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Contents

REGULAR PAPERS

- | | |
|--|-----|
| Context, Expectation and Conversational Implicature: A Pragmatic Analysis of <i>Good Jiyon Cook</i> | 857 |
| Pragmatic Features of Emotional Discourse
<i>Nana Lomia</i> | 865 |
| Language and Gender Differences in Jordanian Spoken Arabic: A Sociolinguistics Perspective
<i>Ahmad Mohammad Ahmad Al-Harabsheh</i> | 872 |
| Effects of Using the Online Dictionary for Etymological Analysis on Vocabulary Development in EFL College Students
<i>Abdulaziz Ibraheem Fageeh</i> | 883 |
| Intra-lingual Code Alternation in Arabic: The Conversational Impact of Diglossia
<i>Abdel-Rahman Abu-Melhim</i> | 891 |
| The Comparative Impact of Autonomy and Critical Thinking on EFL Learners' Writing Achievement
<i>Behdokht Mall-Amiri and Fatemeh Sheikhy</i> | 903 |
| Misinterpretations of Intercultural Communication among Chinese Foreign Language Educators
<i>Qunxing Zhang</i> | 917 |
| Local Evaluation Criteria for Global Textbooks: A Case Study from Iran
<i>Mehdi Karamifar, Hossein Barati, and Manijeh Youhanaee</i> | 923 |
| The Effects of Foreign Language Anxiety and Test Anxiety on Foreign Language Test Performance
<i>Masoomah Salehi and Fahimeh Marefat</i> | 931 |
| The Tragic Vision in the Fair Youth Group in <i>Shakespeare's Sonnets</i>
<i>Fenghua Ma</i> | 941 |
| The Role of <i>Structure Novelty</i> on the Efficacy of Recasts: An Experimental Study on Iranian Upper-intermediate EFL students
<i>Mohammad Reza Najafi and Zoobinshid Arshad</i> | 949 |
| The Impact of Teaching Questioning on the Iranian EFL Learners' Problem-solving in Writing
<i>Amir Marzban and Zahra Jalili</i> | 958 |
-

The Analysis of Writers' Stance: A Comparison between Two Reviews on <i>Desperate Housewives</i> <i>Xiufeng Tian and Yueyuan Liang</i>	965
Teachers' Feedback and Students' Motivation in English for General and Specific Purposes Courses in Iran <i>Sajad Davoudi-Mobarakeh, Abbas Eslami-Rasekh, and Hossein Barati</i>	973
The Impact of Using Computer-aided Argument Mapping (CAAM) on the Improvement of Writing Achievement of Iranian Learners of English <i>Parviz Maftoon, Parviz Birjandi, and Pantea Pahlavani</i>	982
Semantic Prosody Analysis for Commentary of China's National Publicity Film Based on Appraisal Theory <i>Ling Zhang</i>	989
A Content Evaluation of Iranian Pre-university ELT Textbook <i>Ataollah Maleki, Fariba Mollaei, and Robab Khosravi</i>	995
The Effect of Coded and Uncoded Written Corrective Feedback Types on Iranian EFL Learners' Writing Accuracy <i>Shima Ahmadi-Azad</i>	1001
A Contrastive Study of English and Chinese Book Reviews on Linguistics: Perspective of Attitudinal Meanings <i>Chunsong Cheng</i>	1009
The Role of Cross-linguistic Experience on English Idiom and Proverb Comprehension: A Case of Iranian Turkish Learners of English as a Foreign and Third Language <i>Behnaz Moein, Robab Khosravi, and Hooshang Yazdani</i>	1017
The Evaluation of Iranian EFL Textbooks from Post Method Principles Pedagogy <i>Yalda Hooman</i>	1026
On Cross-cultural Pragmatic Failures in C/E Interpretation <i>Xuedong Shi</i>	1033
Does Extensive Reading Combined with Form-focused or Meaning-focused Activities Affect Lexical Collocational Knowledge of Iranian Learners? <i>Fatemeh Khonamri and Sakine Roostaei</i>	1038
The Relationship between Self-efficacy and Writing Performance across Genders <i>Felor Hashemnejad, Masoud Zoghi, and Davoud Amini</i>	1045
Mules and Women: Identify and Rebel — Janie's Identity Quest in " <i>Their Eyes Were Watching God</i> " <i>Hongzhi Wu</i>	1053
The Effect of Authentic and Inauthentic Materials in Cultural Awareness Training on EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension Ability <i>Behzad Barekat and Hamed Nobakhti</i>	1058
Attitudes toward the Effectiveness of Communicative and Educational Language Games and Fun Activities in Teaching and Learning English <i>Marjan Sobhani and Mohammad Sadegh Bagheri</i>	1066
An Empirical Study of the Teaching Mode of Scenarios Simulation in Business English under Verbal Behavior Theory <i>Jinyu Dong</i>	1074
EFL Learners' Self-efficacy, Metacognitive Awareness, and Use of Language Learning Strategies: How Are They Associated? <i>Mania Nosratinia, Maryam Saveiy, and Alireza Zaker</i>	1080

Context, Expectation and Conversational Implicature: A Pragmatic Analysis of *Good*

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Abstract—From a neo-Gricean perspective, Q-inference-based accounts of the interpretation of scalar expressions have been elaborated. This paper analyses the communicated meanings of English *good*, an example of a common scalar expression, by focusing on the loose or casual use of language in daily English in a neutral context. It shows that the use of *good*, which is understood to induce scalar implicature, can frequently result in I-inference. While Q-inference is based on linguistic factors (specifically, the semantic strength of linguistic expressions), I-inference is guided by ideas in common. This paper stresses that deriving a scalar implicature from *good* depends on the degree to which the listener is sensitive to type of context and to expectation.

Index Terms—*good*, Q-inference, scalar implicature, I-inference, I-implicature, context, expectation, First Maxim of Quantity, Second Maxim of Quantity

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper tries to explicate the semantic underspecification of the English scalar expression *good* by looking at the meaning of *good* in the three types of context suggested by Katsos, Breheny, and Williams (2005), namely, *upward-entailing structures* with *upper-bound*, *lower-bound*, and *neutral* discourse contexts. The recovery of the communicated meanings of *good* in a neutral context and the inferential aspects of this recovery are discussed in detail. We will address the gap between *good*'s well-known default conversational implicature (scalar implicature) and the meanings speakers express by it in loose use.

The analytic framework of this study refers to Levinson's (2000) pragmatic principles, specifically the *Q-principle* and the *I-principle*. According to the Q-principle, the speaker provides *sufficient* information (and not less), and thus the listener tends to interpret what is unsaid as untrue. According to the I-principle, the speaker provides the *necessary* amount of information (and not more), and thus, the listener tends to interpret what left unsaid based on his or her own world knowledge. Observe example (1):

(1) Tom: It's OK. Oh. No, it's good.

Lisa: I know what you mean. It's not too excellent. It's not too bad. It's ... just good.

We can judge (1) to be plausible because we perceive *good* to be a scalar expression and the speaker to have some degree of quality in mind. Thus, (1) suggests that there is often a difference between the denotative meaning of *good* itself and the speaker's implicature in using it, and that the listener can infer the intended meaning. At first, it seems plausible to analyse the generalized conversational implicature of *good* as a scalar one. However, strictly speaking, the interpretative aspects of Lisa's interpretation of *good* (namely, *It's not too bad*, *It's ... just good*) are not derived from the Q[quantity]-inference (Inference under the influence of the Q-principle is called 'Q-inference'), and fall outside the realm of scalar implicature. Consider the following utterances:

(2) a. Teachers tell their students good things.

b. Good movies are popular.

In these utterances, the question of scalar implicature (<not excellent>) as such does not arise. In (2a), *good* means literally and simply <good>. However, it can still carry some extra meaning, for instance, <helpful>. In (2b), *good* does not carry a scalar implicature; rather, it is interpreted in the sense of <well made>. That is, although *good* here is a scalar expression, it is not seen as automatically implicating the upper-binding meaning <not excellent> that the Q-principle would induce. Here, in dealing with various uses of *good*, we raise the question of whether it is sufficient to take Levinson's view that the default meaning of *good* is <not excellent>. This paper shows that *good* in a neutral context also induces I-inference, and thus that some of the interpretations of *good* can be accounted for by applying Levinson's I-principle in addition to the Q-principle.

II. LEVINSON'S ACCOUNT

In general, it is supposed that we infer a Quantity-based implicature (scalar implicature) from a scalar predicate. For example, Horn (1989) and Levinson (2000) provide Q-inference-based accounts of the meanings of scalar expressions, in which the listener is capable of inferring the content of a scalar expression based on the assumption that the speaker is trying to provide information that is as sufficient as possible.

The pragmatic meaning of *good* in English has been analysed by means of a scalar implicature derived by applying the Q[quantity]-principle from the perspective of neo-Gricean pragmatics (cf. Horn, 1989; Levinson, 2000). The Q-principle, which is developed from Grice's First Maxim of Quantity ('Make your contribution as informative as is required') (Grice, 1975), focuses on the speaker's attempt to give sufficient verbal information to the listener as best she can. More precisely, it is as follows:

The Q-Principle (Levinson, 2000, p. 76)

'Do not provide a statement that is informationally weaker than your knowledge of the world allows, unless providing an informationally stronger statement would contravene the I-principle'.

In contrast, the I[nformativeness]-principle (Levinson, 2000) is developed from Grice's Second Maxim of Quantity ('Do not make your contribution more informative than is required') (Grice, 1975):

The I-Principle (Levinson, 2000, p. 114)

'Say as little as necessary; that is, produce the minimal linguistic information sufficient to achieve your communicational ends (bearing Q in mind)'.

The Q-principle is hearer oriented (Horn, 1989). In other words, under the Q-principle, the listener assumes that the speaker provides enough information for the listener to infer that what the speaker has left unsaid is not true. This derived meaning to which the Q-principle applies is called Q-implicature (also 'generalized conversational implicature'). Scalar implicature have been categorized as a kind of Q-implicature (Gazdar, 1979; Hirschberg, 1991; Horn, 1989; Levinson, 1983; Levinson, 2000).

Along this line, *good* is analysed as a position on a scale consisting of a contrasting set of alternates <excellent, good> (Horn, 1989, p. 232; Levinson, 2000, p. 220): It is assumed that the semantically stronger expression, *excellent*, and a weaker expression, *good*, form a scale, and that the speaker's choice of *good* places his or her meaning at a certain point on this scale and not further. It is assumed that in an expanded positive scale such as <excellent, good, ok>, and a negative scale such as <terrible, bad, mediocre>, each item in the positive range implies the negation of the meaning of the stronger item in the positive range (that is, the more positive item) and vice versa. According to the Q-principle, the speaker provides sufficient information; thus, the speaker's choice of an informationally weaker expression, *good*, as opposed to an informationally stronger expression, *excellent*, conveys that the quality is generally not over *good* level. For example, if someone says *It was good*, then the listener interprets this to mean that it was good but not excellent, because the speaker used the weaker form. Therefore, from such an utterance, the implicature <It was not excellent> is derived. As a result of this particular Q-inference, *good* is regarded as having a default scalar conversational Q-implicature, <not excellent> (Levinson, 2000, p. 221).

III. THE USE OF GOOD ACROSS CONTEXTS

Levinson's Q-inference-based account, however, has only a limited ability to deal with the communicated meanings of a wide range of uses of *good*. This section examines whether and how the scalar implicature of *good* is generated in different contexts by adopting Katsos, Breheny, and Williams' context schema of upper-bound, lower-bound, and neutral discourse contexts (Katsos et al., 2005).

A. Upward-entailing Structures with an Upper-bound Discourse Context

Katsos, Breheny, and Williams (2005) analyse the generation of a scalar implicature according to context type.¹ They distinguish contexts based on the semantic entailment of the sentence and the purpose of discourse. Upward-entailment is the semantic inference that allows valid entailment to a superset from a subset (Saeed, 2009). Affirmative sentences are an example of upward-entailing structures—for instance, in the case below, if (3a) is true, logically (3b) is necessarily also true, but if (3b) is true it does not necessarily mean that (3a) is true; thus, (3a) entails (3b), but not vice versa.²

- (3) a. Mary bought an Italian ice cream.
- b. Mary bought an ice cream.

An upper-bound discourse context is one in whose purpose scalar implicature plays an important role—in other words, where it has relevance in conversation. Relevance is a psychological property, and an utterance is regarded as having relevance as an input only when it achieves a cognitive effect (Sperber & Wilson, 1995; Sperber & Wilson, 2006).³

¹ Katsos et al. (2005) demonstrate experimentally that a scalar implicature of *some*, for example, may or may not be generated depending on the context. For further discussion about the generation of scalar implicature across the three types of context, see (Breheny, Katsos, & Williams, 2006).

² In contrast, negative sentences are an example of downward-entailing structures, meaning those whose semantic inference entails a subset from a superset. For instance, below, if (1b) is true, (1a) is logically true, but not vice versa. Thus, (1b) entails (1a), but not vice versa.

(1) a. Mary did not buy an Italian ice cream.

 b. Mary did not buy an ice cream.

The antecedents of conditionals, and relative clauses modified by a universal quantifier *every*, are also characterised as downward-entailing structures.

³ According to Sperber and Wilson (1995), the cognitive effect of an utterance is achieved by interacting with and strengthening or eliminating the listener's existing assumptions or by producing new ones.

Let us take the following example of an upward-entailing structure with an upper-bound discourse context. In the following situation, where a film is being selected for an Academy Award nomination or an everyday situation; for example, Bill is looking for an excellent one,

(4) Bill: How was the movie?

Sue: It was good.

good triggers the scalar implicature <not excellent>. The purpose of Bill's utterance is to check the quality of the movie and make possible the identification of an excellent movie. Bill believes that Sue will choose the most informative expression and convey the upper-bound meaning. The implicature is very important in this context, where it is expected that sufficient information, as far as Sue can give it, will be provided. Bill interprets Sue's utterance as implying that <It was good, but it wasn't excellent>, because Sue chose the weaker alternative *good* instead of *excellent*. If Sue had thought the movie was excellent, she would have used the word *excellent*.

B. Upward-entailing Structures with a Lower-bound Discourse Context

A lower-bound discourse context is one where inference of scalar expression is not needed, and the basic (or 'plain', in Katsos et al.'s term (2005) meaning satisfies the purposes of the discourse. In other words, a lower-bound discourse context is a situation where a scalar implicature does not have discursive relevance. In some conversational contexts, scalar implicature is not induced—for example, when *good* does not trigger any special meaning:

(5) Bill: Why are you going to COEX?⁴

Sue: I want to see a good movie.

In (5), *good* should be taken in its barest, most basic meaning. Bill is showing interest in Sue's plans. He is not expecting any judgment of quality from Sue about any movies. Thus, Bill does not proceed to the inference of any deeper or more complex meaning of *good*. Sue's response itself satisfies the purpose of Bill's utterance and does not activate a scalar implicature.

C. Upward-entailing Structures Which Are Discourse Neutral

A neutral context is one where the listener is not sure whether it is upper- or lower-bound, and thus appears in situations where there is no clue or assumption that helps the listener judge if a scalar implicature would have relevance or not. Consider:

(6) The director saw some good movies. He is going to check the others later.

(7) It is a good movie, too.

In (6) and (7), we are not sure whether *good* means <good, not excellent> or just <good> or <simply good>. This is because we do not know the purpose of the discourse in these utterances and thus cannot be certain about the generation of scalar implicatures. It is very common to hear *good* in this kind of context. Examples include when we happen to overhear part of someone's speech, read a newspaper headline or advertisement slogan, and so on. In these cases, we cannot identify whether *good* is used in an upper-bounding or a lower-bounding context: There might be a scalar implicature or there might not.

IV. DIFFERENCES IN THE MEANING OF GOOD IN UPWARD-ENTAILING STRUCTURES WHICH ARE DISCOURSE NEUTRAL

As we have seen in section III.A. above, it is clear that *good* has a scalar implicature when it appears in an upward-entailing structure with an upper-bound context. This case has been analysed by Horn (1989) and Levinson (2000). However, we also need to focus on the interpretation of *good* in contexts where the purpose of the utterance is not clear from the listener's perspective. This section discusses the communicated meanings of *good* in a neutral context by considering speaker-oriented rather than hearer-oriented interpretations (that is, those which focus on the characteristics of the speaker's specific utterance, rather than assuming an ideal speaker and focusing on the hearer's understanding), and investigates how these meanings are recovered.

A. Non-Q-implicature

People often use *good* when expressing a positive feeling. For example,

(8) Bill: Do you like it?

Sue: Needless to say, it's good.

Here, Sue expresses that she is fully satisfied with 'it' and does not need to provide more information on this point. Her utterance signals an ample degree of satisfaction. Sue does not want to go into great detail about it, and her utterance is sufficiently (not weakly) informative given Bill's question. Furthermore, strictly speaking, she does not convey her awareness of the weak informativeness of her utterance to Bill. That is, Sue does not care how her use of the scalar expression *good* is interpreted. Here, unless Bill is evaluating the quality of 'it', Q-inference is not required.

B. I-implicature

Consider the following utterances:

⁴ A mall in Seoul.

- (9) a. I am glad I got a good score in the PGA competition.
b. You have to memorize these to get a good score.

The communicated meaning of *good* in each utterance is not accounted for by applying the Q-principle. That is, (9a) could be said by (e.g.) a golfer who has won a competition, for instance during a TV interview. In this case the communicated meaning of *good* could be recovered as something close to <excellent>. In contrast, (9b) could be said by a language class instructor urging the students to listen and remember some vocabulary items. In this situation, the listeners will not interpret the meaning of *good* as <not excellent> as generated by the Q-principle; instead, they are likely to interpret it as <very high or the highest score>.

The communicated meanings of *good* in (9) constitute strengthened or supplied content based on context. The recovered (specified) meanings of each utterance can be analysed by applying Levinson's I[nformativeness]-principle (Levinson 2000). According to the I-principle, the speaker needs not state the obvious. Even if the speaker says little, the listener can infer a stereotypical meaning from social (non-linguistic) and world knowledge. This principle is speaker-oriented. Meaning under the influence of the I-principle is called 'I-implicature'.

On the basis of the I-principle, the listener does not expect the speaker to say too much or speak in detail. In (9a) the listener can derive meanings such as <in the top range>, <one of the top three>, or <first, second, or third prize>. This is because the listener infers a meaning from related background knowledge. If, for instance, an athlete who has performed well in a competition describes his or her feat and the situation surrounding it in detail in an interview, the listener may question why the athlete needs to give so much detail. This question may presume that it is natural for the speaker to desire to appear modest and thus to minimize 'praise of self' (Leech, 1983, p. 136), so that listeners do not think that he or she is bragging. Similarly, in (9b), the listener likely does not want the speaker to say something like, for example, 'You have to memorize these to get a good score ... that is, if your goal is IELTS 6.5, a score of 6.5, or if your goal is IELTS 7.0 or above, a score of 7.0 or above'. It would be quite superfluous to provide this information because it can be inferred without difficulty by various listeners according to their needs.

C. A Gap between the Speaker's Meaning and the Default Scalar Implicature

Speakers with different expectations can convey different meanings by saying *good*. In the following conversation, the communicated meaning of *good* varies according to Jane's expected score.

(10) Bill: What did you get?

Jane: I got a good score.

Let us imagine some different situations.

(i) If Jane had expected and got a B, *good* would just mean *good*—<as expected> or <not bad>. When expectations are not high, *good* seems to mean <not bad>.

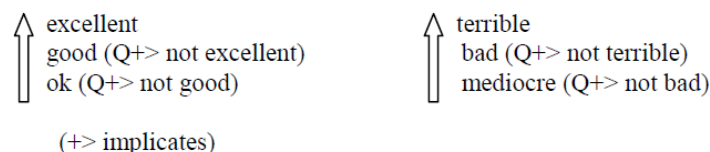
(ii) If Jane had expected a C or a D but actually got a B, she could mean that her score was <satisfactory>, <better than expected>, or <not bad>.⁵

(iii) If Jane had expected a B+ and got a B, *good* could mean <a little less than expected>.

(iv) There may be no particular expectation, in which case the speaker may just mention the grade, B, with no room for implicature. In this case, *good* will not be used, though it might be mentioned, as for example *It says 'good' on my report card*.

It must be highlighted that in these situations, no Q-implicature (scalar implicature) of *good* in Jane's utterance is intended at all and can be excluded by the listener if he or she already knows Jane's expectation of her score.⁶

The implicature <not bad> of *good* is not accounted for by Q-inference, because there is no entailment relation between the linguistic forms *good* and *bad* (the degree of semantic informativeness between them is not established); thus, a scale like *<good, bad> (or vice versa) is impossible. Horn (1989, p. 232) suggests a positive scale such as <excellent, good, ok>, and a negative scale such as <{terrible/awful}, bad, mediocre>, not something like *<good, bad>—an argument which was accepted by Levinson (2000, p. 128). In Horn's unidirectional scale, scalar implicature is generated within a positive scale or within a negative scale, separately:



Differences between I-inferences and Q-inferences (Levinson, 2000, p. 119) are illustrated below:

⁵ If Jane had heard a lot of concern expressed by her teachers about her previous academic performance, her utterance in (10) might have implied that her score was an improvement on her previous results; that is, she could have meant <I got a very good score> or <I got an excellent score> (by her own criteria), or <I wasn't required to see my teacher after the test>. The latter meaning is regarded as a 'particularized conversational implicature', because the listener needs a special scenario in order to derive it.

⁶ It may be possible for the listener who focuses on Jane's use of this lexical item to interpret *good* as <not excellent> due to her use of a semantically weak form.

I-inferences	Q-inferences
inferences to more (situation-)specific interpretations	inferences to more (scalarly) precise interpretations
positive in character	negative in character
typically guided by stereotypical assumptions	no reference to stereotypical assumptions
non-metalinguistic	metalinguistic

(We have inserted ‘situation-’ and ‘scalarly’ into this table from Levinson (2000) to clearly show the differences between I-and Q-inference.)

The case where *good* implies <not bad> is not mentioned among Levinson’s pragmatic inferences (Levinson, 2000).⁷ The surface form of the conveyed meaning <not bad> is negative, and this aspect can lead us to link this case to the negative character of the Q-inference; thus, <not bad> could fall into the category of Q-implicature. However, in terms of the speaker’s intention in using *good* instead of *not bad*, it is possible to assume that the speaker focuses on some positive aspect of the thing being referred to—although she could also have a negative opinion at some deeper level. The speaker’s use of *good*, instead of *not bad*, can thus be considered a politeness strategy, because of the face-threatening nature of the evaluation. The speaker is conscious of the imperative to save face and wants to keep ‘positive face’ (that is, to be perceived as confident). For instance, we tend to hide our real emotions and say something like ‘I’m good’ even when we are actually not happy with ourselves or the situation. In some cases, *good* may be used to avoid potential threats to the listener’s face (cf. Brown & Levinson, 1987). It may reveal the speaker’s unwillingness to express a negative evaluation and/or a desire to comfort the listener. This aspect of language use can be influenced by rapport management concerns (Spencer-Oatey, 2008), in that the speaker may want to mitigate a rapport-threatening situation. It seems that this kind of metapragmatic inference may intrude in the derivation of the implicature <not bad> from *good*. In Levinson’s framework, however, the positive property of inference belongs to the category of I-inference, not Q-inference. Thus, one cannot help but place the communicated meaning <not bad> under I-inference. Another possible communicated meaning of *good*, such as <better than expected>, falls into the realm of I-inference because it is a more situation-specific interpretation. The discussion above is visualized in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
EXPECTATION LEVEL AND SPEAKER MEANINGS OF *GOOD*

Speaker’s expectation (or lack of expectation)	Expectation level	Actual score	Possible intended meanings	Inference type
expectation	B	B	basic (literal) meaning	NA
			<i>as expected</i>	I
			<i>not bad</i>	I
expectation	C or D	B	<i>better than expected</i>	I
			<i>satisfactory</i>	I
			<i>not bad</i>	I
			<i>very good or excellent</i>	I
expectation	B+	B	<i>a little less than expected</i>	I
no expectation		B	basic meaning	NA

D. Combinations of I- and Q-inference

We have tried to show that the conversational implicatures of *good* reflect the speaker’s meaning in concrete situations. This section concerns the intrusion of the I-principle into the interpretation of *good*. If the speaker does not feel the need to clarify her meaning sufficiently (that is, if she does not need to observe the Q-principle), in conflict with the listener’s want, her meaning is likely to be inferred by the listener with resort to the resources available. Consider the following utterance:

(11) Lee Chung-Yong is a good soccer player.

Speakers may not always be conscientious in terms of using linguistically precise and informative forms in a situation where clarification is not needed to achieve their communicative intent, leaving, for example, different ways of interpreting *good* available depending on listeners’ personal histories, cultural backgrounds, prior interaction with the speaker, etc. For instance, in (11), the Korean listener is likely to automatically recover the conversational implicature of *good* as <best>, <excellent> (I-implicature). In contrast, the British listener is more likely to interpret *good* as <not excellent> (Q-implicature). This Q-implicature comes from a scale consisting of <{excellent/best}, good>; the implicature <not excellent> evidences a high standard for footballing ability on the part of the listener. Lee Chung-Yong, a member of the English Premier League football team Bolton Wanderers, is regarded as a competent player. His reputation is high enough that he is called by the nickname ‘Blue Dragon’. However, there will be a perceived gap in

⁷ Horn (1989) and Levinson (2000) mention the case where *not bad* implicates <good>, and account for it by reference to R-inference (Horn) and I-inference (Levinson), respectively. The R-principle emerges from Grice’s Relation, Second Quantity, and Third and Fourth Manner maxims. According to the R-principle, the speaker is expected to give only necessary information, because the listener can infer the intended meaning based on social or cultural knowledge. A meaning inferred via the R-principle is called an R-implicature (Horn, 1984, Horn, 1989, p. 194).

ability between Lee and global stars like Lionel Messi or Wayne Rooney as perceived by British football fans, who are used to a high standard of play. In the case of Korean fans, in contrast, simply being a member of any EPL team will be seen as 'good' or 'excellent'. Even if a different I-implicature, such as <impressive>, is derived from *good*, the utterance in (11) might be recovered as, for instance, <Lee Chung-Yong is an impressive player with the potential to become better>.

In Levinson's theory, Q-inference and I-inference are proposed to be separate mechanisms in utterance interpretation, with Q-inference motivating the interpretation of scalar expressions. While Q-inference is based on linguistic factors (semantic strength of linguistic expression), I-inference is guided by ideas in common. These two types of inferences in some cases seem to complement each other in the interpretation of *good* based on contextual assumptions; that is, when arriving at the speaker's meaning, the listener cannot ignore contextually plausible or stereotypical interpretations. The meaning of *good* can be enriched from the surrounding situation. For instance, precisely speaking the implicatures about Lee Chang-Yong above are partly I-inferred and partly Q-inferred, since the first part of the range of the implicature is derived from non-linguistic knowledge (Lee's performance) and the latter part from linguistic elements (the use of the informationally weak expression *good*). With less evaluation or precision pressure between speaker and listener, *good* may generate such an I-implicature. That is, the conversational implicature of *good* can be determined by the interaction of Q-inference (expectation of preciseness) with I-inference (allowance for approximation in language use) in context.

E. Projection Problem

An utterance has a range of pragmatic meanings. Consider:

(12) Good movies are usually popular with most people, and excellent movies can be either popular with or overlooked by ordinary people, depending on their content.

whose potential implicatures can be represented as follows:

a. Q-scalar implicature of *good*

<It is not the case that excellent movies are usually popular with most people>

b. Q-clausal implicature of the disjunction⁸

P (Excellent movies can be popular with ordinary people, depending on their content)

c. Q-clausal implicature of the disjunction

P~ (Excellent movies can be popular with ordinary people, depending on their content)

d. Q-clausal implicature of the disjunction

P (Excellent movies can be overlooked by ordinary people, depending on their content)

e. Q-clausal implicature of the disjunction

P~ (Excellent movies can be overlooked by ordinary people, depending on their content)

f. I-implicature of the whole utterance

<Excellent movies are generally popular with critics, as can be expected, because they are good, but excellent movies are not necessarily popular with ordinary people, because excellent movies focus on artistry, not popularity>

g. I-implicature of the whole utterance

<In contrast to general assumptions, some excellent movies gain popularity and some don't>

Here, (a) is the implicature of *good* on a scale <excellent, good>, while (b)–(e) are the clausal implicatures of the disjunction (*or*) in the second sentence. Implicatures (a) and (b) clash, so (a) is cancelled, and the whole sentence can receive the implicatures from (b) to (e).⁹ In contrast, (12) invites I-inference (specified inference) about the relation between the quality of movies and their popularity. When we say *good movies*, we are generally thinking of movies that are liked by people and thus popular. Then, when we think of *excellent movies*, we are likely to think they should be more popular because they are very good movies, very well made. However, some excellent movies may be hard to understand from the perspective of ordinary people as opposed to that of, say, a film critic, and may thus be underappreciated by ordinary people although their formal quality is excellent. From the sentence as a whole, we may recognise that the speaker in mind has a distinct subset within the set of good movies, and we are likely to recover an implicature for *good movies* such as <movies focused on popularity rather than quality>, which is specified by I-

⁸ Gazdar (1979) proposes that the assertion of some complex structures generates certain clausal implicatures. For example, the choice of the disjunction *p or q* conveys that the speaker is unsure which side of the disjunction is true. If the speaker knew, he or she would have made a stronger statement by using the conjunction, *p and q*. Thus, utterances of the form *p or q* have the following implicatures: {**Pp**, **P~p**, **Pq**, **P~q**}; in other words, it is possible that p, also that not p, also that q, also that not q. (**P** indicates POSSIBILITY in logic.)

⁹ In Grice's (1975) model, both generalized and particularized conversational implicatures are cancellable. Some meanings can survive in combinations of words or components into larger structures; this is referred to as the *projection problem*. Levinson (2000, p. 162) proposes the *projection principle* to address this problem by explicating how inconsistent generalized conversational implicatures that arise are resolved by ordered priority, as follows: 'Aspects of utterance content should be added to the content C of utterance U in the following order:

- 1). the entailments of U
- 2). the potential clausal Q-implicatures of U
- 3). the potential scalar Q-implicatures of U
- 4). the potential M-implicatures of U
- 5). the potential I-implicatures of U.'

inference. Thus, some listeners may infer (f). The I-implicatures in (12) are more clearly perceived than the Q-clausal implicature. It should be noted that (f) and (g) are not inconsistent and do not clash with each other; however, implicature (g) seems to be the preferred interpretation over implicature (f). On the other hand, from the sentence as a whole, a Q-scalar inference of *good* does not arise, and an upper-bounded meaning of *good*, such as <good but not excellent>, is not generated. Levinson (1987, 1995, 2000) treats generalized conversational implicatures as the result of the local (subsentential) inferences through lexical items from a contrast set (Reboul, 2004). This is based on Gricean reasoning, specifically the view of generalized conversational implicatures as ‘the use of certain form of words in an utterance would normally carry such-and-such an implicature or type of implicature’ (Grice, 1975, p. 56). Sperber and Wilson (1995), Carston (2002), and Bach (2006) have pointed out that sentences might not have generalized conversational implicatures. For experimental studies of this related issue see (Bezuidenhout & Morris, 2004; Reboul, 2004). Their findings seem to support the underspecification model derived from relevance theory views (Carston, 2000; Sperber & Wilson, 1995). However, here global- (sentential-) level inferences are involved in some cases. In the case of (12), an I-implicature for the whole utterance is activated.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper has focused on the communicated meaning of the English scalar expression *good* in various contexts and examined its inferential aspects using Levinson’s (2000) framework. This paper has shown that different types of inferences can be involved in the interpretation of *good*, and that it does not have to be exclusively upper-boundedly interpreted. In particular, this paper has pointed out that *good* in a neutral context can convey different meanings according to the speaker’s level of (scalar) expectation. Its meaning can also be recovered as an I-implicature (and/or Q-implicature) by a listener who is aware of the speaker’s expectation or who has an expectation of his or her own. It thus appears that deciding whether to derive a scalar implicature for *good* is a cognitive process involving both expectations and processing of input from context (e.g. the recognition of an upper-bound discourse context). Inference of a specific meaning from a speaker who simply says *good* is within the realm of I-inference, which appears to be involved in deriving the speaker’s meaning. This observation suggests that it could be inadequate to fix the default meaning of *good* as <not excellent>, as would be indicated by the Q-Principle, and that in general the Q-principle may not always be sufficiently able to deal with the complexities of the pragmatic meaning of *good*.

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Pragmatic Features of Emotional Discourse

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Abstract—This article is about pragmatic potential of literary discourse in terms of comparative analysis of excerpts taken from Italian literature and their Georgian translation. pragmatic potential lies in pragmatic effect on the target reader. We identified types of emotional subtexts, adjectives denoting colours, kinetic movements, as well as emotional gestures, which play an important role in literary discourse. We also analyzed phonatory paralinguisms, which are related to the characteristics of human speech sounds.

Index Terms—pragmatic potential, emotion, kinesics, phonatory paralinguism, literary discourse

I. INTRODUCTION

Any text has communicative function, i.e. contains information conveyed by the addresser, which should be separated from the text and understood by the addressee. “The process of communication is directly connected to the pragmatic aspects as a message is always understood and interpreted by a person” (Komisarov, 1990, 208).

While discussing pragmatic-communicative aspects of a literary text, we should consider the fact that the aim of a literary text is not only to convey particular information but also to influence the thoughts, feelings and emotions of the addressee. Adequate comprehension of the function of a literary text is impossible without analyzing basic components of pragmatics. These components are: pragmatic purpose and pragmatic potential.

Literary discourse is characterized by individual emotional experience and attitude of the author and evaluation made by the author. It reflects not only the outer world, objective reality, but also inner world of the characters, described by the author, and subjective reality of the author. Literary discourse is characterized by a unique wholeness and expresses ideology and pragmatic purpose of the author.

Literary discourse cannot be subjected to immediate decoding. Pragmatic purpose can be defined as a purposeful concrete intention of the addresser, materialized in the text in order to impress the addressee. Pragmatic purpose of a literary text is closely connected to two components of an act of communication, i.e. to the link between the author and the target reader. “The aim of the author is to evoke emotions, literary associations and to stimulate creative activity of the addressee. The aim of the author is to build empathy and emotional and intellectual contact with the target reader the platform of cooperation” (Referovskaya 1989, 55).

“All the processes of expression involve intention which is thoroughly contemplated and which mobilizes the necessary means of linguistic expression. Speaker’s, orator’s and writer’s intention is an idea for the receiver. It is a source of idea” (Djachy, 2013, p. 26)

Via pragmatics, pragmatic purpose is connected to the semantic category of the text, namely to its two types: conceptual semantic information and implicit semantic information. An important characteristic of the pragmatics of the literary text is that pragmatics tends to reveal the circumstances under which pragmatic effect can be reached through only pragmatic competence, which is characterized by the extent the addressee is aware of the fact. Pragmatic competence is the competence of the addresser to deal with the linguistic expression of the world (Telia, 1977, 17).

II. METHODOLOGY

The methods used are defined by the aim and tasks expressed in this article. The methods are: synchronization method, which allows us to estimate the performance characteristics of emotions in static; as well as descriptive, comparative, structural-stylistic and communicative methods. Pragmatics tries to reveal the aim of the text and the pragmatic effect, which can be reached through the pragmatic potential of its linguistic means. Revelation of pragmatic potential depends on the background knowledge, previous experience and psychological condition of an addressee.

As communication takes place in the environment full of human emotions and passions, no doubt, live speech cannot be limited only to the transfer of information that excludes specific emotions characteristic to the speaker and evaluations focused on a particular partner. The nomination of non-verbal components of the expression of emotions is characterized by an important pragmatic potential.

Literary text conveys information not only about reality but also contains information about the complex world of human feelings, attitudes and aspirations and causes aesthetic impact. We distinguish two forms of information: factual-semantic information and conceptual-semantic information. The former is a simple form and implies messages concerning facts, events, processes that are underway or will take place in future, in both real and imaginary external world. This information is explicit by nature, always expressed verbally and manifested in the form of a dialogue or narrative contexts. The latter form of information is conceptual-semantic information conveying causal relationships of

individual perception of the author and the meaning of imaginary events. Such information is not always clear, but it allows us and necessitates a variety of interpretations. Such information is mainly manifested in the context of discussion.

The most complex form of information in a literary text is implied semantic information, as it is implicit and is derived from the factual-semantic information. Using linguistic units it forms associative and connotative meanings. It acquires meaning within super phrasal units. Therefore, a literary text can convey not only the concept it expresses, but also the concept sometimes not even intentionally implied through associations and connotations (Galperin, 1981, pp. 27-28).

Implied semantic information is versatile and diverse. Galperin identifies two types of sub-text semantic information: situational and associative (Galperin, 1981, p. 45). Some scientists identify two types of sub-text semantic information: referential and communicative. Referential sub-text represents additional information to a referential situation. Referential sub-text is derived from the information we have about the world and things. In this article we will discuss three types of sub-texts: sub-text-connotation, sub-text-implications, and sub-text-presupposition.

Connotation is a semantic essence which is included in the semantics of usual and occasional linguistic units and expresses the attitude of the subject towards the reality in stylistically marked emotional-evaluative phrases, which acquires expressive effect due to the information (Telia, 1986, 5).

The denotation of connotative meaning can be: 1) real emotions, attitudes and evaluations of the author, narrator, or a character, mentioned in the text 2) a feature of a message; 3) the speaker's viewpoint; 4) an objective or subjective part of the situation.

According to their meaning, words can express emotional state of a speaker as well as what the speaker feels while speaking. For example: - U-e-u! –mugg iBiancone (Calvino, 2011, 332) - უ-ე-უ! დაიდრიალა ბიანკონემ / - U-e-u! Biancone roared/ -No -mugolò - comincia tu ad ammazzarlo e a parlarlo, e poi starò a vedere come lo cucini (Calvino 2011, 191) - არა, - დაიდრიალა მან - შენ დაკალი და გაატყავ, მე კი გიყურებ, როგორ მოამზადებ¹ / - No, - he roared – you kill and flay and I will watch you preparing it/. Georgian translation shows the exact emotion expressed in the source text.

“One and the same thing can be expressed by different means, even in different languages. Any text serves the purpose of expressing something in a verbal form. Anything can be expressed in any language but in each language it is done in its own way“. (Djachy, 2013:7).

The above mentioned verb - “*mugolare*” /roar/ means the loud deep cry of a wild animal. It shows negative attitude of the author towards the character. The emotional coloring is intended to affect the addressee. The connotative meaning is pragmatically loaded.

Implication involves logical operation, connecting two expressions (two parts of the implication: antecedent and consequence) in complex expressions via logical conjunction, the equivalent of which is conjunction *და* /and/ in Georgian language. For example:... - Io scherzavo! ella disse. Si scostò dal braciere, sentì un'impressione di freddo dietro le coscie (Pratoloni, 1960, 65) - რას ამბობ, გეხუმრე! – უთხრა ავრორამ, მაყალს მოშორდა და კანკალმა აიტანა /- No, I was just kidding! – said Avrora, walked away from the grill and started shivering/ (translated by Eradze1967, 53).

Expression of internal emotional state is the given antecedent and conveys the information about the unexpressed result to the reader. The context does not explicitly state that the character was horrified; It is simply an expression of her internal emotional or affective state. Based on the background knowledge, reading the word “shiver” which is the reaction to cold, the reader can conclude that the symptom appears only in the state of emotion caused by fear.

Any message consists of two parts: linguistic and non-linguistic, which is termed as presupposition. The message itself and the context accompanying it represent the linguistic part. Presupposition covers everything that the addressee should bear in mind while receiving a linguistically formulated message; everything that serves as the foundation of the message, having particular connection with it and can serve as a guarantee that the message will be thoroughly and adequately understood. In linguistics, presupposition is the information, which, according to the speaker, is shared by the speaker and the listener, i.e. it is a set of conditions the presence of which guarantees adequate perception and understanding of the essence of the sentence (Galperin, 1981, 44).

We think that the presence of different semantic and logical, as well as pragmatic and psychological presuppositions in a single sentence is significant. For example: - Cosa? - gridò Caterina dilatando gli occhi, - se ho capito bene, Lei mi vuole accennare, che là potrà informarmi su di lui? (Calvino 1997, 51) - რა? - შეჰყვირა კატერინამ და თვალები გაუფართოვდა - თუ კარგად გავიგე, თქვენ იმაზე მიმანიშნებთ, რომ იქ შემოდის მის შესახებ რაიმე შევითყო? /What? – Caterina cried out her eyes widened – as I guess, you mean that there's something I can learn about him?/.

¹ Translation of the excerpts where the translator is not indicated belongs to us.

It is well known to everyone that when a person cries out and his/her eyes widen it shows that the person is surprised and it does not show the person's emotional state of fear. Therefore, defining factors of presupposition represent common background knowledge, common outlook, common life experience, and personal characteristics of the recipient, knowledge of the peculiarities of the context and situation, which are used by the recipient as a background while interpreting the essence of a sentence or a context.

Thus, we can state that implication, presupposition and connotation play an important role in the formation of a sub-text, which in its turn represents a specific form and the major structural element of a literary text. It should be mentioned that the information that can be classified as sub-text-connotation is of emotional-semantic nature, whereas the information that can be classified as either sub-text-implication or sub-text-presupposition are semantic. Sub-text-connotation, as usual, is revealed in the context that exceeds the boundaries of a single sentence (a paragraph, a chapter, a composition); Sub-text-implication and sub-text-presupposition represent the conditions necessary for correct construction of a sentence, thus we rarely need a context to interpret them.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

For the purpose of the research conducted by us the most important issue is that among the different types of information implied in a text the most interesting is verbally unexpressed information, implied in the nominations of emotional state and emotional reactions in the structure of a literary text.

Scientists agree that emotions and other psychic forms are formed in the brain of a human. Authors surmise that the heart of a human is the most sensitive organ of all the organs of human body. This is because different emotional state is perceived through heart beating heard with ears and felt in the brain. The heart is considered to be the source of emotional experience and the organ expressing emotions. From the religious point of view, a person can reach and feel higher spiritual source through his/her soul and it represents the "organ" through which a person can feel and sense the mystical next world.

Interaction of these two parameters is reflected in the nomination of an emotional state. It is a kind of a metaphor. Creating a metaphor is primarily focused on pragmatic effect it causes in the recipient.

The word "heart" is a part of multiple metaphoric expressions. For example: გული გაქვავდა /the heart became flint/, შეიკუმშა /heart shrinks/, ჩამწყდა /heart breaks/, მუხლებში ჩამივარდა /have my heart in my boots/. Con cuore gonfio (გულისტკენით / with a heavy heart /), cuore gonfio di dolore (დარდით დასივებული გული / heart full of pain/), con cuore morto (უგრძნობლად /with dead heart/), con cuore sospeso (გულისფანცქალით / have one's heart in one's throat/), cuore stretto (შეკუმშული გული /torn-heart/) etc. For example: - Ho il cuore di pietra, diceva a se stessa (Pratolini, 1960, 83) - გულის მაგივრად ქვა მიდევს - იტყოდა ხოლმე თავისთვის /I have a stone instead of my heart - he kept on saying/ (translated by Eradze, 1967, 68).

The lexeme "heart" plays the role of the "doer" of an action and undergoes personification when used metonymically (the heart as a part of a whole – a human). The personalization of the heart occurs when its activity is emphasized with the help of verbs denoting a specific physical action and representing a spiritual state. For example: batteva il cuore (გული ცემდა /heart was beating/), il cuore mi batte in gola (გული ამოვარდნასაა /I have my heart in my throat), my heart started beating vigorously. Sometimes emphasizing particles and adverbs are used: quasi (almost), forte (vigorously). For example: Il cuore quasi salta in gola (გული ლამის ამოვარდეს საგულედან /I have my heart almost in my throat/), Il cuore gli batte forte (გული ძლიერად უცემს /His heart is beating faster/).

In Italian language we come across the expressions consisting of a lexeme "soul" con l'anima sospesa (გულის შეკრთობით /soul-stirring/), andare all'anima (ღელვა /soul-disturbing/), mangiarsi l'anima (გაბრაზება /bewildering/). gli viene l'anima ai denti (გამოდის წყობიდან, ბრაზდება /try to keep one's temper/). For example: Passò giorni di angoscia, nero d'anima, dentro il nero vestito, nella buia carbonaia (Pratolini 1960, 80) - გაიარა მღელვარე დღეებმა. დიდ ბნელ დუქანში მთლად გამურული იჯდა და სულში ისეთივე სიბნელე ხვია, როგორც სახეზე /He has gone through hard times. Entirely covered with soot, sitting in the dark shop, his soul was exactly as dark as his face/ (translated by Eradze, 1967, 65). In Georgian language, the lexeme „სული /soul/" is frequently replaced by the lexeme „გული /heart/".

In literary discourse there are fewer positive emotions. Intensive emotions such as anger, fear, joy, may be expressed in the form of fire, flame, embers. Authors use different means to express emotions, the core of which is a metaphorized verb. In the course of metaphorization of verbs common semantic feature - "the impact on the object" - is maintained, though there is no semantic unit expressing "physical effects".

Expression of the emotional state is related to a number of changes in physiological functions of the human body (breathing, digestion, blood circulation, muscles). For example: - Volete insinuare...volete insinuare..., l'Abate parlava

come qualcuno a cui si stessero gonfiando le vene del collo (Eco, 1995, 449) - გინდათ, თქვათ...მან იმეხებთ, რომ ...- წინამძღვარს მარღვები დაეხერა ყელზე / Do you want to say that ... you mean that ... the Abbot spoke with his neck veins bulged (translated by Tskhadadze, 2011, 702).

Emotional state is frequently expressed in changing skin color, especially when a strong emotion is being expressed. These types of nominations reflect not only the explicit information that is related to this or that emotion, but it contains a set of implicit information expressed in the pragmatic potential of the given nomination. Commonly used adjectives are red, white, pale. For example: arrossire sino alle orecchie - ყურებამდე გაწითლდა /blush right up to the ears/, allibire, impallidire - გაფითრდა /his face turned pale/, è diventata come un panno da bucato - ქაღალდისფერად გაფითრდა /he turned as white as a sheet/, ha la faccia sbiancata - ფერი დაკარგა /his face became colourless/, ha la faccia terrea - მიწისფერი დაეღო, მკვდრის ფერი დაეღო /his face was ashen/, gli si sono illividite le labbra per il freddo - ტუჩები სიცვიდან გააუღურჯდა /his lips turned blue in the cold/. Italian language uses other colours. For example: Ma improvvisamente diventa rossa, sorride (Pratolini, 1960, 45) - მაგრამ მოულოდნელად ის გაწითლდა და გაიღიმა / But suddenly he blushed and smiled/ (translated by Eradze, 1967, 36).

