infinite range of possibilities, but draw on culturally available recourses when they write.

Regarding the constituents of this notion, Stapleton (2002) claims that they are resonance, sound, rhythm, liveliness and energy of the individual. He also considers voice as an integral part of writing and that it should, therefore, become an essential component of second language writing pedagogy. However, Jacobs in his voice intensity scale (1981), presents another four constituents for voice i.e., assertiveness, self-identification, reiteration of central point and authorial presence. Among other scales, his scale is widely used by researchers in order to measure the intensity of voice in research articles (Stapleton, 2002).

Concerning this notion, voice, Matsuda (2001) considers voice as a metaphor for capturing, among other things, or a feature in written discourse that can be percepted by readers, but is not readily recognizable as a single linguistic or rhetorical feature. So, it should be paid more attention while writing in English as a second language.

Also, in terms of modes of language that voice appears in, Bakhtin (1986) states that in addition to written discourse voice applies to spoken communication. He contends that voice is a broad issue that reveals the intention and perspective of a writer or speaker to the audience.

As a realization of voice in language, Elbow (1994) brings up the concept of ''individualized voice'' in writing that has caused considerable discussions about the role of voice in writing pedagogy. Elbow's definition for voice as a feature that "captures the sound of the individual on the page'' was limited to the first language for English speakers. This has recently been debated extensively in L2 writing circles, as well. Matsuda (2001) states that much of these debates aroused due to the performance of learners who are from interdependent cultures. He explains that these

cultures have collective values that overweigh the individualism in their writing. Such learners present their L1 values and social norms while writing in English, as well. As a result of this lack of identity and individualism their writing might be judged as substandard.

With this regard, Kaplan (1987) argues that interdependent or hierarchical norms might halt L2 learners from presenting a strong voice in their writing or diminish their presence as authors. In connection with this view and concerning language pedagogy, Matsuda (2001) claims that then L2 learners need to be taught or at least made familiar with certain features that enhance a writer's voice.

However, some factors hinder L2 learners from manifestation of voice while writing. In this regard, Belcher (1997) in a study sought to identify voice- related issues and dilemmas, and how they were resolved. In describing a participant, a PhD candidate, whose papers were published in Spanish medium and had a degree from an American university, yet he was in the middle level of his ESL writing class. According to him, this participant seeks a voice as an identity maker that that would begin to approximate the one he was moving from. Belcher argues that he wanted something beyond the technical aspects of writing; that should be voice.

The idea of whether voice should be considered by writing teachers has been long debated. For example, in a study, Ivanic (2001) suggests that L2 learners are in need of a critical awareness for voice to project their own self in their writing. Such idea, critical awareness- rising, enables learners to find the consequences of their identity and voice type they apply. He argues that for L2 writers might have a double demand for such awareness in order to: firstly, recognize how much the target voice is culturally alien to their L1 culture, and secondly, recognize the type of voice appears in range of genre in the new culture.

Also, the function of first person has aroused debates in the notion of voice in qualitative studies. Hyland (2008) considers the first person usage as an important element in projecting the identity of authors. Tang and John (1994) classified notion of voice into six identities based on its application in a sentence.

Representative – " in English *we* have words such as …"; *guide* – " so far, *we* have said nothing about …"; *architect* – "in my essay, *I* will examine …"; *recounter of the research process* – "all the papers *I* read were …"; *opinion holder* –"*I* would like to show that …"; and *originator* – "*my* idea rests on the assumption that …" (p.36-37).

In order to classify they took academic writing samples from different available choices. They noticed that if L2 writers be aware of different available choices they have, they may decide better to how best project their individualism on the paper, while some L2 learners might avoid presenting first person in their writing since they have been taught to take an impersonal stance in academic writing.

Finally in terms of voice construction among languages, Matsuda (2001) contends that the ways in which voice is constructed, however are not universal; different languages provide different possibilities for construction of voice. He argues that the difficulties that the Japanese students encounter in constructing voice in English discourse are due to the ways in which voice is constructed in their native culture and English.

Regarding the aforesaid rhetorical features and lack of awareness of such cross-cultural differences in the text structure that cause misunderstanding in the languages of different societies, as well as the ignorance of L2 learners from the available choices to construct their voice, and the fact that it might become a hinder to effective intentional communication of authors' intentions, this study seeks to review different aspects of the notion of voice.

II. STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

Fox (1994) in a study found that L2 writers do not project appropriate authorial presence while this is deemed as an important quality in English writing. She focuses on the shortcomings of analytical writing of second language writers. According to her, English writing should be along with authorial voice. She highlights that most cultures do not expect such an apparent voice in written context; however, it is required in the U.S. She states that the problem that exists for most L2 writers' writing is the lack of such authorial voice.

Moreover, in his study, Shen(1998) discusses that voice is mostly a cross-culturally different notion. He adds that learning writing in English requires learners to project an individual identity, or infocus their writing with voice. According to him there are some features in his own culture, Chinese, that contrasts with English writing, for example English writing is straightforward while Chinese is not, and that causes problems for Chinese English learners' writing.

As reported by Ivanic and Camps (1997), in using their participant of passive voice, the student author implies the responsibility of unnamed agent for the exploitation. They explain that second language learners have perceived that they should apply passive voice in their writing to be left unknown while writing in order to give more weight to the content through use of this grammatical technique. In their study, they take well-established concepts from conventional forms of pedagogy, i.e., vocabulary and grammar acquisition and associating them with a newer and perhaps trendier notion, voice, which has been neglected by both teachers and learners.

However, Matsuda (2001) believes that the issue of finding socially and discursively constructed identity is not unique to non-native speakers or students from other counties; rather it can be problematic to students who were brought up in the United States. Similarly, Ramanathan and Kaplan (1987) argued that projecting voice in written discourse is not just the problem of L2 learners. Rather, mainstream students have difficulties in this regard. This is evident through the numerous comments regarding voice projection that teachers put in their writing. They believe that although both mainstream students and those who have just arrived from outside show problems related to voice and

identity projection for the first group it is less troublesome since they and their audience have the same social and cultural practices, while this is not the case for the second group.

III. ISSUE OF VOICE

The way one puts his ideas on the page is extremely affected by his first language and culture. However, there are still disagreements about the extent to which teachers need to consider this knowledge. Therefore, the debates are on the issue of voice and its associated discursive features are so vigorous (Stapletan, 2002).

Voice is a metaphorical concept owes much to the thinking of Bakhtin and his work in the field of linguistics (Stapleton, 2002). Bakhtin (1986) believes that voice is not just applied to spoken but to written discourse as well. He adds that voice presents views and intentions of an author. He argues that through using voice the writer or the speaker chooses how to respond the previous utterances. Some utterances he explains reflect a multiple voice which stems from a borrowed language they contain plus the voice of the individual.

Various definitions has been given for voice, for example, Stewart (1972) calls authorial voice the quality that distinguishes each human from another ,whereas Elbow (1994) describes it as writing that "captures the sound of the individual on the page" (p.287).

Matsuda (2001) tries to look at voice differently. Borrowing from Ivanic (1997) he States that: "Voice is the allmalgative effect of the use of discursive and non- discursive features that language users choose, deliberately or otherwise, from socially available, yet ever changing repertoires"(p. 40).

Atkinson considers this as a clear definition; however, he maintains that voice remains "a devilishly difficult concept to define" (p.110). With this respect, Stapleton (2001) believes that this may be due to the ineffable qualities attributed to voice that makes it difficult to define. Elbow (1999) on the other hand, argues that voice is a dimension of the text that is rhetorically powerful but hard to focus on. He believes that there are some covert and implied messages in the texts for the audience that is carried through the notion of voice not just words.

IV. VOICE IN SECOND LANGUAGE WRITING

Arising the notion of voice in research revealed that social values, culture and practices of L2 writers plays a halting role against taking an individual and authorial voice and consequently identity projection by L2 writers of English . With this respect, Connor and Kaplan (1987) stated that learners from interdependent cultures whose values are hierarchical may avoid projecting a proper authorial voice or diminish their presence as authors as well.

In alignment with the above view, Shen (1998) in describing the difficulty of writing in English involves a process of creating a new identity. Li (1996) also, echoed the notion of individual identity in his study. He searched the ideas of Chinese and American instructors to find the determining factors of good English writing. His survey revealed that American instructors marked good English writing by a writer's unique perspective of life; however, for Chinese instructors such concept was alien.

Matsuda (2001) in his study claims that L_2 Learner need to be taught or at least made cognizant of certain features that enhance a writer's voice. He identified aspects of authorial identity and authorial presence which can be used and measured in studies in order to determine how native speakers and L2 learners project them while writing in English.

Stapleton's findings (2002) are in line with that of Li (1996). He highlights that projecting individual voice is required for an acceptable English writing. He clarifies that writings that lack a proper authorial voice and identity might sound substandard to the native audience. According to him, participants in his study and the previous studies on voice made conscious choices about how to present their identity on the page.

V. VOICE STUDIES

Stapleton (2002) classifies studies focusing on voice in to two classes: i.e., autobiographic and semi-ethnographic studies or linguistic studies.

A. Autobiographic and Semi-ethnographic Studies

Shen (1998) conducted an autobiographical study in which the main concern was the voice that an L2 writer applies while writing English compositions. He explains that in order to write an acceptable composition in English he had to make a new English self out of herself. Actually, he had to violate his Chinese propensity in writing while using first person singular in English, i.e., against tending to modesty in his L1 culture.

He claims that English writing is straightforward and that acceptable English writing first concern is the audience , and if it is hostile, will take an "Unfolding approach", as opposed to a "self- announcing" deductive one. He asserts that they do it not to alienate the reader at the outset to ideas that may be adversial.

Cadman (1997) and Fox (1994) in their semi-ethnographic studies discuss examples that did not include the qualities of authorial presence that are deemed to be of high importance in English.

Cadman (1997) brings an example, a PhD student, whose writing lacked the authorial presence qualities. Cadman states that a culture gap caused such problem. However, the student gradually put her voice in writing when she

receives some instructions in this regard. Cadman also describes another participant's work in alignment with Shen's study.

In another study, Atkinson (1999) highlights that in order to write in English effectively learners have to present an individualized voice or identity. It should be noted that such self-representation would be alien in some L_2 cultures. He describes that how a postgraduate student was confused and frightened due to the lack of schemata for many of the essential elements in western scholarship.

Finally, Fox (1994) has comments about expectations of an L1 audience .He contends that English rhetoric is linear and deductive, and ignores unfolding structures, while many other languages are circular or non-linear.

B. Linguistic Studies

Some researches focused on linguistic features pertaining to author's identity and presence which gives a concrete pedagogical sense to the notion of voice (Stapleton, 2002). In this connection, Ivanic and Camps (2001), picked six graduate students to examine the way they represent themselves in their writing. According to them, learning to project a positioning power in written discourse is vital for L2 writers. They add that this skill should be learned at the beginning of a writing course. Also, they studied the lexical, syntactic, and rhetorical choices made by their participants to construct their identity. Based on their report, the type of voice the participants chose positioned them as "sounding like" members of certain social group. As for an example of positioning power, Ivanic and Camps report that it can be displayed via one's distinctive lexical choices. They found the lexical items apply by one of their participants totally different from the others who were studying in different areas.

As a linguistic notion, the use of the first person is perhaps the most discussed discursive features associated with voice. Stapleton (2002) believes that in both qualitative and quantitative studies, the first person it is the key element in establishing individual identity. Also, Hyland (2001) in a study focused on the use of first person pronouns and self–citations. His findings indicated that self mentioning among different disciplines has a broad range for example, in the humanities and social sciences entails many more usages of first person, than those in science of engineering.

VI. SIGNIFICANCE OF RESEARCH IN VOICE

Voice is one of the features of writing skill which may contribute to the quality of students' writing. Matsuda (2001) asserts that voice is a valuable tool for writer of all culture and problems that L2 writers face might stem more often form ignorance of appropriate voice-related strategies in English writing. As he believes, the notion of voice together with all other concepts in writing answers the expectations of the reader and the lack of one makes the writing substandard in one way or another.

Matsuda (2001) also asserts that some discursive features are unique in languages. For example, in Japanese some qualities like multiple orthographic systems, sentence final particles, as well as variations in personal pronouns cannot be found in English. He concludes that features which are not cross- cultural need to be noticed to L2 learners in order to produce more native-like writings, otherwise they might get stranded on how to present these features while writing in L2, or even they may ignore it all through the way.

With this respect, some discursive qualities are related to voice construction have a nature of language- specific. They have great implications in L2 writing pedagogy, as well as research. Also, there are some qualities that have no counter parts in English. Atkinson (1999) assumes that since these features might not be positively transferred to facilitate the discursive construction of voice in English, they are of high importance in teaching writing to L2 learners.

However, regarding the statements of Hinkle (2002), there is a fundamental problem in conducting research in voice-related issues and the use of native speakers' corpora. Actually, the major lack is the access to the type of linguistic and rhetorical devices the native speakers choose to enrich their discourse. In this connection, some experimental studies are required to identify the relationship between the use of these devices and the overall quality, if it exists whatsoever.