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

In the process of communication, kinetic behavior of the human is one of the most informative ways, which is not as thoroughly studied as the aspect of expression of the emotional state of the human. Body movement and miming together are of informative significance, because they emphasize and strengthen the emotional state of a person. Considering the differences that exist between postures and gestures, it should be noted that posture implies a static condition of the human body, which is kept for some period of time, whereas gesture implies dynamism. Posture is the position of the human body, which is typical of a certain culture, the basic unit of human spatial behavior (Labunskiaia, 1986, 25).

For the purpose of the study conducted by us, emotional or expressive gestures, having particular pragmatic potential are important. Any human acquires certain gestures and follows the rules governing their use, in the process of development and building his/her personality in a given social environment. For example gesture "shaking head" "scuotere la testa" in some cases may signify "surprise", and "indignation" in other cases.

For the purpose of the study conducted by us, the important thing is that the further that or this organ is from the head, the less is the possibility of controlling its movement. Thus, **kinesics** of the hands and feet, which can convey multiple of nuances revealing mood and attitude via different movements is less controlled by the mind.

The researchers developed a hypocrisy scale, in which physiological reaction of involuntary nature that does not depend on human will or desire ranks first; leg movement comes next; then body signals; contradictory gestures; facial movements; and at the end of the list is verbal response (speech).

In the process of communication, involuntary body language is important for receiving further information. It should be noted that when the doer of the action wants to show his/her intention and to convey some information in his/her behavior, such behavior is considered to be communicative. The same action, gesture and posture can be communicative and informative simultaneously. For example: arricciare i baffi - ულამების გრეხა /curl the end of one's moustache/; scuotere il capo - თავის ქნევა /shake one's head/; rosicchiare le unghie - ფრხხილების კვნეტა /bite one's fingernails/; battere le mani - ტაშის შემოკვრა /clap one's hands/; coprirsi il volto con le mani - სახეზე ხელოსაფარება /cover one's face with one's hands/ etc. For example: - I novizi spauriti uscirono per primi, il cappuccio sul volto, il capo chino (Eco, 1995, 457) - მორწილები პირველები გავიდნენ ტამრიდან, შემოინებულნი, თავდახრილები, სახეების სამსმით ჩაემაღათ /The obedient came first, frightened, their heads lowered, hiding their faces in their clothing/ (translated by Tskhadadze, 2011, 715).

While communicating, face is the most important part of the human body for people. Human face shows all the emotions characteristics of it. Display of emotions in the human face is an important system of communication. It is a universal component of the emotional response, as it is less dependent on cultural traditions. It is a common social language, therefore, it is considered to be the most studied form.

Miming is a kind of art with the help of which human mood is recognized according to the outer signs, especially that of a face, as location of the facial muscles allow us to draw conclusions concerning the person's physiological and psychological state and its peculiarities. Thus, the human face is an important channel of non-verbal communication as well as the leading means of communication. It possesses the ability to convey the emotional and contextual implication of a message. For example: Lo Scamozzi, il Birisi, il dottor Sandrocca, la moglie, miss Green si voltarono a guardarlo a bocca aperta (Pirandello, 1990, 9) - სკამოჯი, ბირიზი, დოქტორ სანდროკა, მისი მეუღლე, მის გრინი შემობრუნდნენ და პირლია უყურებდნენ მას /Scamozzi, Birisi, doctor Sandrocca, his wife, miss Green turned and gaped at him/.

Many scientists believe that if a person is not watching his/her partner during the conversation, it demonstrates that he/she is hiding something. It is established that people tend to watch their interlocutors in the eyes more when listening to something, rather than during the conversation. Certainly, it is impossible to learn everything watching a person only in the eyes, as a whole face, eyes, eyebrows, nose and mouth convey additional information (Zielke, 1985, 44). For

example: *aggrottare la fronte* - შუბლის მოღუმვა /frown/; *aggrottare le sopracciglia, aggrottare le ciglia* - წარბების შეჭმუხვნა, კოკების შეკვრა /scowl/; *restare a bocca aperta* - პირლია და რჩენა /gape/; *mordersi le labbra* - ტუჩების მოკვნეტა /bite one's lip/ etc. Nominations of some lexemes does not include any facial features, but it is easy to guess what is ment. *Accigliarsi* - მოღუმვა /scowling/; *sbiuffare* - ფრუტუნო /snorting/; *soffiare* - ქშენა /puffing/; *fissare lo sguardo* - მიშტერება /staring/. For example: *Non solo gli avignonesi ora si agitavano coi visi corruciati e sussurandosi commenti tra di loro, ma lo stesso Abate pareva molto sfavorevolmente impressionato da quelle parole* (ეკო, 1995, 360) - ავინონელბო იჭმუხნებოდნენ და იბღვირებოდნენ, ერთმანეთს რაღაცას ეჩურჩულებოდნენ, წინამძღვარიც ფრიად უკმაყოფილო და აფორიაქებული ჩანდა უილიამის სიტყვებით /Not only the Avignoneses were stirring frowning with gloomy faces and whispering something to one another. but the abbot seemed to be unfavorably impressed by the words William said/ (translated by Tskhadadze, 2011, 567-568).

In Italian literature we come across the phrases such as: *abbassare gli occhi* - თვალების დახრა /lower one's eyes/; *fare tanto d'occhi* - თვალების ფართედ გახელება /wide open one's eyes/; *sbarrare gli occhi* - თვალების გადმოკარვლა /bulge eyes out of one's head/. მაგალითები: *Sbarrava due tondi occhi circondati da folte sopracciglia nere* (Calvino, 2011, 341) - მან ხშირი წარბებით გარშემორტყმული ორი მრგვალი შავი თვალი გადმოკარვლა /He bulged his two round eyes surrounded by thick black eyebrows/.

Moreover, in Italian literature we come across the examples such as: *guardava con lo sguardo penetrante* - ვიღაცას გამჭოლო მზერით უცქერდა /give sb a piercing look/; *inceneriva con lo sguardo* - თვალებით წვავდა /give sb a withering look/, *batteva le ciglia* - წამწამები აახამხამა, წარბები შეათამაშა /flutter one's eyelashes/; *guardava di sbieco* - აღმაცერად უყურებდა /look askance at someone/ etc. For example: *Allibi dapprima, poi l'ira, lo sdegno le fecero un tale impeto nello spirito ch'ella, con le mani tra i capelli e gli occhi sbarrati e ferocemente fissi, si vide quasi impazzita nello specchio di quello stipetto* (Pirandello, 1990, 99) - თავდაპირველდ გაფითრდა, შემდეგ ისე მოაწვა ბრაზი და აღშფოთება, რომ თმებში იტაცა ხელები და გადმოკარვლული და გაშეშებული თვალებით თავის შესლოდ გამოსახულებას უყურებდა სარკეში /First she turned pale, then suddenly she exploded in anger and outrage, grabbed her hair and stared at her image in the mirror, with her eyes wide open and balls fixed/.

In the process of expression of emotions phonation plays an important role. Change of the voice has always been a mechanism of expression of emotions. Emotional state is reflected on a range of characteristics of speech, including: speech rate and latency, latent period of speech reaction (latent period of formation of verbal associations), intonation, timbre, voice volume, voice pitch; paralinguistic means of phonation cover voice defining features as well (whisper, puffing, hoarse voice), as well as voice characteristics (laughter, giggling, trembling voice, sobbing, crying)

In writing form, these parameters are expressed in polygraphic characteristics of a text, using various fonts and punctuation marks, etc.

A text enclosed between dashes or quotation marks is a materialization of a character's replica, which can be considered in an edition or as a habitual action. Translators sometimes use free practice lacking consistency and reasonableness. The texts of the originals by some modern authors are characterized by compact linearity. Even when a narration uses verbal Insertions, it remains dominated by the narrative sequence and linkage (Djachy, 2012:9).

The entire inventory of acoustic signals is divided into controlled and uncontrolled signals. Uncontrolled signals include a sudden cry out in fear, crying, sighing. Voice volume, pitch and timbre are partially controlled. There are verbs expressing sounds. For example: *sussurrare* - ჩურჩული /whisper/, *gridare* - შეყვირება, ყვირილი /shout/, *balbettare* - ლუღლუდი, ენის ბორბიკი /falter/; *lamentare* - მოტყმა /groan/; *la lingua gli si annoda* - ენა ებმის /stutter/; *gridare di gioia* - სიხარულისაგან შეყვირება /shout for joy/; *dire con rancore* - ბოღმით თქმა /say out of spite/; *parlare con stizza* - გაღიზიანებით საუბარი /speak peevishly/; *domandare con stupore* - გაკვირვებით შეკითხვა /ask in astonishment/; *esprimere una sorpresa* - გაცემის გამოხატვა /express surprise/ etc. For example: - *Poi l'Abate riprese a parlare con voce rotta e incerta, come di persona sorpresa da inattese rivelazioni. Non è possibile... Voi... Voi come fate a sapere del finis Africae?* (Eco, 1995, 449) - მერე წინამძღვარმა განაგრძო ლპარაკი. ხმა უკანკალებდა, შემკრთალო ჩანდა, თითქოს ისეთ რამ მოისმინა, რასაც არ ელოდა. - შეუძლებელია ... თქვენ ... თქვენ რა იცით აფრიკის კიდეზე? /Then the Bishop continued speaking in a trembling voice. He looked startled as if he heard something that he had not expected. - It is impossible ... You ... How do you know about the edge of Africa? (Translated by Tskhadadze, 2011, 701).

In Italian literature a verb expressing voice is frequently preceded by an adverb. For example: *sottovoce* - ჩურჩულით /in a low voice/, *a bassa voce* - ჩუმად /quietly/.

Sometimes people tend to pause while speaking. Using pauses i.e. keep silence intermittently, while communication, in most of the cases, is not accidental and even not unintentional. Linguistics distinguishes communicative and non-communicative silence. Communicative silence has a symbolic function in the course of communication. First of all, this is interchange of the roles in communication, which represents a form of etiquette of cooperative behavior. At this

time the listener tries not to interrupt the speaker, and only using verbal and non-verbal signals such as nodding, looking at the speaker and so on, confirm his/her attention and understanding of the meaning of the words and sentences said by the speaker. Avoiding transferring expected information is a form of communicative silence. Non-communicative silence occurs when listeners are expected to respond but no verbal sign is used by the listeners. In this case, silence is viewed as a kind of speech act with intentional, emotional and evaluative content, which depends on the text preceeding it, as well as on the situation and environment in the context of relationship. Silence is different from the pause used by a speaker in order to properly formulate his/her opinion which is often accompanied by gestures. For example: Tu ... così ... Ma stai male davvero! qua..che hai? ... Ma tu scotti! Non ti reggi! Hai la febbre ... (Pirandello, 1990, 101) - მე ნ ... რა ... მ ა რთლ ა ს ე ც უდა დ ხ ა რ !... რ ა და გ ე მ ა რთ ა ? ... ს ი ც ხ ე გ ა ქ ვ ს ! ფ ე ხ ზ ე ვ ე რ დგ ა ხ ა რ ! ს ი ც ხ ე გ ა ქ ვ ს ... /You ... what ... Do you really feel so bad! ... What's wrong with you? ... You have a fever! You cannot stand on your feet! You have a fever .../

Thus, we can argue that a nomination of silence has a pragmatic potential, which depicts human emotional state of particular kind, his status, cultural traditions; In a literary text it conveys the narrator's estimation of a story described in the text. The purpose of their use is to evokes a certain emotional and intellectual response in the reader. In this case, information is conveyed not only using the nominations of paralinguistic phenomena, but it implies a more complete transformation, which is connected with the change of opinion.

All types of expression of emotions are characterized by pragmatic potential, since they include speaker's personality, his social, ethnic, cultural, age and sex related, as well as professional features. Expression of emotions also depends on the type of a narrator in a literary work and the narrator's attitude towards the character. The reader of a translated emotional literary text should have the same emotions as the reader of the original.

The topicality of the subject is conditioned by the expressive function of expression of emotions, and the study of the expressive function, though not well studied, is rather important. Moreover, the theoretical study of the expression of the emotions in the literary discourse has not been carried out until now from the viewpoint of compared analysis between the Italian and Georgian languages. Cognitive approach towards the task is a topical question, characterized by interdisciplinary approach towards the research of linguistic phenomena, which makes it possible to examine all aspects of the subject of study.

The theoretical value of the paper is to contribute to the further development of the theory of nomination. The description of the semantics of the processes of the emotional expression can be used to describe the emotional discourses in other languages. The thesis can contribute to the development of the studies in literary language, historical linguistics and pragmatics and the history of the people that reflect a range of the tasks of modern linguistics.

The findings of the paper can be used in lexicographical practice, formation of the culture of individual speech and can be used as the lecture material for a course in paralinguistic, culture of the relations, general linguistics, theoretical or practical linguistics of the translation, lexicology and stylistics.

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Language and Gender Differences in Jordanian Spoken Arabic: A Sociolinguistics Perspective

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Abstract—Studying the differences between men and women's language has been the obsession of many sociolinguists recently. This study aims to investigate the gender differences between men's and women's language in Jordanian Spoken Arabic. It studies both genders' conversational styles and phonological variations. Twelve dyadic conversations (mixed and same-sex) were conducted at Yarmouk University (Jordan) each conversation lasted for 30 minutes. The theoretical framework for this study draws on sociolinguistics, Conversation Analysis and politeness theory. The findings of the study indicate that Jordanian women and men have different linguistics styles that distinguish their gender in conversations, and women are more linguistically conservative than men.

Index Terms—sociolinguistics, gender, men's and women's language, Jordanian spoken Arabic, politeness and conversation analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

Sociolinguistics studies the way people speak differently in different social contexts. It also gives reasons for why and how people speak differently (Holmes, 2006). Studying men and women talk has been the obsession of sociolinguistics research in the mid 1970s. Coates (1998, p.2) states that it is common in all societies that "the way men speak is held in high esteem, while women's ways of talking are compared unfavourably with men's"; she refers to these cultural beliefs as 'folklinguistics'. The old notion that women are chatterboxes has not existed nowadays, because different studies in different social contexts- in the workplace, in the television, in the classrooms ...etc- have proved that men speak more than women (Coates, 1998).

Cameron (1998, p.271) states that "gender is socially constructed rather than 'natural' ". Simone de Beauvoir said "one is not born, but rather becomes a woman". Discourse explains "the pattern of gender differentiation in people's behavior"; discourse makes this differentiation visible (Cameron, 1998, p.271). In addition, Judith Butler (1990), [cited in Cameron, D. (1998)], explains that masculinity and femininity can be defined by performing certain acts in accordance with the cultural norms. Furthermore, "men and women may use their awareness of the gendered meanings that attached to particular ways of speaking and acting to produce a variety of effects" (Cameron, 1998, p.272). Men and women are members of culture and they learn the suitable ways of speaking and a large set of gendered meanings that attached to different ways of speech; "they produce their own behavior in the light of those meanings" (Cameron, 1998, p.281). This is true in Jordanian society as the social norms determine the men and women's speech. For example, in Jordanian society a woman should not use men's speech style because it is socially unacceptable. A woman should speak in a way that reflects her femininity.

The linguistic choices in any social interaction are influenced by the following social factors: first, the participants i.e. who is speaking and whom and the relationship between them or the social distance i.e. are they intimate or not, and the status scale i.e. are they superior or inferior to each others. Second, the social context of the conversation or the setting i.e. the place of the interaction will influence the kind of linguistic repertoire used. For example, in court sessions the type of language will be formal, but informal in cafés. Third, the topic of the interaction affects the linguistic choices; the language used in discussing an academic subject is different from that used in talking about everyday life conversations. Finally, the function of the interaction determines the type of linguistic repertoires used in an interaction, is the function of the conversation referential i.e. to give information or affective i.e. to express feelings (Holmes, 2008).

It is implausible to divorce language from society, as language can be only understood in its social contexts. In other words, the interpretation of an utterance out of its original context i.e. *it is Okay*, would be impossible, as it could be an agreement, disagreement or a continuer. There is a general agreement among sociolinguists that no two people speak the same, whether males or females; it is easy to know the social identity, sex, educational level, and region of someone from his/her speech (Holmes, 2008 & Wardaugh, 2006). For example, people who live in Manchester pronounce /t/ as glottal /ʔ/ when it comes between two vowels. However, Americans pronounce /t/ as /d/ when it also occurs between two vowels. Australians pronounce the word *day*, as *die* and New Zealanders pronounce *dad* as *dead*. It is worth mentioning here a funny situation, narrated to me by an Australian friend, an old British man visited Australia; in the airport the customs officer asked him "you came today?" (Today is pronounced as *to die* in Australian Slang) The British man answered angrily: No, I am not coming to die here, another Australian customs officer heard the

conversation came quickly to the old British man telling him that "the customs officer asking you if you arrived here today and Australian pronounce today as *to die*."

The present study concentrates not only on the phonological and phonetic variations that manifest gender differences but also on the conversational strategies of male and female speakers in Jordanian Spoken Arabic (JSA). This study investigates same-sex and mixed-sex dyadic conversations.

Gender and Sociolinguistics Studies

Recent social dialect research focused on differences between men's and women's language in terms of pronunciation, morphology, syntactic constructions such as multiple negation, semantic and style (Holmes, 2008). Trudgill (1968) finds that in Norwich English males use more non-standard [n] forms than females who use[ng]. Labov (1966) also finds that, in New York City, the more people used post-vocalic [r], the more prestigious they are; women pronounce the post-vocalic [r] more than men. The majority of research on the differences between men and women's speech focused on phonetic features rather than conversational strategies. This study is distinguished as it focuses on gender differences within the interlocutors conversational styles, such as the function of the talk, conversational feedback, repetition, dominance in conversation solidarity and phonological variations.

Lakoff (1975) studies women's language in the USA. Lakoff (1975) characterizes the linguistics features of women's language as:

- 1- Lexical hedges or fillers (*you know, sort of, well, you see*)
- 2- Tag questions (*she's very nice, isn't she?*)
- 3- Rising intonation on declaratives (*it's really good*)
- 4- 'Empty' adjectives (*divine, charming, cute*)
- 5- Precise colour terms (*magenta, aquamarine*)
- 6- Intensifiers such as *just* and *so* (*I like him so much*)
- 7- 'Hypercorrect' grammar (*consistent use of standard verb forms*)
- 8- 'Super-polite' forms (*indirect requests, euphemism*)
- 9- Avoidance of strong swear words (*fudge, my goodness*)
- 10- Emphatic stress (*it was a BRILLIANT performance*)

Lakoff (1975) states that woman's language functions to express lack of confidence, uncertainty or tentativeness (Holmes, 2008). Lakoff (1975) argued that the use of hedging devices by women signal an evidence of their uncertainty, and boosting devices express their anticipations that the addressee may still be unconvinced, so they need to supply another evidence (Holmes, 2008). Lakoff's (1975) methods of collecting and analyzing data were artificial as she collected her data in a laboratory with a screen between the speakers. The results also were contradictory, because many sociolinguists noted that men used more tag questions than women did, and some others found that there were no gender differences (Holmes, 2008).

Based on different sociolinguistics studies, which carried on investigating the differences between men's and women's language, most sociolinguists have agreed that women used more standard forms than men who tend to use vernaculars. According to Holmes (2008), there are different reasons for why women use more standard forms. First, the social norms of a society that we expect women's behavior as a model (guardian of society's values), this will affect the language they use. In addition, women are more status-conscious rather than men. Women are alleged by a stereotypical expectation when they speak, whatever they say "can be used against them as an evidence of their deficiencies" (Holmes, 1985, p.25). Women also lack status in the society, so they "try to acquire it by using standard speech forms, and by reporting that they use even more of these forms than they actually do" (Holmes, 2008, p.164). By using standard forms, women fulfill their own face-protection needs and those they talk to. On the other hand, men use vernacular forms because they relate it to "masculinity and toughness" (Ibid: p. 167). Other reasons why women use standard forms are that women were interviewed by male strangers and their sensitivity to contextual factors such as the topic raised during the conversation.

Labov (1966) explains that the use of non-standard forms is demonstrated by the norms of the vernacular subculture. Yet, the employment of Standard English is dominated by the manifest norms of the mainstream culture in society. Eckert (1998) studies the phonological variation of pronunciation in American English; she explains that accent gives information about the speaker's social identity such as class, age, ethnicity and gender. Eckert (1998, p.65) adds "the closer a person's speech is to the standard, the more difficult it is to tell where he or she is from; the closer to the vernacular, the stronger and more identifiable their regional or local accent". Indeed, people produce more standard pronunciation, as they move up the socioeconomic hierarchy (Eckert, 1998; Holmes, 2008 and Wardaugh, 2006).

In fact, "gender practices differ considerably from culture to culture, from place to place, from group to group, living at the intersection or all other aspects of social identity" (Eckert, 1998, p.66). This is true depending on the norms that organize the relationship between men and women in a certain society, i.e. in the Arab world in general and in Jordan in particular, people expect an appropriate linguistic style from a woman such as intonation, pronunciation, and vocabulary. Jordanian women are sometimes blamed because of their unusual use of pronunciation and vocabulary, because it is considered as a violation of the social norms of Jordanian society. Eckert (1998) and Holmes (2008) aver that women's language is more conservative than men's, because women are more status-conscious or polite and men are tough. This is true for Jordanian society where women are more status-conscious rather than men who supposed to

be tough, because the social norms restrict the way men and women speak. For men, their speech should reflect their masculinity otherwise they will be accused that they are womanish.

Trudgill (1972)¹ states that women are more conservative in using almost variables of pronunciation in Norwich, because women are excluded from the work place, and because they have fewer opportunities to secure their positions by being successful at work or other abilities; they find it essential to use the standard forms to enhance their positions. Eckert (1998,p.66) states that even in work place women need to use "standard language market" to do many 'white collar jobs' such as a receptionists, secretaries, flight attendants and hostesses; they are representing their organizations and earning living. Therefore, the more conscious use of standard language may make women more conservative than men based on the token "talking for success"(Eckert, 1998, pp.66-67). Eckert (1998) concludes that it is difficult to generalize that women are more linguistically conservative than men, but women's greater use of phonological variables to establish membership and status.

Gender and Politeness

Brown and Levinson (1987) maintain that there are three sociological factors to determine the level of politeness a speaker uses to an addressee: (a) relative power of hearer over speaker, (b) the social distance between speaker and hearer and (c) the ranking imposition involved during the Face-Threatening Act (FTA). They independently mention another factor which is the higher liking variable which affects choice of politeness. It is essential in "distinguishing an attack (insult) from an expression of admiration"(ibid.p.16). Brown and Levinson (1987, p.31) claim, "Women operate more positive politeness strategies to a higher degree, because they operate dense social networks". This hypothesis is related to Labov (1966) findings that women employ more prestigious dialect variables compared to men. This true in JSA as women are keen on protecting the other interlocutors' face by avoiding direct disagreement and producing more backchannels as a rapport strategy.

Gender and Language in Jordan

In Jordan, there are four recognized linguistic repertoires; namely Standard Arabic which is the official language of the Kingdom; it is the language of the courts, the media and official governmental department. Secondly, urbanized dialect which is deemed to be prestigious in Jordanian society, it is used in cities' centers. Fascinatingly, this dialect has been used by Jordanian young females whatever their regions are, because they consider this dialect as the most prestigious and the most favorable in the society; they use it to show themselves off. Third, the rural dialect which is spoken by people who are living in the rural and agricultural areas; it is different from the urbanized dialect in terms of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. Finally, the Bedion dialect is spoken by people who are living in the Eastern and Southern regions of the Kingdom.

Studying how men and women use language in interaction has been the obsession of many sociolinguists all over the world such as in the USA, the UK ...etc. However, few studies are carried out in the Arab world in general and in Jordan in particular. Al-Ali and Arafa (2012) studied the phonological variations of Jordanian speech sounds; their samples consist of two groups: school students and university students. They ask them to tell the story depicted in 32 pictures presented in Microsoft PowerPoint instead of the written forms of words; they find that gender and educational settings affect the linguistic variations. Malkawi (2011) studied how men and women speak differently in three social occasions: gladness, consolation, thankful after banquet and farewell. She used a questionnaire to elicit the participants' answers toward these social occasions, she concluded that women use urbanized dialect to show off, and they think that it is the prestigious dialect in Jordanian society. Al-Harashsheh (2012) finds that women have longer period of silence rather than men do, especially in mixed-sex conversations as the social norms in Jordan in favour of a silent women rather than the talkative one.

This study is distinguished in terms of its purpose as it focuses on gender differences styles and phonological variations. It is also the first study, to my best knowledge, that tackles this crucial issue. It is also methodology, that is to say, the data were collected from real life situations, and the participants were grouped in same-sex, and cross-sex conversations. Also, this study is different and original, because it does not on focus on phonological variations but also on conversational styles and strategies practiced by men and women in conversations. In terms of solidarity, there were grouped into friends and strangers to show the differences in language style use.

Questions of the Study

There are many intriguing issues in sociolinguistics that still unstudied in Jordan, such as how men and women use language in different social settings. This study is also original and significant in terms of methodology, theoretical framework and analysis. This study is devoted to answer these crucial questions:

- 1-Are women more linguistically conservative than men? I.e. in using linguistic variables such as pronunciation and vocabulary
- 2-Do women operate more politeness strategies than men?
- 3- What are linguistics and conversational strategies practiced by men and women in conversations?

II. METHODOLOGY

¹ Cited in Eckert (1998)

The sample of the study consisted of 12 dyadic conversations which were videotaped at Yarmouk University (Irbid-Jordan) in 2010. The age range of the participants was between 19-26 years. The conversations took place on campus in an office; a video camera was positioned in front of the participants and they were sitting in front of each other and they were asked to talk about any topic they wish; two topics were suggested for them as an assistance in case they did not find a topic to negotiate such as the university life and the nature of course they were studying. Each conversation lasted for 30 minutes. The conversations were categorized as: two dyadic conversations between females stranger; two dyadic conversations between female friends; two dyadic conversations between male friends, two dyadic conversations between male strangers, two dyadic conversations between male-female strangers and two dyadic conversations male-female friends. These conversations are also categorized as same-sex, and cross-sex conversations.

Theoretical Framework

Sociolinguistics, Politeness theory and Conversation Analysis are together employed as a theoretical framework for the current study since all of them concern in how interactants use language in everyday conversation and in social settings in general. Conversation Analysis (CA) is "the systematic analysis of the talk produced in daily situations of human interaction: talk-in-interaction" (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998, p.13). Therefore, the beneficial framework for this kind of study should be a combination of sociolinguistics and CA.

III. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Gender differences in the language used between men and women are inextricable. Therefore, highlighting these differences requires a multifaceted theoretical framework and the discussion should include the social factors that affect the relationship between the interlocutors such as the function of the talk, the participants, solidarity and the topic of the talk. Examining the data collected scrutinizingly, I found some differences in their linguistics styles and conversational strategies.

Function of the Talk

When analyzing the function of the talk, it is essential to distinguish between the affective (personal) meaning and the referential (informative) meaning (Holmes, 1998). Holmes (1998, p.463) supposes that "women tend to focus on the affective of an interaction more often than men do". In other words, women mainly tend to express their feelings when communicating with each other and even with males. In cross-sex conversations, women tend to be more sensitive to the information that has been conveyed in their talk. The findings of the study approve this assumption. In extract (1) below a woman was explaining her embarrassing and her tension when she was presenting a topic in front of 100 students, because all students were gazing at her and some of them were looking mistakes to criticize her. She therefore showed her feelings to her friend (male). However, the man's answer was referential rather than affective "*Do you ask yourself why?*") Again his response in the last line was also referential "*No, I do not allow anyone to talk in the lecture.*" While she was talking affectively, he was trying to give a logical interpretation to what she said.

Extract No.(1): [M-F friends]

F: Hake:t ilyu:m kont ha:sih ʕam bataʔti? kont ha:sih S'o:ti biqʔaʕ ke:f lama tihi bitalafo:n wiʕfabakeh ʔam bitqʔaʕ hase:t ha:li ʔinoh ikʔe:r mitwatreh wiʕliʕit min ilmoha:darah

M:ʔayib saʔalti ha:lik le:f ?

F: aw ʔana mitwatreh bitdal fikreh ʔinoh ke:f bidi ʔawaqif qida:m me:t ʔa:lib yaʕni ke:f ʔinak bidak itwaqif qoda:m iʕyuhom kolhom ʕale:k na:s bitko:n waqfe:tlak ʕala valʔah na:s biko:n waqfah didak aw na:s maʕa:k law ʕo: ma hake:t ʔaʕhado ʔan la ilaha ila Allah wa ʔaʕhado ʔan Moahmmad raso:l Allah ymikin wa:had yiʕi yihke:lak ʔinta hake:tha valaʔ wa:had yihke:lak ʔinta hake:tha S'ah.

M: la? ʔana bimoha:darah bismahif lahada yihki.

Translation in English

F: I was talking today, I feel that I was stammering, I felt my voice was cutting the same as you are talking on the phone and the network is down. I felt so high-strung and I left the lecture.

M: Okay, did you ask yourself why?

F: While I am tense, I am thinking of how can I stand in front of 100 students, that is, how can you stand in front of students who are all gazing at you? There are some people who are waiting for you to make mistake, and there are some are sympathizing with you. Whatever you say even if you say there is no God but Allah and Mohammad is the messenger of Allah, one of them may tell you that you say it wrongly or another may tell you it is right.

M: No, I do not allow anyone to talk in the lecture.

Conversational Feedback

Conversational feedback is another important factor in distinguishing gender differences in the language used by men and women in JSA. Women are considered as cooperative conversationalists; "they provide more encouraging feedback to their conversational partners than men do" (Holmes, 2008, p.309). In other words, women tend to produce more positive feedbacks to save the face of the other participant. For example, in JSA, women tend to produce more continuers, agreement, repetition of the utterances of their conversational partner, minimal responses, and they produce boosting and hedging devices as encouragement and politeness devices such as words like "By God, Cool, so nice, amazing, the exclamation particle Wallah (by God), (ʔayib) Okay, Ya:y, Yeah ...etc". The function of using minimal

responses is "to support the speaker and indicate the listener's active attention" (Coates, 1998A, p.237). However, men tend to be more competitive and less supportive than women. Therefore, women tend to avoid direct disagreement with men, and they show agreement with men and women in conversation, because the "goals of the interaction are solidarity stressing-maintaining good social relations" (Holmes, 2008, p.309), and this is what women are keen to achieve during conversation.

It was observed that in JSA, women and men tend to avoid threatening the face of the other partner, especially in mixed-sex or same-sex conversations between with those whom they do not like have solidarity. In extract (2) below, **F1** said that, "she does not like other females to criticize her and she does not an arrogant woman who has nothing and she likes to be honest with her girlfriends." On the other side, **F2** produced positive feedback utterances such as "Yeah, like me" with rising intonation, and the continuer "yeah" as an agreement and encouragement strategies for **F1** to proceed in her speech. She also attempted to save the face **F1**. Again, **F2** were keen to produce agreement utterances for **F2** after each topic raised by her, for instance in the line before the last **F1** said, "I offer you the same as you offer me". From another angle, **F2** also produced polite responses as a way to show her gratitude to **F1** who shared her same opinion, such utterances produced by **F1** " *yislam tomik ya Rana*" (*Oh! Rana, you are extremely right*).

It is observed that women who do not have intimacy tend to exchange compliments to express solidarity, evaluation, praising, admiration and appreciation for each other's (Holmes, 1998A). It was observed that the conversation was so active to a degree that it was hard to detect period of silences (especially in this conversation). This proves the notion that in JSA, women tend to produce countless positive politeness devices for each other's rather than men.

Extract (2) [Females Stranger]

F1: Min ilno:ɿ S'a:hba:ti S'ara:h ma: ba:hib bin tin taqidni.

F2: ʔah zaiyi

F1: ʔe::h ma ba:hib S'ara:h ilbint ilimɿaɣrafah illi ʃa:yfi:h ha:lha ɿala wala iʃi sorry yaɿni fa:dyeh min ɣowa.

F2: ʔah

F1: bnaʃis ilwaʔit ʔinoh ba:hib aɗal maɿ ilbint moxliS'ah.

F2: ʔah

F1: Ma anS'adim fe:ha ma anxadiɿ fe:ha, iɿrifti keef ɿali?

F2: ʔah

F1: ba:hib ʔinoh yiko:n fi ixla:S' taba:dol hob ha:l keefik

F2: Zai ma ʔaɿti:ki tiɿte:ni

F1: yislam tomik ya Allah ya Rana ɿan ɣad yimkin inxadaɿit fi: banat aw heeka.

F2: fe:h bilɣa:mɿah

F1: bas bilɣa:mɿeh ʔaqniɿeh kol wahdeh ɿan ɣad double face miʃ t'abe:ɿi maska:t ɿS'di

F1: ʔah

Translation in English

F1: Frankly, I am a person that I do not like a girl to criticize me.

F2: Like me.

F1: ʔe::h Frankly, I do not like the arrogant girl who always shows herself off, and sorry she is nothing. That is, she is has nothing.

F2: Yeah

F1: At the same time, I like to be honest with a girl.

F2: Yeah

F1: I do not like to be shocked, to be cheated from her, you know?

F2: Yeah

F1: I like to have honesty, reciprocal affection

F2: I offer you the same as you offer me.

F1: You are right, Oh God, Oh Rana, I really was cheated by some girls and like

F2: There are at University.

F1: But at university they are hiding behind masks, really they have double-face, unusual masks, you mean?

F2: Yeah.

F1: I swear by God, it is something, really I do not know. I am from those who like to conceal things and I am so sensitive. So, my big family eases this thing.

F2: That it is.

Dominance in Conversation

Another observation in mixed-sex conversations, women tend to initiate more topics to maintain the mainstream of conversation and to break silence. This leads to the following assumption that women dominate conversations because they initiate more than men, thus they direct the conversation in the way they like. However, some sociolinguists think that dominance is correlated with interruption in conversation, but I think the more an interlocutor initiates topic, the more s/he dominates the conversation. In the data analyzed, women initiate more than men in mixed-sex conversations

whether the interlocutors have intimacy or solidarity or not. Extract (3) is an illustrative example on dominating the conversation by a woman. To maintain the mainstream of conversation, the woman tended to initiate more topics respectively. For example, in the first line she asked the man "*when will he graduate?*", then in line three, she initiated again "*when will you complete?*" After that, she repeated the man's answer in line 4. Again, in the line before the last, she initiated an utterance in which she showed her feeling toward him that she wished he will never come back again to university i.e. to pass and not be obliged to stay for another semester.

Extract (3) (M-F Friends)

F: ?imta Xire:ɕ ?

(0.7)

M: ?ana xire:ɕ ilfaS'il ha:ɖ

F: Kam bitxaliS'?

M: 19 wahad biko:n ?a:xir yu:m illi bilɕa:mɕah

F: 19 wa:had bitxaliS' imtiha:na:t.

(0.4)

M: ?ah ?infa:ʔ Allah w?infa:ʔ Allah rah yiku:n ?a:xir yu:m illi bilɕa:mɕah fa: ?e:h miɕ ɕa:rif

F: ?inoh.
?infa:ʔ Allah ya:rab ma tirɕa:ɕilha: heh heh heh.

M: miɕ rah ?arɕa:ɕilha ho: ilmaka:n rah ?iloh ɕkraya:toh fa

F: ?a:h

Translation in English

F: When will you graduate?

(0.7)

M: This semester

F: When will you complete?

M: 19 January is the last day for me at university.

F: You finish exams on 19 January?

(0.4)

M: Yes, God willing, God willing it will be the last day for me at university ?e:h I do not know

F: that
God willing will never come back to it heh heh heh

M: I will not come back to it, but the place has it memories.

F: Yeah .

Repetition in Conversation

Prepetition is an observable conversational style in JSA. According Johnstone (2008) there are three types of repetition in conversation: *Alliteration*, using words starting with the same sounds; *parallelism* i.e. repeating grammatical structures and *Chiasmus* for switching the orders of elements. Johnstone (2008) also state that interlocutors tend to repeat themselves and others for different purposes, such as "backchanneling" to show that the interlocutors are listening and understanding what has been communicating. In addition, repetition is used to solve problems in conversation i.e. self-correction and other's correction. It can also create a cohesive relationship among sentences and utterances. One of the most significant functions of repetition is to signal rapport between the interlocutors (Johnstone, 2008).

The findings of the study indicate that in JSA, women tend to produce more repetitions than men in conversation, whether in same-sex or mixed-sex conversations. In extract (4) below, in the first line, the woman initiated a new topic, she asked the man about how he spends his leisure times. She asked him, "*What do you do? Where do you go in your leisure time?*" She repeated and corrected herself in the second question, she repeated the question in another way "*Where do you go in your leisure time?*" Thus, repetition here is functional, and it aims to explain what has been said in the prior question.

In addition, she attempted to get the man involved in the conversation by uttering "*You may spend most of your time on the Internet?*" She also repeated the same utterance as a repairing strategy in the fourth line. She used a tag question "right?" as a facilitative strategy for the man to get him involved in the conversation. The man also used repetition strategies on words level such as "prominent prominent", "*Like like*", and on the utterance level "*a normal life a normal life*." The man tended to paraphrase what he said in the prior utterance to make sure that the female is following him and understanding what he is talking about. For example, he uttered the following utterance "*in the training course that I participated in, I participated in a training course*". The function of this repetition (*I participated in a training course*) is to emphasize what he said in the prior utterance.

Again, the woman repeated the utterance "*to be behind the scenes*" to make sure that the man understood what she said in the prior turn. The man also repeated the same utterance "*to be behind the scenes*". This repetition functions as a backchannel to show that he is listening and understanding what she said.

Extract (4) [F-M Friends]

F:fo: ʔibtiʃmal ibhaya:tak fo: we:n bitro:h ibfara:gak yaʃni biʃo:z ʃanit ʔakθar ʔiʃi

M:Ke:f ?

F: ʔakθar ʔiʃi biʃo:z ʃanit S'ah.

M: fe:h wallah fe:h ilnit bo:xið mini waqit la baʔis fe:h mara:t baʔlaʃ maʃ ʔiS'ha:bi baʔlaʃ ʃanit biʔawqa:t ʔilimitihana:t aw kaða biku:n fe:h tasle:m maʃru:ʃ baʔtaʒil fe:h awbadaris kaða zai he:k yaʃni **hayah ʃa:diyih hayah ʃa:diyih zai zai** hana:s ʃa:yiʃ ma fe:f ʔiʃi momayaz.

F: t'ab fo: ibtiʃlam ibhaya:tak fo: nafsak tiʔmlo.

M:ha:ð issoʔa:l kama:n ʔinsaʔaltoh bidawrah illi ʃa:rakit fe:ha qabil fatrah ʔi ʃa:rakit ibdawrah ke:f tintið radio ʔalinternet

F: ʔah

M:ʔana ʔinsaʔalit zai he:k fo: ibtiʃlam ibhaya:tak ilʔamal bitifizyu:n ibʃakil momayaz momayaz yaʃ ni awiða ʔ intarakli ilmaʃa:l bafo:t bimaʃa:l iltaS'we:r taS'we:r iltifizyu:n.

F:Yaʃ ni intah bithib itko:n xale:na nihki miʃ biladwa:ʔ

M: Laʔ

F: miʃ biladwa:ʔ yaʃ ni.

M:ʔ ah

F: mmm

M: min wara:ʔ ilkawale:s.

Translation in English

F: What do you do? Where do you go in your leisure time? You may spend most of your time on the Internet?

M: What?

F: You may spent most of your time on the Internet, Right?

M: Yeah , (by God) the Internet take a considerable time like, but sometimes I go out with my friends, we go to the Internet caf   in the exams time and when I have to submit a project or something, or I study like this, like it is a normal life a normal life I live **like like** other people, I do not have a distinguished thing.

F: Yeah, okay, what is your dream in life? What do you wish to do?

M: I was asked this question **in the training course that I participated in; I participated in a training course**, how to broadcast a radio on the Internet.

F: Mmm

M: **I was asked this question like what is your dream in life?** Practically, working in the television in a **prominent prominent** way like if I had the chance I will work in the Imaging field Imaging TV.

F: You mean you would like to be behind the scenes, let us say.

M: No

F: Like to be Behind scenes

M: Yeah

F: Mmmm

M: Behind the scenes

Solidarity

Solidarity refers to how well we know someone; the more intimate the relationship between the interlocutors, the higher the solidarity will be between them and vice versa. In their interaction, women tend to focus on the feelings of the person they are talking to (Holmes, 1998). They show their sympathy and encouragement to their partner in the talk. The findings of the study showed that women have cooperative nature in mixed-sex conversations. They tend to interact sympathetically with men especially when men have psychological problems or they are in a bad temper. In such conversations, women tend to secure agreement, show signs of attention to the man's face. In extract (5) below, the male seemed frustrated because he had a trouble with the lecturer of one courses, and he was worried that the lecturer may fail him in that course, so he would not graduate this semester. He tended to show his indifference about the subject and refused to show apology for the lecturer. The female on the other hand showed sympathy with the man's case and she asked him to go to the lecturer and to apologize for him; and she is keen to attend the man's graduation ceremony and to write him a memory in his graduation booklet. At the beginning, the man tried not to tell the female about the real reason for his frustration, this can be understood from his utterance "what? Nothing", and the ironic utterance " because of Ið ru:h" (an ironic utterance said when someone tries to hide his frustration). It can be observed that the woman tried to elicit information.

Extract (5), [M-F Friends]

M: ʃad wallah qarfa:n.

F:Min ʃ u:ʔ

M: Ha wala ʔ iʃ i

F:ʃ u: illi S'a:yir maʃ a:k?

M: Unheard

F: La:ʃ ?

M: ʕ aʃ a:n iʕ ru:h

F: Doko:r me:n

M: dakto:r Mousa isle:mi

F: le:h

...

F: ʔ e:ʃ yaʃ ni yilwe:lak ʔ iðnak yehamlak ma:diħ

M: Hi Ha:I wʔ i ʕa ʔ itʔ axart ho: ʔ ay ma:diħ hasaʃ fe:ha xalaSʔ fe:ʃ wahadeħ 21 aw 24 ra:ħat ma:diħ hasaʃ

F: wa la ʃ i

M: ha:ðah illi xa:yif minoh

F: tʔab ro:h ʕ ale:h ʔ ihki maʃ oh

...

F: La Hamzih bidna nihðar taxðak ʕ a 0a:ni bidna:ʃ indal nistaneħ lilʔ awal

M: ho inda:ri ʃ u: bidi ʔ asaweelko ha:ð illi Sʔa:r baʃ de:n ʔ ana ʕ a iʔ awal ʔ aro:h ʔ ahðar haflih taxaroð ʔ w daftar bide:ʃ ʔ aʃ aliq.

F: tʔab ʔ ana ke:f bidi ʔ ktoblak.

M: XalaSʔ ʔ okobe:li ʕ la ilie:me:l tahniʔ ah baktob dafter taxaro:ð ʕ ala ilFacebook

ʔ aw baʃ tʔe:h ʔ iya:h ʔ aw ʕ alqo: biqisim ʔ insi.

F: ʔ e:ʃ ha:ð waðʕ ak min ilʔ a:xir ʔ intah moktaʔ ib.

Translation in English

M: Really, by God I feel frustrated.

F: For what?

M: What? Nothing.

F: What happened to you?

M: Unheard

F: Why ?

M: Because of iʕ ru:h (a phrase used ironically when someone tries to hide his sad feeling)

F: Who is the doctor?

M: Dr. Mousa Ismle:man

F: Why?

...

F: What do you mean by giving you a lesson, he will fail you the course.

M: That is it, there is no course to fail in.

F: Nothing.

M: This is what I am worried about.

F: Okay, talk to him.

...

F: No Hamzeh we would like to attend your graduation ceremony in second semester, we do not like to wait for the first semester.

M: I do not know, what shall do for you? I will attend the ceremony in the first semester and I will never hang the graduation book.

F: So, how can I write a memory for you?

M: You can write on my wall on Facebook

In extract (6) below, the two females are studying English language, and they were fourth year students. Interestingly, both females did not only use urbanized dialects but they also employed code-switching and borrowing too much in the conversation. The reasons behind this are: first, speaking English is prestigious in Jordan, because it is considered as a second language, and it is highly demanded in many jobs nowadays. Both females' linguistic repertoires are affected by English language concepts and terms. Second, both females tended to borrow English words albeit their synonyms are lexicalized in Arabic. For instance, *ʔa fi:h miðil ilmadrasah careless* (yes like in the school is careless). The adjective careless is lexicalized in Arabic; its synonyms is *la mobali*. Another example uttered by the other female, *ʔo: fi:h farʔ bithisi fi:h gap be:n ilmadrasah wa dirasit ilmadrasah* (you feel that there is a difference, a gap between the school and its study. Other English words were also borrowed in this conversation such as *start*, *magic*, *writing* *accounting*. In addition, in urbanized dialect the /q/ ʕ sound, voiceless uvular stop, is pronounce as /ʔ /, voiceless glottal stop. Therefore, both females pronounce it as /ʔ /. We can see other examples in words like *waʔ it* (time), *bitʔ o:li* (you said), *bitʔ dar* (you can), *bitlaʔ i:ni* (I will be) ... etc.

In addition, both women show many positive politeness strategies such as producing more positive feedback or encouragements to save each other's faces. Even when they interrupt each, this interruption was positive and it functions to encourage the train of the other participants thought. This proves the hypothesis proposed by Holmes (1998) that "women tend to use linguistic devices that stress solidarity more often than men do", especially in stranger same-sex conversations.

Extract (6): (Two female's stranger)

F1: Kam ? oxit ? indik ?

F2: Wahdih ? o θalaθ ? awlad.

F1: ma ʃ a: ? Allah ? into: small ? ihna **big huge family, family.**

F1: How many sisters do you have?

F2: One and two brothers.

F1: God willing, you are a small family, we are a big huge family, family.

In this extract, F1 code-switches into English; the purpose of code-switching here is to show off and to show herself as prestigious as well as to show solidarity because both speakers are studying English Language. The rest of the conversation is full of code-switching by both females. To conclude, in conversations between females strangers, women tend to use urbanized dialect and even code-switching especially those who study a foreign language. However, those who do not study a foreign language, they do not code-switch, but they only use urbanized dialect.

In conversation between females' friends, the findings of the study show that women who have intimacy tend to be ease during the conversation; they use both mixed of urbanized rural dialects. This indicates that intimacy plays a pivotal role in selecting the linguistic style and dialect. Both participants think that they are free from the social barriers, they therefore speak comfortably and they are away from refinements of their speech as they do when talking to strangers. The findings of the study agree with Cameron's (1998) that women tend to pay considerate attention to each other's faces to seek for good Social connection rather than status, whether the speakers are friends or strangers. Women also gain status by showing the suitable degree of concern for others, and lose status by showing "less concern for others and too much for herself" (Cameron, 1998, p.280). Consider extract (7) below.