Importantly, Stapleton (2002) considers the notion of voice as a critical aspect of writing discourse that should be brought in the realm of pedagogy either through consciousness raising or other ways. He believes that the writing procedure by native speakers or non-natives are firstly viewed in terms of originality and quality of ideas that the writer presents them via employing different discursive features like the notion of voice. Considering the aforesaid, the results of this study can assist language instructors to focus on the features of this critical component of language to guide the learners in the right path of academic writing skill. The targeted text type in this study; persuasive, is known as one of the most common ones in academic writing. As Ferris (1994) states that persuasive writing is an important and difficult mode of discourse for student writers especially for non-native speakers who often bring linguistics and rhetorical deficits to the task of persuasion in English.

Considering the above said implications of voice in L2 learning and pedagogy, this notion has a vast vacancy to work on to clarify its blur points.

VII. SUMMARY

In addition to lexical and syntactical factors contributing a decent and acceptable piece of writing in English other aspects like rhetorical styles make a difference. As a major rhetorical style, voice does not have the same manifestation

across cultures. Therefore, L2 writers incognizant of this difference use their L1 voice in their L2 productions, so they do not meet the requirements of presenting a self-identity quality in English writing while such quality in writing deems as a must by native speakers. As a result, their writing sound unnatural since something i.e., target voice delicately is missing there. This evokes researchers to conduct vast studies regarding this notion in order to assist L2 writers to overcome such drawback in their L2 written productions. Also, material designers need to enrich writing pedagogy courses via incorporating voice properly into writing syllabi. Therefore, this notion deserves special care and attention on the part of writing teachers, material designers as well as L2 learners.

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Shiva Javdan is an MA Student in TEFL at the University of Isfahan, Iran. Her research interests include intercultural communications, CDA and second language writing.

The Prosperity of English Literary Criticism in Multicultural Contexts: Jane Austen's Ideas on Kinships in *Emma* in the Perspective of Ethical Literary Criticism[*]

Yan Liu

School of International Studies, Binzhou Medical University, Yantai, 264003, China

Abstract—The contemporary English literary criticism has been prosperously developing in multicultural contexts in which various literary criticism theories, such as Ethical literary criticism proposed by Chinese professor Zhenzhao Nie, came into being. The present study attempts, by adopting the theory of ethical literary criticism and an integrated methodology of both textual analysis and logical argumentation, to explore Jane Austen's ethical ideas on kinships in *Emma* which can be only appreciated in terms of the moral preoccupations that characterize the novelist's peculiar interest in life according to the British critic F.R. Leavis. After a general literature review, the paper presents the major findings of the study, and arrives at a conclusion on Austen's ethical ideas on kinships which are also an inseparable part of Austen's ethical ideas.

Index Terms—English literary criticism, multicultural contexts, kinships, *Emma*, ethical literary criticism

I. INTRODUCTION

The contemporary literature in English is flourishing as a result of the development of cultural pluralism and globalization. In such multicultural contexts, it is, necessary and significant for scholars in various backgrounds to conduct English literary criticism from some new perspectives by employing various theories of literary criticism. As one of the new theories, ethical literary criticism proposed by Chinese professor Zhenzhao Nie, involves the analysis of literary works, the relationships between the literary works and the writers, and the analysis of the relationship between literary works and the society from the perspective of ethics. Besides, it emphasizes the writers' and critics' moral responsibilities as well as the moral function of literary works, so as to give correct guidance to readers from the perspective of ethics, and, furthermore, cultivate their elegant aesthetic taste, and enhance moral aesthetic on the part of literary criticism.

As a great novelist and moralist, Jane Austen creates novels not only for the entertainment purpose, but also for the entailment of ethical values. Among her works, *Emma* is no exception. *Emma* conveys Austen's unique and mature ethical ideas, just as Leavis stated that "when we examine the formal perfection of *Emma*, we find that it can be appreciated only in terms of the moral preoccupations that characterize the novelist's peculiar interest in life" (Byrne, 2004, p.56). Highbury in *Emma* is an organic community embedded with different ranks of people who are restrained by some established codes of behaviors and manners, and it presents a comparatively self-enclosed social organism, with clearly understood ethical norms or principles of stratification when communicating. Austen has a serious moral concern not only about love and marriage, but also other social relationships, such as kinships. Jane Austen enjoys a lively and affectionate family circle which stimulates her to express her strong desire for kinships in her literary creations. Since kinships in *Emma* are not only pure feelings of human beings, but also serve Austen's writing purpose: to reveal her ethical ideas on kinships, therefore, it is of great significance to explore Jane Austen's ethical ideas on kinships in the perspective of ethical literary criticism.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Before exploring Jane Austen's ethical ideas on kinships in *Emma*, it is quite necessary to have a general review of relevant studies on *Emma* and ethical literary criticism at home and abroad.

A. Studies on Emma

As a work that perfectly represents her genius, Jane Austen's *Emma* has also been attracting much attention from

scholars and critics worldwide, though ethical criticism on it is not so satisfactory because of various reasons. Sir Walter Scott argued that *Emma* represented a major new kind of unromantic fiction in 1816. A.C. Bradley described Austen as "a moralist and humorist" (Copeland & McMaster, 2001, p.233). Reginald Farrer (1917) commented that *Emma* is "the most complex-and best-of them" (Copeland & McMaster, 2001, p.233), and anticipated the formalism or new criticism of the mid-twentieth century in his emphasis on the technical mastery of *Emma*. In Mary Lascelles's book *Jane Austen and Her Art* (Lascelles, 1939), Jane Austen's use of language, of narrative technique, of timing, and many other artistic issues in *Emma* were defined and explored with precision and sensitivity. F.R. Leavis (1948) stated that *Emma* could only be appreciated in terms of the moral preoccupations that characterize the novelist's peculiar interest in life. Therefore, he insisted that readers should grasp the excellence of *Emma* from the perspective of ethics. Lionel Trilling (1965) made a comment titled as "*Emma* and the legend of Jane Austen" in his *Beyond Culture: Essay on Literature and Learning*, he argued that Emma has a moral life as a man had a moral life and *Emma* was a complex study of self-importance and egotism and malice. D. Lodge (1968) claimed in his *Jane Austen's Emma*: A *Selection of Critical Essays* that *Emma* was the last completely finished product of Austen's maturity. J.F. Burrows (l968) analyzed the themes and art of *Emma* in *Jane Austen's Emma*. Marilyn Butler (1975) argued that Austen showed her preference for rationality and inherited moral systems over imagination and individual choice in *Emma* in her *Jane Austen and the War of Ideas*.

Chinese scholars also contribute to the studies of *Emma*. Most of them focus on the analysis of its irony, narrative art, characterization, structure, etc. There are many critical essays on *Emma*, and in the opinion of most modem critics, it is, of all Jane Austen's novels, the one which most perfectly represents her genius.

B.   Studies on Ethical Literary Criticism

There are intrinsic links between the characteristics of literature and ethics. Many scholars at home and abroad have realized these close links.

After a long period of exile, ethical literary criticism reoccupies academics stealthily in 1990s. Historically, F.R. Leavis states that great novelists show an intense moral interest in life. It is immediately clear as one reads the opening chapter of *The Great Tradition* that Leavis attempts to set out his conception of the proper relation between form/composition and moral interest/art and life, and refuses to separate art from life, or the aesthetic or formal from the moral. Therefore, he does not think there can be great (literary) art without serious moral purpose. In her *Love's Knowledge: Essays on Philosophy and Literature* (1990), Martha Nussbaum also points out:

The sense that we are social beings puzzling out, in terms of great moral difficulty, what might be, for us, the best way to live this sense of practical importance, which animates contemporary ethical theory and has always animated much of great literature, is absent from the writings of many our reading literary theorists. (p.169-170)

In China, it is professor Zhenzhao Nie who firstly put forward ethical literary criticism in June, 2004, which has eventually developed into an important issue in the current academic environment and literary critical circle. Hereafter, a series of papers on ethical literary criticism respectively have been issued to illustrate that critics should be responsible for moral re-establishment through literary criticism, so as to recover the moral values in literature.

III.   MAJOR FINDINGS OF AUSTEN'S ETHICAL IDEAS ON KINSHIPS

When one turns to the families, one notices the curious fact that there are no satisfactory parents in Jane Austen's novels. Instead, she depicts many irresponsible images of parents: in *Sense and Sensibility, Emma, and Persuasion*, one parent is dead, and the survivor is inadequate. It is also curious for us to learn that there is no image of mother in *Emma*. Emma is the youngest of the two daughters of a most affectionate, indulgent father, Mr. Woodhouse; she has, in consequence of her sister's marriage, been mistress of the house from a very early period; her mother died too long ago for her to have more than an indistinct remembrance of her caresses; the place of her mother has been supplied by an excellent woman as governess, who has fallen little short of a mother in affection. Jane Fairfax also loses her parents long before; Frank Churchill is adopted by the rich Churchills, though his father is still alive. The study discusses kinships in the novel mainly through the kinship of Emma and her father, Mr. Woodhouse, and the kinship of Emma and her sister, Isabella. With a general survey of the kinships of Emma and her families, Jane Austen's ethical ideas on kinships in *Emma* can be concluded as the following aspects:

A.   Criticism on Traditional Patriarchy and Appeal for Parents' Moral Responsibility

The image of Mr. Woodhouse who is an irresponsible and dependent father and the image of Emma, who is, instead, competent and independent in *Emma* reveal Jane Austen's peculiar ethical ideas on kinships between parents and children: it is important for parents to take their moral responsibility to deal with family matters and set a code of ethical requirements towards their children on children's education problems; meanwhile, it is necessary for women to play a positive role in the family.

It is no doubt the image of Mr. Woodhouse is a bold challenge to the traditional image of father in that patriarchal society. It's his ignorance of moral responsibility Mr. Woodhouse should execute that results in his dependent role in family life and the numerous indecent faults committed by Emma. In regard to Austen's criticism on traditional patriarchy, she highly admires Emma's independence as a housemaster, and thus her ethical ideas on kinships can, to

some degree, reflect her weak feminine consciousness.

Firstly, in *Emma*, parents' ignorance of moral responsibility and the independence of women can be reflected by the different roles that competent Emma and incompetent Mr. Woodhouse play in their family. In the novel, Jane Austen models a poor, irresponsible and selfish father, Mr. Woodhouse, who exists in name only. Compared to his clever second daughter Emma Woodhouse, Mr. Woodhouse is more like a self-willed child than a respectable father, though he looks like an old gentleman. He is such a foolish man that he considered trifles, such as walking, drinking cereal, consulting pharmacist, and playing card games as his interests. It is Mr. Woodhouse, not Emma Woodhouse, who is complaining day and night, and worrying about the marriage terribly. Instead, Emma is the image of the backbone of the family but not "the Angel in the House". It's Emma Woodhouse, not Mr. Woodhouse, serves as the master of their house Hartfield, manages all the businesses of Hartfield and shows the reader an image of capable mistress. It seems that Mr. Woodhouse is not the leader of the family, but depends on his daughter Emma to a large extent, though it seems no further development of Emma's career.

In this sense, it can be concluded that Jane Austen's view reflects her weak feminine consciousness and going against the traditional ethical view of patriarchy society. She supports that women should play a positive role in family and should participate actively in social activities rather than confine themselves only to a small domestic circle.

Secondly, parents' ignorance of moral responsibility can also be reflected vividly by Mr. Woodhouse's ignorance of children's education. Since Emma's mother died too long age for her to have more than an instinct remembrance of her caresses, so her father, Mr. Woodhouse, is supposed to take the responsibility to educate his children. However, he is almost invalid, and doesn't fulfill his responsibility to educate Emma, and leaves Emma be educated by Miss Taylor, Emma's governess. He, himself, only cares trifles. Although Emma can be taught and taken care of by Miss Taylor, also her intimate friend, she cannot be shaped into a lady without moral faults by such a mild and to some extent a foolish lady who cannot abandon the traditional codes of ethics towards women. Furthermore, nobody can replace a father or a mother's role in children's mind, not to mention that Miss Taylor is only a governess which is regarded as only a "slave" according to the social ethics of that time. Therefore, Emma makes a lot of ridiculous mistakes in the novel due to her moral immaturity during her growing progress. Emma's moral immaturity induces Austen to write even before she began the novel, "I am going to take a heroine whom no one but myself will much like" (Booth, 1983, p.242). At the beginning, Austen introduces the disadvantages of Emma's morality, "The real evils, indeed, of Emma's situation were the power of having rather too much her own way, and a disposition to think a little too well of herself".(Austen, 2009, p.1). She greatly overestimates her own matchmaking abilities; and she is blind to the dangers of meddling in other people's lives and is often mistaken about the meanings of others' actions. "Indeed, she thinks herself completely happy. The only threat to her happiness, a threat of which she is unaware, is herself: charming as she is, she can neither see her own excessive pride honestly nor resist imposing herself on the lives of others. She is deficient both in generosity and in self-knowledge. She discovers and corrects her faults only after she has almost ruined herself and her closest friends."(Booth, 1983, p.244) There is no doubt that Emma might not have had so many weaknesses on her personality if Mr. Woodhouse takes his moral responsibility as a competent father and supplies Emma a good education. In Jane Austen's eye, responsible parents should supply a good education which is not only intellectually, but also morally. It can not greatly influence one to be a moral person without education intellectually, but it is fatal to a person's development without good taste and moral values. Parents should take their moral responsibly and set a good example for their children.