Extract (7), [Females Friends]

F1: bas ana daxaltuh

F2: me:n ? ili ? a:rd

F1: ? il ? ahil yaʃ ni

F2: ? a::h daxalto raʃ im ildro:f ilS'aʃ bah ? ini ? a:ne:t ikθe:r maʃ ? ahli hata daxlit **ha:d** ittaxaS'uS' ? e::h biʃ itbar ? inu: taxas'uS' S'aʃ ob ? w miʃ lilbana:t ibra ? ihom yaʃ ni.

F1: But I study it.

F2: Who opposed you.

F1: My family.

F2: Yes, Regardless the difficult circumstances, the I suffer a lot with my parents , but I study it. They think that this specification is hard and should be only for males not females.

Phonological Variations

This section focuses on phonological variations, as they are crucial in distinguishing the gender differences between men and women's languages. The findings of the study show that women are more considerate and conservative to the phonological variations than men are. That is to say, they tend to use the urbanized pronunciations of some letters to show politeness and to distinguish themselves that they are urbanized, prestigious and educated. In extract (8) below, the female is asking the male about his refusal in participating in the Student Union's election at university. Actually, the female used the urbanized form of Jordanian JSA. This can be evident from words like **ha:d** (this). There are three forms of the demonstrative pronoun *this* in JSA, the urbanized form **ha:d**, the rural form **ha:ḍ**, and the Bedion form **ha:ḍ**. However, the Standard Arabic form is **ha:ḍa**. She also used the Standard Arabic expression "*bidfaʃ ak lil ? amam ? aw bishabak lilxalf*" (Does it push you forward or backward? However, the male used vernacular forms such as the demonstrative pronoun **ha:ḍ**. In addition, he uttered other vernacular forms like *baḍal mahali* (stay in my place). Yet, the urbanized form is *baḍal makani*. Interestingly, the atmosphere of the conversation affects the male's linguistic choices, as he tried to code switch between vernacular and urbanized dialect. For example, he uttered the urbanized expressions *keef bidi ? ahkeeha* (How can I say it?) and *zai ma hakeetlik* (as I told you). Then, he uttered vernacular forms like *? aso:lif* (was talking), *lama babqa qa:ʃ id maʃ ? iʃ abab* (when I was talking to my friends).

Extract (8) [F-M strangers]

F: E::::h bitʃ o:f ? inoh ha:d ? i ? iʃ i Saḥ wala ʃ alat' bidfaʃ ak lil ? amam ? aw bishabak lilxalf.

M: ? e::::h ha:ḍ ? ili ? ʃ i ? ::h ? a::di wasat' yaʃ ni (0.3) la hou bidfaʃ ani lil ? amam wa la ? ila ? ilxalf (0.2), baḍal mahali miḍil ma ? ana bas ? ino:: (1.0) mmmm keef bidi ? ahkeeha zai ma hakeetlik banhardʒ ikθ:r maḍalan lama babqa qa:ʃ id maʃ iʃ abab lama ? aso:lif ? iʃ i (0.2) kolhom ? inibahom ? ali babat'il ? aso:lif.

(0.6)

F: ? inta ibtodros inḍle:zi, S'ah ?

M: S'ah

F: Yaʃ ni momkin fi ilmostaqbal itko:n ? e::h moʃ alim ? osta: ḍ mmmm ? osta: ḍ?

M: Mmmm ? a::di mmmm ma ? indi ? e::h ma:niʃ

F: Ma ho: ilkol raḥ yiko:n intiba:hoh ? ale:k, kol it'ola:b yimkin yiḍi mode:r yimkin yiḍi moʃ rif momkin ilkol raḥ yiko:n intiba:hoh ? ale:k.

M: ? e::::h

F: Intah momkin tirtaqi momkin taxod ? inʃ a:ʃ Allah master ? o dokrorah witS'e:r ibmawdiʃ ? e::::h yaʃ ni ilkol raḥ yiko:n intiba:hoh ? ale:k miʃ bas iS'ha:bak heh heh heh heh

Translation in English

F: Do you think this is the right or wrong? Does it push you forward or backward?

M: This thing is Okay, normal, that is (0.3) it does not push me forward or backward(0.2) I stay in my position like I, but it is (1.0) mmmm how can I say it? I feel so embarrassed, for example when I am talking about something to my friends(0.2) when they all give me attention I stop talking.

(0.6)

F: You are studying English, right?

M: That is right.

F: That is, you may be a teacher in the future, ? e:::h, a teacher mmmm a teacher ?

M: Mmmm it is Okay mmmm I have no objection.

F: The attention of everybody will be on you, may be all students, the headmaster, the supervisor, the attention of everybody will be on you.

M: ? e:::h

F: You may get a promotion, you may get a master or a PhD God willing, and you will be in a position ? e:::h, that is, the attention of everybody will be on you, not only your friends heh heh heh.

It is clear that the male tried to use the urbanized dialect to attract the females' attention and to show himself off as an educated and urbanized young man. From my experience as a sociolinguist, the majority of Jordanian young men (i.e. those who studies at universities), regardless of their regions, tend to use the urbanized form when talking to female students rather than vernaculars. The tendency behind this is that they think this dialect is the most prestigious and preferable for women; the one who speaks it is urbanized, educated, diplomatic, acceptable or may be romantic.

The same is true for females who come from rural regions; the majority of them use the urbanized dialect, as it is the acceptable or the unmarked linguistic form of females' speakers. However, the rural or vernacular dialect is marked and unacceptable from females. In addition, the urbanized dialect reflects their femininity more than the rural dialect. In some cases, young female students are blamed by their peer students when using rural or vernaculars on the campus, as they look at them as unurbanized and uneducated. Amazingly, women who come from rural regions use vernaculars at home, with family members and females whom they have intimacy even on campus, but they use urbanized dialect when talking to stranger males and females, to protect their facial needs as women are more status-cautious rather than men. Al-Wer (1991) states that young and well-educated Jordanian women who have contacts outside their communities accommodate to the new community's linguistic variants more than old and less educated women, because the latter are more exposed to local network pressure.

IV. CONCLUSION

After reviewing the findings of the study, it is clear that the distinction between men and women's language in an indexical task. The study shows that there are distinguished differences between women and men's linguistic styles. Women tend to avoid direct disagreement, and they tend to maintain the social rapport with the other interlocutor. In addition, they tend to produce more facilitative strategies to get the other interlocutor involved in the conversation, so they are professional conversationalists and more cooperative than men are. Further studies are encouraged to investigate the differences in prosodic features such as intonation and pitch. The study found that women are more conservative than men in conversations, as they employ more politeness strategies than men do.

APPENDIX

The Phonemes of Spoken Jordanian Arabic

? : voiceless glottal stop ء

B: voiced bilabial stop ب

T: voiceless dental stop ت

θ: voiceless inter-dental fricative. ث

ʒ: voiced palatal affricate ج (Jordanian Arabic)

ç: fricative voiced alveolar ح (Standard Arabic)

h: voiceless pharyngeal fricative ح

X: voiceless velar fricative خ

D: voiced dental stop د

ð: voiced inter-dental fricative ذ

r: alveolar tap ر

z: voiced dental fricative ز

s: voiceless dental fricative س

ʃ: voiceless palatal fricative ش

ʧ: voiced palatal fricative تش

s': voiceless fricative alveolar ص

t': stop voiceless emphatic ط

ð': Voiced fricative emphatic	ظ
d': voiced emphatic stop	ض
ʕ : voiced pharyngeal fricative	ع
ɣ : voiced velar fricative	غ
f: voiceless labio-dental fricative	ف
g: voiced velar stop	ق (Jordanian Arabic)
q: voiceless uvular stop	ق (Standard Arabic)
k: voiceless velar stop	ك
l: alveolar lateral	ل
m: bilabial nasal stop	م
n: alveolar nasal stop	ن
h: voiceless glottal fricative	ه
w: Approximant velar	و
y palatal semi-vowel	ي

Vowels:

Long Vowels

I: high front
A: low back
U: high back
E: mid front
O: mid back

Short vowels

I high, front
A low, back
U high back
E mid front
O mid back

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Effects of Using the Online Dictionary for Etymological Analysis on Vocabulary Development in EFL College Students

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Abstract—This study has been designed to investigate the effects of using the Online Dictionary for presenting etymological analysis of new vocabulary items in hyperlinked words to students in an online environment, using the accompanying facilities of thesaurus, encyclopedia, and web on developing vocabulary building skills and inducing positive attitudes towards vocabulary learning in EFL students of the College of Languages and Translation, Abha. The study employs a triangulation of research methods, in which two groups studying Vocabulary II, one in traditional setting (control) and the other (experimental) via the Online Dictionary's etymological analysis feature in a Blackboard environment are examined for the development of vocabulary learning skills and their attitudes towards etymological analysis. The study bore out findings in favour of the new technique of vocabulary learning, i.e., etymological analysis, powered by the Online Dictionary in improving vocabulary learning and inducing to positive attitudes towards vocabulary instruction. The results are discussed in relation to the hypotheses and against the research backdrop presented in the review of the literature. The study ends on a set of pedagogical implications and recommendations for further research.

Index Terms—vocabulary learning, etymology, retention, Blackboard, dictionary learning, semantic mapping, glossing

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning vocabulary is an incremental and developmental process that starts with foreign language learning. Researchers revealed that the average foreign language learners acquire the meanings of about 6,000 root words in a matter of two years, or about 2.4 root words per day (e.g., Anglin, 1993; Biemiller, 2005, 2006; Biemiller & Slonim, 2001). The more the foreign language learner moves with the learning process actively, the more the need is for acquiring more vocabulary. But English as a foreign language learners require a threshold of 5000 word families to be able to be independent EFL learners, however (Coady, 1997). Researchers further maintain that EFL learners require from 450,000 to 750,000 to be able to develop reading comprehension and writing skills and to achieve academically better (Stahl, 1999; Tompkins, 2005).

Paul (1996) claims that overt vocabulary instruction is a must, particularly for poor readers, who are not likely to derive word meanings from the use of context while reading. One of the most effective instructionally remedial strategies for enhancing vocabulary learning and reading comprehension is for learners to use dictionaries. Dictionaries can be monolingual, in which case the target words are defined in the language of the target words, or bilingual, in which the target words are defined in a second language that matches the first language of the user. Studies have demonstrated that the majority of L2 learners use such bilingual dictionaries regardless of their proficiency level (Jian, Sandnes, Law, Yo-Ping Huang, & Huang, 2009; Kent, 2001; Laufer & Hadar, 1997; Laufer & Rimmel, 1997).

Dictionaries are now readily available both as paper or electronic (e-dictionaries). E-dictionaries maybe either online (e.g., the website Dictionary.reference.com), which can also be available apps for portable devices, and smart mobile phones, and can be efficiently used to facilitate reading comprehension and vocabulary acquisition for adult learners of a second/foreign language (Ji, 2009; Mekheimer, 2012; Shi, 2008; Welker, 2010; Zhang, 2000). The use of e-dictionaries in foreign language learning settings has been reported to facilitate reading comprehension and vocabulary enhancement (Knight, 1994; Koga, 1995; Mekheimer, 2012), often better than paper dictionaries (Koga, 1995; Laufer, 2001; Mekheimer, 2012). Chen (2011) investigated the effects of paper-based bilingual dictionaries versus online e-dictionaries and concluded that the use of the latter exponentially improved learning and retention of unknown words encountered during a reading, with e-dictionaries providing a comparatively stronger learning effect than paper dictionaries. In the same way, Dziemianko (2010) revealed that e-dictionary use is better than paper dictionary use for learning. Furthermore, Dziemianko (2011) found that a comparison of paper-based versus online dictionaries bore no such significantly positive effects to the good of e-dictionaries; this was ascribed to the difference in the outlook and interface of the e-dictionaries that were used in the study of Dziemianko (2011), as the website in this study was messy with banners and widgets, in contrast to the clean, orderly look of the original study's website in the study of 2010. In this vein, too, e-dictionaries were also found to exercise an enhancing effect on reading comprehension of intermediate readers to a level tantamount to that of advanced readers (Wang, 2011). As for attitudes towards using which media,

paper format or the e-format of dictionaries, research has borne out findings that support the hypothesis that e-dictionaries are the most favourite media of today's adult students (Noor, 2011; Mekheimer, 2012).

The reason for this preference has been attributed in an investigation by Aldosari & Mekheimer (2010) which revealed that EFL learners "utilise all available information provided by the online dictionary before deciding on the meaning of the new word" seem to have made the most use of an online dictionary in the electronic milieu (p.550).

The online dictionary manipulated for this study enjoys the facilities of thesaurus, encyclopedia, translator, and web. One feature of lexical presentation in this online dictionary is the provision of etymological analysis at the end of the entries. According to one study by Bellomo (1999), etymology instruction was useful for learners who were given explicit instruction. More recent studies could prove that the use of semantic mapping strategy as a vocabulary presentation technique, which is also a feature in the Online Dictionary, as well as the use of etymological analysis could lead to improved vocabulary retention and improved reading comprehension (Baleghizadeh and Yousefpoori Naeim, 2011; Hosseini, Sarfallah, Bakhshipour & Dolatabadi, 2012).

The purpose of the present study, therefore, was to examine the effects of using the Online Dictionary for etymological analysis for improving vocabulary learning and retention. Therefore, the research question that arises from this purpose is:

What are the effects of the Online Dictionary on developing vocabulary learning and retention in EFL students of the College of Languages and Translation in Abha?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Methods and techniques of vocabulary learning and teaching to promote efficient and effective vocabulary acquisition have been worthwhile lines of research in ESL/EFL. Available literature points to two main approaches to vocabulary learning and teaching: the implicit and the explicit approaches. Vocabulary research indicates that the majority of our mental lexicon is more likely to be acquired incidentally and is implicitly stored in subtle ways. Incidental vocabulary is the off-shot of implicit teaching methods geared towards facilitating vocabulary learning. Intentional learning, however, requires laying emphasis, during instruction, on linguistic forms, whereas incidental learning needs rapt attention to be directed to meaning while paying peripheral attention to forms. In explicit vocabulary learning, students get involved in activities that emphasise vocabulary learning per se. In this vein, Allen (1983) maintains that the explicit approach to vocabulary instruction should be adopted by utilizing a variety of vocabulary learning strategies commensurate with the learning and cognitive styles of the students.

There are varied vocabulary learning strategies (VLSs) have attracted the attention of many researchers around the world (Ahmed, 1989; Sanaoui, 1995; Gu and Johnson, 1996; Lawson and Hogben, 1996; Schmitt, 1997; Kojic-Sabo and Lightbown, 1999; Nakamura, 2002; Catalán, 2003; Fan, 2003; Gu, 2003).

The use of such varied techniques of vocabulary instruction is a must for language learners and teachers alike to help the former to compensate for their limited lexical competences (Nyikos and Fan, 2007) and to ensure that teaching methods of vocabulary cater to the needs of limited vocabulary learners on the part of the latter (Zaid, 2009). This is especially required in EFL settings where exposure to the English lexicon in daily life is extremely limited as is the case in Saudi Arabia.

Research on strategy-based instruction for vocabulary building is informed by the depth-of-processing theory (Craik and Lockhart, 1972) in which 'deeper' processing is construed as being superior to 'shallow' processing. Therefore, a significant feature of VLSs instruction lies in the inclusion of metacognitive strategies. Research indicates that the effect of explicit metacognitive strategy training is conducive to enhanced vocabulary learning (Rasekh and Ranjbari, 2003; Zaki and Ellis, 1999). This *cognitively structured* approach to vocabulary learning is significantly important to give fruition to improved lexical learning (Sanaoui, 1995; Folse, 2004; Zaid, 2009; Zaki and Ellis, 1999).

However, vocabulary strategy instruction research suggests that this approach can be most successful when incorporated into the regular classroom instruction (McDonough, 1999). Two important cognitive techniques used to improve the progress of vocabulary teaching and learning are glossing and hyperlinking which can aid foreign language learners to study and develop vocabulary and better achieve on reading comprehension tasks (Dwight, 2003; Lomika, 1998; Nikolova, 2004). Prior research indicates that providing links to electronic dictionaries or to glosses that explain new vocabulary in the target language allow for reading with less distraction and greater understanding and retention of new knowledge compared with the slower process of looking in paper-based reference tools (Solomon, 2002; Koponen, 2012). In addition, prior research indicates that glossing or hyperlinking to clarifying sources increases knowledge acquisition and retention (Dwight, 2003; Lomika, 1998; Nikolova, 2004).

In addition, explored the relationship between the use of computerized dictionaries/online glossing and vocabulary acquisition and overall reading comprehension (Aweiss, 1994; Chun & Plass, 1996; Gettys, Imhof, & Kautz, 2001; Knight, 1994; Lomika, 1998; Lyman-Hager, Davis, Burnett, & Chennault, 1993). Lyman-Hager et al. (1993) examined the effects of using computerized dictionaries on vocabulary acquisition; findings showed that glossed vocabulary instruction resulted in a higher retention rate. By the same token, Aweiss (1994) explored the effect of computer-mediated reading supports on comprehension during independent reading. The most significant finding of the study showed that readers with access to computer-assisted reading aids scored significantly higher on the immediate recall protocol than those with no access to any reading aids.

The use of etymological analysis and semantic mapping can be conducive to enhanced vocabulary acquisition. In this way, Schmitt (2008) maintains that “the overriding principle for maximizing vocabulary learning is to increase the amount of engagement learners have with etymological items, mainly the roots”(p.352) which could be done using online dictionaries that provide etymological references to their entries and semantic maps that show the development of the words (Hosseini, et al., 2012). Therefore, Trench (1998) views etymological analysis as a significant technique in the presentation of new vocabulary to foreign language learners and considers explicit etymology teaching as a must-read feature of entries in dictionaries.

The present researcher defines the etymological analysis strategy as a useful presentational strategy of vocabulary instruction through their comprising roots and identifying word origins attributable to classic languages.

Yet, research on the effects of etymological analysis is scant (Hosseini, et al., 2012). According to Hosseini, et al. (2012), the use of etymological analysis through online dictionaries can be conducive to improved findings regarding vocabulary learning and positive effects on the opinions of learners regarding the use of this technique for the study of vocabulary. In this vein, too, Baleghizadeh and Yousefpoori Naeim (2011) indicated that the use of semantic mapping strategies can lead to improved word retention and better vocabulary acquisition. By the same token, Bellomo (1999), examined the effects of etymology instruction and concluded that teaching affixes, morphological analysis and etymological analysis can result in improved explicit instruction and learning of vocabulary through teaching etymologies, semantic mapping and the use of meaningfully contextualised words.

III. METHODOLOGY

Method

The study employs a triangulation of research methods, including experimental designs and descriptive introspection of opinions towards effectiveness of learning vocabulary through etymology and the quality of retention of learned vocabulary; two groups studying Vocabulary II, one in the traditional setting (control) and the other (the experimental) via Blackboard are tested for their vocabulary learning and retention mean scores upon using the traditional medium of instruction (teacher-centred, paper dictionary-based, and classroom-oriented) and the technology-based medium of Blackboard (Blackboard-oriented, online dictionary-based, and in virtual classrooms).

Participants

The sample of the study consisted of 83 male students enrolled in the English department, College of Languages & Translation, Abha, KKU, in Levels VII VIII.

Instruments

A multiple-choice vocabulary test was developed for the purpose of the present study. This multiple-choice test of vocabulary was comprised of 100 items selected from the text book before it was piloted. These items were piloted with 25 students at the same level of the intact group of participants harnessed for the present study. Then, after data collection, the process of item analysis was carried out. Too difficult and too easy items were discarded, some were modified, and there eventually remained 50 items which were used for the pre-test and post-test in this study for experimental and control groups. The reliability of the test was calculated using the Cronbach Alpha co-efficient formula ($r=0.86$ - a coefficient deemed appropriate for an aptitude test).

In addition, an introspective survey, which consisted of five statements, was designed in order to check the participants' opinions concerning the effectiveness of learning vocabulary through etymology and the quality of retention of learned vocabulary items. This survey focused on assessing the degree to which teaching and learning new vocabulary items through etymology affect the development of EFL learners' knowledge of lexicon and its retention by lapse of time. The scale was validated by a jury of 8 assistant professors, 3 professors, and 5 associate professors of Translation, TEFL, and Applied Linguistics in KKU. The reliability coefficient of the scale using Cronbach Alpha was ($\alpha = 0.94$) which is an appropriate value.

Materials

For both groups of the research, the set book of Vocabulary II was used as a main material for instruction.

Hypotheses of the Study

1. There are no statistically significant differences between the vocabulary test mean scores of the control group and those of the experimental group attributable to the medium of instruction (the paper-based dictionary, the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, versus the online dictionary, the website Dictionary.com).
2. There are no statistically significant differences between the opinions concerning the effectiveness of learning vocabulary through etymology and the quality of retention of learned vocabulary items survey mean scores of the control group and those of the experimental group attributable to the medium of instruction.

Procedures

The participants of this study were divided into two groups: the experimental and the control. The vocabulary test was administered to the two groups to elicit evidence in order to compare with the posttest results and to ensure that both groups were equal at the onset of the study. Then, the students of both groups received their instruction via a teacher-centred, paper dictionary-based, and classroom-oriented approach for the control group and the Blackboard-oriented, online dictionary-based approach for the experimental group respectively. During the experimental treatment, the experimental group received instruction on etymological analysis of vocabulary via the etymology feature of the

Online Dictionary in 48 sessions during 16 weeks in the academic year 2012-2013. During the treatment also, they were requested to read selected extra texts with unfamiliar vocabulary items that have varied etymologies (from French, Latin, Greek, Arabic, etc.). The experimental group students were thus given access to the etymological analysis of new words used in the passages via links to the Online Dictionary. They were actually taught to learn unfamiliar words using their root meaning presented in Online Dictionary. They were also requested to drill the learned roots and their meanings by giving examples of words with the same roots.

On the other hand, the control group students received the same materials but they were instructed into the new vocabulary through the traditional way of vocabulary teaching through bilingualised English-Arabic word lists in 48 sessions over the period of the semester. In some classes, students in the control group were required to infer the meaning of the unfamiliar words from the text or use the paper-based dictionary to look them up. After 16 weeks, the experimental and control groups both were given the same posttest of vocabulary to explore the effects of the two different media of vocabulary instruction. Finally, after the administration of the posttest, the effectiveness of learning vocabulary through etymology and the quality of retention of learned vocabulary survey was given to the participants in order to glean their opinions regarding the effectiveness of employing etymological analysis as a medium of vocabulary acquisition.

IV. RESULTS

The researcher implemented the experiment during the second semester of the academic year 2013 started in mid-January and ended in mid-May, 2013. To control for group equivalence, a t-test was calculated to compare mean scores of both groups on pretesting vocabulary knowledge and retention as shown in Table (1) below:

TABLE 1
GROUP EQUIVALENCE OF CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL PARTICIPANTS ON VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE AND RETENTION

Group	Mean	SD	t-value
Control (n = 40)	14.3	3.9	0.88
Experimental (n = 43)	13.3	6.3	

As shown in Table (1) above, there were no statistically significant differences at alpha (0.01) between mean scores of control students and experimental students on the vocabulary knowledge and retention test, indicating group equivalence prior to the onset of the study. To control for group equivalence, a t-test was calculated to compare mean scores of both groups on pretesting the participants' attitudes towards the quality of each medium as shown in Table (2) below:

TABLE 2
GROUP EQUIVALENCE OF CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL PARTICIPANTS ON EFFECTIVENESS OF EMPLOYING ETYMOLOGICAL ANALYSIS AS A MEDIUM OF VOCABULARY VIA THE ONLINE DICTIONARY

Group	Mean	SD	t-value
Control (n = 40)	78	11.6	0.76
Experimental (n = 43)	76	11.9	

As shown in Table (2) above, there were no statistically significant differences at alpha (0.01) between mean scores of control students and experimental students on the attitude scale, indicating group equivalence in terms of participants' attitudes prior to the launch of the study.

The experiment was then initiated after group equivalence was achieved on vocabulary aptitude and attitude towards the quality of vocabulary instructional method. The same instructor taught both control and experimental students to control for instructor variables interfering with the results, such as teaching competency, personality traits, etc. The experimental group studied the textbook vocabulary in Vocabulary II using the LMS medium of Blackboard powered by the Online Dictionary available for free on the open Internet, and accessed through Blackboard via a link created by the researcher to new vocabulary items in each lesson. Students in the control group studied Vocabulary II in a traditional fashion of short texts and word lists powered by regular look-ups in a paper dictionary in class and at home, with the effort being mostly on the part of the learners in recognizing words and knowing about their roots from the paper dictionary. The e-learning experimental group learners studied the same course syllabus in an e-learning lab with access to the online dictionary with other hyperlinks to supportive web resources on word roots and etymological analysis of word origins and word roots. Students were guided as to how to use the online dictionary to reach out for the historical development of words, the roots, syllable division, affixes, etc., that are congruous with context. Table (3) below shows the means and standard deviations of both groups upon post-testing; the t-value is also showed, and the gain score has been calculated for both groups for comparison of performance between pretesting and posttesting:

TABLE 3
MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, GAIN SCORES, AND T-VALUE OF PRETESTING/POSTTESTING ON TRANSLATION APTITUDES

Groups	Aptitude Test		Mean Gain Score	SD	t-value
	Pretesting	Posttesting			
	Mean score	Mean score			
Control (n = 40)	14.3	19.6	5.3	5.7	2.7 **
Experimental (n = 43)	13.3	22.6	9.3	7.2	

** Significant at 0.01

The table above shows t-test results for the differences in mean scores on the vocabulary test for both the control and the experimental groups. Findings showed that there were significant differences between the mean scores to the good of the experimental group. Such findings led the researcher to discard of the first null hypothesis, and conclude that the instructional e-learning medium supported by the Online Dictionary in teaching vocabulary through etymological analysis has been significantly more effective than the traditional method using a paper dictionary and bilingualised word lists.

As for the participants' opinions regarding the effectiveness of employing etymological analysis as a medium of vocabulary, Table (4) below shows the means, gain scores, standard deviations, and t-value of both groups upon post-administration of the attitude scale:

TABLE 4
MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, GAIN SCORES, AND T-VALUE OF PRETESTING/POSTTESTING ON THE ONLINE DICTIONARY ETYMOLOGICAL ANALYSIS ATTITUDES

Groups	Attitude Scale		Mean Gain Score	SD	t-value
	Pretesting	Posttesting			
	Mean score	Mean score			
Control (n = 40)	78	87.2	9.2	18.2	2.48 *
Experimental (n = 43)	76	93.4	17.4	10.8	

* Significant at 0.05

The table above shows t-test results for the differences in mean scores on the attitude scale for both the control and the experimental groups. Findings showed that there were significant differences between the mean scores to the good of the experimental group. Again, these findings led the researcher to reject the second null hypothesis, and conclude that the instructional e-learning medium supported by the Online Dictionary has been significantly more favourable to, and conducive to positive attitudes in the EFL students than the traditional method of paper dictionaries and word lists.

V. DISCUSSION

The results of this study showed that there were significant differences between the experimental group participants and the control group participants on pretesting both on performance on the vocabulary knowledge test and the attitudes towards using etymological analysis via the Online Dictionary medium to the advantage of the experimental students. This indicates that vocabulary instruction through the etymological analysis feature of the Online Dictionary proved to be more effective than using paper dictionaries and traditional bilingualised word lists. This study has also proven that the online dictionary as used to support Blackboard software has also proven more effective in developing and brushing up on the skills of etymological analysis in EFL students. A potential reason is the ease of use, and the variety of facilities available on the online dictionary, including web search, thesaurus, and the translator which can help students to identify word syllables and recognize the meanings of affixes as well as recognize the etymological development of English words. Online dictionary and the electronic medium of Blackboard has also provided supportive web resources such as thesauruses and etymology tracers that helped experimental students to learn more about words, their cultural usages, denotations, and connotational loadings of lexicon as well as the word usage in context, which is not often available in paper dictionary based classrooms of translation instruction. This finding is commensurate with prior research in this line (e.g., Aldosari & Mekheimer, 2010; Ballesteros & Croft, 2003; Bellomo, 1999; Honglan, 2005; Hosseini, et al., 2012; Hull & Grefenstetter, 1996; Koren, 1997; Provaznikova, 2009; Sharpe, 1995).

The findings also bore evidence that e-learning of translation, using Blackboard and the online dictionary has been conducive to improved positive attitudes towards translation courses. This is also in line with some prior research which indicated that e-learning can induce to enhanced language learning in the classroom, as well as enhanced positive attitudes towards the coursework learned in a technology-based language classroom (Yan & Chen, 2007; Huang, Chern & Lin, 2009).

VI. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Findings from the present study, including the participants' introspective data elicited from the attitude survey support the view that using the etymological analysis, word history maps and etymological traces of studied vocabulary in the Online Dictionary proved effective in meaningful vocabulary learning for EFL students; therefore, etymological analysis can function as an independent technique for vocabulary teaching par excellence. Hence, this technique may be

recommended for use in vocabulary instruction explicitly and independently or along with other techniques cited in pertinent literature and are deemed to be helpful in the development of vocabulary learning in EFL learners.

Furthermore, as cited earlier, few studies have been conducted regarding teaching etymology in the field of vocabulary teaching and learning. Thus, further research studies concerning vocabulary instruction are needed in the area of second/foreign language learning.

The findings of the present study provide instructional designers and instructors guided advice and useful pedagogical implications for utilizing hyperlinked dictionaries with online materials and furnishes them with guided training on the use of etymological analysis using the Online Dictionary. The Online Dictionary website can be harnessed to create hyperlinks to all the words in an e-text in order to provide an easily accessible, hyperlinked dictionary in a seamless, non-distracting manner; this can be especially helpful for learners in terms of efficacy and motivation for vocabulary learning. While prior research on glossing (hyperlinking) tested mainly its effect on comprehension and vocabulary acquisition retention (Dwight, 2003; Lomika, 1998; Nikolova, 2004) as well as reading avoidance (Vacca, 2006), very few studies investigated the efficacy of etymological analysis in improving vocabulary learning and attitudes towards vocabulary instruction (Hosseini, et al., 2012).

While this study could demonstrate overall increases in vocabulary learning and improved attitudes towards using the Online Dictionary for learning word etymologies using the hyperlinked dictionary, the findings of the present study encourage the conducting of additional research for a larger population, additional groups, and longitudinal research designs. Further research should include populations that begin with lower language proficiency to aid in demonstrating significant increases in vocabulary learning, attitude improvement and motivation increment.

Future studies may also be needed to use passages from widely used textbooks that are written and approved as college reading level through editing, hyperlinking and glossing using the Online Dictionary with emphasis on word etymology training in online learning settings. Likewise, future studies might want to focus on non-native pre-college students because they would be less likely to be well-versed in strategy-based vocabulary instruction.

In addition, future studies might also want to control for a type of halo-type 3 effect and seek to answer the question: "Does the presence of a hyperlinked dictionary, even in cases in which it is not used for reading online, contribute to improved explicit vocabulary learning via etymological analysis and improved attitudes towards vocabulary learning?" Future research might observe how students use the hyperlinked glosses and document the process. This technique can provide insightful implications into how hyperlinking affects increased vocabulary learning. Is it the fact that the online hyperlinking courseware is simply there or is it the fact that they use it which influences an increase in incidental vocabulary learning and improved attitudes and motivation? Can reading online with a hyperlinked dictionary ease the reading process enough to significantly increase efficacy in explicit vocabulary learning?

Future researchers can also use other research methodologies like qualitative tools. Case studies, textual analysis of answers to a series of open-ended questions or written reflections, can offer additional insightful pedagogical implications into how etymological analysis influences attitudes towards online reading, efficacy, and motivation to tackle reading perceived as more difficult than reading skills levels. As well, researchers can investigate the learning gains on vocabulary learning by using an online hyperlinked text with training on etymological analysis and semantic mapping. Does it create enough benefit to invest the amount of time and effort to deliver such a system to students?

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Intra-lingual Code Alternation in Arabic: The Conversational Impact of Diglossia

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Abstract—The purpose of this paper is to investigate which varieties of Arabic educated speakers of both genders use when conversing with one another in informal conversational settings. The study specifically investigates the types of diglossic code-switches used, and the pragmatic functions of these various diglossic code-switches. It then investigates the informants' diglossic code-switching behavior and reasons for diglossic code-switching. The research was conducted using informants from Jordan, Iraq, Morocco, Egypt, and Saudi Arabia. Different groups of informants were arranged so that all combinations of informants within same-gender dyads were examined, with one female pair (one informant from each country) and one similar male pair from each applicable country. After the data were collected, salient portions of the audio-taped conversations were then transcribed and analyzed. It was observed that not once did subjects of this study use Classical Arabic as a linguistic medium during their taped conversations. Rather than relying primarily on CA or MSA, the informants employed a variety of accommodation strategies when conversing with one another, including the use of ESA, switching between ESA and the colloquial, and switching between colloquials.

Index Terms—code alternation, diglossic code-switching, communication accommodation theory, linguistic accommodation, Arabic dialects

I. INTRODUCTION

Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT)

It is a fundamental, substantiated, and well-established fact that the most important function of language is communication. Different speakers in any given speech community have various linguistic resources available to them depending primarily on the number of languages they speak and their level of awareness regarding the colloquial varieties of languages they know. These linguistic and communicative resources available to mono-lingual, bi-lingual, and multi-lingual speakers have been the subject of linguistic research especially in the past few decades (Bres & Franziskus, 2014), (Bahous, Nabhani & Bacha, 2013) and (Juma, 2013) for example.

According to CAT, there are two types of accommodation—CONVERGENT and DIVERGENT. Convergent accommodation refers to how one attempts to adapt one's communicative behavior to the other speaker—"a strategy whereby individuals adapt to each other's communicative behaviors in terms of a wide range of linguistic-prosodic-nonverbal features including speech rate, pausal phenomena and utterance length, phonological variants, smiling, gaze, and so on" (Giles, Coupland, & Coupland 1991, p.7). Since it acts to reduce differences, convergence can then be considered the expected behavior. On the other hand, in divergent accommodation, one attempts to accentuate the differences between oneself and the other speaker, instead of attempting to sound like him or her. Divergence, then, achieves its power, or shock value, by its exception to the expected behavior. Likewise, accommodation can be UPWARD or DOWNWARD. In this, one attempts to adapt to a language variety which may be either more or less prestigious, or more or less technically sophisticated (for example, a doctor and patient conversation), than one's own variety.

Basically, people attempt to converge for a number of reasons: evoking their listener's social approval, attaining more efficient communication, and maintaining positive social identities. Simply put, society frowns on difference: the more one is like the other, the more likely it is that the other person will look favorably on the first. This concept, called social integration, revolves around the terms IN-GROUP and OUT-GROUP—"us" and "them."

a. Convergent Accommodation

According to Giles, Coupland, & Coupland (1991), "CAT proposes that speech convergence reflects, in the unmarked case, a speaker's or group's need (often unconscious) for social integration or identification with another... . Thus, convergence through speech and nonverbal behaviors is one of the many strategies that may be adopted to become more similar to another, involving the reduction of linguistic dissimilarities" (p.18). This concept, relating to our linguistic insecurity (Labov, 1972), can be illustrated with one unique study. Bell (1982, 1984) surveyed newscasters on New Zealand Broadcasting. Since stations are state-run, newscasters are employed by the government, and not by individual stations; as a result, some newscasters read the news on a number of different stations. These stations could be very different, running the gamut from country-western, to pop, to hard rock, to classical, appealing to different social groups and classes. In his survey, Bell found that these newscasters changed their speech styles according to the station they were broadcasting from, and showed that these broadcasters were unconsciously adapting their speech to what they thought were the speech styles of the listeners.

Some everyday examples of speech convergence are the way we adapt our speech to those who are not as proficient in our language as we are—to children and foreigners. This also illustrates a second use for convergence—clarity of communication. For example, physicians use a terminology which may be incomprehensible to patients. To get the necessary information across, and get the patients to follow their instructions, the doctors must converge to the patients. In some cases, nurses may actually act as translators, or ‘linguistic brokers’ (Giles et al. 1987, p.22).

Misapplied convergence, called **STEREOTYPICAL CONVERGENCE** by Giles et al. (1987, p.18), can best be illustrated by how some caregivers speak to the elderly. In nursing homes, caregivers will often ‘baby talk’ to their patients based on their perceptions of these patients’ functional capability, regardless of the actual mental capabilities of these elderly people (Caporael, Lukaszewski, & Culbertson, 1983).

b. Divergent Accommodation

The opposite side of convergence is divergence. In this, speakers go out of their way, to some degree consciously, so as to highlight or accentuate the difference, both linguistic and social, between themselves and out-group members. Sometimes speakers may even go as far as rephrasing an utterance by the other speaker in their own style, variety, and so on. Scotton (1986) calls this **DISACCOMMODATION**. In many cases, divergence is a group act.

We may diverge in order to direct the other speaker to moderate or modify their speech. If a speaker speaks too fast, we may speak unnaturally slowly. If the other speaker pauses too much, we may accentuate that to bring it to his or her attention. Finally, divergence may be a means to survival—one’s own, or perhaps the survival of a relationship. Gottman (1982) found that spouses sometimes exhibit what he calls **NEGATIVE AFFECT DE-ESCALATION**. If their mate makes a negative remark, they may try to defuse a potential disagreement by positive remarks in response to the negative remarks—diverging from their spouse’s style.

As all of the studies above show. A more common term for this phenomenon is code-switching or code alternation, and it is one major way to accommodate, especially in the interest of clearer communication.

II. PURPOSE

In this paper I investigate which varieties of Arabic educated speakers of both genders use when conversing with one another in informal conversational settings, in order to determine just how Educated Spoken Arabic (ESA) is used by these speakers, if or when they will use other varieties of Arabic, and what other accommodation strategies they will employ in informal conversational interactions.

The study specifically investigates the types of diglossic code-switches used, and the pragmatic functions of these various diglossic code-switches. It then investigates the informants’ diglossic code-switching behavior and reasons for diglossic code-switching.

Moreover, it attempts to show the differences in accommodation strategies used by speakers of geographically and linguistically close varieties of Arabic when conversing with one another compared to the accommodation strategies used by speakers of geographically and linguistically distant varieties.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Informants

The research was conducted using informants from Jordan, Iraq, Morocco, Egypt, and Saudi Arabia. These countries were selected principally due to geographical location. Two of the countries, Morocco and Iraq, were selected because they represent the extreme in geographical (as well as linguistic) distance—Morocco in the west, and Iraq in the east—approximately 3,000 miles from Rabat, capital of Morocco, to Baghdad, capital of Iraq. Jordan was selected because of its central geographical position among the Arabic speaking countries—roughly 300 miles from Cairo, Egypt; 500 miles from Baghdad; 800 miles from Riyadh, capital of Saudi Arabia; and 2500 miles from Rabat.

Saudi Arabia was selected because of its geographical location and central position in Islam. Finally, Egypt was selected because it has not only a central position geographically and linguistically, but also socially. Until recently, Egypt has always been the most influential among the Arab countries, until Saudi Arabia’s oil wealth gave it influence to equal Egypt’s. Egypt is the most populous country in the Arab world, and has some of its oldest and most prestigious educational institutions.

The following informants were selected according to the above criteria. Further information about the background of the informants is summarized in table I below. Unless otherwise noted, the informant is Muslim. All informants have been given labels which consist of the first letter of their home country and their gender.

TABLE I.
PERSONAL BACKGROUND OF INFORMANTS

Informant	Age	Hometown	Rel.	Res.	Ed.	Parents Occ.
JM	29	Irbid	M	US-2 1/2	S/Ph.D Arch.	F=Contractor
IM	27	Baghdad	M	US-3	S/Ph.D Nuc. Eng.	F=Ret. Gov. Employee
SM	38	Medina	M	US-8 1/2	S/Ph.D. Ag. Ed.	F=Merchant
MM	32	Rabat	M	ON-1 US-1 1/2	S/MA Ag. Econ.	F=Ret. Factory Worker/Supervisor
EM	21	Cairo	C	US-4 OA-8	S/BS Comp. Sci.	F=Physician M=Physician
JF	24	Irbid	M	OA-8 US-1	BS, Pharmacology	F=Capt. Army (ret)
IF	24	Kirkuk	C	US-12	BS, Biochem.	F=Businessman
SF	26	Mecca	M	US-10	Some college	F=Businessman
MF	31	Rabat	M	ON-1 US-3	S/PhD Soil Sci.	F=Police Official
EF	19	Cairo	C	OA-8 US-4	BS Microbiology	F=Physician M=Physician

B. Data Collection

After the informants were selected, informal conversational situations were then arranged, attempting to keep the situation as natural and informal as possible. No particular topics were assigned for these situations. The purpose of arranging the conversations in this manner was to elicit data that would be representative of the informants' natural linguistic behavior in informal conversational interactions. After the data were collected, salient portions of the audio-taped conversations were then transcribed (see table II, below, for transliteration conventions).

TABLE II.
GUIDE TO ARABIC PRONUNCIATION SOURCES: ABBOD (1983); KAYE (1990)

Arabic letter	name	symbol	English example	Sample Arabic word transliterated, translated
أ	ʔalif	a	father	himaar (donkey);
ء	hamza	ʔ	[glottal stop]	raʔs (head)
ب	baaʔ	b	boy	kitaab (book)
ت	taaʔ	t	toy	banaat (girls)
ث	ṯaaʔ	ṯ	thin	ṯaani (second)
		t	tin	taani
ج	jiim	ǰ	judge	jamiil (pretty, handsome)
		ʒ	measure	zamiil
		g	got	gamiil
ح	haaʔ	h	[voiceless pharyngeal fricative]	hatta (until)
خ	xxaʔ	x	[voiceless velar fricative]	ʔax (brother)
د	daal	d	dog	daar (house)
ذ	ḏaal	ḏ	then	haaḏa (this)
		d	den	haada
		z	Zen	haaza
		ḏ	[velarized voiced inter-dental fricative]	haaḏa
ر	raaʔ	r	run	rajaʕa (returned)
ز	zaay	z	zip	wazana (weighed)
س	siin	s	seen	salaam (peace)
ش	šiin	ʃ	ship	šabaab (youth, group plural)
ص	šaad	ʃ	sun	šuuf (wool)
ض	ḏaad	ḏ	[velarized voiced alveolar stop]	ḏufdaʕ (frog)
		ḏ	[see ḏ above]	ḏufdaʕ
ط	ṭaaʔ	ṭ	[velarized voiceless stop]	ṭaallb (student)
ظ	ḏaaʔ	ḏ	[see ḏ above]	ḏabi (gazelle)
		z	[velarized voiced fricative]	zabi
ع	ʕayn	ʕ	[voiced pharyngeal fricative]	ʕayn (eye)
غ	ɣayn	ɣ	[voiced velar fricative]	ɣuul (ghoul)
ف	faaʔ	f	fool	fill (elephant)
ق	qaaf	q	[voiceless uvular stop]	qalam (pencil)
		ʔ	[glottal stop]	ʔalam
		k	king	kalam
		g	gate	galam
ك	kaaf	k	king	kalb (dog)
		č	church	čalb
ل	laam	l	leave	lamasa (touched)
م	miim	m	make	mawz (bananas)
ن	nuun	n	now	nImr (tiger)
ه	haaʔ	h	hat	hunaa (here)
و	waaw	w	wood	waadi (valley)
ي	yaaʔ	y	yell	yad (hand)

Note 1: Doubled vowels (ex. *aa*) indicate increased length only.

Note 2: If more than one pronunciation is given, the most common alternate (regional colloquial) pronunciations are listed after the Standard (MSA) pronunciation.

a. The Data Collection Process

Each conversation, lasting approximately 30 minutes, was audio-taped using recording equipment unobtrusively situated, with the advance written consent of the informants.

Different groups of informants were arranged so that all combinations of informants within same-gender dyads were examined, with one female pair (one informant from each country) and one similar male pair from each applicable country, in the following combinations:

- 1) Jordanians and Egyptians
- 2) Jordanians and Saudi Arabians
- 3) Jordanians and Iraqis
- 4) Jordanians and Moroccans
- 5) Saudi Arabians and Egyptians
- 6) Saudi Arabians and Moroccans
- 7) Saudi Arabians and Iraqis
- 8) Egyptians and Moroccans
- 9) Egyptians and Iraqis
- 10) Moroccans and Iraqis.

One last conversation, one with the males and one with the females, was then audio-taped with all informants of that gender together. There were a total of 22 group conversations (11 of each gender, each informant participating in 5 conversations) totaling approximately eleven hours of tape.

b. Limitations

While it would have been beneficial to have conducted studies of mixed gender pairs, it is an unfortunate reality of the Arab and Muslim societies that it would be difficult to carry out such a study. Some Arab males, especially Saudis, would outright refuse to allow their wives to participate, or find a diplomatic way to decline.

IV. LITERATURE REVIEW

Diglossic Code-switching

There are specific reasons why the term CODE has been used here in the term 'code-switching' instead of LANGUAGE. First, it is a more neutral term than language, especially given the indistinct boundary between what constitutes a variety and a language. Second, in some countries there exists a linguistic phenomenon known as diglossia. One example of this would be in medieval France. The language of the Church and education (run by the Church) was Latin. Religious services were in Latin, university lectures were in Latin. However, the everyday language spoken on the streets of Paris was French, a vernacular descended from the Latin, but markedly different from it. Such situations still exist. In Haiti, French is the official language, the language of education and government. The everyday language is a Creole related to French, but very different from it. Another example is Switzerland. In the German-speaking cantons, the vernacular is a continuum of Swiss German varieties. However, the German used in government, education, and (officially) in the church is Standard German, or *Hochdeutsch* 'High German'—essentially the same Standard taught in the schools of Germany and Austria as well. One who speaks only *Hochdeutsch* would probably have extreme difficulty understanding the local varieties, as they are different enough from it as to almost constitute another language. These local varieties are as different from *Hochdeutsch* in one direction as Dutch and Flemish are different in another.

Diglossic code-switching (or multi-glossic code-switching) is, then, switching between varieties of the same language, where these varieties co-exist in the same speech community, each variety with its own definite function as is the case in Arabic today—for example, switching between the colloquial, or vernacular; the educated variety; and the Standard (written or Classical) variety (Ferguson, 1959).

The first major study of variation between Arabic colloquial varieties was carried out by Blanc (1960). He placed four native Arabic speakers (two from Baghdad, Iraq; one from Aleppo, Syria; and one from Jerusalem in a conversational situation. From his data, Blanc inferred the existence of a means of communicating across Arabic varieties. He used two terms: CLASSICIZING and LEVELING. "Classicizing referred to whether or not the phonology of the utterance included features which were Standard—speakers may modify utterances in the direction of slight formalization by the use of classicisms in certain specific cases" (p.83). For example, an Egyptian from Cairo would usually say *ʔaaḍi* 'judge'; but in some cases, to be more formal, he or she might say *qaaḍi*. Leveling referred to the degree to which the syntax, vocabulary, or phonology of the speaker changed to resemble that of a higher prestige variety, sometimes up to the point of 'complete dialect substitution'. As Blanc (1960) says:

In certain situations, usually inter-dialectal contact, the speaker may replace certain features of his native dialect with their equivalents in a dialect carrying higher prestige, not necessarily that of the interlocutor... In general, leveling often takes place not so much in imitation of a specific dialect as in an attempt to suppress localisms in favor of features which are simply more common, more well known. (p.82)

Blanc gives examples of both phonological and vocabulary items. For phonology, he gives the example of the Palestinian villager who substitutes the more prestigious pronunciation (in this case Standard) /k/ for /č/, as in *kalb* for *čalb* 'dog'. For vocabulary changes, he gives the example of the word for another. The colloquial term is *ʔuxra*, but in some cases the Palestinian villager would choose the more prestigious *kamaan*, even though *ʔuxra* is actually derived from the Standard *ʔaaxar* and is closer to it. This illustrates Blanc's point that leveling is not always synonymous with classicizing.

From these two categories, classicizing and leveling, Blanc (1960) developed five levels of 'terminological distinctions' between varieties of Arabic:

1. 'Plain colloquial' refers to any local dialect, within which the speaker may select 'informal' or 'mildly formal' features.
2. 'Koineized colloquial' is any plain colloquial into which leveling devices have been more or less liberally introduced.
3. 'Semi-literary' or 'elevated' colloquial is any plain or koineized colloquial that is classicized beyond the 'mildly formal' range.
4. 'Modified classical' is Classical Arabic with dialectal admixtures.
5. 'Standard classical' is any of a variety of Classical Arabic styles essentially without dialectal admixtures. (Blanc, 1960, p.85)

One thing Blanc's work did was to illustrate that the situation goes well beyond diglossia—to what this author has already referred to as multi-glossia (although for the sake of standardization the term diglossia will continue to be used as a cover term throughout this study).

However, Holes (1991) and Mitchell (1986) make the point that using terms referring to educational levels to refer to levels of the colloquial can be confusing and misleading. A speaker who essentially is limited to the lower ranges of the colloquial may still have some education, and a person who operates at the highest levels of the colloquial, or even in the 'Standard,' may not have education much beyond high school, especially if that person comes from a background where the higher levels of the language are commonly used. For example, less educated servants in an upper-class household may be quite at home using the higher levels of the language. This might also hold true for someone from a religious family, which spends much of its time studying the Qur'an.

As Holes (1991) states, "most work done up until now in Arabic linguistics has centered around description of Arabic, paying little attention to explaining why variations exist and how they are used" (p.4). Holes (1991) also brings in what he calls HYBRIDIZATION, which is the term this study has adopted to refer to those constructions, in the discussion of the stylistic continuum. Essentially, hybridization occurs when a colloquial element is mated to a Standard feature. One example he gives is when the Egyptian dialectal tense marker *b-* is prefixed to the Standard verb *yuqbal*, producing *byuqbal* 'is accepted.' He goes on to say that this hybridization is evidence of the co-existence and mutual accommodation of rival language systems [colloquial and Standard]. The more educated a speaker is, the more that speaker will make use of such hybrids. Holes also hypothesizes that "these hybridizations are rule-governed" (Holes, 1991, p.6). It might be noted that what Holes calls hybridization is in effect diglossic code-switching at the morpheme level; Eid (1982) clearly makes the point that this is code-switching, not borrowing. It might also be added that if this were borrowing instead of code-switching, then the Standard stem would be changed phonetically; it would be phonetically assimilated into the variety into which it was borrowed. Thus, the Standard stem would no longer be Standard if it were borrowed. Holes (1991) goes on to describe how the late president Gamaal ʿabd Al-Naʿaṣir of Egypt uses the two levels of Arabic—Standard and colloquial—in his speeches according to the tactical situation, the message he wishes to present. Naʿaṣir uses *fusha* (Standard Arabic) when he wishes to present messages which are 'abstract, idealized or metaphorical'. On the other hand, "when he wants to present messages which are concrete and physical, when he wants to personalize the issues, he uses the *ʿaamiyya*, or colloquial" (Holes 1991, p.17). In other words, a speaker's variety choices seem to be governed by three 'separate but overlapping' factors:

the *status* which he wishes to be accorded to what he has to say; differences in the *discourse function* of different parts of what he says—'textual' or 'organizational'; and the role he wishes to play vis-a-vis his interlocutors. (Holes, 1991, p.20)

V. DISCUSSION

After salient portions of the taped conversations were transcribed, the language of the informants was compared and contrasted, in view of answering the questions posed in the purpose section above. Analysis was then made to determine which varieties of Arabic (and which accommodation strategies) were used by particular speakers in particular combinations with speakers of other varieties of Arabic.

A. Diglossic Code-switching and Linguistic Accommodation

As the examples below show, these educated speakers of Arabic, when conversing with one another in informal conversational interactions, did not necessarily use a particular variety of Arabic as a lingua franca, but rather employed a number of linguistic accommodation strategies such as switching between the different varieties of Arabic—both colloquial and Standard varieties.

The following example, from a conversation between the Saudi Male and the Moroccan Male, indicates switching from ESA to MSA.

Example 1: SM and MM

SM:

1. *binnisba li ʿaaʔilatak wa wujuudhaa maʿaak*
In-regard to-your-family and its-presence with-you
In regard to your family,

2. **hal yuṣraf lahaa**
(interrog.) get-paid to-it
do they get paid

3. **maʿalan ʕey? min il-biʕʕa** willa inta ʔaayibhum
for-example something from the-scholarship? Or you bringing-them
something from the scholarship, for example? Or are you bringing them

4. *ʕala ihṣaabak ilxaṣ*
on your-expense the-own.
at your own expense?

When the Saudi starts talking to the Moroccan, he is not using his own Hijazi colloquial variety, but ESA. The vocabulary in the italicized text preceding the bolded area is basically from the Standard, but with SM's colloquial Saudi pronunciation. Then, in the bolded area, SM switches to MSA—Standard vocabulary and Standard pronunciation. But after the bolded area, the Saudi switches to Saudi colloquial. This example illustrates switching between three varieties

of Arabic: ESA, MSA, and then Saudi colloquial. The question is what are the functions of the switches here? Apparently, the bolded area is in MSA because it represents the most important part of the text, in particular the question the Saudi male wants answered. He begins in ESA; the pronunciation does not interfere with comprehension as long as the vocabulary items are Standard. This section is more of an introductory nature, more interpersonal. But apparently, the Saudi wants to ensure that the listener, the Moroccan male, understands the question in the bolded area, so he phrases it in MSA. This section is thus more of a textual, or referential, nature (i.e. Holes, 1991), rather than interpersonal. The last part of the statement is really a paraphrase of the main question. It is thus optional; if the Saudi ensures that the Moroccan understands the question posed in MSA, the remainder is more of a comment, and therefore of secondary importance. Thus it is in the colloquial.

The second example is taken from the same conversation between the Saudi and Moroccan males. This time it is the Moroccan Male who is speaking to the Saudi Male.

Example 2: SM and MM

MM:

1. *haaʃaa uxraa ʔanaa ʔaʃrif ʔanna kamaan lammaa tiʃiib*
Thing another I know that also when you-bring
Another thing I know also is that when you bring
2. *ʕaaʔiltak biyibqaa fii ʔaanib salbi.*
your-family there-remains in-it side negative.
your family there is a negative side to it.

This example begins in ESA, then shifts to colloquial, and then shifts back to ESA again. The two speakers are still continuing the conversation from the previous example, talking about bringing one's family over to the U.S. while at school. The Saudi initiated the discourse, in ESA. It appears that the Moroccan was thus triggered to use ESA in his reply. He switches briefly to colloquial, but then switches back to ESA. Perhaps this switch is intended as emphasis, intended to see that the Saudi notices the message, but can also understand it.

In this entire conversation, both interlocutors employed ESA as the main communicative strategy, generally avoiding colloquial. When switching to colloquial took place, it was only for brief excerpts. This tends to support the position of El-Hassan (1978), in that, for the most part, both speakers chose ESA over either Standard or their respective colloquial varieties. It should be noted that this conversational situation with these two varieties reflects the extreme in both geographical and linguistic distance across the Arabic-speaking world.

One interesting feature of this conversation is the use of what Holes (1991) calls 'hybridization.' He defines hybridization as the matching of a Standard stem with colloquial prefixes or suffixes. In example 2, above, the Moroccan speaker uses the word *biyibqaa* 'there remains.' The particle *bi-* is the colloquial imperfect tense prefix in Moroccan colloquial, quite different from the Standard imperfect tense prefix. But the stem *-yibqaa* is ESA, not Standard—a Standard lexical item, but with some colloquial features in its pronunciation (in this case the first vowel is /i/, instead of the Standard /a/). This particular example illustrates that hybridization is not limited to mixing of elements from the colloquial variety with elements of the Standard, as indicated by Holes' (1991) definition, but can include mixing colloquial with ESA as well.

Another example of hybridization comes from the conversation between SF and JF. They are discussing some of the changes they will have to get used to once again back in their own countries—such as the Saudi law prohibiting females from driving.

Example 3: JF and SF

1. JF: *maʕnaatu muʕkili bas tirʕaʕii*
It-means problem when you-return?
Is this going to be a problem when you return home?
2. SF: *aah ʔaʔtaqidhaa...ʔaʔtaqidhaa bilmarra.*
Yes future+I miss it...future+I miss it absolutely.
Yes, I'll miss it...I'll really miss it.

During this part of the conversation both informants used their own colloquial, JF in Jordanian colloquial Arabic and SF in her Hijazi Saudi Arabic. The Hijazi variety of Saudi Arabic shares a large number of phonological and semantic features with Egyptian Arabic. This Western part of Saudi Arabia is located right across the Red Sea from Egypt, and has always had close ties, both economic and cultural, with it. Today, this region can receive radio and television broadcasts from Egypt, and many of the teachers in the schools are from Egypt (as confirmed in table II, below). Hijazi shares more features with Egyptian Arabic than with any other variety of Saudi Arabic. Hijazi and Egyptian Arabic are thus linguistically, as well as geographically, the most closely related two varieties of Arabic used in the study.

In this particular example, JF initiated the exchange in Jordanian colloquial Arabic. SF replies in her Hijazi Saudi colloquial, beginning with a word which is the same in both colloquials.—aah 'yes.' The next word, which in reality is a sentence in itself, is the key point of this example. SF continues into the first part of the word, *ʔa-*, in her colloquial. This is the future tense marker, and is the same as in Egyptian colloquial. But she switches from that immediately into MSA for the rest of the word, the verb stem (which includes both the first person prefix, indicating the subject, and the suffix which indicates the object of the verb). SF pauses, and then repeats the same thing exactly, but this time along with an

intensifier, *bilmarra* ‘absolutely’; but *bilmarra* is in the colloquial. This is in the colloquial because the message really ended after *haʔaftaqidha* ‘I’ll miss it.’ That answers JF’s question; repeating the answer in itself acts as an intensifier, so that another intensifier is redundant. Furthermore, switching to MSA also acts as an intensifier by imparting a scriptural, or textual, nature to the message; this makes *bilmarra* even more redundant. What SF is doing here appears to be quite similar to what SM did in example 1, above, when he switched to MSA. Here again, MSA is used to highlight the core of the message.

Another example comes from a conversation between the Iraqi Male informant and the Jordanian Male informant. This example illustrates switching between colloquials.

Example 4: IM and JM

IM

1. baððakar qabil-maa saafarnaa lahoon kaan ʕinnaa
I-remember before we-travelled to-here was with-us
I remember before we came here we had an
2. duktora maʕriyyi fii il-ʕaʕil kaanat itguul
professor (f.) Egyptian in the-class she-was says,
Egyptian professor (female) in the class who used to say,
3. ‘leyh intu...intu ma titgawizuuʕ leyh’
‘why you(pl.)... you(pl.) (neg. part.) get married+(neg. suffix) why?’
‘why don’t you... why don’t you get married?’

Here, neither of the interlocutors is Egyptian. Nonetheless, IM switches into Egyptian Arabic to quote his Egyptian professor. In this case, apparently he is not using Egyptian Arabic for purposes of linguistic accommodation, but more for a humorous effect. He is using it for a quotation preserving the contextuality of the original statement—which includes the variety of Arabic used by the speaker (Valdes-Fallis, 1978). If IM had not preserved the contextuality, the quotation would have lost its humorous effect. In fact, the quotation contains a miscue on IM’s part. He starts out with a word order—*leyh intu* ‘why you’—more Iraqi than Egyptian. Then, he corrects himself and uses a word order more distinctly Egyptian, reversing the order of the two words and placing the interrogative *leyh* at the end of the question, which is a distinct feature of Egyptian colloquial syntax.

The next example is from a conversation between JF and EF. This example illustrates switching colloquials for linguistic accommodation purposes, with the informant switching first from ESA into the interlocutor’s Egyptian colloquial and then into her own Jordanian colloquial.

Example 5: JF and EF

JF:

1. *iʕʕayda lih mumkin itkuun ʕaxlih tiʕaarriyyih*
The-Pharmacology possible it-could-be job commercial
Pharmacology can be a career;
2. *yaʕni mumkin tiftahii ʕaydaliyyih ʔagzaxaana intu bitʔuluulha*
for example possible you-open pharmacy pharmacy you(pl.) call it.
for example, you can open a pharmacy, pharmacy [the term repeated in Cairene Arabic] as you [plural] call it.

In this case, the informant apparently switches from ESA into the interlocutor’s colloquial as a means of accommodation. JF subconsciously knows that the word for pharmacy is different in Egyptian colloquial from the word in both Standard and in Jordanian colloquial, so it appears she repeats the word in Egyptian to be sure the listener understands. This is thus a switch for purposes of clarity, accommodating to the listener to see that the listener understands. However, JF then switches into her own Jordanian colloquial afterwards. Perhaps the Egyptian colloquial triggered a switch here, or it is simply an afterthought, spoken as much to herself as to EF. In any case, the section in Jordanian is of secondary importance, as the important part of the utterance was up to the Egyptian word for pharmacy. This secondary degree of importance doubtlessly has a bearing on the switch as well, as in SM’s switch into his Saudi colloquial in example 1 above. The main message ended then. Also, in this case the section in Jordanian colloquial Arabic is intelligible to EF, as she has shown that she does understand Jordanian colloquial, so miscomprehension is not a factor.

The following example also comes from the conversation between JF and EF. Here EF speaks to JF. JF’s uncle is going on an extended hunting trip to Canada, and his wife, who is expecting, is going back to Jordan to visit. EF is curious about where JF’s aunt is going to have her baby.

Example 6: EF and JF

1. EF: ʕab kiif hatxallif hoon?
So how [future] give birth here?
So will she have the baby here [or in Jordan]?
2. JF: laa hoon.
No, here [not in Jordan].
No, here [not in Jordan].
3. EF: hoon.
Here.

Here.

Here, EF asks JF about where her aunt plans to give birth. EF begins in her native Egyptian colloquial, but then she says *hoon* here, in Jordanian Arabic instead of the Egyptian *hinaa* 'here.' Then she repeats it after JF's answer, again in Jordanian. It should be noted here that not only is EF speaking to a Jordanian, but also about another Jordanian. It would have made no difference in comprehension if EF had said *hinaa* instead of *hoon*. JF would still have understood. While EF might have picked up the term from a Levantine teacher (the term LEVANT generally refers to Syria, Lebanon, Jordan, and Palestine), or while living in the UAE (where *hoon* is also used), in other parts of this conversation and in conversations involving other interlocutors she still uses *hinaa* regularly. Therefore this is not a borrowing into her variety of Arabic, but a code-switch. Likewise, there is no communicative need for the switch, such as improving comprehension. However, there are two possible reasons. One likely reason is that by switching varieties, EF has emphasized location, making that the salient topic of the conversation. The other possibility is simply that EF is attempting to converge toward JF, since JF has exhibited a willingness to use Egyptian. However, this incident could just as easily qualify as what Valdes-Fallis (1978) refers to as "random switches of high frequency items at the word level" (p.16).

The following example comes from the group conversation involving all Eve females. The first one who speaks is EF, in Egyptian colloquial.

Example 7:

1. EF: xalaas ħaʔuul ħaaga.
Enough [I + fut. Prefix] say something.
Okay, I'll say something.
2. JF: ʔuuli yaa.. rašaa ilyuum maa
[2nd person imp.] say [vocative] Rasha today [neg particle]
Yes, say something, Rasha, you haven't said
3. ʔultiiš ħaaga xaalis.
[you] said [past tense] [neg suffix] something at all.
anything at all today.

This is at the very beginning of the group conversation, when all the informants are waiting to see who will start first, and what the topic will be. Here, EF chooses to start the conversation, and she chooses to speak in her own Egyptian colloquial, not ESA, MSA, or another variety. JF replies, beginning with her own colloquial. The first word of the sentence resembles Egyptian, but it is a feature of JF's own variety of Jordanian Arabic as well, so it cannot positively be identified as a code-switch. Perhaps because of this ambiguity, JF is not triggered into Egyptian, but is given the option of choosing to continue in Jordanian, which she does. From this point up to the last two words, the sentence is clearly in Jordanian Arabic. However, the last two words are just as clearly in Egyptian Arabic. The word *ħaaga* 'something,' borrowed from EF's utterance, is both lexically and phonetically Egyptian. JF then continues in Egyptian instead of going back to Jordanian. The word *xaališ* 'at all' is derived from the same root as the word *xalaas* 'enough' used by EF, and is likewise uniquely Egyptian. This Appears to be a play on words, exchanging *ħaʔuul ħaaga* '[I will] say something' for *maa ʔultiiš ħaaga xaališ* '[you] haven't said anything at all.' It is thus necessary for JF to remain in Egyptian to make this play on words. If she had not used EF's own colloquial, the play on words would not have the force it does, because it would not have been a clear quotation of EF's statement. JF must maintain contextuality to make her joke work. Otherwise, if it had been spoken entirely in Jordanian, it could have seemed like a simple statement, and could have even been interpreted as offensive by EF and possibly the other interlocutors. By code-switching into Egyptian, JF has avoided the possibility of her remark being interpreted as anything other than a humorous remark.

The last example, example 8, comes from the conversation involving all five male informants. The Saudi male is asking the Jordanian male about the cost of higher education in Jordan. SM assumes that higher education is free in Jordan, just as it is in Saudi Arabia, and asks JM to confirm that.

Example 8: SM and JM

1. JM: laa bilʕaks ittaʕliim muškilih fii ilurdun.
No, in-the-opposite the-education problem in the-Jordan.
No, on the contrary, getting an education is a problem in Jordan.
2. SM: laa!
No!
No!
3. JM: aah raali wallah
yes expensive by-God
Yes, it's expensive!
4. JM: yaʕni hallaʔ batwaqqaʕ iIwaḏiʕ wiʕil lamarhalit innu
I-mean now I-expect the-situation reached to-stage that
I mean now I think the situation has reached the point where
5. iItaʕliim xeyr maftuuh illaa
the-education not open except
education is not available except

6. LIMAN ISTAṬAAṢA ILAYHI SABIILAA.
 TO-WHOMEVER COULD TO-IT WAY.
 FOR THOSE WHO CAN AFFORD IT.

In this conversation, the topic appears to be driving the variety choice. Education is being discussed, and JM chooses ESA to discuss it (cf. Ervin-Tripp's, 1968 discussion of factors influencing code choice). SM's exclamation is likewise in ESA, when JM does not confirm his assumption. Then JM restates what he has just said, paraphrasing it in Jordanian colloquial. Here, in an exclamation, JM temporarily 'steps outside of the conversation,' and using his own variety makes it more expressive. Then, JM begins the next sentence with a 'filler,' *yaṣni* 'you know'. This is what Valdes-Fallis (1978) describes as a switch involving a pre-formulation, such as a linguistic routine or automatic speech—discourse markers (p.16). But the topic immediately drives the variety back to ESA as soon as the exclamation and discourse marker are passed. But then, in the middle of his sentence, JM switches from ESA on into MSA. There appear to be several reasons why he does it. First, the point spoken in MSA is the central point to this conversation. Giving it in MSA makes this clear, not just to SM but to all the interlocutors present. This is what Holes (1991) refers to as giving a scriptural quality. Second, it adds emphasis to the seriousness of the situation with higher education in Jordan. Next, the statement includes a paraphrase of the teachings of the Prophet Mohammad, comparing getting an education today with the Prophet's teachings on the difficulties of making a pilgrimage to Mecca. The last four words of JM's statement—*LIMAN ISTAṬAAṢA ILAYHI SABIILAA* 'except for those who can afford it'—are an exact quote from the Prophet. This in itself would require a switch into the Standard, in fact into the Classical Arabic of the Qur'an. So actually, even though these words are still used in MSA, it could be said that JM then switches from MSA into CA. Finally, this play on words (almost bitter, in a way) from JM would in itself require some highlighting (as in JF's play on words in the previous example), and switching varieties is one way to do that. Laughter from the other interlocutors indicates that the play on words does achieve the wryly humorous effect intended by JM.

VI. CONCLUSION

The assertion that educated Arabs from different countries generally speak Classical Arabic to one another when their native varieties are not the same or may not be mutually intelligible (Bateson 1967; Grosjean 1982; Katzner 1986), thus does not appear to be accurate. As noted by Ferguson (1963), different varieties of the language exist, side by side, each with its own purpose. Speakers will use these varieties depending on the conversational setting; e.g., CA and MSA are used during some formal university lectures, formal speeches, sermons, and so on, while colloquial Arabic is spoken in less formal situations such as giving examples and explanations, or in meetings and conversations. However, it appears that diglossic code-switching is an unmarked rights and obligations set (Scotton, 1983) among these educated Arabs. Diglossic code-switching appears to be the normal, even expected, behavior among these informants.

Likewise, however, El-Hassan's (1978) statement that these speakers use ESA as a common variety, instead of CA, does not necessarily hold true either. They may use ESA when their colloquial varieties are linguistically and geographically distant, and thus not mutually intelligible, or if the topic necessitates more Standard language, but these speakers may also employ other varieties freely as well as previously discussed in Abu-Melhim's (1991) study, and most recently in (Bianchi, 2013) and (Myers-Scotton, 2013).

While the subjects did switch to MSA, apparently it was used only for purposes of clarity and comprehension, as well as for accuracy in quoting and in providing emphasis, not as a conversational medium. (Examples 1 and 3, above, demonstrate this). As Gumperz (1982, p.75-78) notes:

In many instances the code switched passages are clearly identifiable either as direct quotations or as reported speech...Frequently a message in one code is repeated in the other code, either literally or in somewhat modified form. In some cases such repetitions may serve to clarify what is said, but often they simply amplify or emphasize a message.

Rather than relying primarily on CA or MSA, the informants employed a variety of accommodation strategies when conversing with one another, including using ESA, switching between ESA and the colloquial, and switching between colloquials.

However, when these functional necessities behind a speaker's code-choice are not necessarily the driving factor, other factors come into play. These factors are related to the concepts of one's personal identities (including national, ethnic, and religious identities and so forth) and one's need for power and control. This seems to be interrelated with one's concept of personal identity, and may derive from it. For example, MF's (apparently accurate) perceptions about the status of Morocco and its colloquial in the Arab world, with its corresponding effects on her personal identity, apparently led her to attempt to gain control so as to negotiate a rights and obligations set which would establish her variety and herself on an equal basis with her interlocutors and their varieties.

All types of code-switches were used, from the word to the sentence level. A good example of an intra-word level switch is in example 2, where MM uses a hybridized form consisting of an ESA verb stem and a colloquial prefix and in example 3, where SF uses a hybrid of a Hijazi Saudi prefix and an MSA stem. This is not a code-mix because data suggest that this is an accepted form in educated speech (Eid, 1982 & Holes, 1991). The use of the same word in two different colloquials in example 5 illustrates the word-level switch, as well as a phrase-level switch following it. Example 1 illustrates both clause and sentence level switches.

Very little colloquial was used during that time. When the topic changed again, the informants began switching to other varieties once more. Hence, the conversational interaction among these speakers of different varieties of Arabic involves a variety of accommodation strategies, each used for a specific purpose and social meaning. Apparently, the variety one speaks is not the major factor here, but one's willingness to accommodate in order to achieve successful communication. The major goal of code-switching in the conversations appears to be that of clarity of communication. This parallels Shaaban's findings:

...the main aim of the individual is to get the message across to others rather than to sound sophisticated; if a certain dialectal feature, like negation, is shared by other speakers, no attempt is made to use an FA feature instead. Only when a speaker thinks that the others do not have the same items as his dialect does he try to find the same item in FA. (1978, p.13)

This success in communication in part appears to revolve around perceptions and attitudes. An interesting corollary to this is that when informants expressed uses of code-switching for other than communicative purposes, such as not wanting to sound different (EM), or because they like the way the language sounds (JM), they were less successful. Thus to claim that CA and MSA are the varieties of Arabic speakers use to facilitate comprehension appears to be inaccurate and does not consider the availability of other linguistic resources speakers rely on when involved in informal conversational settings.

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The Comparative Impact of Autonomy and Critical Thinking on EFL Learners' Writing Achievement

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Abstract—The present study was an attempt to compare the effect of critical thinking techniques, and autonomy techniques on EFL learners' writing achievement. To fulfill the purpose of the study, 74 participants of a total number of 100 learners at intermediate level who were studying in Kish Way Language School in Karaj were selected by means of a piloted PET. At the next stage, the 74 participants were divided into two experimental groups randomly so that one group would receive critical thinking techniques and the other autonomy practice as the two treatments. Prior to the start of the treatments, the scores of the writing section of the PET obtained by both groups were compared to make sure that the learners were homogeneous regarding their writing ability at the outset. At the end of the instructional period, both groups were given a writing posttest, and the comparison of their means revealed that the difference between the two groups' writing posttest scores was non-significant, hence the null hypothesis failed to be rejected, implying that both groups benefited the treatments equally in their writing improvement.

Index Terms—autonomy, critical thinking, writing

I. INTRODUCTION

Education and learning need some special techniques to indulge learners more deeply and efficiently—techniques that involve learners to become more independent and at the same time more thoughtful. It is a rather recent issue that educators are focusing their attention to critical thinking and autonomy on different skills, although “critical thinking is as integral part of education and training in schools of foreign and second language instruction” (Shangarffam & Mamipour, 2011, p.1), and so is autonomy.

Writing is one of the most effective ways of conveying ideas and thoughts to others, so learning to write is important because without it education, and more important, communications will be defective and will face problems.

According to Pemberton and Nix (2012), writing, autonomy, and critical thinking seem to be linked to each other, and proficiency in writing can be a sign of students' autonomy, critical thinking, and reasoning skills on the other hand. Critical thinking and autonomy are both considered desirable educational goals. Raya, Lamb, and Vieira (2007), mention that “The competence to think critically is coextensive with the notion of autonomy and self-sufficiency” (p.43). And in the same way, Little (1991) explains autonomy as an ability “for detachment, critical reflection, decision making, and independent action” (p.4). Therefore, it is important that teachers help students develop exploring ways for autonomy and critical thinking (Pemberton & Nix, 2012). Consequently, it seems that teaching learners to become autonomous and at the same time critical thinkers is probably a vital factor in their progress.

A. Autonomy

In the studies did during the last decades, autonomy concept has been challenged by a number of writers who try to show its relation to language teaching and learning in innovative ways. According to Benson (2001) autonomy is considered not only for individual's life, but also it is too important in social matters that influences our social and collective lives.

Benson (2001) stresses that a lot of students like to have freedom in language learning, and they like to control their own learning. Several writers published books with sections on autonomy, ‘including Hedge (2000), Harmer (2001), Kumaravadivelu (2003) on teaching methodology, Nation (2001) on vocabulary, and Thornbury (2005) on speaking’ (Benson 2001, p.27).

During the last decade, increased attention has been paid to learners' autonomy, because autonomy is considered as a technique that makes learners learn more about themselves and what they like, what they do not, and how they can be more effective by themselves and not by the help of others (Baçıkanlı, 2010).

In the past, teachers had the main role in classrooms, and students had to obey whatever teachers asked them to do. In fact, teachers had active roles and they were the authorities in classrooms, while learners had passive roles and they

were completely obedient, dependent on their teachers in the process of language learning. As a result, learners lacked initiative in the process of language learning, and they could not do much for their own learning.

While according to WU Li-li (2008), at the present time, because of communication-oriented way of language teaching the traditional teaching has been substituted by the learner-centered classes, and the learner-centered approach has created the concept of learner autonomy. "A common argument for justifying learner autonomy both in general education and language learning is that autonomous learners become highly motivated and the autonomy leads to better and more effective work. That is, an extremely motivated learner is more initiative and creative in learning; consequently, they will make the classroom instruction more useful" (Bagheri & Aeen, 2011).

B. Critical Thinking

At the present time, producing students who are autonomous, and critical thinker is a great necessity for the society, because of the great changes in academic requirements (Ming & Alias, 2003), so many recent studies focus on the growing interest in autonomy, critical thinking, and their effects on language learning. "Criticality and learner autonomy are both widely seen as desirable educational goals, and often understood as independent or even mutually indispensable attributes" (Nix & Pemberton, 2012). According to Lamb, Raya, and Vieira (2007), "The competence to think critically is coextensive with the notion of autonomy" (p.43).

According to Chaffee (2009), thinking is considered as an important process in life, and it helps people in various issues such as solving their problems, achieving their goals, and making decisions. In the same way, Santrock (2008), believes that thinking has different functions such as reasoning, thinking critically, making decisions, and solving problems. As Chaffee (2009) mentions, the most important purpose of critical thinking is to make "more intelligent decisions", and a critical thinker is a person who can recognize the outside world, make intelligent judgments, and think about "important ideas" (p.43). Also Paul and Elder (2006), believe that critical thinkers try to solve complicated problems in a variety of forms by asking questions, gathering relevant information, and communicating effectively.

In the past, teaching was considered as only presenting knowledge and information to students by the teachers, but during years teachers found it of no effective use in their students' progress. Teachers came to the point that the students need thinking specially critical thinking throughout their learning process. "Thinking may be defined as a pattern of behavior in which we make use of internal representations of things and events for the solution of some specific, purposeful problems" (Mangel, 2005, p.356). In the same way, the concept of critical thinking means a kind of challenging thinking process in which leads the person to better understanding. Halpern (1996) viewed critical thinking from two perspectives which are philosophy and psychology. Philosophers have focused on the nature and quality of the products of critical thinking, while psychologists have noticed the process of cognition, the components, and operations that are used to address academic and practical problems.

C. Writing

Nowadays, learning a foreign or second language is not only completely usual, but also essential for everyone, and by learning other languages, people can extend the realm of their communication through speaking or writing. Increasingly, the amount of communication through writing has increased drastically by the use of e-mails and text messages. As a result, writing is not considered anymore as a skill to communicate formally, but it is the skill that learners need to be proficient at more than before because of the need of the new systems of communication (Marashi & Jafari pur, 2012).

Writing is considered as one of the most difficult skills in second/foreign language learning, and the important point is that it is not considered as something usual, but as an essential part of nowadays life due to the expansion of different forms of communication through writing such as messages, e-mails, letters, and etc. "The difficulty lies not only on generating and organizing ideas, but also in translating these ideas into readable texts" (Marashi & Jafari, 2012). Among the four language skills, creating a coherent and well-written piece of writing has been the most difficult task to do in both the first and the second language, and foreign language learners usually find writing a difficult and challenging task. One important reason that students have great problems in writing is that they usually do not receive suitable instruction for this skill, and they do not know how to write, because of that Richards (1990) states that the nature and importance of writing have been undervalued in language teaching.

It is believed that language is the most effective vehicle for performing the process of thinking, so Mangel (2005) has placed language under the element of thought and thinking. Accordingly, Halpern (1996) mentioned that language is a medium to express one's thought, and believed that comprehension is the most critical reason for using language, so all language skills such as writing involve comprehension, and thinking critically.

Writing is considered as a means of recording ideas, information, and knowledge. At the same time, students can recheck, develop, and create new thought. Al-Hazmi (2006), states that writing is a necessary component for improving and developing critical thinking skill, because it causes reflecting, correcting, editing, and spending more time comparing to oral skill. She believes that teaching writing through effective and suitable techniques can improve their writing skill greatly, and specially taking care about process rather than product approach can increase autonomy and criticality among them. During process writing, students usually reflect on their writing to convey their ideas and feelings more efficiently about their knowledge and information, and this simultaneously leads to the increase of critical

thinking. Accordingly, Al-Hazmi (2006), believes that recently the focus of teachers and researchers is on process approach for EFL writing teaching.

II. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of this study were 74 intermediate female students with the age range of 22-35 studying English at Kish Way Language School in Karaj who were chosen among 100 intermediate students based on their performance in a pre-piloted Preliminary English Test (PET). The 100 students were chosen non-randomly out of about 220 students.

B. Instrumentation and Materials

In order to fulfill the purpose of the study, the following instruments were employed:

1. Preliminary English Test for Homogenization

In order to follow the purpose of the study, a Preliminary English Test (PET) was conducted to select 60 participants from 100; however, after administering the PET, 74 participants were selected due to the result showing that 74 students' scores fell one standard deviation above and below the sample mean; therefore, the researcher carried out the research considering all the 74 students as the participants. This test was used to homogenize the participants based on their English language proficiency. The PET test was by Cambridge ESOL, and it consisted of three parts containing questions for four skills including reading and writing as the first part, listening the second part, and speaking as the third part of the test. Only the first two sections comprising reading, writing and listening parts were administered due to time restrictions and reluctance of the participants to undergo the speaking test.

The PET, as used in this study, contained three papers, the first paper measured reading skill with five parts and thirty five questions which consisted of twenty multiple choice, five matching, and ten true/false questions with twenty five percent of the total mark of the test. The second paper tested the writing skill with three parts and seven questions which contained five fill - in - the - blank questions and two essays (descriptive) with twenty five percent of the total mark of the test. The time allocated for these two parts/skills was an hour and thirty minutes. The second part measured listening skill with four parts and twenty five questions which consisted of thirteen multiple choices, six fill - in - the - blanks and yes/no questions with twenty five percent mark of the total with thirty five minutes time (including six minutes transfer time).

The researcher's colleague helped her as another rater for writing of the PET. The two raters used the Cambridge criteria sections that was provided as the rating criterion.

It is worth mentioning that before the main administration, the test was piloted among 30 intermediate students with similar characteristics to the main participants.

2. Writing Posttest

At the end of the semester, the researcher administered the writing section of another PET test (not the same version as the first PET that was conducted for homogenization) as a post-test to the two groups and compared the performance of the them in order to reveal which of the treatments, autonomy or critical thinking, had a greater impact on intermediate learners' writing achievement, thus to test the null hypothesis of the study. The writing section of the PET that was used as a post-test consisted of three parts with fill in the blanks and writing essays (descriptive such as writing a letter to a friend, or writing a story for your teacher) with about fifty minutes time allocation which consisted twenty five marks. The scores were given by two raters while they used the same rating scale as the one they used for the first PET, and finally the average score given by them to each participant was considered as the final score of each participant.

3. Writing Scale/Rubric

The scale that was considered by both raters for both PET tests, was the General Mark Scheme for Writing of the mentioned PET tests by Cambridge that considered the content, organization, cohesion, coherence, format, range, appropriacy, and mechanical accuracy of participants' pieces of writing. The writing subtest of PET consists of three tasks, 1) fill-in-the blanks, 2) short paragraph writing with a picture prompt, and 3) long paragraph writing around 100 words. The scores were given between the range of 0-5 for the first two writing tasks, and between the range of 0-15 for the third writing task. Thus, the total score for this section was 25. Also word choice, dictation, and sentence structures were taken into account by both raters.

4. Textbook

The main textbook that was used at this level was "Interchange 3" third edition by Richards, Hull and Proctor (2005) that was used as their course book. The mentioned textbook consists of different parts with emphasis on all four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing), and also sub-skills (pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary). During this study, unites 12-16 were taught according to the course objectives. It has a workbook too that was practiced by the learners and checked by the researcher every session, and a CD that was played for parts such as conversation, listening parts, pronunciation, and grammar. Also the participants in both groups took the same mid-term (on eleventh session), and final exam (on nineteenth session) as the course objective.

5. Materials for Practicing Autonomy and Critical Thinking

Materials for practicing these two techniques were some parts of the newspapers IRAN NEWS and TEHRAN TIMES. Some story books suitable for intermediate level such as *The house by the sea* and *The fox* were used as well. It is to be noted, however, that pursuing the goals of autonomous learning, the autonomy group chose the materials and topics themselves.

C. Procedure

Initially, the researcher piloted the Preliminary English Test (PET) on 30 intermediate students with similar characteristics to the target sample before administering it to the target participants. Afterwards, the reliability and item analyses were checked. At the next step, 100 students who were studying English in Kish Way Language School in Karaj and attended the classes which were held three days a week for a total period of 6 weeks (18 sessions, each session 105 minutes, and they took the same mid-term exam on eleventh session, and final exam on nineteenth session), were chosen randomly from among the total 220 of the learners in that institute. A sample of Preliminary English Test (PET) was administered to the 100 learners to draw a homogenized sample from them. Afterwards, 74 students whose scores fell one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected as the target participants of the study. Next, the participants were randomly divided into two experimental groups, one as the autonomy group and the other as the critical thinking group.

As the next step, the participants' scores in the writing part of the PET were analyzed further to see if the two groups were the same regarding their writing ability prior to the treatments. Thus, an independent samples t-test was used for making sure that there was no significant difference between the writing ability of the two groups. In order to avoid the subjectivity in the rating of participants' writings, two raters (researcher and one of her experienced colleagues) scored the writings using the same rating scale in this study. The final score of each participant was provided by the average score given by the researcher and her colleague after making sure that the inter-rater reliability was high.

During the semesters, all the 74 participants underwent the same procedure of teaching in terms of the skills of listening, speaking, and reading. They attended the classes which were held three days a week for a total period of 6 weeks (18 sessions, each session 105 minutes, and they took the same mid-term exam on eleventh session, and final exam on nineteenth session). They were also assigned the same homework even in their writing instruction (in addition to writing in the class, they were assigned to write one paragraph as their homework each week).

The difference was in the two treatments of this study; the two procedures that the researcher adopted to teach the writing component of the course. In one of these two experimental groups, the researcher used autonomy techniques during the course as treatment while in the other group, she taught the materials using critical thinking techniques as treatment (although both groups received the same instruction as the course objectives). The researcher followed the same mentioned procedure during the semesters in all eighteen sessions for both groups. These two different techniques for teaching writing are explained in detail below.

1. Practicing Critical Thinking Techniques

In the critical thinking group, the critical thinking techniques of debating, reasoning, problem solving, classifying, clarifying, and analyzing media were employed during the term. Each of these two techniques were practiced in 6 sessions of the course. The researcher spent some minutes to familiarize the students with each of these concepts. To this end as an example, she asked the participants to write a paragraph about their favorite lifestyle, and she asked them to have some drafts in order to be able to add or correct some points whenever it was needed. By preparing some drafts at first, the students were able to add or remove some pieces of information after reflection.

The researcher tried to focus the process of writing, and emphasized on creativity and critical thinking in the class. Process was focused because it is an important point in thinking critically; in addition, drafting is the prerequisite for critical thinking because some parts may needed editing after critical thinking. Emphasizing on process approach by the researcher for writing led the students to reflect, edit, and evaluate their writings. The researcher asked the participants to think creatively about facing a problem, finding solutions, and having unique as well as multiple perspectives; that is, she asked them to think about different solutions for a problem and not just focusing on one solution. She asked the participants to write about a variety of topics due to the nature of critical thinking, topics such as the ideal society, the goal of academic education, and the advantages and disadvantages of living abroad.

As another example, the researcher asked the participants to think of multiple sides of an issue for teaching the technique of debate and she asked them not to interact only on the details of issues, but also with one another and find the relationship among ideas. For this purpose, she asked them to define and elaborate a problem again and again considering all the possible solutions, and see multiple perspectives (not only the easiest, fixed solution), and she asked them to think about the possible relations among ideas and solutions in order to come up with the best result. For analyzing media, she brought some articles of the newspapers or magazines to the class, and she asked them to raise some questions themselves, develop a checklist, and then analyze the questions in media, and sometimes she raised some questions to motivate them for practicing and learning critical thinking. Some of the questions were: who is the author? Why did s/he write it? Do you agree with the ideas that are presented in the articles? How do you feel personally about them? Do you think that the ideas and facts are accurate? Also the participants were asked to think about evaluation as an important factor in critical thinking, and as a process for drafting and editing their ideas and writing. Totally, they were asked to write eighteen pieces of writing in the class (one writing in each session), and six pieces of writing as their homework at home (one writing per week) during the research. Some of the writing topics

were their dream house, plans for next holiday, their life future goals, ideal parents, a good job, and the features of success. The researcher spent about 30 minutes for practicing critical thinking techniques at the beginning of each session.

2. Practicing Autonomy Techniques

During the study and as a general process that was considered for all 37 students in autonomy group, the researcher asked the students to bring interesting topics, pieces of news, photos and pictures to class, and share their own ideas with their classmates and also present their own ideas about them. Each of them was asked to choose a topic that she was interested in and give a lecture on that topic in the class, and each of them was asked to rewrite a story or a piece of news briefly on a piece of paper, ask her peers in the group to correct it, score it, and at the end give it to the teacher. In this regard, they understood that they were responsible for their own learning and what they learn according to topics, news, analyzing pictures, and how they learn. The researcher encouraged students to look for interesting materials such as: reading English books, newspapers, magazines, surfing the internet, participating in competitions, and finding pen pals on the internet in order to foster autonomy in them. Totally, the researcher had less role in controlling and having power in the class, and she mostly acted as a monitor. On the other hand, students were the ones that took responsibility and control for their own learning, and tried to become more independent and develop autonomy.

The autonomy group was divided into twelve sub-groups – each sub-group consisted of three students. They worked in their groups and decided themselves on writing a composition about their favorite topics, elaborating some illustrations, writing a story for some pictures, describing an interesting recent event, rewriting a story, and retelling a piece of recent news. Each of these two techniques were practiced in 6 sessions of the course. They had five minutes to choose on what they wanted to write about, and fifteen minutes to write about it. After that, they had another ten minutes to work in groups and check all items in each other's papers and do peer correction regarding word choice, sentence structure, dictation, punctuation, mechanical accuracy, cohesion, coherence, and content of the papers. Whenever they encountered problems in their writing, they tried to solve it by the help of each other; therefore, this activity caused the increase of collaborative learning which improved autonomy and independence in participants. Collaborative activities and group works of learners help them to become more independent and autonomous, and the result can be the improvement in the skill that they are doing it collaboratively (Benson, 2001; Naizhao & Yanling, 2004; Pemberton & Nix, 2012). The participants were asked to choose topics, and also raise some questions before starting to write.

As an example for practicing autonomy technique in class, the researcher brought some pictures to the class that they were related to each other. Each group of participants wrote a story for the pictures with the help of each other in groups. According to Khabiri and Lavasani (2012), picture storytelling, and the way it is taught (orienting autonomy) has some advantages such as increasing learners' pace of fluency in writing, enhancing learners' opportunity to work together which would promote autonomy, and stopping the learners being afraid of criticism or exposing themselves.

For elaborating some illustrations, as another example, the students brought some illustrations in books, magazines, and newspapers to the class and elaborated, and explained the illustrations in details in their writings. They were asked to write their personal feelings about pictures and also whatever that the pictures reminded them, made them feel or understood. They worked in groups of three afterwards, and helped each other to add some more information/ideas and also corrected their writings.

During the whole period of practicing autonomy, students rated the pieces of writing of their peers in their own groups, and gave a score that was copied in the teacher's (the researcher) classroom list by the students themselves. This motivated them to demonstrate the ability of being objective in their evaluation, and also they enjoyed being responsible for their own learning and evaluation as well as their friends'. In all sessions, teacher's feedback and scoring followed students' self-correction, self-assessment, peer-correction, and peer-assessment in order to improve the sense of autonomy in students.

Totally, they were asked to write eighteen pieces of writing in the class (one writing in each session), and six pieces of writing as their homework at home (one writing per week) during the research. The researcher spent about 30 minutes for practicing autonomy techniques at the beginning of each session.

At the end of the semester, the researcher administered the writing section of another version of a PET as a post-test to both groups of learners. The scores were obtained through the ratings by two raters, and finally the average score given by them to each participant was considered as the final score of each participant.

III. RESULTS

Initially, a PET sample was piloted on a group of 30 female EFL learners with similar characteristics to the target group, then the reliability of test was calculated through Cronbach alpha using SPSS program. The reliability of the PET turned out to be 0.7.

TABLE 3.1
RELIABILITY OF PET

	Reliability of the PET by Cronbach alpha
PET	0.7

Based on the item analyses, five reading items were deleted.

In order to follow the purpose of the study, a Preliminary English Test (PET) was conducted among 100 students. The descriptive statistics of the PET used for homogenization is presented in the following table.

TABLE 3.2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PET USED FOR HOMOGENIZATION

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Skewness ratio
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	
PET scores	100	19.00	93.00	55.0000	13.28552	.157	.241	0.65
Valid N (listwise)	100							

As shown above, the distribution of the scores was normal, as the skewness ratio was less than 1.96. The mean and the standard deviation turned out to be 55 and 13.28 respectively.

The inter-rater reliability of the scores given by the two raters to the PET writing scores at the piloting stage was ensured through calculating the correlation between the two sets of scores. The normality assumption was checked primarily.

TABLE 3.3
TESTS OF NORMALITY OF THE PET WRITING SCORES GIVEN BY THE TWO RATERS

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
writing rater 1	.144	30	.116	.930	30	.048
writing rater 2	.180	30	.014	.929	30	.045

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

As the above table depicts, by virtue of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test one set of scores was not normally distributed as the sig value was less than .05 (.014), and both values on the Shapiro-Wilk test were less than .05. Therefore, the non-parametric Spearman correlation was used to calculate the correlation between them. The following table shows the result:

TABLE 3.4
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PET WRITING SCORES GIVEN BY THE TWO RATERS

			writing rater 1	writing rater 2
Spearman's rho	writing rater 1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.675**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	30	30
	writing rater 2	Correlation Coefficient	.675**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	30	30

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As shown in the above table, there was a significant correlation between the two sets of scores ($r=.67$, $p=.000<.05$). Therefore, the mean score for each pair was used for further calculations.

To check the inter-reliability between the scores given by the two raters on pre-treatment writings of both groups, Pearson correlation was conducted. But prior to that, the assumptions of linearity and normality were verified. The following table shows the descriptive statistics of the two sets of scores given by the two raters to the pre-treatment writings of the CT group.