It is in such exquisite descriptions that Jane Austen creates the image of an incompetent father which is a rebel to the traditional ethical views. With her unique narrative art--irony, Jane Austen gives a scathing satire on that patriarchal society from a perspective of a feminist, and meanwhile, calls on that it is essential for parents to take their moral responsibility and set a code of ethical requirements towards their children, and it is of great significance for women to be the backbone of the family.

B.   Desire for Parents' Love

In Jane Austen's ethical values, she not only emphasizes parents' moral responsibility, but also shows children's deep attachments to parents' love. Although Jane Austen creates an image of an invalid father and no existence of a mother in *Emma*, it is perhaps this lack of parents' love that makes the heroine deeply desire for parents' love.

Firstly, children are longing for motherly love, which is the greatest one of the world. Since there is no exception that nobody in *Emma* has a mother, it seems that Jane Austen doesn't emphasize mother's influences upon children, it doesn't matter whether a child has a mother or not. In fact, it is such kind of lack of the character as a mother that reflects children's deep desire for motherly love. It's known that the death of Emma's mother happened too long ago even to be a sad memory. However, Emma wants to enjoy motherly love so as to pour out all kinds of happiness and sadness that lay buried deep in her hearts. Therefore, Austen employs her extraordinary narrative technique to arrange a motherly Miss Taylor as her governess. Emma goes very well with Miss Taylor. They are so imitate that the Author describes their attachment to each other in the novel as the following:

Sixteen years had Miss Taylor been in Mr. Woodhouse's family, less as a governess than a friend, very fond of both daughters, but particularly of Emma. Between them it was more the intimacy of sisters. Even before Miss Taylor had ceased to hold the nominal office of governess, the mildness of her temper had hardly allowed her to impose any restraint; and the shadow of authority being now long passed away, they had been living together as friend and friend

very mutually attached, and Emma doing just what she liked; highly esteeming Miss Taylor's judgment, but directed chiefly by her own. (Austen, 2009, p.1)

However, after the wedding day of her beloved friend, a gentle sorrow comes to Emma. Emma first sits in mournful thought of any continuance. Austen depicts Emma's affection for Miss Taylor and her sorrow to part from and her as the following:

…She recalled her past kindness--the kindness, the affection of sixteen years--how she had taught and how she had played with her from five years old--how she had devoted all her powers to attach and amuse her in health--and how nursed her through the various illnesses of childhood. A large debt of gratitude was owing here; but the intercourse of the last seven years, the equal footing and perfect unreserved which had soon followed Isabella's marriage, on their being left to each other, was yet a dearer, tenderer recollection. She had been a friend and companion such as few possessed: intelligent, well-informed, useful, gentle, knowing all the ways of the family, interested in all its concerns, and peculiarly interested in herself, in every pleasure, every scheme of hers--one to whom she could speak every thought as it arose, and who had such an affection for her as could never find fault. (Austen, 2009, p.2)

Meanwhile, Miss Taylor is also sad to part from Emma.

…She felt herself a most fortunate woman; and she had lived long enough to know how fortunate she might well be thought, where the only regret was for a partial separation from friends, whose friendship for her had never cooled, and who could ill bear to part with her! (Austen, 2009, p.11)

By describing their attachments to each other, it can be inferred that desiring for the kinship between mother and children is also one of her ethical ideas on kinships. In this way, it is not difficult to understand why Emma gives her motherly love to her nephew, and worries about her nephew's interest when she knows that Harriet targets Mr. Knightley as her marriage partner.

Secondly, children are also longing for fatherly love, which is inseparable with the development of children's mind and body. Emma is no exception, though her father is unsatisfactory. As we have discussed above, she cares much about her father's feeling, even doesn't intend to marry, though she decides to marry her dear love, Mr. Knighley. However, their marriage is based on the condition that Mr. Knightley should settle in Hartfield after marriage. Meanwhile, Mr. Woodhouse also loves Emma, though he doesn't know how to love her, only to spoil and depend on her.

In order to express Emma's great desire for father's real love, the author arranges a fatherly lover, Mr. Knightley, to remind Emma of her mistakes, to help her to correct her faults, to protect and love her. At the beginning of the novel, Emma is immature; in the course of it she moves towards maturity, partly as a result of some rather painful experiences in her relationships with other people, partly as a result of Mr. Knightley's patient, loving and scrupulous guidance to her developing moral sense.

C. Desire for Sisterly Affections

Jane Austen concerns much about sisterly affections in *Emma*. At first, in considering the blood relationship between Emma and her sister, Isabella, their deep affections are natural emotions of human beings and they are in keeping with ethical codes of human beings. Besides, since her mother died years ago and her sister has been married, Emma is apparently not satisfied with this situation, so the deep affections between Emma and her governess companion, Miss Taylor, first of all satisfy Emma's strong desire for sisterly love and motherly love and meanwhile they are also natural outcomes of their sixteen years cultivation. While is a useful companion for Emma to communicate now that Miss Taylor is gone.

Jane Austen vividly describes the deep sisterly affections between Emma and Miss Taylor who also plays a role as a mother. They have stayed together for several years; they enjoy each other, and go well with each other. To Emma, mild Miss Taylor is her best companion and elder sister rather than a strict governess; to Miss Taylor, intelligent Emma is also her best friend and little sister rather than an ignorant pupil. Emma marries Miss Taylor and Mr. Weston by takes advantage of her intelligence, her power, her status as well as the so called talent of matchmaking. The marriage of Miss Taylor seems to be an ideal one and also the best end to her. However, if there is a pity that hits both of Emma and Miss Taylor, that is the fact that they cannot stay together all the time, though they lives not so far from each other and they can visit each other after Miss Taylor's marriage. Emma feels lonely again unless she finds another suitable companion.

Fortunately, such a suitable companion quickly appears, and it is Emma's protégé, Harriet Smith. Emma again invests her sisterly feeling into Harriet. However, her sisterly feeling towards Harriet serves a useful purpose. "Harriet would be useful as a walking companion; she would be a valuable addition to Emma's privileges' in perambulations beyond the grounds of Hartfield. Emma's understanding of Harriet as 'useful' was a logical outcome of companionate relationships that stressed from over substance." (Duckworth, 2002, p. 580) Emma never saw Harriet as a person but as a blank page to be filled in. "Searching for a young woman to 'improve' and 'form' is not unusual in someone of Emma's position. Humble companions offered an opportunity for wealthy women to use their economic and social privilege." (Duckworth, 2002, p.580) Emma makes her greatest effort to refine Harriet's manners and cultivate her taste, and she even seems untied of matching Harriet with Mr. Elton at first, then with Frank Churchill in order to make her live a "happy life". It is also her privilege that makes Harriet seldom lose her own happiness, but finally get it: the union with Mr. Martin, a worthy man.

In summary, *Emma* vividly conveys Jane Austen's ethical ideas on kinships. She criticizes the traditional patriarchy

that existed in the family, and she calls on that parents should take their moral responsibility to care for the family as well as cultivate their children; she insists that woman should also play a positive role in the family. On the other hand, Jane Austen's desire for deep affections among family members is vividly shown in the novel, and the reason that why Austen has such ethical ideas on kinships stems mainly from her own family life experiences, such as her energetic family atmosphere and her deep attachment to her sister, Cassandra, which will be another research.

IV. Conclusion

Jane Austen is certainly a serious and interesting moralist. In her *Emma.* Austen's attitude to morality is not least flexible, but it is less relaxed. However, Jane Austen values true understanding of moral principle for its influence on human development, and in this respect she is aware of the influence of social deprivation on the moral character, at least, in regard to the disadvantages suffered by women in the eighteenth century. the paper makes no efforts to exhaust every aspect of the novel; instead, it just provides one interpretation of it from the perspective of ethical literary criticism in a way that may anticipate a more systematic and comprehensive study.

In multicultural contexts, an exposure of ethics on kinships in Jane Austen's masterpiece Emma from the perspective of ethical literary criticism proves to be of great significance. Since there are a few critics and scholars who study the ethical ideas embedded in Emma, the present research can not only bridge the gap to some extent, and enrich the conventional literary criticism on Jane Austen, but also present us a fresh and comprehensive interpretation of Emma. In addition, a study of Emma from a new perspective, ethical literary criticism, will absolutely enrich the current English literary criticism as a whole, and help a lot in conducting future research practices in the field of English literature, and meanwhile it will make a positive difference in carrying out multicultural construction.

Acknowledgement

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Yan Liu was born in Shandong, China in November 1981. She achieved her Master's degree in English Language and Literature (2010) from Ludong University, China. Her research interests include English literature and culture, Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL)

She has been working in Binzhou Medical University as an English teacher for 10 years, with many papers concerning English language and literature. She is currently accepted as a visitor scholar by the Department of English at The University of Texas at Austin, U.S.A.

'Bebaxšid' (Excuse Me) as a Multifunctional Speech Act in Persian

Massoume Khodaei Moghaddam
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran

Mahmoud Elyasi
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran

Shahla Sharifi
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran

Abstract—This study, based on the modified version of Brown and Levinson's model of Theory of Politeness (1987), examines and analyzes *'bebaxšid'* (Excuse me) speech act in Persian language to come up with the functions it serves in the Iranian Persian-speaking community for those non-Persian speakers who want to speak or learn Persian . For this purpose, some native speakers of Persian language from different ages and different social groups were observed in such natural settings as markets, shops, the streets, and parties and their speech was recorded; then transcribed and translated into English; finally, the data was analyzed qualitatively. The results show that, there are ten major functions of *'bebaxšid'* in Persian which are as follows: apologizing, phatic communication, as a kind of address term, mitigating request, giving a present or offering services, thanking, turn-taking, complaint, refusal, and asking questions. Finally, it is worth noting that using such politeness expressions as 'bebaxšid', are not just for mitigating face threatening act (FTA) and many speakers use them in different contexts to have a more polite and successful interaction and communication. This would be incompatible with general characteristics of politeness strategies defined and described by Brown and Levinson (1987) who consider politeness simply as a means of mitigating FTA.

Index Terms—bebaxšid, speech act, politeness, face, face threatening act, function

I. INTRODUCTION

Pragmatics is" the study of how more gets communicated than is said" (Yule, 2000, p.3),. Pragmatics is something more than what is said and in fact it studies the intention of the speakers. Regarding pragmatic competence as its basic component and, in turn, speech act, has been given particular attention as the most fundamental part within pragmatics (Schmidt & Richards, 1980). Speech act theory was first introduced by Oxford philosopher J. L. Austin in *How to Do Things with Words,* published in 1962. A speech act, according to Austin (1962) is "the issuance of an utterance which is intended to accomplish or perform a specific act" (p. 6). So, speech act theory is concerned with uses of language. The main contribution of speech act theory is the explanation of communicative competence.

Speech acts, with different functions, are considered as a crucial element in everyday conversation, (Chen and Chen, 2007), so it is quite essential to investigate different types of them and their functions in order to have an efficient communication. *'Bebaxšid'* (Excuse me) is one of these speech acts which has different functions and different meanings in different contexts in Persian. In order to use this speech act and react to it appropriately, and to avoid any communication failure, a Persian learner should be familiar with its different functions.

Although the study of speech acts has a rather long history (beginning in the 1960s), the study of production and perception of different speech acts related to Persian language has been started during the last 15 years. There are lots of studies carried out on speech acts realization. These studies mainly involve such speech acts as thanking (Koutlaki, 2002), complaint (Eslami-Rasekh, 2004), apology (Afghari & Kaviani, 2005), gripping (Allami, 2006), invitation (Salmani-Nodoushan, 2006), compliment (Sharifian, 2008), disagreement (Parvaresh & Eslami-Rasekh, 2009), condolence (Samavarchi, Allami, & Samavarchi**,** 2009), suggestion (Pishghadam and Sharafadini, 2011), Insha' Allah (God's willing) and its functions in Persian (Pishghadam and Kermanshahi, 2012), but so far, there has been no study conducted in Persian to investigate different functions of *'bebaxšid'* speech act . Hence, in this paper, we are to examine different functions involved with this high-frequent speech act in Persian.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Researchers working on pragmatics have carried out their studies based on different theoretical frameworks. One of these theories which has received much attention and has a crucial role in total comprehension of such speech act as *'bebaxšid'* is Brown and Levinson's Politeness Theory (1978/1987). However, before dealing with politeness theory, it is quite essential to refer to Goffman's (1967) term of face work, which refers to a mechanism that is responsible for

people's action being consistent with face. All people are expected to keep face of others during interaction (cited in Coppock, 2005). Later in 1987, Brown and Levinson expanded their theory as Politeness Theory. According to Brown and Levinson (1987) face is defined as "self public image", and has two aspects: negative and positive (p. 61); Negative face is "the wants of every competent adult member that his action be unimpeded by others", and positive face is "the wants of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others" (p. 62). Scollon and Scollon (2011) define face as a "negotiated public image, mutually granted each other by participants in a communicative event" (p. 65).