At first, the descriptive statistics of the two raters' scores to the critical thinking group's pre-treatment writing scores was checked as the first assumption. The following table shows the result:

TABLE 3.5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE RATERS' SCORES TO THE CT GROUP'S PRE-TREATMENT WRITING SCORES

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Skewness Ratios
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	
CTpretestR1	37	19.3514	1.93242	.031	.388	.07
CTpretestR2	37	19.5946	1.80215	-.283	.388	.72
Valid N (listwise)	37					

As the table above shows, both skewness ratios are within the normality range of ± 1.96 . Hence, both sets of scores were normally distributed.

The following scatter plot shows the relationship between the two sets of scores:

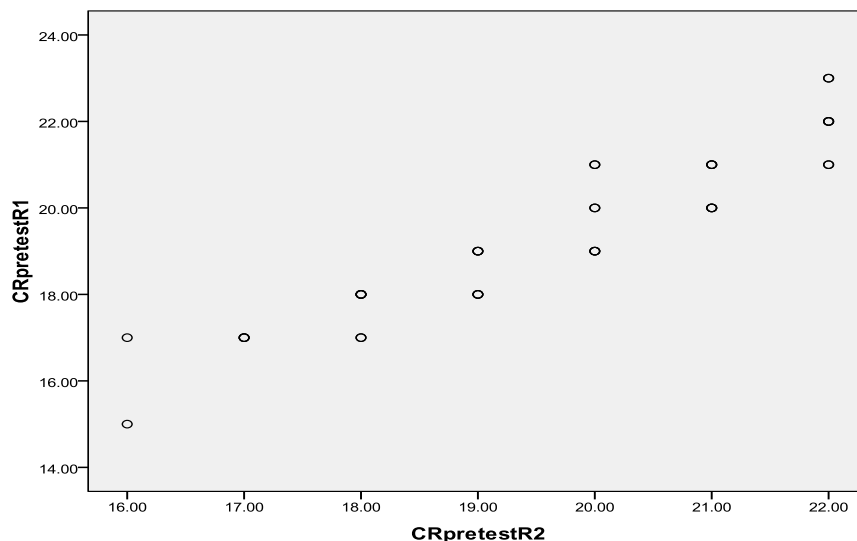


Figure 3.1 Scatter plot showing the relation between scores of the two raters on pretreatment writings of the CT group

As illustrated in the above figure, the dots form a linear shape. Thus, the linearity of the relationship is ensured. The following table shows the correlation coefficient between the two sets of scores:

TABLE 3.6
CORRELATION BETWEEN RATERS' SCORES TO CT GROUP'S PRE-TREATMENT WRITINGS

		CRpretestR1	CRpretestR2
CTpretestR1	Pearson Correlation	1	.935**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	37	37
CTpretestR2	Pearson Correlation	.935**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	37	37

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As the above table depicts, the correlation between the two sets of scores given by the two raters turned out to be significant ($r=.93$, $p=.000<.05$), hence the inter-rater reliability.

The same statistical procedure was followed for the pre-treatment writing scores of the autonomy group. The following table shows the descriptive statistics of the scores given by the two raters:

TABLE 3.7
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE RATERS' SCORES TO THE AUTONOMY GROUP'S PRE-TREATMENT WRITING SCORES

	N	Minimum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Skewness Ratios
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	
AutpretestR1	37	14.00	19.2432	2.26575	-.152	.388	-.39
AutpretestR2	37	15.00	19.5405	2.04932	-.051	.388	-.13
Valid N (listwise)	37						

As the above table shows, both skewness ratios are within the normality range of ± 1.96 . Thus, both sets of scores were normally distributed. The following scatter plot exhibits the linearity of the relation.

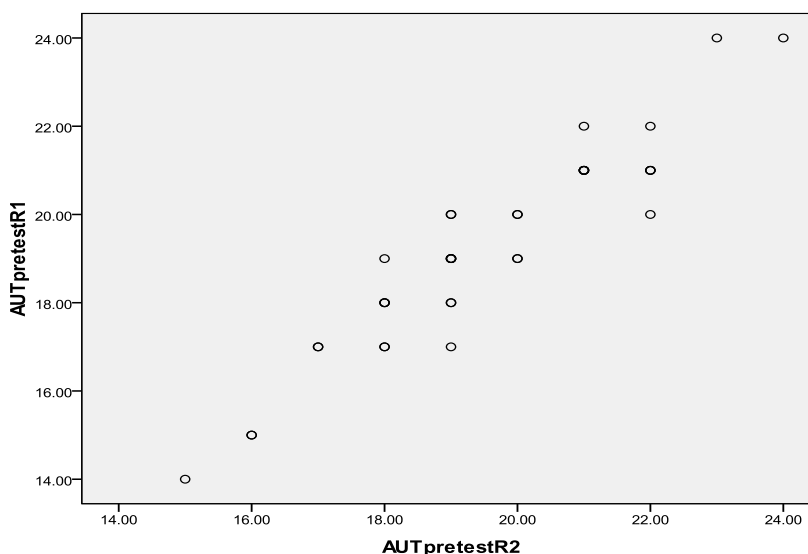


Figure 3.2 Scatter plot showing the relation between scores of the two raters on pretreatment writings of the autonomy group

As shows in the above figure, the points are scattered around a straight line, hence the linearity of the relation. The following table shows the result of the Pearson correlation analysis:

TABLE 3.8
CORRELATION BETWEEN THE RATERS' SCORES TO AUTONOMY GROUP'S PRE-TREATMENT WRITINGS

		AUTpretestR1	AUTpretestR2
AUTpretestR1	Pearson Correlation	1	.940**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	37	37
AUTpretestR2	Pearson Correlation	.940**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	37	37

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The above table displays that the correlation between the two sets of scores was significant ($r=.94$, $p=.000<.05$), thus the inter-rater reliability. Therefore, their mean scores could be safely used for the final calculations.

In order to ensure that the two groups were homogeneous regarding their writing ability prior to the treatment, a t-test was conducted. Primarily, though, the assumption of normality was checked through the following table showing the descriptive statistics of the scores which are the mean of the scores given by the two raters.

TABLE 3.9
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PRE-TREATMENT WRITING SCORES

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Skewness Ratios
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	
CT pretreatment writing	37	19.4730	1.83691	-.136	.388	.35
Autonomy pretreatment writing	37	19.3919	2.12503	-.126	.388	.32
Valid N (listwise)	37					

As displayed in the above table, both distributions were normal as the skewness ratios of both sets of scores fell within the normality range. With this assumption met, the t-test was legitimate to use for comparing the mean scores. The following tables show the result of the t-test:

TABLE 3.10
GROUP STATISTICS OF THE PRETREATMENT WRITING SCORES

	Grouping	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pretreatment writing scores	CT	37	19.4730	1.83691	.30199
	Autonomy	37	19.3919	2.12503	.34935

The above table shows that the two groups performed very much similarly in the pre-treatment writing test obtaining mean scores of 19.47 and 19.39. The following table shows the independent samples test on the pre-treatment writing scores:

TABLE 3.11
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST ON THE PRE-TREATMENT WRITING SCORES

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Pretreatment writing scores	.268	.606	.176	72	.861	.08108	.46178	-.83947	1.00163
			.176	70.524	.861	.08108	.46178	-.83980	1.00196

As shown above, the difference between the mean scores of the two groups on the writing pre-treatment test turned out to be non-significant ($t=.176$, $p=.861>.05$) with the equal variances condition assumed. Therefore, any possible difference in their posttest writing scores could reasonably be attributed to the treatment they received.

The inter-rater reliability of the scores given by the two raters to the posttest writing performances of the two groups was checked through Pearson correlation formula. The assumptions of normality and linearity were checked as appears hereunder:

TABLE 3.12
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE RATERS' SCORES TO THE CT GROUP'S POSTTEST WRITINGS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Skewness Ratios
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	
CTposttestR1	37	20.4324	2.19267	.263	.388	.67
CTposttestR2	37	20.5135	2.11636	.315	.388	.81
Valid N (listwise)	37					

As, both skewness ratios, reported above, are within the normality range of ± 1.96 , both sets of scores were normally distributed. The following graph shows the linearity of the relationship, as the second assumption for Pearson correlation formula.

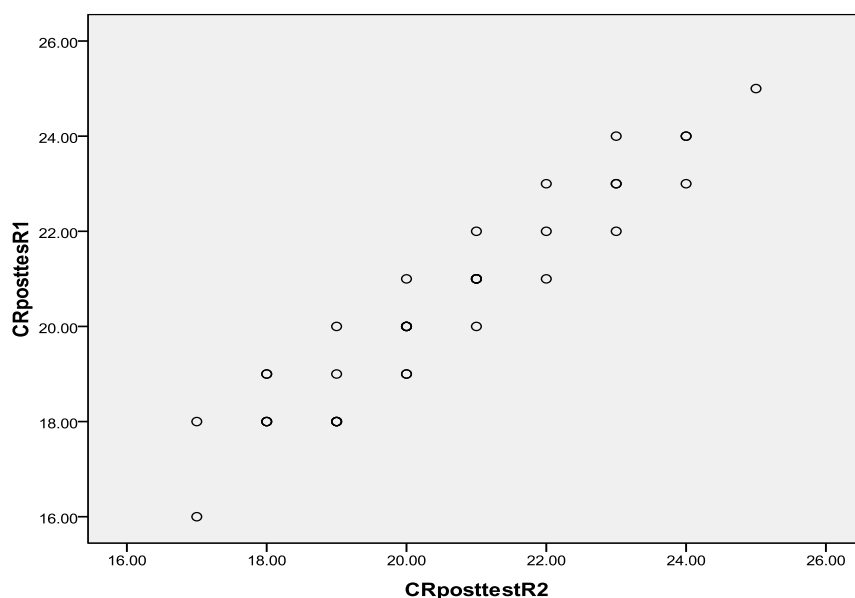


Figure 3.3 Scatter plot showing the relation between scores of the two raters to posttest writings of the CT group

As exhibited above, the points are almost perfectly scattered around a line stretching from the bottom left to the top right; hence, linearity of the relation. With the assumptions met, the following Pearson correlation analysis was safely conducted:

TABLE 3.13
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE RATERS' SCORES TO CT GROUP'S POSTTEST WRITINGS

		CRposttesR1	CRposttestR2
CTposttesR1	Pearson Correlation	1	.944**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	37	37
CTposttestR2	Pearson Correlation	.944**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	37	37

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Depicted in the above table, the two sets of scores given by the two raters turned out to be significantly correlated ($r=.94$, $p=.000<.05$). Therefore, the mean scores of each pair could safely be used for the final calculations.

As for the scores given to the posttest writings of the autonomy group, the inter-rater reliability check was implemented meeting the assumptions first. The normality condition was checked through the following analysis:

TABLE 3.14
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE RATERS' SCORES TO THE CT GROUP'S POSTTEST WRITINGS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Skewness Ratios
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	
CTposttesR1	37	20.4324	2.19267	.263	.388	.67
CTposttestR2	37	20.5135	2.11636	.315	.388	.81
Valid N (listwise)	37					

As the skewness ratios are within the normality range of ± 1.96 , it is concluded that the two sets of scores were normally distributed. The following graph shows the linearity of the relation as the second assumption:

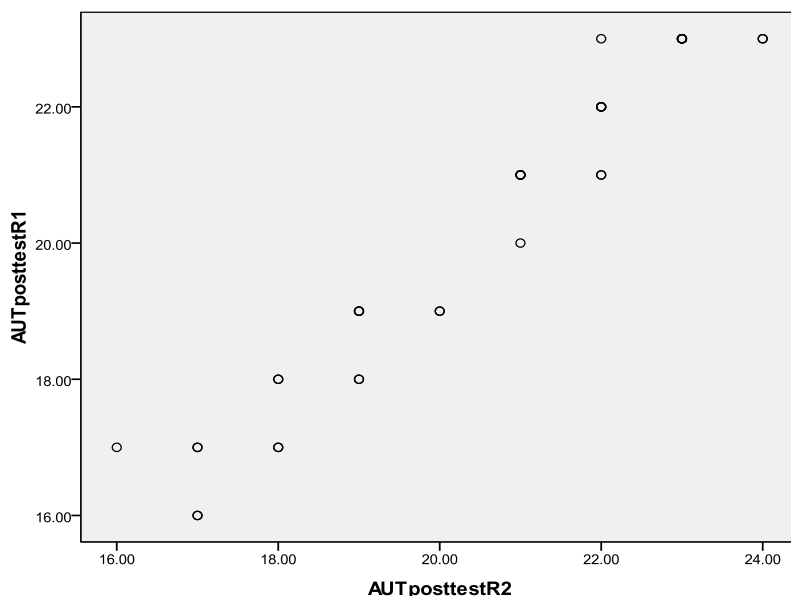


Figure 3.4 Scatter plot showing the relation between scores of the two raters on posttest writings of the autonomy group

As all the points, displayed in the above figure, evenly form an almost perfect linear shape, the linearity of the relation is ensured.

With the two conditions met, the Pearson correlation analysis was used to verify the inter-rater reliability as reported below:

TABLE 3.15
CORRELATION BETWEEN RATERS' SCORES TO AUTONOMY GROUP'S POSTTEST WRITINGS

		AUTposttestR1	AUTposttestR2
AUTposttestR1	Pearson Correlation	1	.970**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	37	37
AUTposttestR2	Pearson Correlation	.970**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	37	37

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As shown in the above table, the two sets of scores given by the two raters were significantly correlated ($r=.97$, $p=.000<.05$). Therefore, their mean scores could safely be utilized for further calculations.

To check the significance of the difference between the posttest writing scores of the two groups, hence, testing the null hypothesis a t-test was conducted. Primarily, though, the assumption of normality was verified:

TABLE 3.16
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE POSTTEST WRITING SCORES

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Skewness Ratios
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	
CTposttest	37	20.4595	2.11928	.339	.388	.87
AUTposttest	37	20.3108	2.29840	-.269	.388	.69
Valid N (listwise)	37					

As shown above, the two skewness ratios fell within the normality range. Thus, the two sets of scores were normally distributed; hence, the assumption was met.

Testing the Hypothesis

To test the null hypothesis of the study, hence to reveal any significant difference in the mean scores of the two groups on the posttest, an independent sample t test was conducted. The following tables show the result:

TABLE 3.17
GROUP STATISTICS OF THE WRITING POSTTEST SCORES

Grouping		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
writing posttest scores	CT	37	20.4595	2.11928	.34841
	autonomy	37	20.3108	2.29840	.37786

As it is displayed in the above table, the two groups gained very similar means on the posttest (20.45 vs. 20.31). The following table tests the statistical significance of the small difference.

TABLE 3.18
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST ON THE WRITING POSTTEST SCORES

INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST ON THE WRITING POST TEST SCORES											
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
										95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper	
writing posttest scores	Equal variances assumed	1.219	.273	.289	72	.773	.14865	.51397	-.87593	1.17322	
	Equal variances not assumed			.289	71.531	.773	.14865	.51397	-.87604	1.17334	

As shown in the above table, with the equality of the variances assumed, the difference between the two mean scores turned out to be non-significant ($t=.289$, $p=.773>.05$). The conclusion; therefore, is that the null hypothesis fails to be rejected implying that the two treatments were equally effective in writing achievement of the learners.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Totally, the analyses of the data reported in this study revealed that there was no significant difference between the impact of autonomy and critical thinking on EFL learners' writing achievement. This is to say, autonomy and critical thinking techniques were equally effective on the learners' writing achievement.

The justification of the findings of the present study can be traced through the work and observations of other theoreticians and researchers. Atkinson (1997) for example believes that a critical thinker is someone who is “truth-seeking, open-minded, analytical, systematic, self-confident, inquisitive, and mature” that are believed as effective features for learners in order to achieve the goal of language learning in the best way possible. Critical thinking is considered a special method because it tries to make learners discover different concepts not to teach them those concepts directly which leads learners to keep them in their minds permanently, and be active learners all the time (Gorjian, Pazhakh, & Parang, 2012).

The finding of this study related to the equally positive effect of autonomy on writing ability of learners may be justified through the fact that improving the autonomy in learners means to motivate students “to determine the objectives, to define the contents and progressions, to select methods and techniques to be used, to monitor the procedures of acquisition and to evaluate what has been acquired” (Holec, 1981, p. 3). During this process, the autonomous learner determines “a personal agenda for learning” (Little, 1994; Chan, 2003) by making directions in the “planning, pacing, monitoring, and evaluating the learning process” (Balçıkanlı 2010, p.90). It is believed that if students are “involved in decision making processes regarding their own language competence” (Balçıkanlı 2010, p.90), “they are likely to be more enthusiastic about learning” (Littlejohn, 1985, p. 258), and learning can be more focused and purposeful for them (Chan, 2001, 2003).

Little (1990) presents learner autonomy as a matter of psychological reaction that learners show to the procedure and content of learning, so autonomy provides a chance for learners to choose and follow the best learning strategies to learn in the best way at their own pace (Balçıkanlı 2010). Writing, therefore, is one of the skills that has shown to benefit from all these positive features of autonomy.

V. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

A. *Implications for EFL Teachers*

At the present time, training students who are autonomous and critical thinkers is a great necessity for the society, because of the great changes in academic requirements, so many recent studies focus on the growing interest in autonomy, critical thinking, and their effects on language learning (Ming & Alias, 2003). “Criticality and learner autonomy are both widely seen as desirable educational goals, and often understood as independent or even mutually indispensable attributes” (Nix & Pemberton, 2012). According to Lamb, Raya, and Vieira (2007), “The competence to think critically is coextensive with the notion of autonomy” (p.43).

Regarding the findings of the present study, autonomy and critical thinking both have positive impact on EFL learners’ improvement. The result has some implications for EFL teachers to acquaint the learners with the techniques mentioned. The teachers are suggested to implement autonomy and critical thinking techniques as useful elements in their teaching to improve writing achievement of the learners. Actually, the findings of this study can help teachers to improve their instructions implementing useful techniques for teaching different skills specially writing, and making their students more active and interested in learning.

Accordingly, the findings can give bright insights to teachers to pave the way for their students to improve themselves by the mentioned techniques, and teaching them to think critically and act autonomously. The findings of the present study can be used as a guide to both teachers and learners to accelerate the outcome of their EFL classes.

B. *Implications for Learners*

Language learning is considered as complex phenomenon that includes various dimensions; therefore, not only language teachers, but also language learners, syllabus designers, and material developers have great roles in paving the way to facilitate this complex process.

In the past, teachers had the greatest role in classes, but gradually they are changing their traditional roles and they are moving to new roles; that is, they are trying to act as consultants, guides, and monitors in the classes. In addition, at the same time, they try to encourage their students to develop better techniques for learning and to act more independently (Murphey, 2008); therefore, the results of the current study has great implications for learners to move from traditional learning context to the modern one, and try to act more independently and autonomously in the complicated process of learning a new language.

As a result, the findings of the current study have implications for language learners in order to encourage them to become autonomous and critical thinkers not only in educational contexts of language learning, but also in their personal and social lives. Therefore, improving autonomy and critical thinking in an educational context for learning a new language empowers them to implement autonomous and critical activities to have a higher writing ability.

C. *Implications for Syllabus Designers and Material Developers*

The study can also provide some clues for the materials developers who attempt their best to provide the most effective, useful, fertile, and encouraging materials with autonomy and critical thinking orientation in the EFL learning context. In this regard, materials developers are expected to implement the tasks in EFL materials in such a way that criticality, independence, and confident grow up in language learners drastically. It is worth to state that regarding the multidimensional phenomenon of language learning, some essential points appear inevitable for materials developers.

Materials developers and syllabus designers are expected to act in their closest cooperation with language teachers. Curriculum designers can consider enough time and tasks for teachers to familiarize the students with the mentioned techniques of this study and help them to nurture these techniques in their learning procedure. On the other hand, cooperation of materials developers and curriculum designers with teachers can be of great use in order to create materials which are congruent with the level of autonomy and criticality of the students in different levels of language learning.

D. Suggestions for Further Research

The subsequent recommendations are presented with the hope that other researchers would find them interesting and useful enough to pursue in the future.

1. This study was conducted on the EFL learners between the age of 22-35. Considering the differences among different age groups regarding the mental and personal qualities, the same study could be conducted among other age groups.
2. This study was conducted among female EFL learners. It is recommended that the same study be replicated among male EFL learners in order to see if the same results are achieved.
3. Other studies can be conducted by the researchers to find out the comparative impact of autonomy and critical thinking techniques on the other language skills.
4. Other studies may be carried out to see if autonomous techniques of teaching have any impact on critical thinking ability of the learners.

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Misinterpretations of Intercultural Communication among Chinese Foreign Language Educators

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Abstract—When a large number of foreign language teachers are actively involved in intercultural communication study, more and more scholars have shown great concern about the “aphasia” of the Chinese native culture in foreign language teaching and learning. The paper makes an analysis on some existing misinterpretations of intercultural communication, and argues that, to a certain extent, the misinterpretations are a big factor for the “Aphasia” of the Chinese culture in foreign language education. Some suggestions are thus put forward to approach such a problem.

Index Terms—intercultural communication, misinterpretations, “aphasia” of the Chinese culture, foreign language education

I. INTRODUCTION

What is intercultural communication (IC)? A great many scholars, including Hall (1959), the father of IC study, Gudykunst & Kim (2007), Lustig & Koester (2007), Chen & Starosta (2007), Samovar & Porter (2007), Varner & Beamer (2006), Scollon & Scollon (2000), Singer (1987), to name just a few, have posed their definitions in the last 50 years since the IC study was born in the U.S. For instance, Gudykunst & Kim defined IC as “a transactional, symbolic process involving the attribution of meaning between people from different cultures” (2007, p.17). Lustig & Koester maintained that “Intercultural communication occurs when large and important cultural differences create dissimilar interpretations and expectations about how to communicate competently” (2007, p.52). Samovar & Porter proposed that “intercultural communication entails the investigation of those elements of culture that most influence interaction when members of two or more cultures come together in an interpersonal setting” (2007, p.8). Chen & Starosta held that “successful intercultural communication is based on the positive feeling and beliefs we bring to the intercultural encounter and on the behavioral skills we possess” (2007, p.30). And Marshall Singer (1987) even claimed that communication between every two persons is intercultural communication.

There is a variety of ways in which the topic of IC can be explored. Some examine IC from a macro point of view with focus on communication between different nations, ethnics and races while some are mainly concerned with the more personal aspects of people from different cultures interact face-to-face. Just as Lustig & Koester said, “we chose our specific definition because of its usefulness in explaining the thoughts and ideas we wish to convey” (2007, p.9). The term IC has been used in many ways for varied, and not always consistent, purposes.

IC, as an interdisciplinary field of study closely connected with many traditional subjects, contains a wide variety of content, not only including the general research projects, such as the relationship of language, culture and communication, components of culture, layers of cultural analysis and the process of intercultural communication, but also including the pragmatic studies on various cultures, the contrastive study of different cultures, nonverbal communication, intercultural adjustment, the development of intercultural competence and so on (Zhang, 2007, p.22).

All the definitions of IC seem to be broad, abstract and even all-inclusive. And so do the concepts of intercultural communicative Awareness (ICA) and intercultural communicative competence (ICC). For instance, Ruben (1976) identified seven dimensions of ICC: the capacity to be flexible, the capacity to be nonjudgmental, tolerance for ambiguity, the capacity to communicate respect, the capacity to personalize one’s knowledge and perceptions, the capacity to display empathy, and the capacity for turn taking. Hammer, Gudykunst, and Wiseman (1978) and Hammer (1987) specified the three major factors of ICC: ability to deal with psychological stress, ability to communicate effectively and the ability to establish interpersonal relationships. Wiseman (2002) stated “ICC involves the knowledge, motivation, skills to interact effectively and appropriately with members of different cultures” (2002, p.208). However, knowledge of such explanations and guidelines does not assure the success of the FL teacher in helping students develop ICA and ICC in the context of FL education in china.

II. IC STUDY IN CHINA’S FL EDUCATION FIELD

Ever since IC study was introduced into China in the 1980s, it has been tightly bound to FL education and has won great concern of FL scholars and teachers, who were the first to get engaged in IC study in China and now are still the

main research force of this field. It was in 1997 that Prof. Jia Yuxin stated that “IC had become a hot research project in the Chinese FL education field” (1997, p.1). Today it can be safely said that IC is not only a hot project, but also a must-explore topic for the FL teachers, because the *College English Syllabus* and the *Syllabus for English Teaching of English Majors in Higher Education* lately issued by the State Education Commission of China (SECC) have both explicitly set a demand to foster talents with intercultural communicative awareness and competence.

The recent years have witnessed rapid development of IC study in the Chinese FL education field. We see evidence of this everywhere, in the titles of papers and articles and dissertations. According to the statistics made by the author on the topics of “intercultural communication” and “foreign language teaching” (FLT) in the Chinese Journal Full-text Database (CJFD), altogether 3,276 articles are found during the recent 10 years from 2004 to 2013 (See Table 1), and up to 1880 articles during 2009 to 2013.

TABLE 1
ARTICLES ON THE TOPICS OF IC AND FLT FROM 2004 – 2013

Year	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Articles	209	216	260	327	384	443	388	404	364	281

The articles have discussed about the relationship between IC and FL instruction from different angles, such as the cultivation of ICA and ICC, the content of IC in FL teaching, cultural introduction in classes, the analysis of cultural meaning of words, nonverbal communication, pragmatic misuse, pragmatic capability and rules, intercultural teaching methods and etc. Although educators have been putting forward various arguments from different standpoints, it is for sure that the Chinese FL education field has already reached the consensus that the ultimate objective of FL instruction is to develop the students’ ICA and equip them with the competence to communicate with people from different cultural backgrounds.

Given the limited time available for FL education in China and the lack of authentic foreign language and culture environment, there is no question that we should examine or re-examine what IC, ICC and ICA mean and give more consideration on how to develop these definitions appropriately in the context of the Chinese FL education.

It should be noted that the Chinese FL teachers do not necessarily share a common understanding of IC, ICA or ICC. Then how do the Chinese FL teachers interpret these terms? With these questions in mind, we analyzed a number of articles and found that difference does occur in the teachers’ interpretations of IC in the context of FL teaching and learning and that many teachers tend to explain IC with the target language and culture as the focus.

III. APHASIA OF THE CHINESE CULTURE IN FL EDUCATION

Early in 1996, Cao Shunqing (1996) sharply pointed out that the contemporary Chinese theories of literature and art had been suffering from aphasia for a long time. When FL educators are actively involved in heated discussions on IC, however, more and more voices have been heard about the “aphasia” of the Chinese culture in recent years. Some educators (Yuan Fang, 2006; Zhang Lan, 2003; Zhang Youping, 2003) even argue that serious symptoms of “aphasia” have been shown in the current Chinese FL education field. Discussions have been made recently on the “aphasia” of the Chinese culture in terms of FL teaching materials, teachers, teaching approaches and learners. But less than 50 articles among the 2,199 mentioned above put focus on this phenomenon, taking up a proportion of about 2.3%. Various reasons work together and finally lead to the aphasia of the Chinese native culture in FL class, among which some misinterpretations of IC are indeed a big contributory factor.

IV. MISINTERPRETATIONS OF IC IN THE FL EDUCATION IN CHINA

A. Misinterpretation 1: IC Is the Communication in the Target Language

Here are some interpretations of IC in the context of FL teaching and learning made by certain teachers. The ultimate objective of FL education is to equip the students with the ability to communicate with the outside world in the target language to absorb knowledge and obtain information (Yan & Liu, 2008). The ultimate purpose of college English teaching is to educate the students to undertake effective IC activities in standard English (Zhou, 2007). Although IC is frequently mentioned by teachers, it seems that they tend to put their focus on “the introduction of the target culture, seldom touching upon the native one” (Liu, 2003). In fact, it is a commonplace in the FL education world of China for a long period of time to lay emphasis on the target language and culture with a neglect of the native language and culture.

A number of FL teachers do not have a good mastery of the Chinese language or the native cultural knowledge. This shortage, undoubtedly, constitutes a big hindrance to the development of teachers themselves and the quality of FLT. According to the investigation made by Deng & Ao (2005) among the English teachers for English majors of 10 colleges and universities in Sichuan Province, all the teachers, to different extents, lack the knowledge both in terms of the native culture and in terms of the English expressions of the Chinese culture. They also point out that the number of the teachers who never mention the native culture in classes constitute 50% of the total. Furthermore, teachers are unlikely to acquire a really authentic and standard foreign language and culture, because they are learners themselves and may also face the problem of langue “fossilization” (Ellis, 1994, p.353). Therefore, it is no way to create an authentic context for students or to educate them to communicate with foreigners effectively in standard English.

Teachers, as the decision-maker of all class activities, their own awareness and conception may make a great impact on the whole teaching process ranging from the choice of teaching materials, the arrangement of teaching tasks, the adoption of teaching modes and methods and so forth. Their misinterpretations of IC are sure to affect the education of foreign language talents.

It is also a common phenomenon that students overlook the study of the Chinese language and culture. They seem to attach more importance to the input and absorption of the foreign culture. According to the questionnaire survey made by the author on 115 non-English majors, nearly 90% of the students have realized the necessity and importance of learning English culture, but only 4 agree to regard the diffusion of the Chinese culture in English to the outside world as one of the main objectives of English learning as well as an important criterion to measure the effectiveness of learning English. The result shows that most of the students have realized the importance of learning culture, especially the western culture, but they have not formed an appropriate attitude towards the native culture.

Does the FL education with the purpose of IC just refer to the teaching and learning of the target language and culture? I am afraid the answer is negative. IC is a bilateral communicative process. At times the failure of IC activities is not due to the lack of the foreign culture knowledge, but due to the shortage of the native culture knowledge. A great many researchers have put too much emphasis on ethnocentrism, bias towards foreign culture and cultural stereotypes which may lead to the “negative transfer” of the native culture in FL learning (Hu, 2005; Liang & Xu, 2007). However, it should be warned against the neglect of the Chinese culture in FL education in the meantime.

B. Misinterpretation 2: ICA Is the Awareness of the Target Culture

C. Misinterpretation 3: ICC Is the Competence of the Target-culture Empathy

ICA and ICC are closely related to each other, which are often mentioned together by researchers. Awareness is the first stage toward the development of ICC, because only after awareness has been aroused can FL learners endeavor to develop intercultural communicative skills, accumulate knowledge and enhance understanding on their own initiative. But comparatively speaking, ICA is explored much less and sometimes it is equated with ICC. Here is a definition of ICA, which states “FL learners have a good mastery of the target culture knowledge ... and can think, react and undertake various communicative activities as native speakers do” (Tan, 2009). There is a pressing need for FL teachers to make more discussions on ICA and cultivate an appropriate ICA themselves to help their work. The teacher must learn to be aware of his or her own cultural values before helping students become culturally aware (Irving, 1984).

As for ICC, many educators seem to equate it with Communicative Competence (CC). Among the 635 papers found in CJFD with ICC as the title in recent 10 years, about 140 are based on the theories of CC proposed by Hymes, Canale and Swain. According to Hymes, CC “is integral with attitudes, values, and motivations concerning language, its features and uses” (1972, p.270). In his notion, language behavior is viewed in terms of its grammaticality (formal correctness), appropriateness and effectiveness (sociolinguistic correctness). In short, it is the competence as to when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner. Canale & Swain (1980) advanced a broader notion of CC, which includes grammatical competence (knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology), sociolinguistic competence (made up of two sets of rules, sociocultural rules of use and rules of discourse), and strategic competence (composed of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies relating to grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence). But some linguists, such as Byram (1997) and Kramsch (1998), have begun to doubt their CC theories which regard the linguistic and sociocultural behaviors of native speakers as the target and model, and they are opposed to judging the competence of FL learners according to the grammatical and sociocultural criteria of native speakers. However, with respect to ICA and ICC, educators tend to define them with the target language and culture as the model. For instance, “students should be cultivated to be able to use authentic and standard English... and to express their ideas appropriately according to the cultural customs of English-speaking countries” (Wu, 2006); “the success of communication is guaranteed by the grammatical and cultural appropriateness of English expression” (Xiong, 2006).

Zhang Hongling (2007, p.77-78) points out it is absurd to make the cultivation of “native speakers” as the goal of FL education mainly for three reasons. First, a variety of English languages existing in the world, such as British English, American English, Australian English and etc., make it impossible to define what a native speaker is like. In other words, the concept of “native speakers” is so abstract and vague that it is hard to integrate it into teaching. Second, the requirement that students should achieve the same linguistic and cultural competence as native speakers just ignores the fact that FL learners are learning or acquiring the foreign language in a context quite different from that for native speakers. In fact, no matter how much effort they make, it is by no means likely for FL learners to improve their target language to a fairly proficient and standard level (Zhao, 2001). Besides, we are all bound by our own cultural schemata and thus, interpreting cultural phenomena is always subject to our own subjective interpretation (Schulz, 2005). However, part of the universal human experience is the tendency to take our own culture for granted. We live it, we act it, we think it, we do it – but usually we are not consciously aware of the influence of our cultural values on our behavior and attitudes (Irving, 1984). Third, even if the learners can achieve the competence of a native speaker, it is totally unnecessary because it means they have to break away from their own culture to get assimilated into the target one. Zhang & Tian (2004), after their field study and personal experience in New York for more than one year, deeply realized that when teaching students knowledge about the target language and culture, FL educators should also develop

the awareness of the native language and culture and equip them with the capability to correctly and effectively express the native culture in the target language.

Besides, the term “cultural empathy” is often mentioned when ICC is explained. For example, cultural empathy in IC is to communicate on the stance of the target culture (Zhang, 2001); cultural empathy is to consciously transform your cultural stance, to transcend the habit and framework of your native culture, free yourself from its constraints, and put yourself in the midst of the target culture to sense and understand it (Zhao, 2006; Chen & Yuan, 2008). The prerequisite for these interpretations is that learners can directly experience the target culture to accumulate knowledge of that culture, appropriate cultural behaviors, fluency in the language, and ultimately change their cultural attitudes. However, in FL classrooms, learners do not generally have access to direct experiences or interactions in the culture (Moran, 2003, p.120), and they cannot stop their contact with the Chinese culture to learn English. Empathy, an important emotional factor for communication in linguistic research, does not mean giving up your own feeling to blindly agree with others. Cultural empathy is, and should be always based on the native culture of FL learners.

V. SUGGESTIONS

With the speeding up of the global communication and integration, IC is getting more and more essential for higher education. What sort of definition of IC should be adopted for the context of FLT in China? What sort of ICA and ICC should be integrated with FLT? The profession needs to develop some consensus as to these issues, and identify some concise, foundational and, of course, realistic objectives as well as principled approaches for the IC instruction in FLT. In view of this necessity, what I am advocating here is to define these terms as follows:

IC is communication between the target culture and the native culture on a reciprocal basis.

ICA is the awareness of the target culture and the native culture by means of objective, non-judgmental comparisons.

ICC is the competence to communicate with people from the target culture on an equal basis.

The purpose of FL learning is not to be assimilated by the target language and culture, but to achieve bilateral communication on an equal basis. Thus efforts are supposed to be made in the following aspects:

(1) Given the characteristics of China's FL teaching context, it is an efficient means to make full use of language classes to undertake intercultural communicative instruction and engage students actively in the process of analyzing cultural similarities and differences based on available teaching materials. Therefore, there is a need to set up an intercultural teaching mode aimed at developing an intercultural awareness with equal priority to target culture and native Culture. Actually the clues to culture and cross-cultural (intercultural) awareness are everywhere – all we need do is learn to recognize them, and then to integrate them into activities in the classroom to increase cross-cultural (intercultural) understanding (Irving, 1984).

(2) The Chinese culture knowledge should be incorporated into FL teaching materials to develop the students' awareness and competence to diffuse the native culture to other countries while they are learning and absorbing the target language and culture.

(3) If, indeed, ICA and ICC are to be an outcome of FL education, we need to include such awareness and competence in its curricular goals. Furthermore, these objectives must be formally and routinely assessed as are the linguistic objectives in FL programs.

(4) Comparative and contrastive teaching method should be strengthened. Comparison and contrast, participation and experience are the most frequently applied methods for intercultural FL education (Zhang, 2007, p.240). When we communicate with people from other cultures, we often are confronted with languages, rules, and norms different from our own. Confronting these differences can be a source of insight into the rules and norms of our own culture (Gudykunst & Kim, 2007, p.4). It is precisely those comparative and contrastive approaches to the study of culture that promise to bring the most rewards since they broaden the student's knowledge and understanding of the home culture as well as the foreign culture (Schulz, 2005).

(5) To make students stimulate and improve their ICA and ICC, teachers should bring students' initiative and potential into full play by organizing a variety of activities or designing a lot of meaningful and inspiring tasks in and out of classes.

(6) The quality of FL educators, to a great extent, determines the quality of FL education. How are teachers prepared to teach and assess intercultural learning in the FL classroom? Is teacher development adequate for the systematic exploration of the native and target cultures and for developing ICA and ICC in their students? It is of vital importance to train teachers and encourage them to get actively involved in IC activities and enrich their own intercultural experience. It can be argued that teacher development is the key to strengthening and enhancing IC instruction in FL teaching field.

VI. CONCLUSION

IC, ICA and ICC, which are all abstract but must-explore concepts, can mean different things for different groups of educators and researchers. Not until some consensus is reached regarding appropriate objectives, contents, approaches, and assessments on the basis of the Chinese FL education context can it help to fulfill of the ultimate goal of FLT of cultivating students' ICA and ICC. Moreover, we must make a conscious effort to increase awareness of our native

culture in order to better understand another culture in intercultural communication. If misinterpretations are formed concerning these terms, they are sure to affect the FLT which is now indispensable to IC.

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Local Evaluation Criteria for Global Textbooks: A Case Study from Iran

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Abstract—The fact that ELT textbooks play a crucial role in most EFL/ESL settings around the globe may not be rebuffed. This role is noticeably pivotal in language institutes in Iran where global textbooks determine much of what happens in classrooms. It is therefore crucial to know how well a textbook plays the role it is assumed to do. When decisions are to be made about selecting a proper textbook for a specific teaching situation, the idea of textbook evaluation comes true. To conduct a worthwhile evaluation of textbooks, which are supposedly “the main teaching and learning aid” (Matthews, 1985, p.202), one needs to have some criteria against which textbooks could be evaluated. This study was an attempt to set some textbook evaluation criteria based on the ideas of teachers and students who used global textbooks in language institutes of Isfahan, Iran. To do so, the researcher conducted interviews with 15 teachers and 15 students in order to find out what they thought of the textbooks they were teaching and/or learning. The data gathered from the interviews showed the specifications teachers and students take into account when judging their textbook. Finally, based on the interviews two local questionnaires were developed.

Index Terms—textbook, evaluation criteria, questionnaire

I. INTRODUCTION

Textbook evaluation is an important process which can be beneficial to publishers, teachers as well as students. As Amrani (2011) asserts, publishers have always needed to evaluate their materials in order to satisfy a wide range of end users. Except for publishers, teachers also need to evaluate teaching materials for a variety of reasons. To begin with, evaluation helps the selection of an appropriate textbook. The pivotal role textbooks play emphasizes the proper selection of textbook for a class. Furthermore, sometimes there is the need to adopt new textbooks through evaluation. As Sheldon (1988) declares, “the selection of a coursebook signals an executive educational decision in which there is considerable professional, financial and even political investment” (p. 237).

As discussed above, textbook evaluation is an important process which, as noted by Hargreaves (1989), is sometimes neglected. However, it should be noted that the evaluation process is actually of secondary importance to the criteria against which textbooks are evaluated. Using a checklist is the most common form of textbook evaluation and a number of scholars have proposed different evaluation checklists. For instance, Cunningsworth (1995) introduces a checklist comprising of what he believes to be the most essential general criteria. His checklist covers various areas such as aims and approaches, design and organization, etc. A number of other scholars and researchers such as Chastain (1971), Tucker (1975), Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979), Canlin and Breen (1979), and Sheldon (1988) have also attempt to come up with their own evaluation checklist.

Littlejohn (2011) presents a framework different from the evaluation checklists available. Although he agrees that such frameworks can be useful depending on the purpose you have in evaluating materials, Littlejohn suggests that we need a general framework through which materials can ‘speak for themselves’. Littlejohn (2011) proposes a framework which provides a list of the aspects that need to be considered from a pedagogic viewpoint. His framework is divided into two parts: publication and design. The first section concerns the ‘tangible’ or ‘physical’ aspects of the materials while the second section relates to the thinking underlying the materials.

On the other hand, some language practitioners and researchers believe that since instructional settings are uniquely different we need different evaluation schemes as well. As an instance, McDonough and Shaw (2003) suggest that they can’t certainly set worldwide criteria for evaluation since some might argue that textbook criteria are often local. Moreover, Byrd (2001, p.416) states “making a comprehensive yet reasonable checklist for evaluation of textbooks is an enormous challenge that requires different lists for different types of courses in different settings.” Bearing this in mind, the researcher in the present study made an attempt to come up with local evaluation criteria against which ELT textbooks could be evaluated.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Mukundan, Hajimohammadi and Nimehchisalem (2011 a) set out to design a tentative evaluation checklist by considering matters of validity, reliability and practicality. To ensure the validity of their checklist, they tried to follow the guidelines provided by similar previous studies. In order to have a reliable checklist, they tried to avoid large, vague and dogmatic questions by providing items which are understandable for the novice evaluators. They took into account matters of practicality by following Cunningsworth's (1995) suggestion. "It is important to limit the number of criteria used, the number of questions asked, to manageable portions, otherwise we risk being swamped in a sea of details." (Cunningsworth, 1995, p.5).

In a later study, Mukundan et al (2011 b) made an attempt to refine the English language textbook evaluation scheme that they had previously developed. At the first stage of this study, the focus group which consisted of 6 PhD candidates participated in an unstructured interview in which the participants were free to express their ideas on the inclusion or exclusion of items in the checklist. At the second stage, each participant was given a copy of the checklist and was asked to reword, delete, or add items where necessary. Their research resulted in a 36-item textbook evaluation scheme.

Soori, Kafipour and Soury (2011) made an effort to evaluate the first grade English textbook used in Iran's senior high school. Before embarking on the evaluation, the researchers developed a set of universal characteristics of EFL textbooks to conduct the evaluation.

Also, Razmjoo (2010) intended to develop and design a textbook evaluation scheme for the expanding circle. To do so, 30 male and female TEFL instructors were selected. Semi-structured interviews were then conducted with the teachers during which they provided answers to some open-ended questions. The researches then codified and categorized the data gathered from the interviews. The result of this investigation was an evaluation scheme consisting of 6 main factors containing 41 items.

Moreover, Miekley (2005) sought to come up with a valuable tool for evaluating EFL/ ESL reading textbooks. The newly developed checklist was mainly based on previous checklists available and/or recent research. The checklist fell into two major sections, one pertaining to the textbook itself and the other part pertaining to the teacher's manual. Other scholars such as Rahimpour and Hashemi (2011), Nahrkhalaji (2012) etc., also made attempts to come up with some form of evaluation checklists.

III. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study was an attempt to design two questionnaires based on the interviews done with teachers and students who are teaching and/ or learning English in language institutes in Isfahan, Iran. The need for local criteria has been emphasized by a number of scholars (Roberts, 1996; Byrd, 2001; McDonough and Shaw, 2003) who argue that for different instructional settings we need different evaluation criteria. This study was to find out what criteria teachers and students take into consideration when asked to evaluate or voice their opinion regarding the ELT textbook they use.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. *Participants*

The participants of this study were fifteen teachers and fifteen students in the language institutes of Isfahan. In other words, a total number of thirty teachers and students, both male and female, were interviewed and asked to comment on each of the ELT textbooks they used. It should be noted that Top Notch, Interchange 3rd edition, and Four Corners were being used in the language institutes under study. All the participants agreed to attend the interview sessions voluntarily. The participants were selected via availability sampling which means the researcher selected whoever was available and willing to take part in the interviews (Farhady, 2001).

B. *Instruments*

The instrument for data collection in this study was interview questions. The researcher held interviews with the teachers and the students in order to find out what they thought of the textbooks. The data gathered helped this study to establish local criteria for textbook evaluation.

C. *Data Collection*

Semi-structured interviews were preferred since they were flexible, adhered more to the agenda and also gave the interviewees enough freedom to express their ideas (Mackey and Gass, 2005). The researchers showed up in each of the language institutes and interviewed the participants. The interview sessions were conducted in Persian. With the prior permission of the participants, the interview sessions were voice-recorded and later transcribed. Each interview session lasted for approximately 25 minutes in which the teachers and students discussed their ideas on the EFL textbooks they used and/or studied.

During the interview sessions, the participants were asked to provide complete answers to a number of open-ended questions. The general guidelines for the interview questions were taken from previous studies (e.g. Cunningsworth 1995, Daoud and Celce-Murcia 1979, Rivers 1981, Sheldon 1988, Skierso 1991, McDonough and Shaw 2003, etc.).

The researcher established a set of questions to seek teachers' and students' ideas on the ELT textbooks they used. Table 1 presents the questions which were used as a point of departure for the interviews.

TABLE 1.
QUESTIONS FOR THE INTERVIEW PHASE OF THE STUDY

Questions for the interviews
1- What do you think of the appearance and general design of the textbook?
2- How have language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) been dealt with in the textbook?
3- How has language content (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation) been dealt with?
4- What problems did you have while teaching/learning this textbook?
5- How can this textbook be improved?

V. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

As said above, in order to establish local evaluation criteria for ELT textbook, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 15 teachers. The teachers were asked 5 general questions (see Table 1). The following are the English versions of the extracts taken from these interviews.

Extract 1. Teachers' answers to the first question of the interview

1. *I. What do you think of the appearance and general design of the textbook?
2. *T1. In my opinion the pictures and appearance [of the textbook] enjoy good quality ... I mean in some lessons pictures are used, for example, to show colors or feelings, such pictures are understandable to the students ... I think there are enough pictures [in the textbook] and ... but I think some adults don't like cartoon pictures ... I think 70 percent of the pictures are suitable for adults.
3. T2. I think this book has the best design in terms of the information presented on each page somehow it is very well organized and I think it is not confusing
4. T3. I think the pictures in this book are attractive to the students ... I mean for their age. Some pictures are censored because of cultural differences. But in terms of sequencing the content this is one of the positive points about this book. Right now I teach different books and I think this book has the best sequence. I think I can say its arrangement is better than other books.

*I: Interviewer

*T: Teacher

[] more information

... Omission

Extract 2. Teachers' answers to the second question of the interview

1. I. How have language skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing been dealt with in the textbook?
2. T1. some of the speaking topics are not interesting to students or they don't have enough information to talk, because they are mostly high school students ... But the listening exercises are good because they get familiar with different accents, sometimes a Chinese speaks ... some might consider this a drawback but I think it's good they hear different accents. The listening contents are also good and related to the topics. The readings sometime contain very difficult words. If you see the book, sometimes the texts are exactly like original magazines and newspaper and I think it's good
3. T2. the readings ... well there are good readings in terms of the grammar, I mean the grammar of the unit is again shown in the reading even sometimes the grammar of previous units are reviewed in the reading. In general the readings were ok, but I think it would have been better if there were more reading exercises.
4. T3. ...by the way I think the writings in Interchange are better than Four Corners because it completely teaches writing in one page ... [it] teaches the students how to write topic sentences and how to write a paragraph, but Four Corners is not like this ... In terms of reading also I think it is much better ... the texts are long enough to engage students and improve their reading ability, although the level of listening exercises is low for students. For example, I had a class the other day and ... well the listening was not difficult but it was too long and I think the students, you know, were bored, it was very long.

Extract 3. Teachers' answers to the third question of the interview

1. I. How has language content (i.e. vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation) been dealt with?
2. T1. I think it's a good book in terms of grammar, the sequence is good. For example, the students learn present perfect then present perfect continuous. However, there are not [enough] exercises. There are exercises in the workbook but we need [grammar] exercises in the lessons. For example, after teaching passive voice there are few exercises for students which is not enough so we have to rely on other sources for students to practice passive voice. This book has a high quality CD and students can listen to the CD at home and work on their pronunciation but phonetics is not well presented in the book ... there are just exercises for making contractions. That is again not enough.
3. T2. I think there is enough explanation on grammar and it's good, there are examples for each grammatical structure, too ... about the vocabulary, for example, in one section just some pictures are used to teach different movie genres and the pictures are not very clear. I think if there were some explanations too, it could be better. I think if the new words were again used in the reading passages, students could learn them better because there are not enough exercises for vocabulary practice.
4. T3. This book has paid lots of attention to pronunciation and sentence stress. This is one of the advantages of this book ... the grammar is presented briefly and in each unit few grammatical points are discussed. Therefore it's not confusing for the students. They go ahead step by step. Although, there are few exercises for students ... Another problem is that some new words in the unit don't suit the level of students. For example, it's difficult for beginner students to pronounce or learn the word *quadriplegic*; they don't need to learn this word at this level at all.

Extract 4. Teachers' answers to the fourth question of the interview

1. I. What problems did you have while teaching this textbook?
2. T1. One of the problems with this book is that it really needs experienced teachers. The teachers' book is also very important. If you give me this book to teach without help from the teachers' book I would surely face many problems. Not every teacher can teach this book, but the good thing is that we can use different methods to teach it.
3. T2. There were some cultural issues that I wasn't familiar with or some other issues that I didn't have information about, but fortunately some of these issues are explained in the teachers' book and I learned a lot. Although in some aspects the teachers' book is not very practical. For example, the timing given for exercises is not useful at all.

Extract 5. Teachers' answers to the fifth question of the interview

1. I. How can this book be improved?
2. T1. I think the book would be much better if there were more exercises for grammar, and also I think the topic of some units doesn't interest the students. Perhaps because they don't like the topics or they don't have enough information about the topics.
3. T2. I think there is too much new information presented on each page, they need to remove this problem. Besides, there is too much repetition of the same topic for discussion. I mean students have to talk about the same subject for 2 or 3 sessions and they get pretty bored.
4. T3. A problem I think is that it [the book] takes too much energy from the teacher; you know the teacher has to do everything in class and the students are very inactive. I think a good book should engage the students more ... also I think longer passages would have been better.

Extracts 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 illustrate some of the responses provided by teachers for the 5 questions of the interview. Having analyzed and categorized all the voice-recorded interviews, the researcher found out that there were certain features in the textbooks which most teachers paid attention to when evaluating them. For example, most teachers in the interviews pointed out that a good textbook should enjoy clear and illustrative pictures, the appearance of the textbook should attract language learners, there should be enough exercises for grammar and listening, there should be a good teachers' book accompanying the textbook and so forth.

The same procedure was followed to establish a set of textbook evaluation criteria which were important to the students. To do so, interviews were conducted with 15 students. Throughout the interviews, students were asked 5 general questions (see Table 1) and they responded to the questions. The following are English translation of some short extracts taken from these interviews.

Extract 1. Students' answers to the first question of the interview

1. *I. What do you think of the appearance and general design of the textbook?
2. *S1. There are various pictures in the textbook; the pictures are good and enjoy high quality. The pictures don't make me tired or bored. Sometimes the pictures are not much related to the text or conversation but in general they are OK. I like the pictures because there are both cartoon pictures and real pictures.
3. S2. The book in my opinion is attractive and the pictures are good, for example the pictures are related to the new words, for example about sports... there are good pictures. I don't feel that the pictures are too childish.
4. S3. The pictures are good, but I think a problem is that the pictures distract us from the lesson because they are really flashy ... I understand what each picture wants to say or what message it wants to convey. I think the design of the book attracts students.

*I: Interviewer

*S: Student

Extract 2. Students' answers to the second question of the interview

1. I. How have language skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing been dealt with in the textbook?
2. S1. I don't like the speaking sections because there are only repeated questions and we don't talk about different things ... I feel we are weak in listening skill and there should be more exercises for listening practice. Also, there should be newer passages which are more related to the lesson ... the writing sections are good because they help us practice the new words and also improve our writing, I am satisfied with them.
3. S2. I feel that my English has improved a lot with this book. I can speak well and the exercises in the book are enough ... sometimes the listening sections are difficult for me and they are too long. There are new words in passages and I like learning them.
4. S3. I think there should have been more discussion sections for speaking practice. The readings are good and I like them but I am really weak in writing. The book doesn't tell us how we should write and it's a big problem I think.

Extract 3. Students' answers to the third question of the interview

1. I. How has language content (i.e. vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation) been dealt with?
2. S1. I love the vocabulary sections but the explanations provided for grammar sections are very short. I think we should practice grammar more ... There are few exercises for pronunciation too.
3. S2. We learn very few new words in each unit and we don't learn about idioms but the grammar section was good because there were some good examples and simple explanations ... I think there are sufficient exercises for vocabulary but for grammar we need more practice.
4. S3. Our teacher tells us about phonetics sometimes but the book provide us with no explanation on them, I think we need some pronunciation practice ... Sometimes I don't understand the new words and I think it would have been better if there had been more explanation about the words.

Extract 4. Students' answers to the fourth question of the interview

1. I. What problems did you have while learning this textbook?
2. S1. The listening sections are sometimes too long and boring for me ... and some of the new words are not really useful for me ...
3. S2. I learned many new words in this book but I don't know how I should use these words. There are always too many mistakes in my writing ... the questions in speaking section are difficult for me and sometimes I don't even know what to say in Persian let alone in English.
4. S3. Sometimes there are words for strange foods or customs that I know nothing about. They are related to the cultures of other countries ... sometimes it's good to learn about other cultures but sometimes it really confuses me.

Extract 5. Students' answers to the fifth question of the interview

1. I. How can this book be improved?
2. S1. I think just more grammar exercises should be added and it [the textbook] should teach us about pronunciation and phonetics so that we can use a dictionary.
3. S2. This book I think doesn't pay much attention to speaking and it should be improved ... also more up dated topics should be chosen for the lessons.
4. S3. There should be more practice on new words so that we learn how to use them and they better remain in our memory ... if they present us with more conversation models it would be better.

Extracts 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 illustrate some of the responses provided by students for the 5 questions of the interview. The participants of the interviews were free to ask for further explanation whenever they did not understand the questions. The data gathered from all the students were analyzed and categorized. Then, based on these data a 25-item questionnaire was developed (see appendix B). The questionnaire tries to address the points that students mentioned while evaluating their ELT textbook.

VI. DISCUSSION

Having conducted interviews with teachers and students, the researcher then made an attempt to develop two questionnaires for both students and teachers. The questionnaire developed for teachers comprised 40 items which fell into 10 clusters (see Table 2). The items were developed based on what the teachers said while evaluating the ELT textbooks they used.

TABLE 2
ITEMS ON TEACHER'S QUESTIONNAIRE

Item specification	Number of Items
Items related to design and appearance	1- 4- 5- 6- 8 (Cluster 1)
organization	2- 3- 7 (Cluster 2)
speaking	9- 10- 11 (Cluster 3)
listening	12- 13- 14- 15- 16 (Cluster 4)
reading	17- 18- 19- 20 (Cluster 5)
writing	21- 22- 23 (Cluster 6)
vocabulary	24- 25- 26- 27- 28 (Cluster 7)
cultural issues	29
grammar	30- 31- 32 (Cluster 8)
pronunciation	33- 34- 35 (Cluster 9)
student centeredness	36
supplementary sources	37
teaching methods	38
teacher's book	39- 40 (Cluster 10)

The questionnaire for students consisted of 25 items -7 clusters- which addressed different issues and aspects related to ELT textbooks. Table 3 shows the categorization of items on students' questionnaire.

TABLE 3.6.
ITEMS ON STUDENT'S QUESTIONNAIRE

Item specification	Number of Items
Items related to design and appearance	1-2-3-4-5 (Cluster 1)
speaking	6-7-8 (Cluster 2)
listening	9-10-11 (Cluster 3)
reading	12-13-14 (Cluster 4)
writing	15-16 (Cluster 5)
vocabulary	17-18-19 (Cluster 6)
grammar	20- 21- 22 (Cluster 7)
pronunciation	23
topics of units	24
aims of students	25

The clusters (see Table 2 and 3) suggest that the findings of this research are to some extent in line with the previous studies outlined in section II of this paper. However, certain differences are observable too. To begin with, using technical words and jargons in an evaluation scheme might be easily discernible for an expert; however, they might not be clear enough for students and teachers with low expertise. Thus, one of the merits of the two questionnaires in this study was that the type of language and the terminologies employed suited the teachers and students since they are taken from the interviews. Furthermore, both students and teachers mentioned different aspects of the textbooks they used. However, as Cunningsworth (1995) suggests, it is best to keep the number of items to manageable portions. Therefore, from the different issues mentioned in the interviews, only the ones which were recognized by a larger number of teachers or students were addressed in the two questionnaires. Finally, this study was an attempt to come up with two local evaluation questionnaires for both students and teachers separately.

VII. CONCLUSION

As some scholars (e.g. Byrd, 2001; Sheldon, 1998) have argued, textbook evaluation criteria are context-dependent. Besides, specific needs of the teachers and students should be considered. The present study was an attempt to develop local evaluative criteria which could be used for ELT textbook. In so doing, interviews were held with teachers and students in language institutes of Isfahan. Having transcribed and categorized all the interviews, the researcher developed two questionnaires; one for teachers and one for students (see appendices A and B). The criteria addressed in the questionnaires were to some extent similar to the criteria identified by the previous researcher, there were some differences, though. At the end, it should be noted that textbook evaluation is an ongoing process and as Sheldon (1988, p.245) notes, "materials evaluation is fundamentally a rule-of-thumb activity and that no formula, grid or system will ever provide a definite yardstick."

APPENDIX A. TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

	Completely agree	agree	disagree	Completely disagree	No idea
1-The pictures of the book are clear and illustrative.					
2-The sequencing of content enjoys good variety.					
3- The content is arranged from easy to difficult.					
4- The number of pictures is enough for teaching purposes.					
5- The pictures are suitable regarding the age of the students					
6- The appearance of the book attracts the students.					
7- There is sufficient information presented on each page of the book.					
8- The pictures are up to date and of good quality.					
9- The textbook pays enough attention to speaking skill.					
10- Speaking topics are interesting and various.					
11- Speaking topics are related to the background knowledge of the students.					
12- There are enough exercises for listening.					
13- Listening exercises familiarize students with a variety of accents.					
14- The length of the listening exercises suites the class time available.					
15- The difficulty level of the listening exercises matches the level of students.					
16- The questions which follow each listening section increases students' focus on the listening content.					
17- There are enough exercises for reading comprehension in the textbook.					
18- The length of the reading passages matches the level of the students.					

19- The reading passages are authentic and they are taken from original magazines and newspapers.					
20- The difficulty level of the grammatical structures used in the reading passages matches the level of the students.					
21- There are enough exercises for writing.					
22- The writing topics are in line with the topics of units.					
23- Paragraph writing and essay writing have been taught in the textbook.					
24- Presenting new words using pictures is suitable for students.					
25- Presenting new words using explanations is suitable for students.					
26- The number of exercises to practice the usage of new words is enough.					
27- The difficulty level of the new words matches the level of the students.					
28- The new words and idioms are up to date.					
29- The cultural issues presented in the textbook are understandable to the students.					
30- The grammar of each unit has been sufficiently explained.					
31- There are enough examples for each grammatical structure.					
32- There are enough exercises for new grammatical forms.					
33- There are some sections in the book dedicated to pronunciation.					
34- There are enough exercises for pronunciation practice.					
35- Suprasegmental elements such as sentence stress and intonation are emphasized.					
36- The textbook is student centered to a large extent.					
37- This textbook encourages students to use supplementary sources such as Internet to enhance their learning.					
38- The textbook is flexible and can be taught using different teaching methodologies.					
39- The Teachers' book fulfills the needs of teachers to a large extent.					
40- The Teachers' book is a useful help for novice teachers.					

APPENDIX B. STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE

	Completely agree	agree	disagree	Completely disagree	No idea
1- I like the pictures in the textbook.					
2- The pictures explaining the new words are clear.					
3- The pictures of the conversation sections are clear.					
4- The appearance of the textbook motivates me to study more.					
5- I think the pictures help me better retain the information.					
6- Through this book, my speaking skill has satisfactorily improved.					
7- There are various topics for speaking practice.					
8- Group discussion sections helped me improve my speaking.					
9- I have no problem understanding the listening sections.					
10- The listening sections familiarize me with different accents.					
11- I think I do not need more listening practice.					
12- I think that the reading passages are in line with the topics of units.					
13- The reading passages helped me extend my range of vocabulary.					
14- Through this book, my reading comprehension skill improved a lot.					
15- I like the writing topics in this textbook.					
16- This book helped me a lot to improve my writing skill.					
17- Repetition of the new words helped me learn them better.					
18- Using pictures to present new words helped me learn them better.					
19- I think I learned many practical and useful words in each unit.					
20- In my opinion, grammar is sufficiently explained in this book.					
21- The examples in the grammar sections helped me better learn the grammar.					
22- I think I do not need more grammar practice.					
23- This textbook helped me a lot in learning the correct pronunciation of words and sentences.					
24- I like the topics of units.					
25- Since each student has a special purpose for learning English, this textbook helped me realize my goals.					

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The Effects of Foreign Language Anxiety and Test Anxiety on Foreign Language Test Performance

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Abstract—This study aimed at investigating the effects of foreign language anxiety and test anxiety on foreign language test performance. Another purpose of this study was to see whether there is any relationship between foreign language anxiety and test anxiety. Two hundred students of English as a foreign language at pre-intermediate (Pre 1) level participated in this study. In the present study, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale and the Test Anxiety Scale were used to measure foreign language anxiety and test anxiety, respectively. The scores obtained in each questionnaire were correlated with the students' final exam grades. Both foreign language anxiety and test anxiety had a statistically significant negative correlation with the exam grades, suggesting that both types of anxiety have debilitating effects on test performance. Correlation analyses indicated a strong positive relationship between foreign language anxiety and test anxiety. Therefore, English teachers are recommended to try to reduce both language anxiety and test anxiety by creating a friendly and supportive atmosphere in class, encouraging students' involvement in class activities, and teaching some anxiety-reducing strategies to the students.

Index Terms—foreign language anxiety, test anxiety, test performance

I. INTRODUCTION

In current research in EFL, a great deal of effort has been devoted to establishing the role of psychological factors in the success or failure of the learners. Among these psychological factors are affective factors with “anxiety” as one of their sub-categories. There are two general types of anxiety. One of them is called **trait** anxiety and is defined as “a relatively stable tendency to exhibit anxiety in a large variety of circumstances” (Phillips, 1992, p. 14). Another type of anxiety is **state** anxiety, which is defined as “a situation-specific trait anxiety; that is, an individual suffering from state anxiety will manifest a stable tendency to exhibit anxiety but only in certain situations” (Phillips, 1992, p. 14).

Trait anxiety, because of its global and somewhat ambiguously defined nature, has not proved to be useful in predicting second language achievement (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). According to Brown (2000), language anxiety is a kind of state anxiety, and Phillips (1992) thinks that a well-known type of state anxiety is test anxiety. Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) considered language anxiety as distinct from general anxiety and identified three components of foreign language anxiety:

1. communication apprehension, arising from learners' inability to adequately express mature thoughts and ideas;
2. fear of negative social evaluation, arising from a learner's need to make a positive social impression on others; and
3. test anxiety, or apprehension over academic evaluation.

They developed their Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) based on these three components. However, for test anxiety, they just considered foreign language test anxiety.

MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) and Aida (1994) analyzed Horwitz et al.'s (1986) FLCAS by factor analysis. Both of these studies supported their idea that language anxiety has the first two above-mentioned components. However, they did not support Horwitz et al.'s (1986) claim that test anxiety is the third component of foreign language anxiety.

Considering test anxiety, In'nami (2006) studied the effects of test anxiety on listening test performance. The results of In'nami's study showed that none of the factors of test anxiety (i.e., general test worry, test-irrelevant thinking, and emotion) affects listening test performance. This finding is in line with Aida (1994) and MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) who say that test anxiety is an anxiety problem in general and is not specifically related to the foreign language learning context.

If we consider test anxiety to be separate from foreign language anxiety, their effects on foreign language test performance can be investigated separately. In fact, this is what is done in the present study. In the EFL literature, there are several studies which investigate the relationship between foreign language anxiety and foreign language proficiency or performance (e.g. Aida, 1994; Matsuda & Gobel 2004; Phillips, 1992) or the relationship between

foreign language anxiety and one or more language skills (e.g. Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Matsuda & Gobel 2001; Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2006; Saito, Garza, & Horwitz, 1999).

The studies investigating the relationship between test anxiety and foreign language test performance are fewer. Some of these studies have investigated the relationship between test anxiety and foreign language test performance in general (Chastain, 1975; Horwitz, 1986) and some others have investigated the relationship between test anxiety and test of a language skill or language component (In'nami, 2006; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989).

All these studies have focused on either foreign language anxiety or test anxiety. What is lacking in the literature is a study which investigates both of these types of anxiety and compares their effects on foreign language test performance. Administering both types of questionnaires in one study enjoys two advantages: first, we can compare their effects on foreign language test performance to see the effects of which one is more prominent. Second, we can see whether there exists any relationship between these two types of anxiety or not.

The only study which has investigated foreign language anxiety and test anxiety at the same time is the study of MacIntyre and Gardner (1989). But in their study, they used only ten items of the Test Anxiety Scale, and they used a foreign language scale other than FLCAS. Furthermore, MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) themselves referred to contradictory (both negative and positive) effects of test anxiety on language course grades (Chastain, 1975; Horwitz, 1986) and said, "a closer examination of the role of test anxiety in the foreign language classroom seems warranted" (p. 269).

Therefore, the purpose of the study is to investigate the effects of foreign language anxiety and test anxiety on foreign language test performance and to see which one is more effective in this concern. We also want to see whether there is any relationship between these two types of anxiety themselves.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In several studies (e.g. Aida, 1994; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Philips, 1992; Steinberg & Horwitz, 1986), anxiety was found to have a negative relationship with language performance. In fact it was a debilitating anxiety. But we also have facilitative anxiety. There is some concern or some apprehension over the task to be accomplished which prevents the learner from being wishy-washy (Brown, 2000). In some studies, anxiety has shown to be facilitative (Baily, 1983; Kleinmann, 1977; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Tobias, 1986).

Horwitz (1990) believes that in the language learning environment, there is no such thing as facilitative anxiety; all anxiety in that environment is likely to be debilitating. However, in the study of Oxford and Ehrman (1995), which shows the relationships between language learning strategies and several other factors such as anxiety, it was found that self-reported anxiety about speaking the language in class has a positive relationship with cognitive strategy use. So it confirms Brown's (2000) view that facilitative anxiety exists, too.

MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) referred to such contradictory results obtained in previous studies. They point out that most of these contradictory studies measured trait or state anxiety which is applicable across several situations, but this may not be the best way to measure anxiety in a language learning context. Gardner (1985) has proposed that scales which are directly concerned with foreign language anxiety are more appropriate for studying language anxiety than general anxiety scales.

Such a scale was developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) who believe that language anxiety is distinct from general anxiety. They defined language anxiety as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning processes" (p. 128).

Horwitz et al. (1986) describe three components of foreign language anxiety: communication apprehension, fear of negative social evaluation, and test anxiety. Horwitz et al. believe that these three components have deleterious effect on second language acquisition. Horwitz (1986) reported that the FLCAS had a correlation coefficient of $r = 0.28$ ($p = 0.063$, $n = 44$) with communication apprehension (measured by McCroskey's (1970) personal report of communication apprehension), $r = 0.53$ ($p < 0.01$, $n = 60$) with test anxiety (measured by Sarason's (1978) Test Anxiety Scale), and $r = 0.36$ ($p < 0.01$, $n = 56$) with fear of negative evaluation (measured by Watson and Friend's (1992) fear of negative evaluation scale).

Horwitz et al. (1986) tested their theory on 75 English learners of Spanish at an American university. The study revealed that significant foreign language anxiety was experienced by many students in foreign language learning which adversely affected their performance at that language.

Aida (1994) also examined the effects of anxiety on foreign language performance. His study showed that language anxiety was negatively correlated to students' performance in Japanese as a foreign language.

Phillips (1992) investigated the relationship between language anxiety and students' oral test performance. The measure for language anxiety in this study was FLCAS (Horwitz et al, 1986). Phillips measured the correlation between language anxiety and oral test performance and found that there was a moderate negative relationship between them.

More recently, Liu and Jackson (2008) investigated the unwillingness to communicate and anxiety of Chinese learners of English as a foreign language. Their results revealed that most of their participants were willing to participate in interpersonal conversations, but they did not like risk using/speaking English in class. In addition, more than one third of them felt anxious in their English language classrooms. The participants' unwillingness to

communicate and their foreign language anxiety correlated with each other and with their own rating of their English proficiency.

In a large scale study of multilingual adults around the world, Dewaele, Petrides, and Furnham (2008) found that individuals who were younger when they started learning a second or third language had lower levels of language anxiety. Lower anxiety levels were also associated with knowledge of more languages and higher levels of Emotional Intelligence. In spite of most previous studies, this article has examined language learners who are successful and who use language outside the classroom. This study suggests that in addition to individual characteristics, larger social circumstances such as the availability of supportive conversational partners and L2 role models may have a role in reducing language anxiety.

Marcos-Llinás and Garau (2009) investigated the effects of language anxiety on course achievement in three foreign language proficiency levels of Spanish, namely, beginner, intermediate, and advanced. Using FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1986), they showed that advanced learners showed higher levels of anxiety in comparison with beginner and intermediate participants. They also found language anxiety to be negatively related to foreign language classroom achievement. They also found that female students were less anxious than male ones. (For overviews of foreign language anxiety see Horwitz, 2010; Zheng, 2008).

Although research into foreign language anxiety is abundant, few investigations have directly focused on test anxiety, which is defined as a “special case of general anxiety consisting of phenomenological, physiological, and behavioral responses related to a fear of failure and to experience of evaluation or testing” (Sieber, 1980, pp. 17-18). Among these few studies is Chastain’s (1975) in which test anxiety was negatively and moderately correlated with course grades in beginner-level, French audiolingual classes, whereas test anxiety was positively and very weakly correlated in beginner-level, regular French classes ($r = 0.18$) and test anxiety was positively and weakly correlated in beginner-level, regular German and Spanish classes. In another study by Horwitz (1986), test anxiety had a negative and very weak relationship with final grades in the case of introductory-level, foreign language students.

Joy (2013) examined the level of test anxiety related to pre-, during-, and post-test stages of second language learners. The results showed that the most anxiety-provoking stage was during-test stage, followed by the pre-test stage. The least anxiety-provoking stage was the post-test stage. Surprisingly, all of the participants of this study reported that teachers had not helped them to cope with test anxiety.

Since most of the studies concerning anxiety and foreign language learning are correlational in nature, it is difficult to distinguish the causality of this relationship. Some scholars believe that it is poor performance which leads to higher anxiety (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1994). Others believe that anxiety is a cause of poor performance rather than its consequence (Elkhafaifi, 2005; MacIntyre, 1995; Matsuda and Gobel’s, 2004).

Based on the inconclusive results obtained in previous studies, more research seems to be needed in this area. Moreover, it is worth comparing the effects of foreign language anxiety and test anxiety on foreign language test performance because it helps foreign language teachers know which type of anxiety they should try to reduce more than the other one. This study was conducted to fill this gap. To be more specific, the research questions of this study are stated in the following section.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Three main research questions are addressed in this study:

1. Is there any relationship between foreign language anxiety and foreign language test performance?
2. Is there any relationship between test anxiety and foreign language test performance?
3. Is there any relationship between language anxiety and test anxiety?

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of this study were 200 students of English as a foreign language at Iran Language Institute (ILI), Karaj Branch. To make sure that differing levels of language proficiency would not affect the results of the test, the students at the same level were chosen. The participants of this study were all at the level of Pre-intermediate 1 (henceforth Pre 1), which is the sixth level of adult courses at the ILI. Since only a few male students (7 students) cooperated with the researchers, the majority of participants were female (193 students). The age of the participants ranged from 14 to 47. The average age of the participants was 19.

B. Instrumentation

Two questionnaires were used in this study. One of them measured foreign language anxiety and the other one measured test anxiety.

1. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

The first questionnaire is called Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz et al. (1986). It is a 33-item, five-point Likert scale questionnaire. The answers to each item can be one of these: strongly agree; agree; neither agree nor disagree; disagree; and strongly disagree. For each item a score was given ranging from

5 for strongly agree to 1 for strongly disagree. For negatively worded items, namely items number 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 18, 22, 28 & 32 (see Table 1), the order of scoring was reversed, so that a higher score would be an indicator of higher anxiety (Aida, 1994).

The FLCAS has been used in different studies (Aida, 1994; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Cheng et al., 1999; Horwitz et al., 1986; Matsuda & Gobel, 2001; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004; Saito et al., 1999). Among these studies, Horwitz et al. and Aida reported both a high internal reliability and a test-retest reliability of FLCAS.

Considering the validity of the FLCAS, Aida's (1994) factor analysis showed that most of the items had high factor loadings, and only three items related to test anxiety did not load on any of the factors. So we can conclude that this questionnaire is valid in general.

2. Test Anxiety Scale

The second questionnaire is called Test Anxiety Scale (TAS) developed by Sarason (1975). The TAS, which is based on the theory and evidence that test anxiety is composed of test-relevant and test-irrelevant thinking, consists of 37 items. The original answers to the questionnaire were dichotomous, but they were changed to a five-point scale (1 = completely disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = completely agree) by In'nami (2006). He changed the dichotomous scale to a five-point one because, first, as he says five-point scales are interval scales and are more likely to provide normally distributed data. Second, five-point scales increase the accuracy of responses compared to two-point scales (In'nami, 2006). For the same reasons and also to be consistent with the first questionnaire, we also used the five-point scale. Again for the negatively worded statements, namely items number 3, 15, 26, 27, 29 & 33 (see Table 2), the order of scoring was reversed, and the students with greater anxiety received a higher score (In'nami, 2006).

To investigate the validity of inferences drawn from the TAS, In'nami (2006) analyzed the responses to it first by exploratory factor analysis and then by confirmatory factor analysis. He decided that it is a valid scale.

Both of the above-mentioned questionnaires were translated into Persian. The reason for using the Persian translation of the questionnaires was that the students were chosen from pre-intermediate levels of language proficiency, not advanced levels, and they might not have understood all the items in the questionnaires clearly if they read the original questionnaires. Even if they were chosen from advanced levels, their lack of understanding of one or some of the items of the questionnaires would affect the results. So the questionnaires were translated. Against the common belief that in any translation some meaning is lost, in the opinion of the researchers, the negative effects of translation is less than that of using the original questionnaires because even if there is a mistake in the translation, it affects the responses of all the students in the same way. But the students may understand the original questionnaires in different ways. Moreover, some studies (In'nami, 2006; & Matsuda & Gobel, 2004) which used these questionnaires for non-English students also used a translated version. To further reduce the negative effects of translation, the translations of the questionnaires were checked by two M.A. students of English translation at Allameh Tabatabaee University.

Before administering the questionnaires, it was explained to participants that they should answer the items of the first questionnaire (FLCAS) about their feelings and attitudes in their English class and answer the items of the second questionnaire (TAS) about their feelings about an exam which can be any exam, not just their English class final exam. This point was also written on top of the papers. The participants were also asked about their profile information to enable the researcher to obtain their final exam grades later.

3. ILI final exam

The last instrument of this study was ILI's final exam for level Pre 1. Unfortunately, ILI's exam papers are not given or shown to anybody other than the students. So it could not be added to the appendices. Therefore, the only information we can provide about it here is that it consists of 60 multiple choice items divided into four parts: 10 listening comprehension questions, 20 vocabulary questions, 20 grammar questions, and 10 reading comprehension questions.

C. Procedures and Data Collection

The questionnaires used in this study were given to the students of Iran Language Institute, at Pre 1 level. Since the regulations of ILI didn't let the researcher administer the questionnaires during the class time, the participants were asked to fill them out at home and bring them back the next session. It was explained to the participants that they were participating in a research study, and that filling out the questionnaires had nothing to do with ILI. Of course, they were told that their final exam grades were necessary for the research. Those students who didn't like their final exam grades to be revealed were excluded from the study.

The questionnaires were administered to eleven classes of female students and one class of male students. The average number of the students in each class was twenty. At the end, 207 completed questionnaires were collected. They were kept aside until the students took their final exam and their grades were announced on the board. Then, according to the names of the students and other information, the grades of the students were obtained and recorded. From these 207 students, the final exam grades of 7 students could not be obtained due to their absence in the final exam session or writing false names on the questionnaires. Accordingly, 200 participants remained in the study.

Finally, the scores of the participants in each questionnaire were calculated once by one researcher and another time by the other according to the method explained in section 4.2. This was done to reduce the possible mistakes of the scorers. Then, the data gathered in this way were analyzed as described below.

D. Data Analysis

In the present study, there were three sets of data: the FLCAS scores, the TAS scores, and the students' final exam grades. Considering descriptive statistics, first the range, mean, mode, and standard deviation of all these sets of data were calculated. Then the skewness and kurtosis of them were also calculated to make sure of the normality of the distribution.

For the FLCAS and the TAS, some descriptive statistics were also offered for each of their items. In fact, for each item, the number of students who had opted for each choice was counted. These statistics help the readers understand which areas of language learning create more anxiety in learners.

The internal reliability of the FLCAS and the TAS were also calculated according to Cronbach's α formula.

The next step was to answer the research questions. As all the research questions were about the relationship between two variables, to answer all of them, a correlation coefficient was calculated by Pearson's formula. The results are presented in Section 5.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Before trying to answer the research questions, the descriptive statistics of the results are provided. The internal reliabilities of both questionnaires using Cronbach alpha were high ($\alpha=0.91$ for FLCAS and $\alpha=0.92$ for TAS).

Table 1 shows the number of the students who chose each choice of each item in FLCAS. Table 2 shows the number of the students who chose each choice of each item in the TAS. These two tables are included to provide the reader with more information about the areas which are more anxiety-provoking for the students.

Table 3 summarizes the descriptive statistics of the scores in the two questionnaires and the grades of final exam. As the observed mean in each questionnaire is less than its theoretical midpoint, we can conclude that, generally, the students did not feel very anxious. The skewness and kurtosis of all the variables of this study show that they are normally distributed. In this way, one of the most important assumptions of correlation is met. Therefore, correlation can be used as a means of answering the research questions of this study which will be discussed in the following sections.

TABLE 1.
NUMBER OF THE STUDENTS WHO OPTED FOR EACH CHOICE OF EACH ITEM IN THE FLCAS SA=STRONGLY AGREE, A=AGREE, N=NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE, D=DISAGREE, AND SD=STRONGLY DISAGREE.

Items	SA	A	N	D	SD
1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in English.	8	30	70	60	32
2. I don't worry about making mistakes in English class.	34	53	44	59	10
3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in English class.	19	36	53	66	26
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.	8	54	30	75	33
5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more English classes.	75	70	19	23	13
6. During English class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.	1	32	52	74	41
7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am.	7	45	52	65	31
8. I am usually at ease during tests in my English class.	22	63	65	43	13
9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.	20	89	33	37	21
10. I worry about consequences of failing my English class.	52	52	32	44	20
11. I don't understand why some people get so upset over English classes.	33	52	58	44	13
12. In English class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.	23	54	34	57	32
13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in English class.	14	32	35	70	49
14. I would not be nervous speaking English with native speakers.	38	62	50	43	7
15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.	6	50	37	71	36
16. Even if I am well prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it.	7	23	25	63	82
17. I often feel like not going to my English class.	13	69	32	41	45
18. I feel confident when I speak in my English class.	32	79	62	25	2
19. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	7	40	44	74	35
20. I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in my English class.	45	63	41	33	18
21. The more I study for an English test, the more confused I get.	6	14	17	83	80
22. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for English class.	6	15	26	83	70
23. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.	8	33	67	59	33
24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.	4	27	46	83	40
25. English class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.	8	21	30	93	48
26. I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than in my other classes.	6	30	29	76	69
27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.	4	17	41	88	50
28. When I am on my way to English class, I feel very sure and relaxed.	33	74	66	35	2
29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says.	5	40	45	75	35
30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak English.	8	35	39	78	40
31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	15	31	38	66	50
32. I would probably feel comfortable around the native speakers of English.	35	71	58	33	3
33. I get nervous when the English teacher ask questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	11	67	47	52	33

TABLE 2.
NUMBER OF THE STUDENTS WHO OPTED FOR EACH CHOICE OF EACH ITEM IN THE TAS SA=STRONGLY AGREE, A=AGREE, N=NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE, D=DISAGREE, AND SD=STRONGLY DISAGREE.

Items	SA	A	N	D	SD
1. I find myself thinking of how much brighter the other students are than I am.	7	28	50	66	49
2. If I were to take an intelligence test, I would worry a great deal before taking it.	8	32	30	76	54
3. If I knew I was going to take an intelligence test, I would feel confident and relaxed, beforehand.	31	81	53	29	6
4. While taking an important examination I perspire a great deal.	15	28	20	78	59
5. During course examination I find myself thinking of things unrelated to the actual course material.	7	20	35	88	50
6. I get to feel very panicky when I have to take a surprise exam.	25	75	49	30	21
7. During tests I find myself thinking of the consequences of failing.	21	47	31	64	37
8. After important tests I am frequently so tense that my stomach gets upset.	10	9	18	71	92
9. I freeze up on things like intelligence tests and final exams.	4	29	40	77	50
10. Getting a good grade on one test does not seem to increase my confidence on the second.	17	20	13	75	75
11. I sometimes feel my heart beating very fast during important tests.	33	69	28	45	25
12. After taking a test I always feel I could have done better than I actually did.	38	90	38	28	6
13. I usually get depressed after taking a test.	4	22	47	82	45
14. I have an uneasy, upset feeling before taking a final examination.	33	67	35	44	21
15. When taking a test my emotional feelings do not interfere with my performance.	21	66	64	51	8
16. During a course examination I frequently get so nervous that I forget facts I really know.	7	28	47	68	50
17. I seem to defeat myself while working on important tests.	5	11	33	93	68
18. The harder I work at taking a test or studying for one, the more confused I get.	2	18	20	95	65
19. As soon as an exam is over I try to stop worrying about it, but I just cannot.	23	66	32	66	23
20. During exams I sometimes wonder if I'll ever get through college.	16	26	46	62	50
21. I would rather write a paper than take an examination for my grade in a course;	16	47	45	67	30
22. I wish examinations did not bother me so much.	30	49	41	50	30
23. I think I could do much better on tests if I could take them alone and not feel pressured by a time limit.	46	46	40	36	32
24. Thinking about the grade I may get in a course interferes with my studying and my performance on tests.	13	56	48	64	19
25. If examinations could be done away with I think I would actually learn more.	27	23	38	67	45
26. On exams I take the attitude "If I do not know it now there's no point worrying about it."	20	51	53	52	24
27. I really do not see why some people get so upset about tests.	38	45	59	45	13
28. Thoughts of doing poorly interfere with my performance on tests.	26	67	35	56	16
29. I do not study any harder for final exams than for the rest of my course work.	12	23	30	85	50
30. Even when I'm well prepared for a test, I feel very anxious about it.	14	35	35	78	38
31. I do not enjoy eating before an important test.	20	41	26	71	42
32. Before an important examination I find my hands or arms trembling.	26	30	32	72	40
33. I seldom feel the need for "cramming" before an exam.	10	43	59	59	29
34. The university ought to recognize that some students are more nervous than others about tests and that this affects their performance.	40	93	51	11	5
35. It seems to me that examination periods ought not to be made the tense situations which they are.	59	91	35	13	2
36. I start feeling very uneasy just before getting a test paper back.	17	39	31	75	38
37. I dread courses where the professors have the habit of giving "pop" quizzes.	38	52	57	31	22

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF FLCAS SCORES, TAS SCORES, AND FINAL EXAM GRADES

Variables	Theoretical range	Min-Max	Mean	Mode	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
FLCAS Scores	33-165	42-135	86.71	91	19.92	.182	.256
TAS Scores	37-185	51-153	103.05	93-110	21.46	.109	.300
Exam Grades	0-100	25-99	73.6	80	11.84	-.025	.298

A. Language Anxiety and Foreign Language Test Performance

To answer the first research question, investigating the relationship between foreign language anxiety and foreign language test performance, the correlation coefficient of FLCAS scores and final exam grades was calculated according to Pearson formula. The results showed that these two variables had a negative relationship ($r = -0.22$) which is statistically significant at $p < 0.01$.

The negative relationship between language anxiety and test performance is consistent with most of the previous studies. Although some scholars reported facilitative anxiety in language learning context (Baily, 1983; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Tobias, 1986), much of the data is in favor of debilitating anxiety (Aida, 1994; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; MacIntyre et al., 1997; Mills et al., 2006; Philips, 1992; Young, 1986).

B. Test Anxiety and Foreign Language Test Performance

To address the second research question, which deals with the relationship between test anxiety and foreign language test performance, the correlation coefficient between TAS score and final exam grades was calculated. This correlation was negative ($r = -0.18$) and was statistically significant at $p < 0.01$.

Considering test anxiety, the previous studies revealed contrasting results. Some of them reported a negative relationship between test anxiety and test performance (Chastain, 1975; Horwitz, 1986), in some of them there was no significant relationship between them (In'nami, 2006), yet in some others the relationship was positive (Chastain, 1975). Therefore, rejecting the second null hypotheses of the present study is inconsistent with the existing literature. The possible explanations of this discrepancy are offered below.

Matsuda and Gobel (2004) expressed concern about the results of their study and said that the results should be interpreted with caution because although the students were told to answer about the English classes in general, they may have responded based on the specific class they were attending at that time. A similar problem concerns us here. That is, although the students were told orally to answer TAS based on tests of any subjects in general, which was also written on the top of the questionnaire, they may have responded based on an English class test. The researchers tried to remove this problem by reminding the students of this point, but we could by no means make sure of what was going on in the mind of the students as they responded to the questionnaire. Therefore, the negative relationship between test anxiety and test performance and the positive relationship between test anxiety and language anxiety might be because the students have answered TAS according to their feelings in a foreign language test situation only.

To explain the lack of any relationship between test anxiety and test performance in his study, In'nami (2006) referred to the stakes of the tests, or the degree to which test outcomes affect test-takers' future. In'nami (2006) said that in his study, the listening test had low stakes, and this was one of the reasons why there was no significant relationship between test anxiety and test performance. However, in the present study, the test was relatively high-stakes because if the students failed it, they could not go to a higher level and it cost a lot of time and money for them. It can be one of the reasons for negative relationship between test anxiety and test performance in the present study.

C. Language Anxiety and Test Anxiety

In the third research question, we asked whether there was a relationship between foreign language anxiety and test anxiety. In other words, we wanted to see whether a highly anxious person in language classroom is anxious in test situations as well or vice versa. To address this question, the correlation coefficient between the scores obtained in FLCAS and TAS was calculated. There was a strong positive relationship between these two kinds of anxiety ($r = 0.69$) which was statistically significant at $p < 0.01$.

Previous research suggested that test anxiety was not related to language anxiety (Aida, 1994; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004). So our results are again in contrast with existing literature.

The reason for discrepancy between the results of the present research and other studies considering the relationship between test anxiety and language anxiety might be the fact that other studies conducted factor analysis on FLCAS. These studies were based on Horwitz et al's (1986) claim that one of the components of language anxiety is test anxiety and some of the items in FLCAS measure test anxiety. The previous studies conducted factor analysis on these items and found low factor loadings in them. The difference between results of this study and those of others may be due to using different statistical procedures (factor analysis vs. correlation coefficient) and different number of items measuring test anxiety (about 5 items in FLCAS vs. 37 items of TAS).

Considering the contrasting results about the role of test anxiety in language learning, it seems that more research in this area is needed.

The correlation coefficients of different variables in this study are summarized in Table 4.

TABLE 4.
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN DIFFERENT VARIABLES OF THIS STUDY

Correlation Coefficient	FLCAS Scores	TAS Scores	Exam Grades
FLCAS Scores	—	.69	-.22
TAS Scores		—	-.18

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Before drawing any conclusion, some points should be noted. Due to its correlational design, this study is by no means perfect. In fact, isolating only two variables from language learning context and calculating correlations between them is unrealistic to some extent because in the real world many factors affect each other. But due to the difficulties that the researchers faced, investigating other factors at the same time was not possible. Therefore, the following conclusions are offered while admitting their shortcomings.

The findings of this study reveal that both language anxiety and test anxiety have a debilitating role in language learning, at least in settings similar to those in this study. This study also shows that language anxiety and test anxiety are related to each other. It means that the students with high language anxiety tend to have high test anxiety too and vice versa. It implies that trying to reduce one type of anxiety will automatically reduce the other type to some extent.

Considering the debilitating role of language anxiety and test anxiety in language classes, we should take measures to reduce both types of anxiety. Participants of Williams and Andrade (2008) attributed their language anxiety to language teachers and other people. Therefore, teachers can be very influential in reducing learners' anxiety. Teachers need to

reduce anxiety and enhance self-confidence by encouraging students' involvement in classroom activities and creating a comfortable atmosphere (Matsuda & Gobel, 2004).

Matsuda and Gobel (2004) say that using various activities such as pair work, small group work, games, and role plays may enhance class atmosphere because students feel more comfortable about speaking with a small number of people than confronting the whole class. Teachers should start with pair work and giving the students enough practice and training and then gradually change to a more challenging pattern such as group work and class work.

The participants of Hurd's (2007) study mentioned some strategies to reduce their anxiety. Language teachers can remind students to use these strategies including: actively encouraging yourself to take risks in language learning, such as guessing meanings or trying to speak, even though you might make some mistakes; using positive self-talk; imagining that when you're speaking in front of others, it is just a friendly informal chat; using relaxation techniques; sharing your worries with other students; letting your tutor know you're anxious; give yourself a reward or treat when you do well; being aware of physical signs of stress that might affect your language learning; telling yourself when you speak that it will not take too long; and writing down your feelings in a diary or notebook.

Explicit training in affective strategies can also help students manage anxiety related to language learning and testing. Research suggests that when students are informed about the use, monitoring, and evaluation of specific strategies, performance improves (Oxford & Crookall, 1989). Furthermore, trained students use a wider variety of strategies and are less likely to become bogged down with ineffective study habits that produce poor results and, hence, anxiety related to tests. Finally, certain types of tests encourage students' participation without creating undue stress for learners. Cooperative efforts reduce the competitiveness that can raise anxiety and hinder progress (Bailey, 1983). The students usually like evaluations that involve partner and small group-work, interviews, problem-solving, and role plays (Young, 1991). These types of evaluations may reduce apprehension (Foss & Reitzel, 1988). Since evidence indicate that familiar tasks tend to create less anxiety (Bailey, 1983), adequate opportunity to practice the types of tasks to be tested will also create confidence in language learners and reduce the anxiety as a result. Moreover, frequent testing will both familiarize the students with the evaluation procedure and reduce the anxiety in them.

Considering test anxiety, Phillips (1992) offers the following suggestions: First, the teachers should discuss directly the issue of language anxiety with the students because it reassures them that these feelings are normal and anticipated by the teacher. Realizing that the teacher or evaluator understands their feelings reduces at least a part of the tension associated with assessment. Second, the teachers should discuss the nature of language learning because it relieves the students of some of the anxiety-provoking misconceptions. It is important that the students have realistic expectations related particularly to accuracy. Realistic expectations include the understanding that language learning is a lengthy procedure and that errors are a natural part of that process.

Bensoussan (2012) has focused specifically on reducing test anxiety in language classrooms. The participants of this study reported that they would like teachers to make two additions to the course: adding bonus exercises for extra points and giving more practice tests. Joy (2013) also gives the following suggestions for reducing test anxiety in particular: replacing numerical test scores by grading system, and allowing student involvement in test development. According to Joy, both teachers and policy makers can help reduce the students' test anxiety.

To sum up, this study showed that both language anxiety and test anxiety were negatively related to foreign language test performance. Therefore, both teachers and students themselves should take measures to reduce both types of anxiety to achieve better test scores in foreign language classes.

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The Tragic Vision in the Fair Youth Group in *Shakespeare's Sonnets*

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Abstract—The present paper explores the tragic vision reflected in the poet's relationship with the fair young man in the Fair Youth group in *Shakespeare's Sonnets*. It investigates into the cult of friendship in the Renaissance, and further analyzes Shakespeare's attitude towards the true friendship. On the basis of the poet's artistic criteria and his purpose of living, it also examines the causes of the poet's change in his attitudes, namely, from confidence to melancholy, if not despair.

Index Terms—tragic vision, friendship, Fair Youth, *Shakespeare's Sonnets*

I. INTRODUCTION

Although William Shakespeare dedicated his genius chiefly to the stage, he ranks with the foremost English poets of his age for his narrative and lyric verse. In the year of 1609, when a quarto containing 154 poems, entitled *Shakespeare's Sonnets*, was issued by Thomas Thorpe, a publisher, perhaps without authorization from the poet, nobody could imagine that this little volume would arouse so much attention from both readers and scholars.

Let there be furious debate on identity, date, and order concerning these sonnets, critics tend to agree that "the direction of address of these poems can be established with certainty: the first 126 sonnets refer to and are generally addressed to the Fair Friend, while the succeeding ones concern the Dark Lady" (Dubrow, 1998, p.238). Focusing on the Fair Youth group, this paper endeavors to probe into the tragic vision revealed in the poet's relationship with the fair young man.