Politeness is seen in terms of sets of strategies on the part of discourse participants for mitigating speech acts which are potentially threatening their own face or that of an interlocutor (Hickey and Orta: 1994, 267).

Another important notion related to the comprehension of *'bebaxšid'* is that of indirect speech acts. According to Yule (2000) based on the structure, we have two types of speech acts: direct and indirect (p. 54), "Whenever there is a direct relationship between a structure and a function we have a direct speech act, and whenever there is an indirect relationship between a structure and a function we have indirect speech act" (p. 55).

Stapleton (2004) is of the opinion that indirect speech acts (ISAs) convey not only the literal meaning of the utterance, but also "the intended force in the speech act" (p. 17). It is worth mentioning that ISAs do not directly express what the speaker means and when s/he applies an indirect speech act, what s/he means may "deviate from what is literally said" (Woods, 2006: xii). There are different types of indirect speech acts (Cohen, 1996) which are preferred in social interaction, since they are considered as more polite. In Persian, *'bebaxšid'* is an indirect speech act which plays different roles indicating different meanings in different contexts.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study has carried out with some native speakers of Persian language. More than 60 individuals (male and female) from different ages and different social classes were observed in such natural settings as markets, shops, greeting, on the street, in parties, etc. The process of data collection continued until it reached saturation point; it means that until no new function was found; then some instances were selected to be analyzed.

The process of data collection took around 4 months. Some part of this data was recorded and then transcribed and translated into English. On occasion, the researchers had to memorize some part of the data (because there was no access to a recording device at that time or being occasional of the data) and later to transcribe it, so that it might, at last, be analyzed qualitatively.

IV. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Since politeness is considered as a fundamental element in a communication, speakers try to make use of those words and expressions which are crucial to the success of an interaction; *'bebaxšid'* is a speech act which is considered as polite expression in Persian, which plays different functions in different contexts. Persian speakers intuitively perceive its functions in all contexts, but this issue is difficult for most non-native speakers who are learning Persian and not being familiar with different functions of *'bebaxšid'* may cause misunderstanding and miscommunication; so, we decided to deeply analyze it in order to come up with its various functions.

V. RESULTS

From the data gathered in different natural settings, ten major functions of *'bebaxšid'* were observed in Persian language. Below, an example is given for each function of *'bebaxšid'*, which is followed by the translation of the utterance. The functions are as follows:
1- Apologizing
Context:
B (A's son) arrives home late and A (B's mother), is worried about him
A: čerâ inqadr dir kardi? negarân šodam.
B: bebaxšid xeili terâfik bud.
Translation:
 A: Why are you so late? I was worried.
 B: Excuse me; I was stuck in a traffic jam.
According to the family norms, B should come back home at the exact time and as he has violated this norm and has caused worry, he uses *'bebaxšid'* to excuse his mother for being so late. Using *'bebaxšid'* for apologizing is so common among Persian speakers.
2- Phatic Communication
Context:
At the Dentist's: A (Patient) and B (Secretary)
A: bebaxšid sâ?at do nobat dâštam.
B: bale befarmâyid bešinid.
Translation:
A: Excuse me; I've got an appointment at 2 o'clock.

B: Yes, please take a seat.

In this context, A makes use of *'bebaxšid'* to start the conversation and it does not indicate making an apology, whatsoever. In fact, using *'bebaxšid'* in a formal situation is a polite and common expression to begin the conversation with in Persian language.

3- As a Kind of Address Term

Context:

A and B are in the library; they do not know each other. A wants to ask B a question.

A: bebaxšid

B: (B does not hear and does not answer)

A: bebaxšid

B: bale?

Translation:

A: Excuse me?

B: (B does not hear and does not answer)

A: Excuse me?

B: Yes?

In this context, A does not know B and wants to ask him a question, so he uses this expression to attract B's attention and addresses him with *'bebaxšid'*. The expression in this context has a bit the concept of apology and mostly functions as an address term.

4- Mitigating Request

Context:

A and B (two friends). A is going to buy the book their teacher has recommended to the students for the course.

B: bebaxšid to ke dâri miri barâ manam bexar.

A: bâše, eškâli nadâre.

Translation:

B: Excuse me, if you are going to buy the book, buy one for me, too.

A: OK, no problem.

In this context, B asks A to do something that is not her duty, and this request may put A under pressure to do the job, so B by using *'bebaxšid'* which indicates apology, to some extent, mitigates her request.

5- To Give a Present or to Offer Services

Context:

A has bought a present for B (her friend)'s birthday.

A: bebaxšid dige nâqâbele.

B: xeili mamnun.

Translation:

A: Excuse me, it is not worth mentioning.

B: Thanks so much.

In this context, A by using '*bebaxšid'* along with *'nâqâbele',* undervalues his present; otherwise it means that his present is not that much valuable for the recipient.

6- Refusal

Context:

A and B (two classmates) have an exam the next day.

A: miše jozvehâto bedi zire matâlebe mohem xat bekešam.

B: bebaxšid xodam hanuz hiči naxundam.

Translation:

A: May I have your notes to highlight the important points.

B: Excuse me, I haven't studied them yet (I need them).

In this context, B does not refuse his friend's request directly. He uses *'bebaxšid'* to excuse him and refuse his request indirectly, since it is a polite way of refusing other people's request. A intuitively understands that in this context, this expression indicates both apology and refusal.

7- Thanking

Context: A had asked B (her father) to buy some books for her.

B: biyâ doxtaram inam ket âbâyi ke gofte budi.

A: bebaxšid bâbâ zahmat oftâdi.

Translation:

B: Here you are; this is the book you have asked me to buy for you.

A: Excuse me dad; you ran into trouble.

In this context, A knows that she has got her father into trouble, so she uses this expression to excuse him and to show that she cares deeply about this matter and to thank him.

8- Turn-taking

Context:

A (Student) and B (A's teacher) are speaking about something. B is speaking at the moment.

A: bebaxšid vasate harfetunam hast vali be nazare man …

Translation:

A: Sorry to interrupt, but in my opinion …

In this context, A uses *'bebaxšid'* to take turns; B is aware of this function and gives the turn to the other to speak.

9- Complaint

Context:

Some people are standing at the baker's in the line. A (Customer) arrives and does not join the line and directly goes to the baker's. B (another customer) who is waiting for a long time starts complaining.

B: bebaxšid âxare saf unvare.

Translation:

Excuse me, we're standing in the line!

In this context, A does not consider the other people's right, and so B by using *'bebaxšid'* complains about his behavior. Here, this expression does not indicate an apology; rather, it means objection and complaint.

10- Asking to Repeat the Question

Context:

A (Professor) asks B (Student) to give a lecture next session.

A: xânume B lotfan barâ ĵalase ba?d âmâdeye ?erâ?eye dars bâšin.

B: bebaxšid?

Translation:

A: Miss B please be ready to present the lecture for the next session .

B: Excuse me?

In this context, B has not heard or has not understood A's utterance, so by using *'bebaxšid'*, wants B to repeat or explain his utterance.

VI. DISCUSSION

This study was conducted to examine various functions of *'bebaxšid'*, which is one of the most frequent and useful politeness expressions in Persian. Considering function 1, it should be said that as people's face may be threatened in daily interaction and people may (un-)intentionally threaten each other's face, apologizing is a speech act which decreases this threat. That is why, the use of apology in social interaction is so widespread; for this reason, Brook (1999) calls our time, "the Age of Apology" (p.3).In fact when apologies are employed, "the speaker admits that a social norm was violated and that s/he was to somewhat part of its cause" (Marquez-Reiter, 2000, p. 57). According to Cross Cultural Speech Act Realization Patterns (CCSARP) project initiated in 1982 (see Blum-Kulka et al., 1989),The linguistic realization of the act of apologizing can take in the form of five possible strategies: an expression of apology, an acknowledgement of responsibility, an explanation or account of situation, an offer of repair and, a promise of future forbearance. *Bebaxšid'* in Persian is settled in the first formula; in other words, it is an expression of apology that is the most direct type of apologizing and according to Afghari (2007), and Shariati and Chamani (2009), this expression is the most frequent performative verb for apologizing in Persian. So, whenever Iranian Persian speakers feel that they have done something wrong or something not in accordance with other people's dignity, that may threaten their face, they use *'bebakhshid'* to make an apology as a face saving speech act.

The second function of *'bebaxšid* is phatic communication. According to Bronsislaw Malinowski (1884-1942), such sentences as "What a nice day", "Hello", "Good morning", are produced automatically and do not communicate any message, and thus are considered as stereotyped structures. This social role of language maintaining intimacy and friendship between people is called phatic communication (cited in Crystal, 2010, 10). *'Bebaxšid'* in Persian, in some contexts, plays the same role, i.e. as an expression of phatic communication. It is specially used in formal settings where the speakers are unfamiliar to each other and are expected to make polite communication.

The other function of *'bebaxšid'* is for "addressing strange people". When the speaker is in doubt as to how address strange people, s/he can use any term and instead s/he may use attention getters such as *'bebaxšid'* to capture the attention of the addressee. Aliakbari and Toni (2008) call such attention getters as "zero address term".

Another function of *'bebaxšid'* is for mitigating a request. As request may put pressure on others to do something and thus threaten their face, using some mitigating devices are necessary to decrease this threat. According to Brown and Levinson (1987) "by apologizing for doing an FTA, the speaker can indicate his reluctance to impinge on H's negative face and thereby partially redress that impingement" (p.187). Furthermore, using this expression before offering a request is interpreted as humility and politeness, and if the speakers do not employ this expression or any other kind of mitigating device, it is interpreted as something impolite.

'Bebaxšid' is also used when somebody gives a present or offers services to others; this is so common among Persian speakers and is often accompanied by other formulaic expressions as "qâbel nadâre" which may undervalue what is being given or offered. In fact, *'bebaxšid'*, in this context, may be interpreted as "shekastenafsi" (humility) or "ta'arof" (compliment) which are considered as two crucial features of Iranian culture.

The other function of *'bebaxšid'* is thanking. Thanking in Persian is the manifestation of politeness and is expressed through verbal and non-verbal devices. According to Cheng (2005), apologizing is one of the ways for thanking; *'bebaxšid'* displays the same function in Persian in some contexts. It means that Persian speakers use this expression, when they feel extremely grateful and have received a favor that they have asked for. In fact, by using this expression, the speakers show their awareness of the trouble into which another person may have fallen by doing the favor. It is also used to show the awareness that the other person is not obliged to do the favor; in other words, they use *'bebaxšid'* to express their thanking. Koutlaki (forthcoming) refers to such expressions as "apologies functioning as expressions of thanks".

The next function of *'bebaxšid'* is turn-taking. According to Yule (2000), whenever in speaking the control on turn is not fixed, anyone can attempt to take it, that is called turn-taking (p.72). In Persian language, especially while speaking to a high status person, turn-taking is not allowed, but sometimes it is inevitable and the speakers use *'bebaxšid'* to have a polite conversation.

Another function of *'bebaxšid'* is refusal. Refusal is a high-risk face threatening act, because it contradicts the expectations. It is often realized through indirect strategies, and therefore, unlike acceptance, it requires a high level of pragmatic competence (Cohen, 1996). According to Beebe et al. (1990) using excuse is an indirect strategy for refusing other people's request, invitation and suggestion. *'Bebaxšid'* has such a function in Persian. In other words, using *'bebaxšid'* in some contexts is for refusing other people's request, invitation, etc., indirectly. Persian speakers care about others, their needs and wants, and they also know that they should not refuse other people's request directly as it is considered as a face threatening act. In such occasions, they prefer to use *'bebaxšid'* to show apology and refusal.

Yet another function of *'bebaxšid'* is its questioning function accompanied by a questioning tone and a questioning gesture. This expression, if produced with a questioning tone, is a formal and polite device for questioning. It is used when one has not heard or has not understood the other speech and by using this expression asks the addressee to repeat the utterance or explain the issue.

And finally, the last function of *'bebaxšid'* is showing complaint or blame, which is considered as a face threatening acts. Sometimes, in daily interactions, making a complaint about something or blaming others is inevitable, and stating them through such expressions as, *'bebaxšid'* decreases the threatening pressure.

In summary, the first function of *'bebaxšid'* is used when a face threatening act has just happened and as mentioned before, it is considered as "face saving". The functions listed under numbers 4, 6, 8, and 9 are used before doing an FTA in order to decrease negative face threatening act, and are therefore considered as negative politeness strategies. The other functions are employed to maintain and enhance the addressees' face by being grateful to them.

Finally, it is worth noting that using such politeness expressions as 'bebaxšid', are not just for mitigating face threatening act (FTA) and many speakers use them in different contexts to have a more polite and successful interaction and communication. This would be incompatible with general characteristics of politeness strategies defined and described by Brown and Levinson (1987) who consider politeness simply as a means of mitigating FTA.

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Massoume Khodaei Moghaddam She was born in Quchan, Iran in 1982. She received her Bachelor's degree in Teaching English Language from Azad university of Mashhad (Mashhad, Khorasan Razavi Province, IRAN) in 2008, after that she continued her studies in linguistics in Ferdowsi university of Mashhad, and she took her M.A in linguistics in 2013.