II. OF FRIENDSHIP

A. *The Cult of Friendship in the Renaissance*

As an era that saw both the intellectual and economic rebirth in European civilization, the Renaissance abounds in achievements in diverse fields. Accordingly, it is no wonder that the Renaissance writers had made creative and original contribution to the field of literature. Writers and poets of this period exerted themselves unsparingly on the ever-lasting literary theme—friendship. As a matter of fact, there was a cult of friendship in the Renaissance. More often than not, writers of this time held the point of view that the ideal friendship between men was above love for a woman. If a reader means to find in the Renaissance literature, and in the minds of the Renaissance writers, a fantastically high appreciation of male friendship together with a correspondingly disdain for love towards a woman, he or she will not take much trouble. In their writings, Montaigne, Lyly, Sidney, and Spenser produce abundant evidence for this ideal friendship with no reluctance. For instance, Montaigne, in his renowned "Of Friendship", draws the comparison of the affection towards a woman to a "fire" and a "fever", which is "more eager and more sharp: but withal 'its more precipitant, fickle, moving and inconstant" (Hazlitt, 2011, p. 28); on the other hand, he compares the true friendship to "a general and universal fire, but temperate and equal; a constant established heat, all gentle and smooth, without poignancy or roughness" (Hazlitt, 2011, p. 28).

B. *"You Are My All the World": The Fair Youth to the Poet*

By looking back on the prevailing viewpoints on the friendship in the Renaissance, we get to realize how noble and lofty the true friendship was in the minds of people of that time. As one leading member of the Renaissance writers, Shakespeare, in his sonnets, clarified, in all frankness, his keen insight into this delicate human relationship.

Michel de Montaigne put his heartfelt love for his friend Étienne de la Boétie and the inconsolable grief he suffered many years after la Boétie's death in his "Of Friendship". In *Shakespeare's sonnets*, the poet's love towards the Fair Youth is no less intense, no less sincere. He addresses the bulk of his sonnets to the male friend with genuine and passionate devotion. However, the assumption that there is a homosexual element in their relationship may not be well grounded. As passionate friendship is a mark of the Renaissance, "the words, 'love' and 'lover' in Elizabethan English has been used for 'friendship' and 'friend'" (Marydass, 1987, p.77). The term "lover" in Shakespeare's day meant more than the exclusively sexual implication that it has today. Edward Hubler (1952), in *The Sense of Shakespeare's Sonnets*, also indicated that the Elizabethans were more than ready to use the term "lover" between men. For example, in Shakespeare's *The Tragedy of Coriolanus*, Menenius refers to Coriolanus as his "lover" in public with no hesitation

(Act 5, Scene 2) (Wilson, 1960, p.110). It is obvious that the “lover” here means anything but homosexual. Similarly, the love in the sonnets is not homosexuality but an incarnation of the then popular cultural norms: considering an admirable male friend as an ennobling and purifying force. These facts should be kept in mind when reading the sonnets dedicated to the Fair Friend.

Shakespeare thinks highly of true friendship. As far as the sonnet sequence is concerned, the poet claims that,

Love is not love
Which alters when it alteration finds,
Or bends with the remover to remove:
O no, it is an ever-fixed mark
That looks on tempests and is never shaken;
It is the star to every wandering bark,
Whose worth's unknown, although his height be taken.
Love's not Time's fool, though rosy lips and cheeks
Within his bending sickle's compass come:
Love alters not with his brief hours and weeks,
But bears it out even to the edge of doom.
(Sonnet 116) (Wilson, 1966, p.60)

This poem makes a simple and clear definition of love (the sublime and ideal notion of true friendship), which also generously reveals itself in a great number of lines devoted to the Fair Friend.

While reading these poems, a reader just cannot fail to notice that some of them reflect a concern about the hostile or mocking world, in which the friendship dwells. Among those complaints about the bad days, Sonnet 66, which offers a catalog of what is wrong with the corrupt world, is the most celebrated one:

Tired with all these, for restful death I cry:
As, to behold desert a beggar born,
And needy nothing trimmed in jollity,
And purest faith unhappily forsworn,
And gilded honour shamefully misplaced,
And maiden virtue rudely strumpeted,
And right perfection wrongfully disgraced,
And strength by limping sway disabled,
And art made tongue-tied by authority,
And folly doctor-like controlling skill,
And simple truth miscalled simplicity,
And captive good attending captain ill.
Tired with all these, from these would I be gone,
Save that, to die, I leave my love alone. (Wilson, 1966, p.35)

The world disappoints the poet. Thinking of the world's corruption leads him to anticipate his own decay and death. This poem enjoys a great similarity with Hamlet's noted monologue, in which, with grief and indignation, he rebukes the ill phenomena that dominate Denmark:

For who would bear the whips and scorns of time,
Th' oppressor's wrong, the proud man's contumely,
The pangs of disprized love, the law's delay,
The insolence of office, and the spurns
The patient merit of th' unworthy takes...
(Act 3, Scene 1) (Wilson, 1954, p.60)

The world is “vile” (Sonnet 71) (Wilson, 1966, p.38) and full of murder, bloodiness, savageness, lies, and biases. With reference to several poems like Sonnet 29, and Sonnets 110-12, there is not much difficulty in detecting that the poet is a man of a comparatively low social status and a victim of the adverse circumstances. It seems that the poet suffers a lot in his unfortunate life. He is “made lame by fortune's dearest spite” (Sonnet 37) (Wilson, 1966, p.21). For example, Sonnet 29 displays him as a man who is “in disgrace with fortune and men's eyes” (Wilson, 1966, p.17); while in Sonnet 110, he confesses that it is true he has gone here and there, and made himself “a motley to the view” (Wilson, 1966, p.57). In Sonnet 112, the poet speaks of a “vulgar scandal stamp'd upon my brow” (Wilson, 1966, p.58), which is a brand of infamy, received from “the guilty goddess”, who “did not better for my life provide than public means which public manners breeds” (Sonnet 111) (Wilson, 1966, p.58). True, the poet is fully aware that the world around him is degrading, the circumstances are unfavorable, and impediments of one kind or another will inevitably crop up on the way ahead, but, he pays no attention to them. To him, what matters is not the earthly vanity—high position, a great fortune, costly dress and things of this kind, but the true love of his friend, which is probably the only thing the poet desires. The harder the time is, the more precious the friendship becomes to him. As a result, facing adversities of various kinds, he still bears the courage to declare boldly that, the love of the Fair Youth is

better than high birth to me,

Richer than wealth, prouder than garments' cost,
 Of more delight than hawks or horses be;
 And having thee, of all men's pride I boast—
 Wretched in this alone, that thou mayst take
 All this away and me most wretched make.
 (Sonnet 91) (Wilson, 1966, p.48)

Likewise, when he is "in disgrace with fortune and men's eyes", on the thought of the fair young man, his outcast state "like to the lark at break of day arising from sullen earth, sings hymns at heaven's gate", and then he "scorns to change my state with kings" (Sonnet 29) (Wilson, 1966, p.17). Now that the Fair Friend is "my all the world" (Wilson, 1966, p.58), as the poet claims in Sonnet 112, he can endure any suffering but the loss of his friendship. Sonnet 90 carries this attitude to the extreme by beseeching the friend:

Then hate me when thou wilt, if ever, now,
 Now, while the world is bent my deeds to cross,
 Join with the spite of Fortune, make me bow,
 And do not drop in for an after-loss.
 Ah, do not, when my heart hath 'scaped this sorrow,
 Come in the rearward of a conquered woe;
 Give not a windy night a rainy morrow,
 To linger out a purposed overthrow.
 If thou wilt leave me, do not leave me last,
 When other petty griefs have done their spite,
 But in the onset come; so shall I taste
 At first the very worst of Fortune's might,
 And other strains of woe, which now seem woe,
 Compared with loss of thee will not seem so. (Wilson, 1966, p.47)

The abandonment of the Friend should come first before all the other sufferings, because the loss of the Friend will make other troubles seem less unbearable. This offers another illustration of the poet's oceanic feeling to the young man and the supreme importance of the friendship to him.

III. FAITH IN THE FAIR FRIEND

At the opening of the sonnet sequence, the poems create a world resonant with the friend's beauty, the poet's faithful love, his full confidence in the friend, and his optimistically ideal vision of the friendship between the youth and himself. The poet makes industrious and enthusiastic efforts to extol the beauty of his friend. Physically attractive, impressively young, and socially powerful, the fair youth incarnates nearly all the qualities that Shakespeare's culture and time values. The young man is "the world's fresh ornament" (Sonnet 1) (Wilson, 1966, p.3), the orient sun (Sonnets 7 and 33), a jewel that "Makes black night beauteous" (Sonnet 27) (Wilson, 1966, p.16), "captain jewels in the carcanet" (Sonnet 52) (Wilson, 1966, p.28), "time's best jewel" (Sonnet 65) (Wilson, 1966, p.35), the unique "exchequer" of Nature (Sonnet 67) (Wilson, 1966, p.36), and what not. Sonnet 106 gives a full expression to the friend's surpassing and dazzling outward beauty:

in the blazon of sweet beauty's best,
 Of hand, of foot, of lip, of eye, of brow,
 I see their antique pen would have expressed
 Even such a beauty as you master now.
 So all their praises are but prophecies
 Of this our time, all you prefiguring... (Wilson, 1966, p.55)

There seems to be no doubt that the praise of the young man's beauty is aroused by his extraordinary appearance. But what the poet really cares is far deeper than the superficial. As Hallett Smith (1981) has purported, "Of all the themes in the sonnets, the one pursued most intently by Shakespeare is the notion of appearance, 'show', outward beauty, as contrasted with worth, 'truth', virtue" (p.65). According to the poet's perception, the measure of true worth is "within". By drawing a comparison between roses and canker blooms, Shakespeare illustrates his point of view in detail:

O, how much more doth beauty beauteous seem
 By that sweet ornament which truth doth give!
 The rose looks fair, but fairer we it deem
 For that sweet odour which doth in it live.
 The canker blooms have full as deep a dye
 As the perfumed tincture of the roses,
 Hang on such thorns and play as wantonly
 When summer's breath their masked buds discloses;
 But, for their virtue only is their show,
 They live unwooded and unrespected fade,

Die to themselves. Sweet roses do not so;
Of their sweet deaths are sweetest odours made.
(Sonnet 54) (Wilson, 1966, p.29)

What makes a rose different from a canker bloom is that it has sweet odour. Equally, the inner worth, i.e. kindness and truth, decides whether a person who boasts a beautiful body is a true beauty or not. By no means is the mere possession of outward beauty adequate, for in Shakespeare's words,

How like Eve's apple doth thy beauty grow,
If thy sweet virtue answer not thy show!
(Sonnet 93) (Wilson, 1966, p.37)

A person, who only owns an attractive appearance but lacks inner worth, is a wolf, which translates its looks like a lamb (Sonnet 96). However, to the poet, the beauty of the young man, both external and inner, seems to be beyond all question, for he believes that what distinguishes the Fair Youth most is that he possesses virtue, which stands in sharp contrast against the demeaning real world existence. In Sonnet 105, the poet professes,

Let not my love be called idolatry,
Nor my beloved as an idol show,
Since all alike my songs and praises be
To one, of one, still such, and ever so.
Kind is my love today, tomorrow kind,
Still constant in a wondrous excellence;
Therefore my verse to constancy confined,
One thing expressing, leaves out difference.
'Fair, kind, and true' is all my argument,
'Fair, kind, and true', varying to other words;
And in this change is my invention spent,
Three themes in one, which wondrous scope affords.
Fair, kind, and true have often lived alone,
Which three till now never kept seat in one. (Wilson, 1966, p.55)

Here, "'fair' suggests beauty, justice, and kindness; 'kind', generosity, gentleness, affection, naturalness; 'true', natural integrity, spontaneous honesty, constancy, true rather than feigned beauty" (Kerrigan, 1986, p.311). Through these lines the poet not only clarifies his standards of "worth", but reveals his every confidence in the Fair Youth. As far as the poet is concerned, "Fair, kind, and true" are the intrinsic qualities of the fair young man. As a matter of fact, "Fair, kind, and true", especially, "true", and the unity of the three are the poet's ideals, his artistic criteria as well as his ultimate goals of life.

The words "true" and "truth", take up "a predominant position in the sonnets of Shakespeare" (Ellrodt, 1994, p.90). In most cases, the "truth" quality is identified with constancy. Sonnet 53 shares the similar theme with Sonnet 105, in which the poet glorifies both the physical and the inner beauty of his friend,

Describe Adonis, and the counterfeit
Is poorly imitated after you;
On Helen's cheek all art of beauty set,
And you in Grecian tires are painted new.
Speak of the spring and foison of the year;
The one doth shadow of your beauty show,
The other as your bounty doth appear,
And you in every blessed shape we know. (Wilson, 1966, p.29)
The couplet

In all external grace you have some part,
But you like none, none you, for constant heart. (Wilson, 1966, p.29)

Sheds some light on the poet's confidence in his friend. Not only is the Fair Youth externally handsome, but he has surpassing "worth"—constancy as well, for which he exceeds any beauty else. The poet, in Sonnets 25, contrasts his situation with that of people who can boast of public honor and proud titles, with great prince's favorites, with military heroes. Though the sonnet starts with a tone of complaint about obscurity of his birth and sufferings of all kinds but ends with heartfelt happiness. For the trust in the friend's constancy, the poet does not really envy those vanities that may vanish without a trace sooner or later, and can announce proudly:

Then happy I, that love and am beloved
Where I may not remove nor be removed. (Wilson, 1966, p.15)

He is content with the mere fact that his love is returned by the Friend. The Fair Friend is his everything. He is the strength and hope for the poet to carry on struggles in his life which is bitter and frustrating.

Besides the meaning of "constancy", the word "truth" can also mean "authenticity", "the artistic criterion of Shakespeare" (Tu, 1981, p.164). During the Renaissance, the sixteenth century in particular, poets turned out thousands of sonnets. Thanks to the sonnets of Petrarch and his disciples, poets of the present age, more often than not, sing to the

pale moon, the limpid fountains, the brief rose of spring, and the wounding child-god of Love. It is common for poets of the time to utilize Petrarchan conceit to extol their lovers. Shakespeare seems to be “a rebel in the tradition of the Renaissance sonnet” (Gowda, 1986, p.136). In his sonnets, the poet places a strong emphasis upon the poetic “truth”, and presents repulsion towards the poetic exaggeration at the same time. Sidney deals with this grandiloquent fashion of the time seriously in his *Defence of Poesy*.

“But truly many of such writings as come under the banner of irresistible love, if I were a mistress, would never persuade me they were in love: so coldly they apply fiery speeches, as men that had rather read lovers’ writings—and so caught up certain swelling phrases which hang together like a man that once told my father that the wind was at northwest and by south, because he would be sure to name winds enough—than that in truth they feel those passions, which easily (as I think) may be betrayed by that same forcibleness or energia (as the Greeks call it) of the writer. But let this be a sufficient, though short note, that we miss the right use of the material point of poesy.

Now for the outside of it, which is words, or (as I may term it) diction, it is even well worse, so is that honey-flowing matron eloquence appareled or rather disguised, in a courtesan-like painted affectation: one time with so farfet words, that many seem monsters - but must seem strangers - to any poor Englishman; another time with coursing of a letter, as if they were bound to follow the method of a dictionary; another time with figures and flowers extremely winter-starved” (Abrams, 1998, p.498).

To some extent, this viewpoint is identical with that of Shakespeare. With regard to Shakespeare, the poetic truth is superior to poetic praise; and nature itself triumphs anything artificial. Therefore, more than once, in his sonnets, the poet asserts that, compared with the deliberate praise in the poems,

There lives more life in one of your fair eyes

Than both your poets can in praise devise.

(Sonnet 83) (Wilson, 1966, p.44)

And more, much more, than in my verse can sit

Your own glass shows you when you look in it.

(Sonnet 103) (Wilson, 1966, p.54)

Shakespeare is disgusted at the way many poets do in their poetry. On several occasions, he rebels against the excesses of Petrarchism. Sonnet 21 is a noteworthy instance. In this poem, the poet spares no pains to refute the stereotyped comparison such as sun, moon, “earth and sea’s rich gems”, or “April’s first-born flowers” (Sonnet 21) (Wilson, 1966, p.13). The “couplement of proud compare”, to the poet, is only for the purpose to sell, and daubing the youth with verbal cosmetics, the poetic praise conceals the natural painting of what he is, to leave him a merely “painted beauty” (Sonnet 21) (Wilson, 1966, p.13). He insists on describing the Fair Friend’s excellence for its simple, plain truth—“O, let me, true in love, but truly write” (Wilson, 1966, p.13), as he says in Sonnet 21, is far better than those “gross painting” (Sonnet 82) (Wilson, 1966, p.43). In his opinion, a poet with such a subject as the fair young man has no need for art, no need for figure, no need for invention, for the simple reason that the subject itself confers sufficient perfection upon verse. As a result, he proclaims staunchly,

I never saw that you did painting need,

And therefore to your fair no painting set;

I found, or thought I found, you did exceed

The barren tender of a poet’s debt;

(Sonnet 83) (Wilson, 1966, p.44)

Who is it that says most which can say more

Than this rich praise—that you alone are you,

(Sonnet 84) (Wilson, 1966, p.44)

While other poets resort to “strained touches” of rhetoric, he does not follow their suit, instead, he does his utmost to fulfill his principle he always pursues,

Thou truly fair wert truly sympathized

In true plain words by thy true-telling friend;

(Sonnet 82) (Wilson, 1966, p.43)

In a larger sense, the poet regards the poetic truth as a representation of his own truth, or constancy to his Fair Friend. In Sonnet 76, the poet admits that,

That every word doth almost tell my name,

Showing their birth and where they did proceed? (Wilson, 1966, p.40)

His verse is “so barren of new pride”, “so far from variation or quick change”, and lacks “new-found methods” and “compounds strange” (Wilson, 1966, p.40). In other words, his verse is not fashionable. But what makes matter worse is that, because of the plainness of his style, his individual way of expression comes into the sharpest conflict with the style as fashion. However, rather than yield to the fashion, the poet states assuredly,

O, know, sweet love, I always write of you,

And you and love are still my argument;

So all my best is dressing old words new,

Spending again what is already spent;

For as the sun is daily new and old,
 So is my love still telling what is told.
 (Sonnet 76) (Wilson, 1966, p.40)

In “triumphant, and entirely conventional, figure of the sun’s faithful return after its nightly extinction, bringing light and fertility to the world each day, the poet establishes the essential nature both of his love, and of his way of expressing that love” (Colie, 1987, p.42). To the poet, his profound affection must triumph over the so-called fashion, and his loyal love towards the young man must make his poems distinguish from those of others. What matters to him are not the outward forms of variation, but the content, the feeling he attempts to express. At the beginning of the friendship between the fair young man and himself, the poet feels completely confident of his friend’s understanding of his artistic pursuit and faithful love. Accordingly, in Sonnet 32, he is proud enough to imagine his friend favoring his verse, after his death, even though his poems, which are simple but sincere, are inferior to “the bett’ring of the time” (Wilson, 1966, p.18). And he believes the friend will say,

But since he died, and poets better prove,
 Theirs for their style I’ll read, his for his love. (Wilson, 1966, p.18)

IV. FINAL DISAPPOINTMENT IN THE FAIR YOUTH

To sum up, the most important thing about the Fair Friend addressed in the sonnets is that he is a perfect subject for poetry. The friend is, in the opinion of the poet, a “beauty’s rose” (Sonnet 1) (Wilson, 1966, p.3), of both outward fair and inner worth. In the eyes of the poet, the fair young man is his everything in a transient and degrading world as it is lived and felt by him. It is the love of the young man that lights his way. The poet’s sense of himself hinges on the identification of the Fair Youth. He feels content that he loves his friend, and meanwhile, his love is returned. Yet for all his “worth” or constancy, the Fair Friend is capable of betraying with the Dark Lady (the addressee of Sonnets 127-54), as well as of turning against the poet to adopt the Rival Poet.

A. *The Friend’s Betrayal with the Dark Lady*

Heather Dubrow (1998) has contended that, “The axiom that the first 126 poems involve the Friend and subsequent lyrics concern the Dark Lady generates assumptions about the presence of a linear plot: the poet meets the Fair Youth, and they enjoy a period of happiness; their joy is, however, shadowed by a period of absence and by the fault alluded to in Sonnet 35 (‘No more be grieved at that which thou hast done’) and elsewhere; the entrance of the Dark Lady, who is as untrustworthy as she is attractive, disrupts the idyll celebrated in the joyous sonnets, and she, the poet himself and the Fair Friend become embroiled in a triangle of jealousy and deceit” (p. 238). In *The Two Gentlemen of Verona* (1594), Shakespeare deals with the similar theme of conflict between the romantic love and the male friendship. Though the ending of this play is often denounced by the critics, Valentine’s prompt pardon of Proteus’ falsity and his gesture of surrendering Silvia to him, are the extreme exhibition of the ancient code of male friendship.

According to Sonnet 41 the Fair Friend, like Proteus, is doubly disloyal:

Ay me, but yet thou might’st my seat forbear,
 And chide thy beauty and thy straying youth,
 Who lead thee in their riot even there
 Where thou art forced to break a twofold truth,
 Hers, by thy beauty tempting her to thee,
 Thine, by thy beauty being false to me. (Wilson, 1966, p.23)

“My seat” here is “to be understood in the same sense it bears in *Othello* when Iago in soliloquy gives some of his reasons for wanting revenge on Othello” (Smith, 1981, p.63). All the same, when in face of the Fair Friend’s fault, the poet is just as tolerant as Valentine. But the initial idealization of the fair young man makes horrific the poet’s gradual recognition of the youth’s, to some extent, vicious and selfish character. The poet’s ideal becomes a pathetic illusion. He becomes less optimistic and even desperate, for the simple reason that, from beginning to end, the poet deems that the male friendship counts far more than the romantic love does. Conspicuously, he is hurt by what the young man has done, and he is disappointed with him. But even in such circumstances, he still puts up with his friend’s disloyalty, though deep within his heart, he is in anguish. Sonnet 40 is a good example, in which the poet exclaims,

I do forgive thy robb’ry, gentle thief,
 Although thou steal thee all my poverty;
 And yet love knows it is a greater grief
 To bear love’s wrong than hate’s known injury.
 Lascivious grace, in whom all ill well shows,
 Kill me with spites; yet we must not be foes. (Wilson, 1966, p.22)

Here by proclaiming that “Lascivious grace, in whom all ill well shows” (Wilson, 1966, p.22), the poet, in a sense, comes to admit that the friend is not that perfect as he describes in many sonnets—he possesses something evil in his character. However the poet forgives his friend. And he even spares no efforts to defend the friend’s fault. For example, in Sonnet 41, the Fair Youth’s lasciviousness is excused by the poet: because of the friend’s gentleness and beauty, and

because of the invitation that comes from the woman: who will be so sourly as to turn her down? Sonnet 42 maintains the similar theme but somehow runs to an extreme:

Loving offenders, thus I will excuse ye:
 Thou dost love her because thou know'st I love her,
 And for my sake even so doth she abuse me,
 Suff'ring my friend for my sake to approve her.
 If I lose thee, my loss is my love's gain,
 And losing her, my friend hath found that loss;
 Both find each other, and I lose both twain,
 And both for my sake lay on me this cross.
 But here's the joy: my friend and I are one.
 Sweet flattery! Then she loves but me alone! (Wilson, 1966, p.23)

Casuistical and less convincing, these sonnets reveal a pessimistic mood, a quality alien to those optimistic sonnets on the Fair Friend's beauty and truth. The paradoxical attitudes the poet expresses in these poems betray his exceeding agony resulted from the friend's infidelity, and disillusionment of his ideal.

B. *The Friend's Adoption of the Rival Poet*

Probably because of the poet's social inferiority, he and the fair young man are on delicate terms. It seems that the action, in this friendship, is almost all on the poet's side. Rosalie Colie (1987) once passed a remark on this kind of relationship, "the relation of poet to this friend is based on poetry; poetry is not only the conventional instrument of appeal to patron, friend, lover, the conventional voice in beauty's praise; but poetry is also the poet himself, ingrained in his personality and thus making (the dyer's hand) all his human realizations and relations" (p. 44). As a result, the friend's acceptance of the poetry is crucial to the poet. Once upon a time the poet is proved to be confident of the friend's understanding and favor of his poems, which resort to true feeling instead of to flowery forms and extravagant praise. Fearing no particular threat, he can say that he writes of his friend "without all ornament" (Sonnet 68) (Wilson, 1966, p.36); can say his friend's will appreciate his verse even after his death, despite that his poems are mere "poor rude lines" compared with "the bett'ring of the time" (Sonnet 32) (Wilson, 1966, p.18). But when an "alien pen" (Sonnet 78) does appear (Wilson, 1966, p.41), his confidence is at stake. To the poet's horror, the Rival Poet attracts the attention and favor of the friend, as is revealed in Sonnet 84,

You to your beauteous blessings add a curse,
 Being fond on praise, which makes your praises worse. (Wilson, 1966, p.44)

The poet discovers that the lovely youth has been corrupted by those gaudy sonnets, bundles of "similes", "praise". Furthermore, ending with:

Thus have I had thee as a dream doth flatter,
 In sleep a king, but waking no such matter. (Wilson, 1966, p.46)

Sonnet 87 submits evidence of the youth's apparent neglect or abandonment of the poet. These ruthless realities fail the poet and give rise to great pains in the poet's heart; pains result not only from the betrayal of the Fair Friend, but from the bankruptcy of an extremely cherished ideal. Under the deplorable circumstances, the poet is obliged to move from confidence to melancholy.

V. CONCLUSION

Clearly, for the poet, the poetry, as Thomas M. Greene (1987) put it, "reflects a sense of inner depletion, emptiness, poverty, which the friend is asked or stated to fill up" (p.78). The importance of the fair young man to the poet is beyond measure. In the eyes of the poet, the Fair Youth is of both outward and inner beauty, is the embodiment of "fair, kind and true"; and the poet's confidence in the friendship between this fair young man and himself is the only drive for his struggles in the bitter and tortuous life. He symbolizes all "worth" that the poet cherishes. Accordingly, the friend's betrayal with the Dark Lady and his adoption of the Rival Poet, turn the poet's ideal world down, and throw him into an abyss of agony. He gets to realize that the Fair Youth's most celebrated characteristic—truth, is, in faith, open to charges. His enthusiastic pursuit of "Fair, kind and true" criterion turns out to be a failure. The tragic ending of his quest casts an excessive gloom over the poet's initially optimistic humor and a pessimistic mood arises spontaneously.

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The Role of *Structure Novelty* on the Efficacy of Recasts: An Experimental Study on Iranian Upper-intermediate EFL students

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Abstract—recent developments regarding error correction demonstrate an increasing interest in finding the determining elements that are influential in the effectiveness of recasts. In line with this trend, present paper aims at investigating the effect of structure novelty on the effectiveness of two types of recasts, namely combination recast and single-move recast. To this end, 60 upper-intermediate students in 4 classes were chosen to form 2 experimental groups (each 2 classes formed 1 experimental group), and later the two above-mentioned corrective feedback were utilized by the teacher in each experimental group to correct the erroneous utterances stemming from both newly and previously learned structures. To collect the required data students participated in 10-minute discussion for 10 sessions. Then two paired t-tests were administered after the treatment to compare the performance of both groups on the post-test. The results indicated that *structure novelty* is a determining factor regarding the effectiveness of the recasts owing to two reasons. Firstly, while both types of recasts acted the same on correcting the incorrect structures rooted in the previously-learned structures, combination recasts were more effective over single-move recasts in correcting the fallacious structures emanated from newly-learned structures. Secondly, upper intermediate students whom are believed to benefit from recasts (Ammar and Spada, 2006; Philip, 2003) due to their high proficiency couldn't make the most of recasts as their erroneous utterances stemmed from their novel and newly-learned structures.

Index Terms—structure novelty, combination recast, single-move recast, uptake

I. INTRODUCTION

Multitude lines of research (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Wells, 1996; Lyster & Ranta 1997; Mackey, Gass & McDonough, 2000; Sheen, 2004; Barkhuizen & Ellis, 2005; Sheen, 2006; Lyster & Mori, 2006), scrutinizing the classroom interactions, unveil that scientists of this field have been hard at work probing deep into the classroom interaction to figure out the intricacies of interactions taking place between the teachers and the learners. The findings reveal that a classroom interaction embodies three moves, namely Commence, Response, and Feedback. The feedback moves, referring to all the moves following a student's response, fall into two categories, according to Long (1996), positive feedback and negative feedback. Negative feedback, manifesting the lack of preciseness in the learners' utterances in terms of the structures and content (Ellis, 2009), are the central tenets of this paper.

Since the advent of Swain's (1985) output hypothesis, the role of negative feedback as a strategy to make the students aware of their deviant utterances has come into vogue. The basis of her initial claim was due to her research on French immersion students. She argued, despite of the fact that the students were exposed to 6 or 7 years of comprehensible input, they weren't able to conduct an impeccable exchange of ideas, exchanges without grammatical and syntactic deviation. Swain (2000) asserted the critical role of output in language learning in view of the fact that output causes learners to process the language profoundly. Swain (2000, p.99) contended "Output may stimulate learners to move from the semantic, open-ended, strategic processing prevalent in comprehension to the complete grammatical processing needed for accurate production." Promoting "noticing" as one of the functions of output is of the paramount importance since learners could be notified that they don't know how to get the message, as it's meant, across precisely; moreover, they could notice the gaps in their interlanguage. Having said that, it is inferred that negative feedback make the learners notice the gap between what "is just said" and what "should have been said", that is, the act of noticing the gap between interlanguage forms and target forms.

In 2000, Merrill Swain published an article under the rubric "The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In this paper she was convinced by Kramsch (1995a) and van Lier (2000) that the "terms 'input' and 'output' have lost their credence due to inhibiting effect of the 'conduit metaphor' on the development of a broader understanding of second language learning." Being under the influence of Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, proposing that cognitive functions such as learning are mediated by semiotic tools, namely

language, and in co-operation with other people, Swain asked to stop using the terms mentioned above and replaced them with the term 'collaborative dialogue'. In her article, Swain (2000) argued that the term output should be broadened to embrace its function as a socially-constructed cognitive tool.

The importance of corrective feedback, as one type of negative feedback could be recognized by Vygotsky's ZPD framework and also Wells' (2000) claim. Regarding ZPD framework, Vygotsky defined it as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under the adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Johnson, 2004, p.109). Once applying the notion of ZPD to language learning, it will be perceptible that the potential level of development, beyond a shadow of a doubt is the zone of proximal development; therefore, according to Vygotsky "an essential feature of learning is that it creates the zone of proximal development"; that is, the pedagogical environment that the students are provided with can awaken a variety of learning processes. Undoubtedly, on the condition that the learner is interacting with the teacher and the peers, the learning processes start to function (Johnson, 2004). On that account, it's concluded that corrective feedback as powerful means can empower teachers to regulate the process of turning potential levels of learning to actual ones.

Wells (2000) argues that "one of the characteristics of utterance, whether spoken or written, is that it can be looked at simultaneously as process and product: as "saying" and as "what is said". In "saying" learners are involved in a cognitive activity to make "what is said"; in other words the outcome of that activity. Therefore, while the outcome is being made, corrective feedback, as reactive pedagogical strategies, could help learners notice their erroneous utterances; moreover, construct new non-deviated language knowledge.

Lyster & Ranta could be considered as the pioneers in this field. They have made a substantial contribution to this field by broadening the teacher's horizons over the existing ways to correct students' erroneous utterances. They managed to categorize feedback into six types: explicit correction, recast, clarification request, metalinguistic clues, elicitation and repetition, after observing and documenting immersion classroom interactions.

The effectiveness of each corrective strategy, particularly recasts, has been examined through many lines of research; however, there has been glaring inconsistencies in their findings. For instance, researchers such as Lyster & Ranta (1997), Lyster (1998), and Panova & Lyster (2002) concluded that "those students who received recasts did not demonstrate subsequent gains in their L2 accuracy. Nevertheless, other research studies (Ayoum, 2001; Braidi, 2002; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Han, 2002; Havranek, 2002; Iwashita, 2003; Leeman, 2003; Mackey & Philip, 1998; Oliver & Mackey, 2003) found the opposite findings that recasting increases learners' noticing and the development of morphosyntactic features.

Presently, the issue of the efficacy of recasts should be scrutinized through a new perspective as innumerable research studies with inconsistent findings exist. In fact, this issue needs a new outlook. Therefore, Sheen (2006) by classifying recasts into single-move and multi-move altered the researcher's point of attention from focusing on a mere recast to the facilitative factors, features of recasts, which affect their saliency. Sheen (2006) considered several features for each category which can affect the efficacy of recasts, and also make a unique type of recast. Given the saliency of recasts as an influential factor in making the learners notice the corrective purpose of the feedback, another little-studied issue which is worth investigating in terms of discovering influential elements in effectiveness of recasts is *structure novelty*, defined as newness of structure. In fact, this study intends to find out if the efficacy of recasts is influenced by the newness of structure which students produce incorrectly. To this end, combination recasts and single-move recasts were employed to correct the erroneous use of causative 'get' and 'have' in the utterances of the students in their current level as a new grammar point and erroneous use of simple past and present perfect as their previously-learned grammar. Therefore, the present study finds this an area worthy of investigation and specifically addresses the following research questions:

1. Do single-move and combination recasts have differing effects in correcting erroneous grammatical patterns stemming from students' newly-learned structures?
2. Do single-move and combination recasts have differing effects in correcting erroneous grammatical patterns stemming from students' previously-learned structures?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A methodical study over the literature review of language learning and teaching indicates that effects of various corrective feedback has long been of central importance to foreign and second language teachers in a variety of contexts; additionally, The efficacy of each has been studied through numerous research studies. Due to the frequent occurrence of recasts in L2 classrooms, an increasing attention from researchers has been paid to this corrective feedback in recent years. Nevertheless, the discrepancies among the findings of the studies in this field have turned this issue into one of the hotly debated arguments in second language learning. To show the dominance of recasts, these studies were conducted. Doughty (1994) reported recasts comprised 70% of the teachers' corrective moves. Some years later, Lyster & Ranta (1997), observing immersion classes, reported 55%. Panova & Lyster (2002) in their study recorded 55%, and Lochtman (2002) found out recasts as the most recurrent feedback (30.5%). In Nishita' (2004) research recasts made up 60% of the corrective moves. Lyster & Mori (2006) conducted a research in two different instructional settings French and Japanese immersion in search of the effects of explicit correction, recasts, and prompts on learner uptake

and repair. The results indicated high frequency of recasts, 54% in French immersion and 65% in Japanese immersion. Therefore, it is indisputable from these results that recasts hold a special place in teachers' tool belt of corrective feedback techniques. The reason why recasts are the most chosen is related to their implicit nature, which maintains the flow of interaction between the teacher and the student, while other strategies namely elicitation, clarification requests, and repetition, might interrupt the meaningful interaction.

A. On the Efficacy of Recasts

Proved as the most frequently employed corrective feedback from teachers, recasts were examined by many researchers to figure out if they are the most effective corrective moves too. The first observational study conducted to investigate the efficacy of recasts was carried out by Lyster & Ranta in 1997 in an immersion context. The obtained findings proved a clear inclination from teachers to employ the implicit form of corrective feedback, namely recasts and translation, 55% and 22% respectively. Although Lyster and Ranta (1997) found recasts as the most dominant corrective move, they were followed by a low rate of uptake from the students. Surprisingly enough, they found that the highest rate of uptake belonged to the least employed corrective feedback, i.e. metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, and elicitation.

Similarly, an observational study by Panova and Lyster (2002) on an early-intermediate adult ESL classroom in Quebec substantiated the findings of Lyster & Ranta (1997). Their study indicated that recasts were the most recurrent type of corrective feedback (55%). Nonetheless, recasts were followed by low uptake and repairs rates, 40% and 13% respectively. The findings of this study were twofold. Firstly, early-intermediate students had difficulty recognizing that they were being corrected by recasts as they didn't perceive recasts as corrective in nature. Secondly, recasts "may not be the most effective way of promoting negative evidence" (p. 591).

Another experimental study in this regard was carried out by Lochtman (2002). He conducted this study in high school setting, L2 German classrooms in Belgium, on the efficacy of recasts. The results indicated that 90% of erroneous structures received corrective feedback out of which recasts and elicitation comprised the most proportion of the corrective moves, 30.5% and 30.2% respectively; however, they found that recasts resulted in the least percent of uptake (47.5%). Lochtman's findings were in line with that of Lyster & Ranta (1997) and Panova and Lyster (2002). Hence, it is concluded that all above-mentioned studies unanimously voted for the inefficiency of recasts in making the students aware of their erroneous utterances.

B. A Turning Point

Disappointing findings of both experimental and observational studies (Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Panova and Lyster, 2002; Lochtman, 2002) in proving recasts as an effective form of corrective feedback, to a large extent, shifted the focus of the studies to identifying pivotal factors influential in the efficiency of recasts. Below, a number of studies trying to investigate the intervening factors in efficacy of recasts are presented.

Lyster (1998) conducted a study in an attempt to analyze features of student-teacher interaction that may influence the potentiality of recasts to be noticed as negative evidence. He recorded 18 hours of interactions during 27 lessons in 4 immersion classrooms at the primary level. 377 recasts were categorized according to their pragmatic functions. According to Lyster, "recasts and non-corrective repetition fulfill identical, meaning the students had difficulty distinguishing recasts as corrective moves or confirmation checks."

Philip (2003) examined the role of proficiency level of the students as an intervening factor in the efficacy of recasts, along with the features of length and number of changes in learners' noticing of recasts. To fulfill his intentions in the study, Philip chose 18 female and 15 male students. The students participated in five NS-NNS dyadic interaction sessions; besides, they attended test sessions in which they performed two tasks. During performing tests the participants were shown a certain number of pictures to derive questions from. Recasts were employed in response to the erroneous utterances of the students. Recall was used to measure how well the participants could remember the recasts to measure the students noticing recasts. The ability of intermediate and high-intermediate groups in recalling the 70% of the provided recasts in comparison with that of low intermediate learners which rated 60%, proved the significant relationship between the proficiency level of the learners and the recasts recall. Another important finding of this study was the shortness of the employed recasts, in fact, this facilitative feature made it easy for the students to notice the corrective nature of recasts.

Sheen (2004) conducted a study across international settings (French Immersion, Canada ESL, New Zealand ESL and Korean EFL) to enquire into the momentousness of the saliency of recast as a significant factor intensifying its effectiveness. The results were twofold. Firstly, it was made clear that recasts made up the highest proportion of corrective feedback in the Korean EFL and New Zealand ESL (83% and 68%, respectively), and in Canadian Immersion and ESL classrooms 55% (for both), that's to say, recast was the most recurrent feedback type. Secondly, it was proved that to a large extent the effectiveness of recasts was related to how salient they were, and how far linguistic form was the focal center of attention.

Ellis, Loewen and Erlam (2006) studied the factor of "saliency" as an influential and determining element by comparing the effect of implicit corrective feedback (recasts) and explicit feedback (metalinguistic) on deviated linguistic forms of students' utterances. In this study, low intermediate learners as participants of the study made up two groups in which they were assigned to perform two tasks. The participants during performing their tasks received

corrective feedback in the form of recasts and metalinguistic information. The results of the study indicated the superiority of explicit corrective strategies over the implicit ones since the former "seems more likely to promote cognitive comparison and aids learning" (p. 364).

To find the determining characteristics that improve the effectiveness of recasts, Loewen and Philip (2006) conducted a study on L2 adult English second language learners. In this study there were, according to the researchers, 12 teachers and 118 learners. The students' erroneous utterances through 17 hours of meaning based interaction were corrected with 3 different types of corrective feedback, namely recasts, elicitation, and metalinguistic moves. The initial results proved that "recasts were beneficial at least 50% of the time". The employed recasts in this study could be distinguished by determining characteristics which made a new type of recast with a new corrective purpose. By and large, this study proved that the confusion which was made by recasts due to their not being clear and understandable for the students can be minimized by "phrases, prosodic and discoursal cues that teachers provided" (Loewen and Philip 2006).

A quasi-experimental study was conducted by Ammar and Spada in 2006. This study aimed to investigate the effectiveness of recasts and prompts. To reach the intended goal 64 sixth grade students in the Montreal area were chosen. The students made up 2 experimental and one control groups. The students in experimental groups were provided with recasts and prompts in case of producing incorrect form of third-person possessive determiner "his" and "her". Once the 4-week treatment was over. The participants' knowledge of aimed structure was assessed. The results indicated that all students participated in the study benefited from the provided corrective moves; however, the study substantiated that the students enjoyed the benefits of prompts more than that of recasts; moreover, it was proved that "high- proficiency learners benefited equally from both prompts and recasts, whereas low-proficiency learners benefited significantly more from prompts" (Ammar & Spada 2006).

Ammar in 2008 conducted a quasi-experimental study examining the effect of recasts in comparison with prompts on the erroneous utterances of learners learning English 3rd person on possessive determiners. To reach the specified goals, the researcher chose 64 students to form 3 classes; erroneous utterances were corrected by prompts and recasts. To exam the effect of provided corrective feedback, the participants were assigned to do an oral picture description task and computerized fill-in the blank tasks. Results indicated that prompts were more effective particularly for low-level learners.

By taking into consideration all the obtained findings of both observational and experimental studies, it is concluded that the significant criticism leveled against recasts was due to their being ambiguous to the students as they were taken as "confirmation checks" and it was as a result of, as Truscott (1996; 1999) quite rightly noted, "insaliency of recasts", which made it fathomless for the students to notice whether they were being corrected. However, one of the most significant findings emerging from the above-mentioned studies (Lyster 1998; Philip 2003; Sheen 2004; Elis et al, 2006; Loewen and Philip 2006; Ammar and Spada 2006; Ammar 2008) is that saliency and also high proficiency of students are of the paramount importance in intensifying the effectiveness of recasts, that is, the more salient recasts are and the higher students in proficiency the more effective the recasts will become.

Sheen (2006) through a seminal study discovered a number of characteristics which can contribute to the efficacy of recasts. She came up with a coding system in which recasts were classified under two categories, single-move and multi-move. She managed to define them as follow:

Multi-move recasts: entail more than one teacher feedback move containing at least a single recast in a single teacher turn. They included three different types of recasts, namely corrective, repeated, and combination.

Combination recast conjoined with metalinguistic information on the one hand and single move recasts on the other hand are the main focus of the present study which are defined and illustrated in the following.

Combination recast: recasts that occur with other corrective feedback types, e.g. metalinguistic information.

Example 1:

S: I haven't done my home work yesterday.

T: I didn't do my homework yesterday. Definite time in the past!

Single-move recasts: entail only one recast move in a single teacher turn.

Example 2:

S: I had my brother to fix my car.

T: I had my brother fix my car.

C. Uptake

In quest of finding the effectiveness of corrective feedback on language acquisition, Researchers have utilized four major direct or indirect measures, namely (a) *uptake and learner repair* (b) *immediate post-tests* (c) *delayed post-tests* (d) *learner perception noticing of CF by means of stimulated recall*. The present study took advantage of "uptake and learner repair" and "immediate post-tests". Following Lyster & Ranta (1997), uptake is defined as "any student responses (learner output) immediately following a teacher corrective feedback". Uptake is classified in the following categories *repair* and *needs repair*. Repair involves 'successful uptake' a benchmark indicating the efficacy of corrective feedback. *Needs repair* refers to uptake that is still in need of correction. Learner's acknowledgements such as 'yes', 'yeah', or 'right' were coded as *needs repair*, since the learner did not correct the erroneous statement.

As the issue of recasts' being effective has grown in importance in light of recent studies, more determining factors contributing to the efficacy of recasts need to be discovered. Accordingly, this paper seeks to investigate the effect of the *novelty* of the grammar point on the efficacy of two types of recasts. To accomplish the aims of the present study, combination recasts combined with metalinguistic information and single-move recasts were selected to see the effect of each one on reducing the likelihood of the upper-intermediate learners' incorrect use of the grammatical points (causative 'get and 'have') which were to be learned in comparison with those grammatical points (present perfect and simple past) which were taught in previous terms and were part of the students' old knowledge.

III. SAMPLING

To fulfil the objectives of this study, 60 male and female upper-intermediate English learners were chosen. The classes consisted of 15 students and they were held in Navid English Institute, Shiraz, Iran. The participants, who were selected through cluster sampling, formed 2 experimental groups. That's to say, for each experimental group 2 classes were allocated. Besides, in each experimental group only one of the target corrective moves was employed. Touchstone 4B (Cambridge University press) was chosen as the means of instruction. The participants, ranging in age from 20 to 30, met two sessions a week (each session was held for 2 hours). The researchers were in charge of the classes.

IV. MATERIALS

A. *Oxford Placement Test*

To assure the researchers that all the participants of this study shared a similar command of English language, Oxford Placement Test was administered at the beginning of the term.

B. *Cambridge Test Booklet*

To ensure the reliability and validity of post-test a 40-item proficiency test from Cambridge test booklet, developed by Cambridge University, was selected in order to measure participants' level of proficiency after the administration of the treatment.

C. *A Sound Recorder*

To have a record of the events of the class for further analysis, a recorder was used by the observer.

D. *A Fill-in Chart*

To chart the number of corrective moves produced by the teacher, and also the students' uptake, the observer utilized a fill-in chart.

V. DATA COLLECTION

All sessions were initiated by discussions on the topics presented in the book (each unit includes one main topic and 4 subtopics). The participants had passed 7 levels and had been familiar with simple past and present perfect; therefore, the grammar points were parts of their old knowledge; however, 'Causative Structures' was the first grammar box of the beginning unit of their current term. To collect the required data, from the third session the students in each experimental group, combination recast group and single-move recast group, were assigned to take part in the discussions run by the teacher every session. To make sure the students would use the target grammar points, they were written on the board at the beginning of each session. During the discussions, incorrect forms of the intended grammar points in each experimental group were corrected with respective corrective feedback. For the duration of 10 sessions the two researchers, one as a teacher and the other as an observer to record events of the class, were present in the class. The observer recorded the discourse occurring among the students and between the teacher and the students as the required data.

VI. DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURE

The collected data was statistically analyzed by SPSS. Firstly, a t-test was run to compare the results of pre-test for the two groups in order to ensure the homogeneity of the experimental groups. Later, the number of corrective moves provided by the teacher and recorded by the observer, in the course of the discussions during the 10 session in both experimental groups, were analyzed by two Pearson chi-square analyses. Finally, two paired t-tests was conducted on the obtained data from post-test to compare the attained means of the two experimental groups regarding the old and new grammar.

VII. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULT

The gathered data through the discussions and the post-tests were utilized to answer the research questions enquired into by the present study. Table 1 compares the results obtained from the participants' performance on the pretest. The

pretest was administered prior to the treatment with the purpose for the researchers to be assured of the participants' homogeneity.

TABLE 1:
A T-TEST COMPARING THE PARTICIPANTS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS ON PRE-TEST

Group	N	Mean	SD	SEM
Combination recast	30	86.33	4.79	0.88
Single-move recast	30	84.93	4.44	0.82

It can be seen from the presented data that the students in the experimental group 1 (combination recast) performed slightly better; nevertheless, the presented mean score proves that there is no significant differences among the participants of the two experimental groups. Hence the homogeneity of the subjects is beyond question.