She is currently an English teacher in one of the guidance schools of Mashhad. Her main research interest is in applied linguistic and cultural linguistic.

Mahmoud Elyasi He was born in Quchan, Iran in 1956. He received his B.A. degree in english language and literature from Ferdowsi University of Mashhad (Mashhad, Khorasan Razavi Province, IRAN) in 1983. Later in 1991, he got his MA degree in general linguistics from Ferdowsi University of Mashhad (IRAN). His thesis title was "A Study of 100 Linguistic Variables and Their Distribution in the Area Between Torbat-e Jam City and Mashhad City". He received his Ph.D Degree in general linguistics from University of Wales, Bangor (Bangor, Gwynedd, Wales, UK) in 2006. His doctoral thesis title was "Language Proficiency and Academic Achievement of Monolingual Persian-speaking and Bilingual Turkish-Persian-speaking School Children in Quchan".

He did his military service in the Iranian Navy from 1983 to 1985. He worked as a SENIOR TRANSLATOR and EDITOR in Mashhad (Iran) for 7 years (1985-1992), and translated Theo van Els et al (1983) *Applied Linguistics and the Learning and teaching of Foreign Languages* into Persian, published in 1994. Later in September 1992, he started working as a UNIVERSITY INSTRUCTOR at English Language and Literature Department at Hakim Sabzevari University (formerly, Sabzevar Teacher Training University) (Sabsevar, Iran) where he taught some courses on Linguistics and Translation Theory. Having won a scholarship from Iranian Ministry of Science, Research and Technology to study at University of Wales, Bangor (UK), he received his PhD degree in General Linguistics in 2006, and continued to work at English Language and Literature Department at Hakim Sabzevari University as ASSISTANT PROFESSOR and translated Fromkin and Roman's (1988) *An Introduction to Language* into Persian, published in 2005. In September 2010, he moved to Ferdowsi University of Mashhad where he started working as ASSISTANT PROFESSOR at Linguistics Department. He has been working at the same department since then, teaching such courses as Sociolinguistics, Dialectology, A History of Persian Language, and Phonetics. Meantime, he supervised around 10 MA theses in Linguistics, and published more than 10 articles, e.g. A Functional Description of the Narratives Produced by Kurdish-Persian Bilinguals, *Asian Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities*, Vol 2, No 1, February 2013 (Japan); The Analysis of Language Change in the Kurdish Narratives Produced by 60 Kurdish-Persian Bilinguals, *Asian Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities*, Vol 2, No 1, February 2013 (Japan); Foreign Accent Syndrome: Neurolinguistic: Description of a New Case, International Conference on Language, Literature and Linguistics (Dubai, UAE, December, 2011). His previous interests included Dialectology, and Phonetics, while now his interests are as follows: Bilngualism, Critical Discourse Analysis, and Pragmatics.

Dr Elyasi has been a member of Linguistic Society of Iran since 2010.

Shahla Sharifi is an associate professor of general linguistics in Ferdowsi University of Mashhad. She got her MA and Ph.D degree in general linguistics from the same University. Her main areas of interest are pragmatics, discourse analysis, typology and neurolinguistics.

Environment and Fate: Helpless Human Beings in *Sister Carrie*

Limin Bai

College of Foreign Languages, Hebei United University, Tangshan 063009, China

Abstract—In the late 19th century, America had been experienced the development stage mass labor, mass production and urban expansion, which produced a lot of social problems. Darwinism thought human being evolved step by step and completed each other for survival. Spencer thought that this law was adapted to the society. Naturalism began to develop. *Sister Carrie* tells a story: a girl from the country comes to Chicago, becomes the mistress of two men, finally deserts them and carves out her own career. On surface it is immoral. In fact it, however, expresses that the society is a Jungle which decides human being, and human being has no rights to choose.

Index Terms—Darwinism, Theodore Dreiser, Naturalism

As for me life is the moil and embarrassment which the incredible power gives human beings. It doesn't allow human being to present any important ideas and this is true at least for me. One can paint a picture to enjoy himself or other. But from my point of view, he is not but a puny individual, in many mysterious and unknown things, walking around meaninglessly, along the road like the yarn, if it can be accounted as a road. In a word, from what I have witnessed I find nothing meaningful. After I experienced these things, I seemed to have encountered them, vacantly and dispiritedly.

——*Dreiser*

When Dreiser went to American literary world, America was encountering the drastic social changes, transiting from capitalism to monopolistic capitalism. The style controlling the literary world was still the Victorian "genteel tradition". In the pastoral song of beautifying reality, Dreiser appeared all of a sudden. By his full-length works like epic, he tore the soft veil of capitalist society, exploded the elegant sermon of the upper class, and returned the original face of the society. Through all the difficulties, he opened a new prospect for the American novel and also reclaimed a path for the novelists of later generation.

Naturalism was another turn-of-the-century literary movement. Naturalism is based on social Darwinism. Darwin claims the world is a product of evolution. His theory denies the Judeo-Christian story of the creation of the universe by God in six days, as expressed in Genesis, the first book of the Bible and the semi-divinity of humankind by connecting human beings to the animal world. By the end of the civil war, northern industrialism had triumphed over southern agrarianism, and from that victory came a society based on mass labor and mass consumption. Mechanization spread rapidly as steam engines, linked to machines, displaced hand work on farms and factories. The conditions of labor changed for the use new machines, which seemed more valuable and more useful than the workers who tended them. Yet increasing numbers of Americans left the farms to seek jobs I urban factories. However periodic economic depressions, bloody strikes, increasing slums in the cities day by day and various disorders of society made some Americans realized that they did need a new philosophy to explain all of these phenomena. Therefore social Darwinism was spread to America and filled the blank of American knowledge.

Social Darwinism was derived from Darwinism. Darwin disturbed the educated world with his book The Origin of Species. Darwin claimed that change was implicit in the biological world, which over the course of an immense period the competition among living creatures for survival had provided the impetus for change from simpler and more primitive to higher and more complex forms. The world was not a finished entity created in one blinding flash but a product of evolution, of slow change over time, a process challenged simultaneously a flock of passionately held beliefs. It denied the Judeo-Christian story of the creation of the universe by God in six days, as expressed in Genesis, the first book of the Bible and the semi-divinity of humankind by connecting human beings to the animal world. Thus it made people suspicious of pre-theory and they began to consider how to put Darwinism into every scientific research field in order to discover law of evolution of other things. Therefore there were mechanical materialism and special Darwinism at the time. The famous phase by Spencer is "the fittest survival" According to Darwinism, the so-called society in fact is also a jungle, where is processing the cruel survival competition. Man has no rights to choose his life, and his fate is decided by heredity and environment, physical derives and economic circumstances. The society can not try to guarantee equality of 'result', but only equality of 'chances'. Thereby Darwinism, mechanical materialism and social Darwinism as well as French Naturalist Emile Zola influenced American Literature deeply. American Naturalism started to carve out a new approach as to imaginative fiction.

The five novelists acknowledged as the core of the Naturalist school were Hamlin Garland, Stephen Crane, Frank Norris, Jack London and Theodore Dreiser. Each in his own way tried to go beyond what he perceived as the evasions of realism. The Naturalists saw the world as a heartless interplay of deterministic forces in which men and women were

mere objects, unable to control their own lives. The forces were economic or physical or biological, and they gripped and usually crushed--- their un-heroine, passive characters in an irresistible embrace.

Just like one sentence of our ancient poem, "too high and cold for me", from the ancient time, those who wanted to open up a new path no matter in what respect, were all lonely. Like Edwin Arlington Robinson, Dreiser seems to be doomed to become a writer without readers in the early twentieth century. His first novel Sister Carrie was almost consigned to limbo at the very beginning. People couldn't accept such a novel as disobeying the social morals and rules of that time, and more importantly, they didn't believe that the plots conformed to reality. They criticized it as follows:

Let us not believe what Dreiser has said: superman's bravery, frank intention, photographically authentic record, truth without prejudice… All of these are not reliable.

Or Although there are floods of details of details In the novel, all of these try to plead for the barbarous view.

However, just because of his acute power of observation and the truthful description of life phase, Dreiser has been accepted by readers now. *Sister Carrie* has become one of the great classics of American literature. By his first novel, Dreiser indicated that he was more brilliant than his peers. In the twentieth century, no other American writers like him gave the later generation so great influences, and no other novelists did so much in the aspect of liberating American literature as him

The famous novelist, James T. Farrell has ever made a pointed remark for Sister Carrie,

"*Sister Carrie* has a strong flavor of the late 19th century's American life. It authentically represents the feeling of the age, just like a door, making us walking into American ideology that has not existed at the present. The book is not only the documentary, but also a miserable and sad age so far that story, deduced by the cold and merciless logic. Dreiser walks ahead of the up to now, his first novel is as fresh as just being finished" (Farrell, 1945, p46).

Indeed, *Sister Carrie,* from the very beginning, was discussed as a moral problem. Dreiser vividly wrote all the facts into the novel: the desolate, weary and humiliating life of those people without money, social status or special abilities. With the deep sympathy, he had never claimed the right of criticizing the morals of his figures' behavior. "Dreiser not only reacts for mankind timely with full sympathy, and more importantly, despite his view' limitations he understands human beings. He is such a writer that his importance lies in what he said, but not how he said it." (Rasscoe, 1925, p65) In *Sister Carrie* he often uses the hackneyed and stereotyped expressions of that time, and this can be found in the titles of every chapter. However, at the same time, he has his successful point——he also writes some convincing argument. Dreiser's style of writing clearly indicates that he is self-taught writer. He receives little education, so he has to find something by himself. He seeks for holding and expressing the confused social order that he has known. This has been reflected in his contents and style. Happiness, misery, plaintiveness, vulgarity, spiritual pain, sentiment, also hackneyed expressions —— all of these have been compromised together. He emphasizes the influence of environment and fate on human beings, thus conforming to Naturalist's view. Especially in Sister Carrie, we can understand this view.

In the twentieth century, the nation's political and imaginative path would lie on city streets. The American scene would be urban. The city was embraced by reformers who interpreted the congestion and deprivations of urban life as curable anomalies. More fundamentally many progressives and socialist--- men and women who might be called the new urban ideologist---believed that the city represented the future and offered democracy. However, Theodore Dreiser's first novel, Sister Carrie (1900) described a primitive and yet decisive account of the city's seductions and dangers. Though hid young title character, Dreiser expressed his dazzled reaction when he first came to Chicago. He wrote later of that first visit. The city was itself a strange illusion of hope and happiness with its cascade of immigrants, its daily changing skyline, its gargantuan appetites, its mingling of slaughter houses and counting houses. Chicago was perhaps the quintessential American city. This is Chicago which Caroline Meeber sought and dreamed.

No one shows any interests in *Sister Carrie* after its publishing. Frank Norris, accepting the novel as the agent of Doubleday publishing House, has ever said, "Remember my words: in the future Norris's fame will not reach the same height as Dreiser in American literary world." In 1902, Norris left the world. Dreiser was lost into the depressed and silent state. Sister Carrie made Dreiser suffer from such isolation and taunt. It has passed quite a few years fir him to get over it. He could not put his hand to the next novel. If Sister Carrie is a hoarse and exhausted work for protesting, if it overthrows the total beliefs, it might become the famous works for its content disregard universal condemnation. However, this novel is more profound. When it rebuilds the society from the foundation, not only does it wholeheartedly deny various basic principles, especially concerning about marriage and success, but also it explicates some common things into some newly discovered truth.

No matter how people criticize the author and the novel, one point we can not deny—— Dreiser is a serious writer, thus writing such a serious novel Sister Carrie.

Just as Dreiser (1992) said in the novel Sister Carrie,

"*Among the forces which sweep and play through the universe, untutoredly, man is but a wisp in the wind. Our civilization is still in a middle stage scarcely beast, in that it is no longer wholly guided by instinct, scarcely human beings, in that it is not yet wholly guided by reason… He is becoming too wise to hearken always to instincts and desires, he is still too weak to always prevail against them.*"(p292-230)

Whenever I read this book, I always get a feeling——a sense of heaviness caused by reality of life. I can't help asking myself. "If I faced the same situation Carrie, or even if I were Carrie, what should I do?" In fact what Carrie chases is the common dream of quite a few people, but the way is the key point. And also this point is the key point

making Carrie Meeber different Edna Pontellier in Kate Chopin's *The Awakening*. Edna Pontellier's "awakening" to the fact of the Darwinian nature of the cosmos alerts her to her freedom from the dictates of God and gods, and also points out the gendered bias of the natural processes of life. To think of the children , and further to submit oneself fully to Darwin's ideologies of survival, is ultimately to give oneself over to a natural process which we have little control and which ultimately controls us. Darwinism offers only an illusory freedom. A world without deities seems to offer the possibility to reshape our lives at will: this is what Edna believes is open to her at first. However, she finally finds that the door into the world is locked and she has no key only because she is a female. The path out of this dilemma is to reassert control in the only way we know how: through taking our own life. Edna insists that she would give her life for her children; but she wouldn't give herself…", and she does not want anything but her own way of living. The Darwinian sea, where all life began, is also the Darwinian natural impulses that demand that women should be the recreators of the species. The sea is the representative of that character and sexuality here. And here the return to the sea maybe finally overwhelms and engulfs Edna, while Edna still bravely swims in the sea finally in the end of the novel as a rebellion for her feminine freedom. Edna's death is as natural as her subordinate position in society, which doesn't mean she was punished to die due to the social morals. Her death is a celebration of Darwinian self. Carrie Meeber, however, is quite different from Edna Pontellier. Carrie naturally follows her heart and her dream without a clear awakening in her mind, and she just chooses her life according to what choices life gives her and naturally she realizes her dream unconsciously. Carrie's way makes those so called moral people feel immoral. Maybe sometimes many things are said easier than done and in some sense, it is not easy to simply divide them into right or wrong. Just as Dreiser (1992) said in the novel *Sister Carrie*,

"Man has not yet comprehended the dreamer any more than he has the ideal. For him the laws and morals of the world are unduly severed. Ever hearkening to the sound of beauty, straining for the flash of its distant wings, he watches to follow wearying his feet in traveling. So watched Carrie, so followed, rocking and singing."(p380)

Now let us walk into Carrie's world together.

At the very beginning, Carrie Meeber has been on the train to Chicago. She is a young small-town woman and comes to Chicago to help earn some money for her poor family. She finds work difficult to get, at the same time, factory work, she quickly finds, will yield only shabbiness and physical pain. Because of her illness, she loses her only job. Meanwhile, she is forced to face such choices: one is to find another job; the other is to go back to hometown. Carrie doesn't want to go back in fact. Carrie lingers a day on the street. At the time, she meets Drouet, whom she meets first on the train. the novel's plots come into another period after Carrie becomes Drouet's mistress and then meets Hurstwood. Carrie and Hurstwood are the two key figures of the novel. After they eloped together to New York, Carrie carves out her own career, while Hurstwood slides into failure. He becomes worse and worse. At last he commits suicide. Dreiser has described every plot with great details. Step by step, Dreiser suggests to his readers that environment determines everything. Human beings are only divided by strong or weak and are driven by their instinct. They have no rights to choose.

Dreiser believes "Environment is a kind of subtle and dominant power, which and desire together play a role. In Sister Carrie there are two main environments. One is Chicago—— an industrial big city; the other is New York—— a developed metropolis. Let us first look at Chicago of that time.

"With its strange illusion of hope and happiness, with its cascade of immigrants, its daily changing skyline, its gargantuan appetite, its mingling of slaughter houses and counting house, Chicago was the quit essential American city." (Lewis, 1973, p 45)

"Hail, Chicago! First of the daughters of the new world." (Lewis, 1973, p 56) This is the dazzled reaction when Dreiser came to Chicago for the first time, while this is also the first city where Carrie came.

In Chicago, Drouct is a traveling salesman. Money can be got easily and he knows how to use it to reach his aim. He dresses in fashion, and has full desire for woman. However on Carrie, what he loses is only money, because at the very beginning, he just has the sexual passion for Carrie. Accidentally, he doesn't sink himself so deep. In chapter Twelve, Droute is such a person who doesn't have a long time interest for anything. He merely has unusual and quite individual beauty.He has never put women on his deep heart. When he goes out on business, he will forget Carrie totally. Maybe on his way to Chicago, he thinks of her. Droute's character is a typical example. Such character results from that age. At the same time, just because of this, Carrie's leaving doesn't affect him so much, maybe just as one of women he has ever known will not contact with him.

As for Carrie, in Chicago, she has to choose from the following two respects rationally. Whether she continues to take herself as cheap labor force without special skills in the market of Chicago, using her virgin body to trudge on the cold windy street wearing the cold and cheap shoes with water pervading, or to satisfy Droute's lust to become the cost-higher goods? Under the later condition, although she loses her chastity, she can get the warm enough clothes against freezing coldness. Dreiser doesn't urge Carrie to make her choices. He just faithfully describes the material ease later she gets and her unsatisfied spiritual longing. Common people all first chase simple happiness. Then who is Carrie? Carrie is only an ordinary countryside girl without special talents or peculiar origin. Her only advantage is her good-looking. Supposed such a given her no choices. She happens to know Droute on the train. Though Droute is warm-hearted but with harbor malicious intentions, she becomes his mistress. This can not be simply accounted as Carrie's choices. Chicago chooses Carrie in his way. This is the choice of the environment—— Chicago.

Let us see New York, another existing environment. Different environments need different human beings, and create different human beings. When the second man of Carrie's life, Hurstwood eloped to New York with Carrie, their fates are quite different.

Hurstwood actually reflects a kind of social function and a beautified saloonkeeper. His total life develops from the social position—— the manager of a luxurious bar of Chicago. He is smooth and well behaved. All of these seem to be his nature; however, it results from his character. But his characters result from his vocation. This result affects his generation with bitterness and tragedy. Chicago is a newly developing city and Hurstwood belongs to this kind of place. A person like him going to New York is bound to face failure, because New York is a quite developed place. Famous and rich people are here and there. Therefore his desire for is not the only reason of his declining and his tragic degeneration, that is to say, in Chicago Hurstwood is the strong; in New York he becomes the weak and this is decided by environment but not by himself. Human beings can not escape himself and his own character. Once he abandons his own social part in Chicago, Hurstwood's tragedies happen one by one. That proves that environment decides man and even his character. Man is puny when they face the whole society.

What's more, originally hurstwood is a ration man. However, there is a detail about the money-locker Hurstwood just happen to find the money-locker unlocked, he gets the money. When his ration controls him, he changes his mind and wants to put it back. While at this time, the money-locker has been locked by itself. This matter, he can not clearly explain to his boss. Whether willing, he has become a thief. This detail proves that desire can make human beings lose ration, and human beings are the victim of the fate.

Let us re-consider Carrie. In fact, isn't she a tragic figure? When she comes to her sister's home and experiences kinds of reined and poor environment, her hopes begin to break. When she wants to find a job to survive, she suffers a lot. Next she gradually finds the man whose mistress she becomes doesn't want to marry her at all. Her spiritual struggles about whether living with Drouet or not, and she also silently accepts the life philosophy disobeying with her original religious and moral education. Before Hurstwood appears, she has been accustomed to endure all of these. She knows clearly she would live a lonely and poor life after Drouet leavers her. Later Hurstwood's interest and attraction for her makes her dying heart glow again and rebuild her confidence. At first it is such confidence and spiritual power make her able to dominate Drouet. She finally is a winner, because Hurstwood's desire feels dishearted at and end. If we say there are some faults in the portrayal of the character, Carrie, I think the author should give more psychological description of the character. However, one point that is worth mentioning is that the author has given us a perplexed picture to let us find the route sign. "Hurstwood's suicide is followed by concluding meditation, a vague sigh of discontent that is untouched by remorse." (Lewis, 1973, p31) This sentence seems to tell us that Carrie is still unsatisfied. In reality, Carrie is a seeker, a dreamer at the very beginning, but she is also perplexed about herself. Her every step is facilitated by the chances that environment and fate give her. She just mechanically reacts. This also indicates that one who only can feel but can not infer, merely can chase "beauty" by a roundabout road. She is often disappointed and depressed, but she still waits for comfortable and happy life becoming reality. She still continues to live in a dream.

Caroline Meeber, a girl from countryside, comes to Chicago to seek everything she dreamed. But factory work, she quickly finds, will yield only shabbiness and physical pain. She becomes the mistress of two men in turn, the first a glib traveling salesman, the second a saloon manager named Hustwood, who sacrifices his family and reputation to run off with her to New York. The consequence of Carrie's immorality is not punishment or death but a well-paid job on New York stage. It is Hustwood not Carrie, who slides into failure and despair and finally takes his own life by turning on the gas in a flophouse room. Hustwood's suicide is followed by Carrie's concluding meditation, a vague sigh of discontent that is untouched by remorse, though Dreiser at last tells us that Carrie will never be self-indulgent and satisfied.

Sister Carrie is a serious novel or to be exact, a tragedy. No matter Carrie, Drouet and Hurstwood, everyone according to his own fate and character lives through their life. On the surface Carrie is a weak woman, but she makes good use of all the things that fate gives her. From this angle, she is strong, just as Dreiser (1992) said in his another novel "The Financier",

"We are all born in a cruel and bitter world… Who can solve the unfair problems?... someone is born with talents and has the will, power to chase wealth, while someone lacks and is weak, ...Strong or weak—— this is the key point, the answer." (P78-83)

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Limin Bai was born in Shenyang, China in 1977. She received her master's degree in English Language and Literature from Nankai University, Tianjin in 2007.

She is currently a lecturer in the College of Foreign language, Hebei United University, Tangshan, China. Her research interests include American and British literature, culture, translation and English education.

Teacher Cognition vis-à-vis Vocabulary Teaching

Siamak Rahimi

Shahid Beheshti University, Tehran, Iran

Abstract—**What teachers know, believe, and discover about all aspects of their work during the classroom processes have been firmly requested since 1990s as a comprehensive investigation. In addition, vocabulary and the process of its construction according to a specific psycholinguistic model and the procedure of learning is a corresponding familiar topic in relation to teacher cognition. This paper is a case study considering four experienced teachers to recognize whether the process and constant syllabus of teaching vocabulary is interconnected to the materials or to the teacher's prior experience knowledge, beliefs, and culture. Consequently, such research is conducted to verify the assumption of vocabulary teaching as the teachers perceive it, and the influential information which can be practical in teacher education and development programs as well.**

Index Terms—**teacher cognition, vocabulary learning, prior knowledge, psycholinguistic model**

I. INTRODUCTION

The integral assumption of this paper can be condensed according to the research on second language pedagogy. To elucidate the preceding conceptualization, and consider all the related underpinning aspects of teacher cognition, the following criteria are established:

1. Teaching vocabulary and the related activities to enhance learning vocabulary has been one of the heated discussions for quite a long time, and describing a psycholinguistic model in relation to teachers' perceptions, beliefs, and knowledge is a state-of-the-art research.

2. "How teaching and learning takes place in context is the main goal of *classroom research" (Dornyei, 2007)*. Teacher's decisions and thinking are powerfully affected by their cognitions about teaching and learning (Borg, 1999). In addition, *action research* is done by teachers in order to achieve a better understanding of their pedagogical procedure and improving the effectiveness of their teaching (Dornyei, 2007). This research is utilized to observe the growth of reflective skills in teachers in the classroom through the action research.

The aim of this paper is the study of vocabulary teaching and teacher cognition by expanding on each with reference to the literature on both topics. The current process demonstrates teachers' understandings about vocabulary teaching and learning through classroom observations and the comparison with teachers' prior knowledge, education, and experience.

The relationship of teacher cognition and vocabulary teaching is a relatively unexplored topic, but the study of teacher cognition, in relation to other skills has been surveyed quite a lot. Borg (2003) describes 1990-2000 as the "decade of change", and also he identified 64 studies published between 1976 and 2002 in research on teacher knowledge and learning to teach, but the host of research on teacher cognition initiated in the 1990s.

In terms of topics and contexts, two integral areas in second language teaching have been scrutinized. As Borg (2003) puts it, 22 studies about grammar and 5 studies about reading in relation to teacher cognition is conducted up to the present time.

A. Teacher Cognition

Teacher cognition is defined as teacher's mental lives. Broadly speaking, it examines what teachers in second and foreign language contexts think, believe, or assume in relation to different aspects of their professions. Teacher cognition is a multidimensional conceptualization of teaching which encompasses *schooling*; early prolonged experience during initial learning, *professional coursework;* about syllabi, subject matter, practices and etc, *contextual factors* and *classroom practice*. This multidimensional term is better clarified according to Fig. 1, representing different aspects of teacher cognition by Borg (1997):
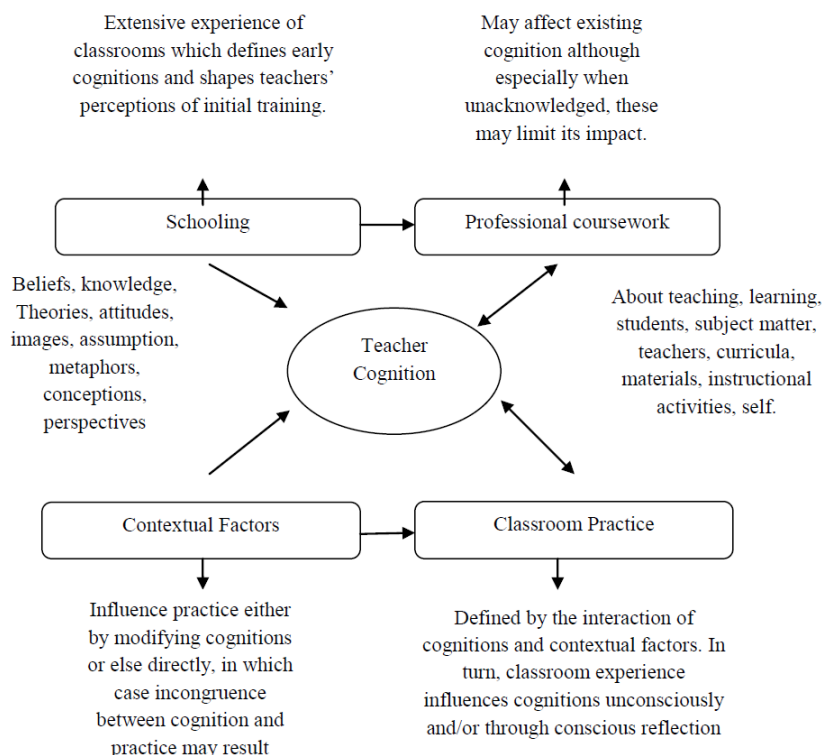
Extensive experience of classrooms which defines early cognitions and shapes teachers' perceptions of initial training.

May affect existing cognition although especially when unacknowledged, these may limit its impact.

Schooling → Professional coursework

Beliefs, knowledge, Theories, attitudes, images, assumption, metaphors, conceptions, perspectives

Teacher Cognition

About teaching, learning, students, subject matter, teachers, curricula, materials, instructional activities, self.

Contextual Factors → Classroom Practice

Influence practice either by modifying cognitions or else directly, in which case incongruence between cognition and practice may result

Defined by the interaction of cognitions and contextual factors. In turn, classroom experience influences cognitions unconsciously and/or through conscious reflection

Figure 1. Teacher cognition, schooling, professional education, and classroom practice (Borg, 1997)

In order to elaborate more on the procedure of teacher cognition in decision making during teaching vocabulary, a three-model theme adapted from Borg (2003) is considered: 1) cognition and prior language learning experience 2) cognition and teacher education, and 3) cognition and classroom practice.

The first theme involves the huge amount of experience that teachers accumulate during their experience as learners, what (Lortie, 1975) coined their 'apprenticeship of observation'. The vast numbers of research has been conducted about teachers' prior knowledge in relation to their work. (e.g., Bailey et al. 1996; Farrel 1999; Freeman 1993; Golombek 1998; Johnson 1994; Richards & Pinnigton 1998).

The second theme deals with the impact of teacher education and cognitive change. Lots of criticisms rejected the relationship as significant e.g. (Kagan, 1992), but a host of research believed in change of cognition in accordance with variable outcomes and individual developmental pathways (Freeman, 1993; Richards, Ho & Giblin, 1996).

In addition to the process of growth and self-development through pre-service and in-service education, the amalgamation of knowledge is not constrained to the previous knowledge, but to the ongoing process of classroom practices. During these practices, numerous considerations worth taking into account such as pedagogical concerns and knowledge, instructional considerations and maxims (Bailey, 1996; Bartels, 1999; Richards, 1996).

B. Vocabulary Teaching

Second language acquisition theory considers syntax, a pivotal part, while, vocabulary acquisition and lexical development, as (Mitchell & Myles, 1998) puts it, is treated in a "semi-autonomous way". Broadly speaking, most of the effective SLA models are tending toward comprehension, interaction, or production, as noted in (Cumming, 1990). To summarize, there has been a gap between syntax and lexical processing and development and in order to bridge the gap and also find a balanced view toward vocabulary acquisition, model builders should try to approach it as an integrating component into other frameworks not as ancillary, or "on the side" as it were (Haastrup and Henriksen, 2001).

In view of the fact, teachers' retrospective rationalization of what they do unconsciously during the classroom procedures is dependent upon teachers' mental lives, considering a psycholinguistic model in relation to vocabulary acquisition is indispensable. Fig. 2, presented by (Haastrup and Henriksen, 2001), considers all related dimensions of an appropriate psycholinguistic model to vocabulary learning. This model takes anthology of vocabulary research into consideration according to (Coady and Huckin, 1997) (Harley, 1995) (Paribakht and Wesche, 1999) (Schmitt and McCarthy, 1997):
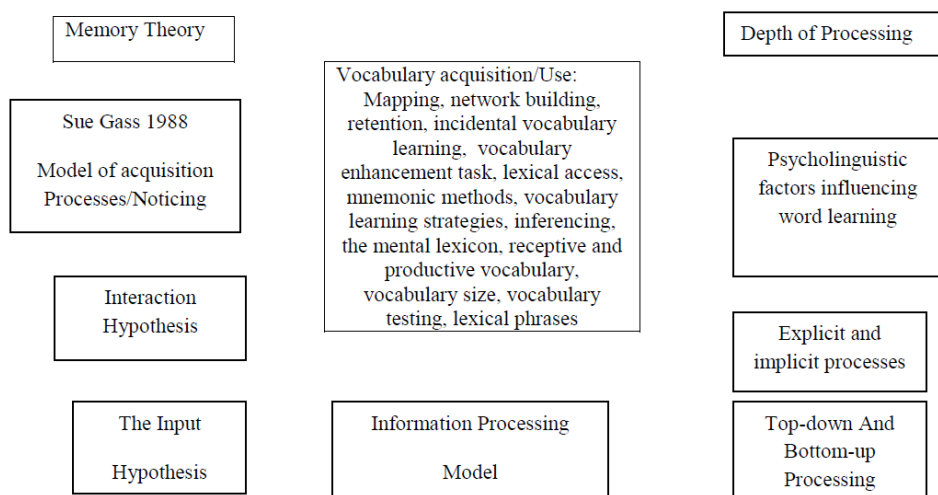
Figure 2. Examples of models and concepts from psycholinguistics and SLA theory (Haastrup and Henriksen, 2001)

In order to be more specific about three psycholinguistic stages of second language acquisition, (Levelt, 1989) suggests *representation, acquisition, and processing.* Consequently, introducing L1 model of vocabulary acquisition in relation to the L2 tailors our study to process and representation of vocabulary in the learner's mind and also the teacher's cognition.

Every lexical entry is made up of two components: the lemma and the lexeme. The lemma contains semantic and syntactic information about a word, e.g. word meaning and part of speech, and the lexeme contains morphological and formal information, e.g. spelling, and pronunciation. (Levelt, 1989). Fig. 3, shows the above terms:
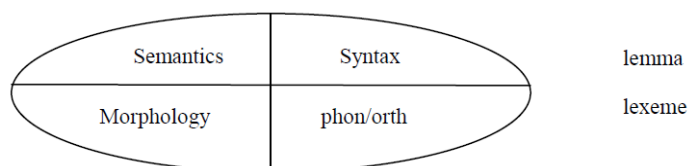
Figure3. The internal structure of a lexical entry (adapted from Levelt 1989)

Children acquiring their first language need highly contextualized input in order to extract semantic, syntactic, morphological, and phonological information. An alternative psycholinguistic model of vocabulary acquisition in L2 is more elaborated on in an article by (Jiang, 2000). She declares two distinguishing constraints on lexical development in L2 in instructional settings in comparison with L1. *Fist,* poverty of input in both quality and quantity in contextualized settings, *secondly,* the presence of an established conceptual/semantic system with an L1 lexical system closely associated with it. As a result, the learners in L2 settings pay more attention to formal aspects of the vocabulary e.g. spelling, pronunciation, and this stage lacks the lemma component of a lexical entry.

Accordingly, lexical development of a specific word evolves in the learning process through three stages: the first one is a formal stage, then as the learner's experience increments, the semantic and syntactic information by copying translation of an L1 happens, and finally, all the aspects of the lexical entry are established. Fig. 4, shows the pragmatic evolvement of the lexical entry:
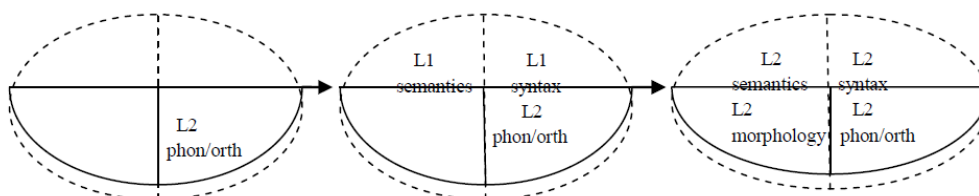
Figure 4. Lexical development in L2: from the formal stage to the integration stage (Jiang, 2000)

The psychologists and L2 vocabulary researchers believe that the more the learners are cautious about different aspects of a word, the higher the opportunities are that the new information will be retained. As a result, considering the above psycholinguistic models, if the individuals pay careful attention to the words' syntactical, semantic, morphological, pronunciation, and orthographical relations to other words, they are more likely to retain the word in the vocabulary learning during the word-focused activities (Hill and Laufer, 2003).

So far, we tried to explain the conditions of word formation and its representation both in L1 and L2.Therefore, these theories of psycholinguistic models can clarify our insight more powerfully toward teacher decision making and

learners' processing during classroom practices about vocabulary learning and teaching. But, methods and procedures of vocabulary teaching should be discussed more.

Below, some vocabulary teaching exercises in the classroom will be presented, some of these exercises include:
• Text-based vocabulary exercises (Paribakt and Wesche, 1997),
• The vocabulary levels test (Nation, 1990),
• Vocabulary notebooks (Schmitt & Schmitt, 1995),
• A multiple choice exercise and a gapped text (Hulstijn and Laufer, 2001),
• Consulting a dictionary, teacher's intervention, and using graphic devices e.g. pictures and different fonts and colors (Hill and Laufer, 2003).

Broadly speaking, each exercise needs its own strategy whether by the learner or the teacher's psychological interventions. Vocabulary learning strategies are classified into five strategies, as (Schmitt N. , 1997) cited in (Fowle, 2002): '*Social*', involving interaction with others; '*Determination*', deducing the meaning of a new word by one's self; '*Memory*', relating new materials to existing knowledge; '*Cognitive*', manipulation of knowledge by the learner; '*Metacognitive*', involving decision making about the learning process.

C. The present study

This paper attempts to illustrate the other aspect of language teaching which always has been neglected. Since 1990, a host of research has been done in relation to language cognition and education, but few of them focused on teacher cognition in relation to vocabulary teaching. Because of the paramount importance which grammar takes (Borg, 1999), the other skills are de-emphasized. Accordingly, there is a huge gap in literature about the importance of vocabulary teaching, as a result, the necessity and importance of vocabulary teaching in relation to teacher cognition is investigated. Therefore, the purpose of this study is finding new ideas about vocabulary teaching which a particular teacher in a specified classroom thinks works best, and also the perspectives behind their instructional decisions in relation to the current issue.

Research questions
1) Is there a connection between teacher cognition and vocabulary teaching?
2) What are those areas of cognitions which teachers try to focus on more while teaching vocabularies?

II. Method

Every research tries to find the response to developing questions of that paper according to the need of the current issue. At the beginning of this paper the data elicitation was considered to be in form of a valid questionnaire. But after the pilot study there were a number of problems in relation to reliability and validity of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was adapted from (Richards, 1996), and then some appropriate modifications were done to adjust the instrument to our context.

The other problem was from participants. Although we considered four highly experienced and MA holders in TEFL, a page of introduction and explanations was given to them in advance. After the first distribution of questionnaires, lots of questions came into the mind of the participants that eventually the questionnaire was revised into an interview. As a result, the decision of data collection changed into a modified, one-hour semi-structured interview. Semi-structured interviews are generally based around a set of topics or a series of open-ended questions, they are flexible, they help the interviewee to be an active part of the interview, and they cause a conversation to proceed freely (Borg, 2006, p.203).

A. Participants

Due to the nature of the current study, teachers with too much expertise were an indispensable section of our research. As it is generally accepted, novice teachers with little expertise would be considered a fallacy (Kagan, 1992). The inexperienced teachers would generally focus on classroom management rather than new ideas to handle the existing issue related to teaching.

Consequently, four highly experienced teachers who earned their MA in TEFL were considered as the best options. In this respect, not only the focus of attention would be teacher cognition, but their education that is one of the variables will be scrutinized fully.

Each of these teachers had 10 years of experience of English teaching in educational system in Iran, and also they had one commonality, that is, teaching in the ILI, one of the well-known institutes in Iran.

B. Procedure

In order to get teachers to talk about their beliefs, thoughts, and mental constructs, *verbal commentaries*, one of the widely used strategies in the study of language teacher cognition, is applied (Borg, 2006). The research elicitation method is a semi-structured interview. Interview is specifically chosen in this study in the belief that they were more suited to capturing beliefs than questionnaires. This interview focused on the teacher cognition: 1) cognition and prior language learning experience 2) cognition and teacher education, and 3) cognition and classroom practice. The presentation of data in this paper is influenced by the belief that qualitative research is best conducted through the interpretation of data which the researcher finds best. The data are shown as four cases; illustrating the personal view of

the interviewee and the thread of his mind while responding to the structured questions. Table 1 illustrates the list of questions used in the semi-structured interview:

TABLE 1.
SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW IN LANGUAGE TEACHER COGNITION

1. How did you spend time on vocabulary teaching?
- Incidentally
- Planned
- Your own decision (explain)
2. How did you introduce vocabulary?
3. What techniques did you use for clarification? (examples, synonyms, visual aids)
- Do you see any other way that you could have achieved greater clarity?
4. Did you check understanding of meaning? How?
5. Did you pay attention to the pronunciation of words?
6. Did you provide opportunity for the students to use the words? How?
7. Was vocabulary integrated with other aspects of the lesson or was it treated in isolation?
8. How do you know the students increased their knowledge?
9. What factor(s) generally affected your style of vocabulary teaching? How?
- Prior language learning experience
- Teacher education (school, university)
- Classroom practice

III. RESULT

Case 1:

Hamid was a 45-year-old male English teacher who had been teaching English for 18 years. He is an MA holder in TEFL from Azad University. His teaching was characterized by focusing on root explanation of what he called 'the experience of learning when he was an English student'.

In response to the first question, teaching vocabulary incidentally (as words came in) not according to a specified plan or objective, except the students didn't understand the meaning then he would go to his preferable approach, that is, root explanation.

In addition, he considered root teaching an interesting game not only for the students, but even for the teacher himself. For instance: to explain the word '*dictate*', he would refer to the already known words such as 'dictionary', 'indicate', 'predict', and try to familiarize the students with the suffix "dict", and then he would elaborate on meaning in suffix, prefix, and find an example to contextualize the word for the students. Moreover, he believed that guessing the meaning through root explanation is such a fun game for learners that he would say '*when I look at them, I see their eyes glittering while I was talking about the roots'.*

He didn't prefer eliciting the meaning of words during the presentation stage, except during the evaluation session.

The techniques which he used to clarify the meaning of the words include: giving examples, providing synonyms with similar suffixes and prefixes, and in relation to the level of the students and the difficulty of the words, he would resort to visual aids. Besides, he checked the understanding of meaning through current context, and even sometimes he would shift to mother tongue translation.

He also emphasized the pronunciation of the words, because he believed that words are tools of communication accordingly without correct pronunciation, negotiation of meaning would hinder.

He ascertained his idea of teaching that '*is there any other appropriate approach for teaching new vocabulary?*'

The last question in relation to our issue was factors affected his style of vocabulary teaching?

For the past 18 years, I've been teaching at the ILI. Here, as you know, we have to stick to the methodology. However, affected by the teacher training courses we have had, But, at the higher levels, when I have to teach longer words, the way I do it I think is more affected by the approach and method I used to study at the university.

As a result, Hamid's vocabulary teaching was dominantly preoccupied by his educational background as a student, although the methodology and approach in the context he was using was fixed.

Case 2

Davud is a 36-year-old male English teacher who had been teaching English for 11 years. He is an MA holder in TEFL from Tabriz University. His favored technique was depending on his experience as a whole in relation to existing context of teaching. As a matter of fact he is so confident that he sees no necessity to rely on spoon feeding approaches.

As an introduction, he enjoyed the incidental learning and at times he follows his own approach. '*it depends on the level I am teaching, the students, the course objective, and the vocabulary itself'.*

He would prefer more often introducing vocabulary from known to known because of the lesser cognitive load that may enhance learning that specified word. But he adds that depending on the difficulty of the word and the certain level,

I may use different approaches. And in addition, this great sense of achievement of vocabulary learning is best received through educated guesses is really something.

In response to the question of the appropriate techniques for meaning clarification, he would prefer a variety of techniques according to the context of teaching: giving examples, providing synonyms, using context, visual aids, and even other techniques. Sometimes he would use 'weird comparison' with the native language as an interesting and practical device.

He believed on teaching vocabulary and pronunciation simultaneously, and considered it as an important part of language teaching:

The least is boosting the students' self-confidence through mastery of such subtleties, and I believe it is an integral part of language teaching.

Even he hoped for a change in his own approach if the last one was not practical. And he preferred indirect and different techniques for testing learners' comprehension.

And finally the last question about teacher cognition and the prior knowledge in which Davud stored as a repertoire to use in his teaching career will come as follow:

I won't ever forget the way I learned the joy of building my vocabulary through my teacher's detailed and versatile vocab-teaching. My teacher would spend a whole session on teaching anything directly or indirectly related to a single vocabulary item including shadowing of meaning, synonyms, antonyms, derivatives, homonyms, idioms, whatever you can imagine.

As a result, Davud' approach for vocabulary teaching is more dependent upon students' competency, level, and knowledge rather than the preplanned syllabus. And also he mentioned all the three variables (prior language experience, teacher education, and classroom practice) as important ones in forming his concept for vocab-teaching.

Case 3

Mohsen is a 30-year-old male English teacher who had been teaching English for 5 years. He is an MA holder in TEFL from Tarbiat Modares University. His main characteristic of teaching inspired from his prior knowledge as a university student, and classroom practice. Davud didn't believe in his cognition related to his teaching training courses.

From the beginning of the interview he frequently insisted on preparing himself before attending the classroom, so that he would check the pronunciation of every single word, planning each word according to its frequency and, etc.

Mohsen would like to initiate the lesson with already known words related to that session in order to link the semantic, syntactic, pronunciation, and spelling aspects of the previous words to the current words. And also he often relies on the students for guessing and doing the exercise by themselves.

Mohsen preferred all the mentioned strategies to clarify the meaning of the words. Not only he enjoyed using examples, synonyms, visual aids as tools for clarification, he also referred to glosses, and antonyms as helpful devices.

In response to the answer of meaning comprehension by the learners, he would say '*I may ask them if they have understood the meaning well e.g. I ask them to make new sentences with the new words, and also from their facial expression everything is clear whether they got the meaning or not*'.

Mohsen believed in checking pronunciation meanwhile teaching the words, he also checked his own pronunciation before attending the classroom. He would encourage the students to use the words in context, and voluntarily make sentences. In that way he may check the students' pronunciation and comprehension at the same time. He would integrate learning vocabulary with the reading and conversation in that lesson to make the meaning more plausible and meaningful.

Mohsen didn't prefer the fixed routine of procedure for teaching vocabulary; however, he would say that '*the way I teach is different from one class to the other, because the students, the context of teaching, actually everything is different from one class to the other.*' And also he advised the students to read some supplementary materials e.g. magazine, extensively to make a deeper understanding from that particular session.

And finally, Mohsen believed in prior knowledge learning experience, and classroom practice as the most integral part of teacher cognition:

Certainly anybody knowing a second language has gathered a lot of experience during his/her own language experience. These experiences will actually affect his/ her teaching career.

Case 4

Mahdi is a 32-year-old male English teacher who had been teaching English for 8 years. He is a disciplined teacher, that is, he would like sticking to the methodology and preplanned syllabus.

Mahdi attempted to regard the planned syllabus before attending the classroom; therefore he taught the new words through finding a relationship with this lesson to the previous one.

For instance, to clarify the meaning of the word "talkative", I use a simple definition first, using some words they're familiar with:

**Talkative: A talkative person is one who likes to talk a lot!

As a second step, I'll give them a couple of examples using the new word in simple sentences:

**My friend is a talkative guy! He tells his whole life story to everyone he knows.

**I can't stand Rita! She's too talkative.

However, in some cases, depending on the nature of the word I intend to clarify, I use real objects or visual aids like pictures.

Mahdi did believe in guessing the meaning of the words as one the useful strategies in assisting the learners to have greater effectiveness. '*I do agree! When they guess the meaning of a word from the context, a situation, or a picture, they tend to remember it for a longer period of time, maybe due to some psychological reasons (a sense of self-centeredness, self-confidence, or accomplishment).*'

He even emphasized the use of '*input flood*' as a practical technique to increase students' vocabulary input through using them in sentences and giving them some examples.

For clarification of meaning he would prefer all the recommended strategies: giving examples, providing synonyms, and visual aids, except using the context. In terms of pronunciation, he would say that: '*Students get to pronounce a word the way they do it the first time! If they're exposed to wrong pronunciation the first time, they'll maintain it for a long time; in fact, it would be fossilized!*'

Another interesting technique which Mahdi used in the class was the way he checked the students' understanding through '*selecting some related words and asking them to write a small paragraph using all those words*'.

And finally, Mahdi elaborated on the last question meticulously; he unbelievably related his knowledge in English teaching to the teacher education courses which he had had during his university education, and also during the teacher training courses he had for attending as a teacher in the ILI.

In order to condense the preceding data into a comprehensible and straightforward notion, the following Table is illustrated:

TABLE 2.
INFLUENCING COGNITIONS IN RELATION TO VOCABULARY TEACHING

	Prior language experience	Teacher education	Classroom practice	Other
Hamid	Following the vocabulary teaching , he had learnt during his apprenticeship in institution	preoccupied by his educational background	Limited	?
Davud	Facilitate in his teaching	Practical in the classroom	undeveloped	vocabulary teaching is more dependent upon students' competency, level, and knowledge
Mohsen	Integral	?	Integral	?
Mahdi	?	Most integral aspect of his cognition comprised of his university and teacher training courses	Planned syllabus	'input flood'

IV. DISCUSSION

The data we have discussed here shows that teachers' decision about teaching vocabulary are fully affected through so many variables e.g. 'an interacting range of experiential, cognitive, and contextual factors' (Borg, 1999). The first variable, as elaborated by (Lortie, 1975), is called "apprenticeship of observation". It suggests that teachers' knowledge is fully influenced by their educational and professional experiences which are accumulated during their life span. The second one is somehow highly personalized; therefore the cognitive factor is individually different, because of the change of cognition in accordance with variable outcomes and individual developmental pathways (Badger & White, 2001). And the last factor related to teachers' decision making is contextual factors or classroom practice which include: pedagogical consideration in the classroom and instructional maxims (Richards 1996).

Although each individual's response would be personalized to his own teaching and learning procedures, there were some stances which these teachers' ideas overlap in certain aspects. They all had consensus over clarifying the meaning of the words through giving examples, visual aids, and synonyms and, etc. All these commonalities and differences do not prove the justification of which cognitions are right and which are wrong! Teachers' cognitions have been evaluated according to several criteria:

• The clarity of reason teachers give for their instructional decisions
• The consistency of teachers' positions
• Teachers' ability to cite evidence
• Teachers' awareness of the factors which have led to development of these cognitions
• Teachers' willingness to consider alternatives to the grammar teaching practices and cognitions

These criteria help teachers analyze their teaching continuum, reflect on their practices, and clarify or modify the stages of teaching as acceptable or vague. Consequently, in the future the relationship of teaching and learning will be more reasonable, and teachers' decisions are more valid and plausible.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The essence of this discussion is that by studying L2 vocabulary teaching in relation to teacher cognition, a reasonable concept will be suggested about what the formal vocabulary teaching would be, and what the teachers do or know.

One stance here is provided by (Mitchell, Brumfit and Hooper, 1994) that according to study of English and foreign language teachers, those teachers' avoidance of technical vocabulary explanation…seemed linked to a lack of knowledge/insecurity in using grammatical or discourse terminology. Some support for this concept is provided by Mohsen and Mahdi's techniques in teaching vocabulary. They almost always for introducing the new words resort to the planned procedures. However, teachers who are more confident in their metalinguistic knowledge (such as Hamid) would never think of any preparation for pronunciation or other properties of new words.

According to psychological models of vocabulary teaching and learning (Haastrup and Henriksen, 2001), before teaching any word, all related psychological aspects of a single word should be taken into consideration (top-down and bottom-up processing, information processing, memory theory, input and interaction hypothesis and, etc). Therefore teacher's cognition would be in full correspondence with teaching that word, and the present condition of the learners in the classroom. For instance: Davud relied more on students' competency, level, and knowledge rather than the preplanned syllabus. He believed that teaching every certain vocabulary needs a direct attention to the students' ability to handle the situation, and afterwards he would go for the appropriate technique that suits those students and context.

As a result, we can plausibly come to conclusion that because of personalized nature of every teacher's cognition, all the variables related to cognition (prior knowledge and learning experience, teacher education, and classroom practice) would be invaluable according to the contextual factors. For instance: Hamid believed in the technique which he learned the vocabularies during his educational experience as a student. Davud agreed upon three variables as integral parts of his teaching career, he would shift to one of these variables in relation to the students' level and proficiency. Mohsen insisted on educational training which he received during his university study, and Mahdi would emphasize teaching training course he had had during pre-service teacher education.

This paper does not try prescribing any hard and fast rule about teaching and learning vocabulary. Besides it helps generate data about L2 teachers and teaching which may be useful in teacher education, in-service contexts. And also it would shed the light on teachers' problems in classroom, and enable the teachers to reflect on teaching techniques which are more practical.

A final issue which worth attention is the instructional context studied here confined to four non-native teachers, holding MA grades, teaching adults in Iran. This context may not be generalizable to the other contexts due to teachers' proficiency level, and long years of experience. The reason for selecting highly experienced and educated teachers would be gathering more reliable data to interpret, irrespective of any extraneous variables.

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Siamak Rahimi was born in Kermanshah in 1983. He received his B.A in 2006 in English Literature in Razi University, Kermanshah, Iran. He earned his M.A in 2012 in TEFL in Shahid Beheshti University, Tehran, Iran.

He is an instructor in Islamic Azad University, Sureh University, and the ILI (Iran Language Institute). He is mainly interested in CDA, Testing, and Research studies.

Mr. Rahimi is also the directing manager in Tolu-e-Danesh Kish company.

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