A. Comparing the Number of Provided Corrective Feedback

Regarding the effect of *structure novelty* on the efficacy of combination and single-move recasts, first, the correction of the students' deviated utterances of each experimental group was carried out by each one of the two above-mentioned recasts, then two Pearson chi-square tests, were conducted on the charted corrective moves to reach two goals. Firstly, to find out if there is a significant difference between the employed corrective moves. Secondly, to figure out the number of corrective feedback produced during the 10 sessions.

The number of combination and single-move recasts produced by the teacher in response to the erroneous utterances which were originated in the students' newly-learned structures, is presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2:
THE NUMBER OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK PRODUCED REGARDING NEW GRAMMAR

	Experimental groups	Uptake		Total
		Repaired	Needs-repair	
New Grammar	Combination recast	85	35	120
	Single-move recast	37	78	115
	Total	122	113	235

As Table 2 illustrates, during 10 sessions, 235 corrective moves, out of which combination and single move recasts consisted of 120 and 115, respectively, were produced. By referring to uptake column to find out how the students reacted to corrective feedback, we can understand combination recast feedbacks led to repair in 85 corrective treatments, that's to say, more than 70% of the error treatments led to repair; besides, in 35 times it led to needs-repair, that is, students used acknowledgment uptake which is producing words or phrases like "yes, yes" or "right", this kind of uptake uncovers that students sensed that they had made mistakes. In the following, Table 3 gives a statistical analysis of the data presented in table 2.

TABLE 3:
CHI-SQUARE TEST COMPARING CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK PRODUCED REGARDING NEW GRAMMAR

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	35,158(b)	1	,000
Continuity Correction(a)	33,626	1	,000
Likelihood Ratio	36,082	1	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	35,008	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	235		

Due to the fact that significance level of Pearson Chi-square is less than .05, it is concluded that there is a significant difference between the corrective feedback moves. This uncovers that students had different levels of uptake to corrective moves.

The number of combination and single-move recasts produced by the teacher in response to the erroneous utterances which were originated in the students' previously-learned structures, is presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4:
THE NUMBER OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK PRODUCED REGARDING OLD GRAMMAR

	Experimental groups	Uptake		Total
		Repaired	Needs-repair	
Old Grammar	Combination recast	76	25	101
	Single-move recast	69	33	102
	Total	145	58	203

Table 4 highlights the existing similarity between the experimental groups in terms of their uptake from the two aimed corrective feedback. In fact, nearly as many erroneous utterances in combination recast group as in single move recast group led to repair; moreover, it can be held true for the number of incorrect utterances which led to needs-repair in both groups. However, to see if the data is statistically significant the chi-square test was run on the data, the result of which is presented in table 5.

TABLE 5:
CHI-SQUARE TEST COMPARING CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK PRODUCED REGARDING OLD GRAMMAR

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1,436(b)	1	,231
Continuity Correction(a)	1,088	1	,297
Likelihood Ratio	1,440	1	,230
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,429	1	,232
N of Valid Cases	203		

It is apparent from this table that there is no clear significant difference between the combination and single-move recasts in correcting the students' deviated structures because the significance level is more than .05 (>.05).

B. Comparison of the Post-tests

To recognize whether the intended corrective feedback were effective on reducing the likely production of incorrect grammatical structures stemming from the new and old knowledge, two paired t-tests were conducted. The results are shown in Table 6 and 7.

TABLE 6:
A T-TEST COMPARING THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS ON POST-TEST REGARDING NEW GRAMMAR

	Experimental groups	mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
New Grammar	Combination-recast Single-move recast	2.83	3.86	.704	4.02	29	.000

As it is evident from Table 6, the significance value of the scores is .000 which is less than .05, and it shows that the difference between the means of the two groups regarding the old grammar is statistically significant.

TABLE 7:
A T-TEST COMPARING THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS ON POST-TEST REGARDING OLD GRAMMAR

	Experimental groups	mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Old Grammar	Combination-recast Single-move recast	.83	2.74	.50	1.66	29	.107

As the significance value is higher than .05 it can be concluded that the difference is not statistically significant. In fact, the students of both experimental groups made the most of both the combination and single move recasts.

VIII. DISCUSSION

This study investigated the potential role of *structure novelty* on the efficacy of combination recasts and single-move recasts. To effectuate the intentions of the present study two questions were presented. In the following, based on the findings, the study tends to answer the questions.

1. Do single-move and combination recasts have differing effects in correcting erroneous grammatical patterns stemming from students' newly-learned structures?
2. Do single-move and combination recasts have differing effects in correcting erroneous grammatical patterns stemming from students' previously-learned structures?

On the first research question, according to Table 2, showing what percent of recasts manage to repair the erroneous structures stemming from new knowledge and Table 3 presenting the obtained results from the first chi-square test, we arrive at a conclusion that combination and single-move recasts have differing effects in correcting the students' deviated structures concerning their levels of uptake; furthermore, from the mean score appearing in Table 6 through the t-test analysis which indicates the performance of both experimental groups on post-test regarding new grammar, it is concluded that combination recasts are more beneficial in comparison with single-move recasts to make the students aware of their incorrect use of the grammatical points which are taught within their current term. These findings are congruent with previous lines of research conducted by Sheen (2004); Loewen and Philip (2006); Ellis, Loewen and Erlam (2006). Through their research, it was demonstrated that the efficacy of recast is to a large extent related to its saliency. As sheen (2004) puts it, "the extent to which recasts lead to learner uptake and repair may be greater in contexts where the focus of the recasts is more salient". Therefore, in combination recasts the metalinguistic information plays a critical role as the provided information makes the recast completely salient; therefore, recognizable as a corrective feedback for the students.

In contrast to earlier findings of the studies done by Ammar and Spada (2006) and Philip (2003) that high-proficiency students can benefit from recasts due to their capability in recognizing them as corrective moves; however, the statistical analyses presented in this study (Tables 2 and 3) do not support this finding, despite of the fact that the participants are upper-intermediate. In fact this inconsistency can be attributed to the *novelty* of the grammar points, meaning that once the students have been taught a grammatical point since they haven't reached a developmental readiness on the barely learned structures they are unable to "incorporate the target forms addressed in the recasts, into

their interlanguage" (Ellis, 2006), therefore it can rise to their inability in realizing the recasts. In addition to this, Brown (2000, p.228) identified four stages of what learners experience in terms of errors. The first stage, which is the stage of experimentation and inaccurate guessing, is called random errors. The second stage, called emergent, can be recognized by the students' growth in consistency in linguistic production. The learners have begun to internalize certain rules. This stage is characterized by a crucial factor that students are unable to correct their mistakes when they are pointed by someone else. In fact, this is the level that the learners while learning a new grammar point is experiencing, thereby, Teachers are advised to be fully aware of.

In response to the second research question whether single-move and combination recasts have differing effects in correcting erroneous grammatical patterns stemming from students' previously-learned structures, the data presented in Tables 4 and 5 proved that the participants of both groups enjoyed the benefits of the two corrective moves. Similarly, the provided mean score in Table 7 authenticates this finding. The students' ability in taking the advantage of both combination and single-move recasts can be elucidated by the stage of interlanguage they are experiencing. Brown (2000) maintains "the stage following emergent is called systematic stage in which the learners are able to manifest more consistency in producing the second language. The most critical difference between the emergent and the systematic stages lies in the "ability of learners to correct their errors when they are pointed out – even very subtly– to them". As Brown rightly mentioned once the students have reached a developmental readiness on a particular structure in the systematic stage, even utilizing implicit ways, such as recasts, to notify the students of their deviated utterances will be not only practical, but also effective. An implication of these findings is that teachers should take into account certain elements influencing the efficacy of corrective feedback before deciding on one to resort to, as the results of the present study point out that newness of structure exert influence on the efficacy of non-prompt corrective strategies. Therefore, employing combination recasts can be considered quite effective to correct not only previously-learned structures but also newly-learned ones since they provide the students with metalinguistic information, in fact the reason of correction.

IX. CONCLUSION

The issue of providing the students with the utmost effective corrective feedback has been a controversial and much disputed subject within the field of second language acquisition. Numerous studies have been designed to enquired into the efficacy of various corrective feedback strategies in English classrooms; in addition, by reviewing the literature an upturn in the number of studies, discovering various influential features in boosting the efficacy of recasts, is discernible. Therefore, in line with previous studies current paper set out with the aim of showing the effect of structure novelty, as a determining factor, on the efficacy of recasts, and the findings highlight the pivotal role of structure novelty on the productiveness of recasts. This effect was substantiated by showing the superiority of combination recasts over single-move recasts in correcting the fallacious structures emanated from newly-learned structures. And also the equal benefits that both of the above-mentioned corrective feedback have for the students in correcting erroneous utterances which are derived from their previously-learned structures.

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The Impact of Teaching Questioning on the Iranian EFL Learners' Problem-solving in Writing

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Abstract—This study was an attempt to gain an insight into Iranian EFL learners' problem-solving when writing in English. To do so, the possible impact of developing Iranian EFL learners' level of critical thinking on their problem-solving while writing in English was investigated. Problem-solving in writing was examined on the formulation stage of writing from two aspects: frequency of solving formulation problems, and the amount of time devoted to solving formulation problems in general, and more specifically, as a function of the type of problems (i.e. upgrading/ compensatory class of problems). Critical thinking was developed through teaching the learners how to ask and answer questions in English. Learners practiced asking and answering questions in English about the content of their course book using keywords and sample question stems from Bloom's (1956) taxonomy of educational objectives (cognitive domain) in six weeks. The results have shown that the treatment of the study is effective in increasing the level of critical thinking. The treatment also leads in spending more time on problem-solving formulation. Teaching questioning also leads to the devotion of more time to upgrading rather than compensatory class of problems. However, the treatment did not have any significant effect on the frequency of solving formulation problems.

Index Terms—EFL learner, problem-solving formulation, writing, critical thinking, upgrading class of problems, compensatory class of problems

I. INTRODUCTION

As a basic communication means, writing is an important language skill among other three major skills. Writing in a second/ foreign language is considered to be vital for the learners as well. Different groups of second/ foreign language learners require writing skill for different purposes and for this means, they make use of various text types.

Writing is a multi-dimensional activity. Experts view writing as consisting of social, cultural, and cognitive aspects. From a cognitive view point, writing is viewed as a problem solving task (Munchón, 2001; Roca de Larios & Murphy, 2001). Despite the importance of writing, this skill had been viewed as a process of just translating ideas into words according to a set of grammar rules before the 1970s when Emig (1971; cited in Dyson & Freedman, 1990) first questioned this set of practices and, in fact, launched the process-oriented approach to writing.

Since Emig (1971), the researchers have continued studying the writers' thought processes. While trying to do so, they began to produce a model or parts of a model for the process of producing written language (Freedman, Dyson, Flower & Chafe, 1987).

One very important achievement of those researchers working on the process-oriented approach to writing was adopting a problem-solving view point regarding the writing activity. They concluded that the writing process is a hierarchically organized, goal-oriented, problem-solving process; and that writers at different levels face the problems in writing differently. More precisely as Munchón (2001) states "a problem exists when (i) an information processing system experiences a gap between a self-imposed or other-imposed initial state and an intended goal state; and (ii) the gap cannot be bridged without a search process" (p.9).

The writers' problem-solving process begins actually with their attempts to define precisely their topic and goals for the essay. The writers should also elaborate their problem representation to include their audiences' requirements and expectations, a process that continues throughout the writing process. More precisely, moment to moment, the writer is involved in problem solving since the writer faces a host of potential problems from time to time he/ she decides to write on a special topic which continues all through the time when the writer is actually involved in the act of writing in the form of "a series of non-linear jumps from one problem and procedure to another" (Flower and Hayes, 1977, p. 460). In other words, this is not the case that the writers first do planning for their writing, then they write the whole text and finally they start to revise the whole text, but the writers are involved in planning, formulation, and revision all through the writing process. This "process of converting thoughts into language" which is referred to as the formulation process (Roca de Larios, Munchón, & Murphy, 2006, p.1) is the focus of the present study. The formulation process involves,

on the one hand, “the conjugation of goals and ideas with the constraints of syntax and lexis” (Fayol, 1991; cited in Roca de Larios, Munchón, & Murphy, 2006), and, on the other hand, the production of sentences and their integration into a textual framework (Roca de Larios, Murphy, & Munchón, 1999). This means that while producing texts, writers are often involved in decision-making and problem-solving behavior since they need to “juggle and integrate the multiple constraints of their knowledge, their plans, and their text into the production of each new sentence” (Flower & Hayes, 1981, p. 371).

To examine the writers’ problem-solving behavior, experts usually focus on one stage for instance planning, formulation, or revision. Since these processes are not linear, they devise ways to distinguish among these processes while the writers are involved in the writing activity.

Regarding the issues mentioned so far, the present study is an attempt to investigate whether teaching critical thinking through the key skill of asking and answering questions based on Bloom’s (1956) Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (cognitive domain), has any statistically significant effect on the Iranian EFL learners’ frequency (number of times) and duration (the amount of time spent) of solving formulation problems.

The present study was run in an attempt to answer the following questions:

1) Does “teaching questioning” as a critical thinking skill have any statistically significant effect on the Iranian EFL learners’ level of critical thinking?

2) Does “teaching questioning” as a critical thinking skill have any statistically significant effect on the amount of time devoted to solving formulation problems by the Iranian EFL learners when writing in English?

3) Does “teaching questioning” as a critical thinking skill have any statistically significant effect on the frequency of solving formulation problems by the Iranian EFL learners when writing in English?

4) Does “teaching questioning” as a critical thinking skill have any statistically significant effect on the amount of time the Iranian EFL learners devote to problem-solving formulation as a function of the type of problems (i.e. upgrading/ compensatory class of problems) they pose themselves?

So far, researchers have conducted studies comparing the language learners’ problem-solving behavior in the formulation process in L1 and L2 writing; however, as Roca de Larios, Munchón, & Murphy (2006) point out, scant attention has been paid to finding way(s) to make learners better problem-solvers as they face problems while converting their thoughts into language as they write in a language other than their mother tongue. Bensely (1998) states that as writers struggle to write what they think, they are actually involved in critical thinking so improving the language learners’ critical thinking might help them in facing problems in the process of converting thoughts into language which means a better performance in the formulation process of writing.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. *The Process Oriented Approach*

As mentioned earlier a process oriented approach to writing is adopted for the purpose of the present study. The research movement known as “process writing” emerged with the aim of achieving a deeper insight into the mental processes writers engage in while writing (Munchón, 2001). “The cognitively-oriented trend within the process tradition views composition writing as a goal oriented, cognitively-demanding, problem-solving task” (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Flower and Hayes, 1980, 1981a, 1981b; Hayes, 1996; Hayes & Flower, 1980; Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1987; Torrance & Jeffery, 1999; as cited in Munchón, 2001).

B. *Problem-solving and Writing*

So far, it is mentioned that a process oriented approach to writing is adopted in the present study; one which many scholars namely, Bereiter & Scardamalia, Flower & Hayes, Munchón and other experts sharing the same view point regard it as a problem solving framework to writing activity. Regarding the order of writing, in fact, a writer may start writing a paragraph, deciding which word or grammatical structure to use (each is considered as a potential problem), writing some words and then reading one’s sentence, deciding to revise the recently written words immediately after writing them or even before actually putting one’s thought in words. This is the fact of writing which confirms Flower and Hayes (1977) as they consider writing as “a series of non-linear jumps from one problem to another” (p.460).

The writer should also make decisions about the form of one’s text in relation to one’s goals which he/she had considered in defining one’s problem on one hand and goal for reader, self, and text on the other hand.

C. *Problem-solving in the Formulation Stage of Writing*

As far as the researcher studied, most of the research studies done on the problem solving formulation behavior while writing have focused on comparing this behavior between L1 and L2. These studies have been categorized by Roca de Larios, Munchón & Murphy (2006) into two groups: 1) the concept of writing fluency as a measure of problem-solving behavior, and 2) the nature of the actual problem solving behavior that L2 writers are involved in during writing.

The number of words written, the number and length of pauses, and the interruption of the actual writing process by other processes are the issues considered in most of the studies carried out comparing L1 and L2 composing processes focusing on the issue of fluency. The results of the studies confirm the influence of the labour-intensive L2 writing process on the fluency. As Roca de Larios, Munchón & Murphy (2006) point out, the results of the studies in this field

show that in the L2 situation, writers tend to: produce fewer words in their written texts; find it harder to keep the writing process constant according to the higher number of pauses, the interruption of the actual formulation processes by other processes, and also by producing fewer words between pauses.

The studies run in the field of problem-solving behavior have revealed contradictory findings regarding the similarities and differences between the problem solving nature of formulation processes in L1 and L2; some studies have supported the existence of differences between L1 and L2 formulation processes, while some other studies point out similarities in writers' problem solving behavior across languages (Roca de Larios, Munchón & Murphy, 2006).

Simply asserting that the L2 limits the formulation of ideas may be more of a generalization if we can't properly qualify the claim. In this vein, a research which could be of interest is one done by Roca de Larios et al. (2001) in which he examined the temporal distribution of formulation processes in L1 and L2 writing among Spanish EFL learners at different proficiency levels. The results of this study showed both cross-linguistic similarities and differences within the same group of writers. The equal amount of time of the total composing time (around 70%) was allocated to formulating both, the L1 and L2 texts; however, the results also supported the existence of greater problem solving activity in L2 formulation processes.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Subjects

To fulfill the purpose of the present study, 60 participants chosen based on intact group design from a sample of 100 male and female EFL learners took part in the study. They were from a language institute in Tehran who were EFL learners at the intermediate level. They were between 20 to 30 years old. To check the participants' proficiency level, an intermediate Nelson proficiency test (200 A) was administered. The Nelson proficiency test (200 A) was standardized by the researcher in a pilot group of 30 and the reliability was found to be 0.78. They were then randomly assigned to control and experimental groups.

B. Procedure

This study was conducted in four phases; in the first stage, the preparation stage besides piloting the proficiency test and the critical thinking questionnaire, the handouts were provided to be used in the treatment stage. Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives (cognitive domain, 1956) has six hierarchical levels including knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. For each level, specific keywords and sample questions along with a brief explanation about the content and purpose of each level have been defined. The participants were provided with the materials related to each level, in the form of handouts prepared by the researcher in order to practice asking and answering questions in English. Six handouts were provided for the six levels of Bloom's taxonomy (1956) which was practiced in six weeks of treatment. Also, the participants practiced the think-aloud protocol with a mock composition in the preparation stage. This trial did not include any modeling on the part of the researcher so as not to influence the participants' thought processes (Smith, 1994; cited in Roca de Larios, Munchón, and Murphy, 2006) or their choice of the language for their verbalizations, especially in L2 condition (Sasaki, 2000). The participants were given the following instruction which was originally in Farsi:

Today I want you to write a composition on ("Advantages and disadvantages of..."). While writing, I want you "to say aloud anything and everything that comes through your mind. You should do everything that you would normally do when writing a composition, the only difference being that today you are going to do it talking aloud. You may use whatever language you normally use when writing" –English or Farsi. You will have a maximum of 1 hour to complete the task (adopted from Roca de Larios, Munchón, and Murphy, 2006).

There was no recording for this trial session.

The second stage, the pre-test stage, included the administration of the piloted proficiency test and the critical thinking questionnaire (the reliability indices were found to be .78 and .88 respectively), and doing the writing task.

Regarding the writing task, one session after the trial session the participants of the study who had practiced the think-aloud protocol before, were asked to do the same task as they did in the trial session, this time with a different topic which was an IELTS exam writing topic. The same instructions as in the trial session were given to the participants. The participants were asked to bring their cellphones in order to record their voices. When they were busy on the task, the researcher was also present to answer their questions or sometimes to remind them to say what they think when they were silent and forgot to talk, but there was no modeling on the part of the researcher. The participants in each group did the writing task on the same session; the researcher decided on this procedure for practical reasons (i.e., the impossibility of recording 30 participants individually due to the lack of resources; and to prevent the participants from revealing their assignments to one another in case they were recorded separately) on the other hand, as Roca de Larios, Munchón, and Murphy (2006) point out, such procedure has the additional advantage of causing less interaction between the researcher and the participants, as a result "neutralizing variations in the protocol data due to researcher bias (p.104). After finishing the task, the writings and the voice files were collected.

The third stage, the treatment stage, The treatment process lasted for six weeks, three sessions each week. Every week, questions referring to one level of Bloom's taxonomy (1956) was practiced using the handouts containing the

keywords, sample question stems and a brief explanation about that level (Appendix E) which were put together using Bloom (1956), Brown (2001), and Dalton & Smith (1986).

In the treatment process, asking and answering questions in English, about the lessons studied during the week, was taught and practiced in a hierarchical order based on Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives (cognitive domain) (1956). The six levels included knowledge, comprehension, and application which were worked on during the first three weeks or the first half of the treatment process, one level each week, and analysis, synthesis, and evaluation were worked on during the last three weeks or the second half of the treatment process, one level each week as well.

At the first session of each week, the related handout was distributed among the participants in the experimental group. The students read the content of the handout so the researcher could make sure they understood the application of keywords and question stems through providing them with explanations and examples where necessary.

After that, the participants were asked to start writing their questions based on the new lesson of their course book – one lesson was often taught each session –using the keywords and question stems in their handouts.

Then they made groups of 2 people and practiced asking and answering their questions in pairs. While the participants were busy on their pair work, the researcher was present, monitored them and answered their questions. After that, they were merged to groups of 4 or 5 and practiced asking and answering each other's questions in larger groups. Finally, each group chose one of their questions to be asked in the classroom. At each stage, the participants had to observe a time limit of about 10 minutes.

This process was repeated in the next two sessions of the week with the new lesson they studied each session.

This process was only for the experimental group which took 30-45 minutes for each session. The treatment process took 18 sessions. The participants in the experimental group studied similar units of the course book in the equal amount of time without receiving the treatment.

The last stage, the post-test stage the same critical thinking questionnaire was administered. Also there was the writing task; the second topic was also an IELTS writing topic. The researcher chose similar topics for the pre-test and post-test (both from the same category, dealing with the problems of studying and living outside of one's own city/country, presumed to be familiar to the participants) in order to prevent the possible influence of the topic of composition on the quality and quantity of writing (Hamp-Lynos, 1990; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996). This choice was also based on the research evidence that topic familiarity can enhance the writer's involvement in the task (Friedlander, 1990; Gaskill, 1986; cited in Roca de Larios, Munchón, and Murphy, 2006).

This time also, the participants' voices were recorded using their own cellphones or other devices in the same way as it was done for the pre-test stage with a six week time interval. Then the writings and voice files were collected to be used as the data for the study.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results from the critical thinking questionnaire and the transcripts of the think-aloud protocol provided the data for this study. Regarding the questionnaire, the results of the independent t-test ($t(58) = 3.45$, $P = .001 < .05$, $r = .41$ it represents a moderate to large effect size) indicate that there is a significant difference between the experimental and control groups' mean scores on posttest of critical thinking. It shows that the treatment of the study, teaching how to use English language to ask and answer questions, increased the participants' level of critical thinking in experimental group.

Regarding the data from think-aloud protocol, the method of transcription and analysis of formulation in the present study, follows the seminal study by Roca de Larios, Munchón, and Murphy (2006). The participants' verbalizations were transcribed in the ordinary writing system and the duration of pauses were indicated in parentheses. In order to separate the produced text, re readings, and revisions from other verbalized thoughts in the protocol, the transcripts were also coded according to the following coding system from Roca de Larios, Munchón, and Murphy (2006) which is also exemplified in Excerpt 1:

- a) Distinction of the written text (underlined) from the processes which generate it.
- b) Distinction of repetitions/ re readings (in italics).
- c) Annotations of any revisions made to the written texts.

Ok...different culture... different culture,... different educational (3) educational system... different educational system, and... different culture, different educational system... and different (2) social problems... and different social problems social problems are temporary... social problems are temporary... are temporary? (4) social problems are temporary (3) no... 2) (فكر كنم كه بهتره بگيم) are transitory [CROSSES OUT "temporary"] social problems are transitory... yes, it's better... social problems are transitory ok.

The next step was to distinguish formulation from planning and revision. In order to differentiate between formulation and planning, a coding of planning was considered for segments where operations entailing ideas, aims, and so forth, were observed being developed at a pre-linear level while formulation was assigned to those segments where utterances were produced that were clearly included in the text because of their strictly linear character (for instance, lexical units, syntactic structures, etc.). The distinction between formulation and revision was made due to "the distance between the point where the text had originally been written and the point where the change was made." (Roca de Larios, Munchón, & Murphy, 2006). Formulation was recognized as the modifications to the sentence being written;

however, those modifications which were made to the sentences that had already been finished was categorized as revision.

Regarding the analysis of formulation, two classes of formulation problems were recognized: Compensatory class of problems, and Upgrading class of problems (Roca de Larios, Munchón, & Murphy, 2006).

The upgrading class of problems, as exemplified in Excerpt 2, “they are problems resulting from an effort to upgrade the expression of meaning or to find a better match between intention and expression or both” (Roca de Larios, Munchón, & Murphy, 2006).

EXCERPT 2

But after some time, the students should get used to the new educational system (4) should get used to... (3) یعنی باید get used to the new educational system... I'm not sure about they should get used to...

درواقع نباید عادت کنند چون عادت کردن بیشتر حالت غیر ارادی دارد اما... منظور من بیشتر این هست که اونها باید درواقع خودشون رو تطبیق بدهند... yes! Its better! So...adapt... but after some time the students should... adapt themselves to the new educational system.

The compensatory class of problems, exemplified in Excerpt 3, “are problems derived from lack of (automatic) access to linguistic knowledge required to express the intended meaning.” (Roca de Larios, Munchón, & Murphy, 2006). Also, according to DeKeyser (2001, cited in Roca de Larios, Munchón, & Murphy, 2006), lack of access to linguistic knowledge is actually a cover term which refers to “communicative situations in which the knowledge required is not retrievable either because it has not been acquired or because it has not been proceduralized/ automatized”.

EXCERPT 3

When you don't know the language of that country... you (4) I want to say

می... how can I say that? When you don't know the language of that country you... می... وارد شدن به جامعه برایش سخت می شود... خواهم بگویم نمی تواند مثل مردم دیگر وارد جامعه بشود اما اینه که چطور باید بگویم when you don't know the language of that country... you can't join the society.

The results show that on average the experimental group ($M = 1275.53$, $SD = 206.10$) spent more time on posttest of problem-solving formulation than the control group ($M = 637.80$, $SD = 89.36$). The results of the independent t-test ($t(58) = 15.54$, $P = .000 < .05$, $r = .89$ it represents a large effect size) indicate that there is a significant difference between the experimental and control groups' time spent on the posttest of problem-solving formulation.

Regarding the frequency of solving formulation problems, an analysis of chi-square was run to compare the experimental and control groups' frequency of solving formulation problems on pretest and posttest phases. The results of the chi-square ($\chi^2(1) = 1.79$, $P = .180 > .05$) indicate that there is not any significant difference between the experimental and control groups' frequency of solving formulation problems on pretest and posttest phases.

A multivariate ANOVA (MANOVA) was run to compare the experimental and control groups' means on pretests of problem-solving formulation as a function of the type of problems (i.e. the compensatory/ upgrading class of problems) they pose themselves in order to prove that they were homogenous in terms of the problem-solving formulation as a function of the type of problems (i.e. the compensatory/ upgrading class of problems).

Before reporting the main results it should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances – as tested through the Levene's F-values (all higher than .05) – and the assumption of homogeneity of covariance – as tested through the Box's test (The Box's M-value of 2.66 is not significant ($P = .464 > .05$)) – were met.

Based on the results it can be concluded that there are significant differences between the experimental and control groups means on the posttests of upgrading and compensatory class of problems ($F(2, 57) = 986.92$, $P = .000 < .05$, Partial $\eta^2 = .97$ it represents a large effect size). The results also show a significant difference between the two groups on upgrading ($F(1, 58) = 2008.30$, $P = .000 < .05$, Partial $\eta^2 = .97$ it represents a large effect size) and compensatory ($F(1, 58) = 4.02$, $P = .05 = .05$, Partial $\eta^2 = .065$ it represents a moderate effect size). Descriptive statistics for the experimental and control groups on the post-tests of upgrading and compensatory class of problems indicate that the experimental group ($M = 41.25$) shows a higher mean on posttest of upgrading class of problems while the control group ($M = 9.83$) shows a higher mean on posttest of compensatory class of problems.

V. CONCLUSION

Analyzing the quantitative data of this study which included the results of the critical thinking test, the results of the independent t-test indicated the significant difference between the experimental and control groups' mean scores on the post test of critical thinking test. On the average the experimental group ($M = 115.07$, $SD = 12.96$) showed a higher mean on the posttest of critical thinking test than control group ($M = 103.60$, $SD = 12.71$). It can be concluded that the treatment of the study –teaching questioning as a critical thinking skill– increased the EFL learners' critical thinking level in the experimental group.

The analysis of the qualitative data of the present study which included the analysis of the transcripts of the participants' think-aloud protocols provided three conclusions.

Firstly, the results of independent t-test comparing the experimental and control groups' time spent on posttest of problem-solving formulation showed a significant difference between the two groups' mean scores. On average the experimental group ($M = 1275.53$, $SD = 206.10$) spent more time on posttest of problem-solving formulation than the

control group ($M = 637.80$, $SD = 89.36$). Thus, it can be concluded that teaching questioning as a critical thinking skill resulted in the increase of the amount of time devoted to solving formulation problems.

Secondly, an analysis of chi-square comparing the experimental and control groups' frequency of solving formulation problems on pretest and posttest phases, showed no significant difference between the two groups on this test ($\chi^2(1) = 1.79$, $P = .180 > .05$). Thus it can be concluded that teaching questioning as a critical thinking skill does not have any statistically significant effect on the frequency of solving formulation problems.

So far it was concluded that increasing the participants' level of critical thinking through teaching questioning as a critical thinking skill results in devoting more time to solving formulation problems. However, the more important issue is to scrutinize this finding more deeply to understand the exact effect of the treatment of the study on the problem-solving formulation process. To reach this goal, the fourth research question of this study was raised. Results of the analysis of multivariate ANOVA (MANOVA) run for both the pretest and posttest of upgrading and compensatory class of problems shed light on the fourth research question.

The results of multivariate ANOVA (MANOVA) comparing the two groups' means on the posttest of problem-solving formulation as a function of the type of problems (i.e. compensatory/ upgrading class of problems) they pose themselves indicated the significant difference between the two groups' time devoted to these two classes of problems. The results help to come to the conclusion that the experimental group spent more time on the upgrading class of problems while the control group spent more time on the compensatory class of problems.

Considering all the above mentioned results and also the results of construct validity, it can be concluded that the compensatory class of problems and critical thinking are two distinct traits; while the problem-solving formulation and upgrading class of problems are not two distinct factors as the results also showed the effectiveness of the treatment on both traits.

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The Analysis of Writers' Stance: A Comparison between Two Reviews on *Desperate Housewives*

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Abstract—In this essay, we are trying to detect writers' stance in written discourse through analyzing two reviews on the same TV series: *Desperate Housewives*. *Desperate Housewives* is a fictive TV series produced by ABC Studios. It depicts the lives of four housewives and their families. Due to different contexts, each of the reviews selected to be analyzed represents different stance, with which we are going to compare through different writing topics and purposes, readership, writers' attitudes and assessment from different angles.

Index Terms—stance, *Desperate Housewives*, ideology, ideational meanings, interpersonal meanings

I. INTRODUCTION

Bloor and Bloor (2007) point out that all writers “take up some position in relation to the propositions they make” (p. 33). Those positions taken by writers can be defined as stance that is “a textual voice or community recognized personality which, following others” (Hyland, 2005, p. 176). This can be inferred that the stance writer takes in his/her text may have represented the views and attitudes of him/herself as an individual or those of a group. Usually the stance can be conscious or unconscious, explicit or hidden (Bloor & Bloor, 2007). In reviews, the writers' positions could be supportive, disapproving or neutral. However, no matter what stance they choose to take, they must have directly or indirectly shown it through their language choices and objective focuses.

In this essay, we are trying to detect writers' stance in written discourse through analyzing two reviews on the same TV series: *Desperate Housewives*. Review A (see appendix A) is selected from the website www.tv.com where TV fans share their views and discuss the episodes of the American TV series. Quite differently, review B (see appendix A) is taken from the website of Common Sense Media which contributes to education programs of kids and parents. Review A explicitly shows its writer's favor and appreciation of this show, yet review B indicates the writer's negative attitude towards it in terms of the suitability for young teens.

Our investigation in the analysis of the writer's stance in the two reviews will probably be helpful to us as writers to make better choices of language devices for realizing our writing goals, and as readers to critically detect writer's positions and form our own ideology in understanding the text we read.

For detecting their respective stance, we begin with the analysis of their different angles for representing the writer's views and positions including the choice of participants, processes, and then of their interpersonal meanings in pronoun use and the appraisal of the show including use of “Affect”, “Judgment” and “Appreciation”.

II. CONTEXTS OF THE TWO REVIEWS

The two reviews center on the same show, yet obviously come from quite different contexts. Knowing about their contexts will help us understand further the two reviewers' writing focuses and purposes, and accordingly detect their respective stance in the review.

Review A comes from the website where people are welcome to watch TV for free, though it is only allowed within the United States. Registers of this website are encouraged to write reviews. Therefore, there are a lot of writers reviewing TV series they have watched and then posting the reviews on this website. The writer of review A is a TV junkie of 17 years old, as he has addressed in his “about me” (<http://www.tv.com/users/greysanatomy12/profile.php>). His review can be taken as viewpoints expressing and sharing, and also advice providing for people who are trying to find whether the TV series are appropriate for them. Thus, the potential readers of their reviews are probably those netizens who are also TV fans, or who are looking for recommendation of good TV series.

Review B has been selected from the website (Common Sense Media) where some professional writers are in charge of writing book or movie reviews for education purpose. The writer of review B has been a professional writer and editor. She has written film reviews and books for teens. Due to the formal and educational macro-context, review B is written in much the way of an education suggestion teaching parents how to take care of their children in terms of watching TV shows. Obviously, the potential readers are parents or children who are going to watch this show.

Due to different writing contexts and readership, the two reviewers' attitudes and assessment are spotted in

divergence. As stated above, review A is quite positive in the show while review B is on the opposite due to its special audience.

III. IDEATIONAL MEANINGS: CREATING DIFFERENT STANCE AND VIEWS

“For Halliday, language is functional in the sense that it exists, and has evolved, to fulfill certain human needs, and the linguistic forms of which it is comprised necessarily reflect those basic needs” (Moore, 2010). People construe different texts of the same thing or the same event through different language choices according to their own stance. Therefore, one way to know the meaning behind the lines and get close to the truth is to probe language choices in the texts. In doing so, ideational meanings of the texts may be examined initially as Coffin (2009) states that “Transitivity analysis, nevertheless, makes it possible to see abstract patterns of meaning that go beyond more transparent literal meaning”.

A. Topic / Activity and Degree of Specialization.

As for the analysis of ideational meanings, the first thing we want to examine is the topic or activity of these two reviews because context is realized in the text and has an influence on the text. Through the analysis of topic or activity in these reviews, we may find the different stance and views of these two writers.

These two reviews are both about the same subject matter, an American TV series named *Desperate Housewives* which is very popular both in America and in China. As we have addressed above, the aim of the reviews in this website is to introduce TV shows to the TV fans or anyone who browses this website. Therefore, when the writer of review A writes this review, he attaches great importance to the detailed description of writing, acting, and characters, and he even makes comments for every season of this TV series. For example, in the writer's eyes, “the writing is brilliant and amazing”, “the acting is superb and outstanding”, “the characters are totally believable and unique”, “the first season is absolutely epic and genius”, “the second season is a great season” and so on. Judging from these descriptions of the topic, we can find that the writer of review A holds a positive attitude to this TV series and he is surely a faithful supporter of it.

Review B is taken from the website of Common Sense Media which contributes to education programs of kids and parents. Reviews on this website aim to analyze books, movies and TV plays objectively and supply parents and children with specialized advice. Hence, the writer of review B pays less attention to the artistic work of this show (she just briefly describes the story within one short paragraph) and focuses on the characters' behaviors which are not supposed to be watched by young teens. Although there are some information relating the positive messages and role models in this show, most of the length of review B is about the negative points towards young people (e.g. “violence”, “sex”, “consumerism”, and “drinking, drugs, & smoking”). To make her stance and views clear, the writer even states her negative attitude at the beginning of this review like “inappropriate for young kids and teens” and “adults-only”. It is quite likely that she writes this review to teach parents how to take care of their children in terms of watching TV shows and apparently, this TV series are not suitable at all.

In addition, with respect to the degree of specialization, the writer of review A draws on everyday language rather than technical language. Probably it is because he writes the review for sharing opinions and ideas, and because he knows what his audience looks for is simply entertainment rather than some serious technical instructions. Formal and technical language might be very awkward in this context. For example, the writer utilizes many simple and easily understandable sentences to express his favor of the show such as “some people say...”, “time jump”, “standouts”, “The first season is absolutely epic and genius”, and “It's number 2 on my list”. Compared with the language in review A, language in review B is more complex and formal due to the experience and stance of the writer in part. First, the writer of review B is an experienced freelance writer and editor skilled in writing reviews. It is very possible that she has a better competence in using language to build up a review than the writer of review A, who is just a 17-year-old boy. Second, the aim of the website that the author of review B writes for is mainly to educate parents, so she must show that she is well-educated and qualified to make parents trust her and follow her idea. For example, she uses the words “glean” rather than “gather”, “tongue-in-cheek” instead of “ironic”, and “amid” rather than “in the middle of”.

B. Angle of Representation

Apart from what is mentioned above, writers build up different representations of the world by selecting different participants, processes and circumstances in writing the texts, and “thus provide different orientations to the natural world” (Coffin & North, 2009, p285). Consequently, the analysis of these three components enables us to work out writers' views and stance in these two reviews. To make things clear, we identify these three components of two reviews as Appendix B shows.

In the first place, focus may be put on the participants of these two reviews. Participants are the people, things and abstractions that are involved in the goings-on and they may be divided into thematized participants which are defined as those participants occurring in subject position in a clause (Halliday, 1994, p58) and other participants. As shown in Appendix B, thematized participants in review A are mainly noun groups about the TV series and characters, and several pronouns standing for the TV series. While thematized participants in review B include parents and children except for noun groups about the TV series. On one hand, the writer in review A takes particular nouns (the first season,

the second season...) as thematized participants, which shows that the writer's emphasis is put on the show itself. On the other hand, the writer in review B uses the generalized noun as thematized participants, which shows that the writer's emphasis is not only placed on the show but also on parents and children. Moreover, other participants in review A are mainly adjectives and simple noun groups while those in review B are mainly complicated noun groups, which reveals that the writer in review B is better educated than the writer in review A and she is professional enough to give parents advice. Furthermore, almost all of adjectives occurring in review A are positive words such as "interesting", "brilliant" and "amazing", which assigns the good qualities to the participants and uncovers the positive attitude the writer holds to this TV series. However, most of noun groups in review B are linked to the negative points, such as "drug", "alcoholic" and "crimes", which assign the bad qualities to the participants and show the negative attitude the writer holds to this TV series.

In the second place, we observe the processes of these two reviews. As we can see in Appendix B, simple relational process (there is, it is) plays an essential role in review A, while wide range of processes occur in review B, including material process and relational process. By choosing relational process, the writer of review A describes the TV series in details and assigns many good qualities to it such as "wonderful", "decent", and "superb", which shows that he stands in a positive position that he is sharing ideas with others and he recommends this TV series to people. By selecting both relational process and material process, the writer of review B assigns bad qualities to the TV series like "sexy scenes" and "violence", and shows that it is not only the TV series but also parents and children that are represented as powerful participants in text. Through this kind of process choice, she stands in a negative position that she is educating the readers that this show is not suitable for children.

In the third place, there is almost no circumstance in review A, while there are wide range of adverbial and prepositional phrases and clauses to describe circumstances in review B. It is natural for the writer of review A to use simple language to draw people's attention and introduce the TV series. To the writer of review B, using complex sentences may facilitate her to show that she is specialized enough to offer suggestions.

IV. INTERPERSONAL MEANINGS: APPRAISAL

A. Absence or Presence of the Writer

In reviews, all writers take a position or stance towards their objects but the variation is how they realize their point of view to stick to their stance. 1st pronoun "I" is seldom used in film reviews referring to the writer (Bloor & Bloor, 2007). It might be the reason that the absence of the writer contributes to the objectivity of the review. But whether using 1st pronouns depends more on the context of the review and the reviewer's stance.

Looking closely at the two reviews we intend to compare, we may find A has more 1st person pronouns (18 of them) in it and relatively less 3rd pronouns (13 of them) are used. The choice of pronouns makes review A more informal and personal.

e.g.

I sure as hell didn't.

I thought the show would be...

...but *I* was wrong.

It's number 3 on *my* list.

I'm excited...

I'm sure it will continue to impress *me*...

By using "I", "my", or "me", the writer shows his own presence in the review. All the descriptions of, the feelings for, and the comments on the storylines and the characters tell readers that this is how *one person* likes about the show. We may think about the writer and what he is trying to do here. A 17 year old boy enters his review of the show on the website and thus tries to share with other TV fans his points of views and opinions. Everyone who sees this review can agree or disagree with it because this is only a personal understanding of the show. His stance is rather individual and informal.

On the opposite, 3rd singular and plural pronouns (ten of them) appear in review B to represent the show or the characters in the show, but no 1st pronouns are used.

e.g.

...but *it* does so with humor... (the show)

...the way *they* behave... (the characters in the show)

...*their* sex appeal...(the characters in the show)

...to *her* kids' medication... (one character in the show)

With the absence of the writer, review B is rather formal and objective than review A. The non-use of 1st pronouns seems to have avoided the writer's personal opinions and positions in her review, and provided the factual existence rather than personal comments of the show. Different from the 17 year old reviewer, the writer of review B seems representing not herself but a certain community which holds the same position towards the show.

The context of the two reviews may account for the difference depicted above. Review A is selected from a TV series website where personal reviews are encouraged but the website where review B comes from aims to educate teens and their parents. The writer's position in review A is simply sharing what he knows about the show and how he feels about

it. The absence of writer in review B ensures its writing purpose, which is providing its target audience with more authoritative and professional views and advice. Personal review might be less persuasive on this occasion.

The utilization of pronouns manifests whether writers wish to represent themselves in their writing (Goatly, 2000). Through the analysis of the two reviews above, we could clearly see that the absence or presence of the writer may be required by context and its target audience, and more importantly, it is the writing purpose and the writer's stance that determine writer's presence in the review.

B. *Affect, Judgment, and Appreciation*

"Readers *expect* a reviewer to hold some opinion of the film since a reviewer's primary *role* is to evaluate or give value to something" (Bloor & Bloor, 2007, p. 34). No matter what stance the reviewers take in their writing, positive, negative or neutral, they usually would have made evaluations on the film through language choices, including evaluative vocabulary, which "can be divided in to 3 categories: Affect, Judgment and Appreciation" (Droga & Humphries, 2003, p. 64). In the following section, we are going to examine the evaluations in the two reviews from the above 3 categories (details see appendix B).

Affect means words and phrases expressing feelings (p. 65). In reviews, Affect may be used to stimulate an emotional response from readers. By examining the two reviews, we have found no affect expressions within review B. This might be because, as we have addressed above, it emphasizes educational domain of this show instead of sharing emotional experience either from the writer herself or the stories. What the writer needs is the audience's response to the inappropriateness of the show towards young teens instead of somewhat emotional resonance. On the contrary, some vocabulary describing the writer's positive affect are found in review A (e.g. "surprised", "favorite", "love", "excited", and "impress"), which from another aspect indicates that review A is more personal and positive than review B.

"Expressions of Judgment are used to assess (positively or negatively) what people do, say or believe according to values of particular institutions" and "they are less obviously subjective compared with Affect" (Droga & Humphries, 2003, p.68). In review, Judgment is usually used to evaluate the characters' attitudes and behavior. Review A shows its writer's positive Judgment both directly and indirectly through using evaluative expressions. Both "true standouts" and "always nominated for the Emmy awards" are used to describe actresses' excellent acting skills, though the second one is rather indirect. The expression "neurotic", "robotic", and "having an affair with her gardener" seem neutral or negative but with the explanation of "believable" and "unique", they are relatively positive under the reviewer's perception. Review B contains more indirect Judgment expressions concerning characters' behavior (e.g. "had affairs", "covered up crimes", "addicted to drugs and alcohol", "lied" "manipulated"...). Different from review A, "had affairs" on this occasion is regarded as a negative evaluation because the writer uses "inappropriate" depicting what characters do and obviously those behaviors are not suitable for kids and teens. Although there are words showing writer's positive attitude occasionally appearing in this review, such as "strong", "clearly care about", it doesn't change the reviewer's stance that this TV series are not suitable for young teens.

Appreciation is often used in reviews, too. For reviews of films or TV shows, it usually focuses on the evaluations of the artworks (Droga & Humphries, 2003). But as what we have addressed in our essay in the part of ideational meaning analysis, review B focuses more on the characters' behaviors which are not suitable for young teens. Appreciation is rare in this review. Compared with review B, review A have more Appreciation expressions which are quite positive towards the writing, the acting and storylines of each season. Appreciation vocabulary covers the three categories of "reaction", "composition", and "valuation" (see appendix C).

From the analysis of evaluations in the two reviews, we may see clearly that review A holds a positive view to the show of *Desperate Housewives*, but review B has the contrary. The two reviewers take consistently their respective stance through using supportive language features. What review B focuses on is Judgment on those characters' inappropriate behavior for the young people whereas review A centers on the writer's positive personal affect, judgment, and appreciation on the show.

V. CONCLUSION

After comparing the ideational meanings and interpersonal meanings of review A with those of review B, we may find that the topic of review A centers on the introduction of the TV series by using everyday language while the topic of review B focuses on the analysis of this TV series by using more specialized language. Besides, the writer of review A shows his positive attitude by choosing simple relational process and positive participants, and the writer of review B takes a negative attitude by choosing wide range of processes and negative participants. Pronoun use indicates the two reviewers take different stance towards the show. Review A is more personal with the use of 1st pronouns while review B seems less subjective with no personal emotions being involved. Writers' attitudes and positions are more revealed in the expressions of Affect, Judgment, and Appreciation. The writer of review A shows his emotional experience both in direct and indirect way, while the writer of review B focuses on the educational domain and contains more indirect expressions in Judgment. What is more, more appreciation expressions are found in review A to show the writer's positive attitude.

All the above indicates that writers utilize various language choices and linguistic features to suggest their contexts, readership, and more importantly, their views and stance. Therefore, through the analysis of the two reviews, we hope to

give people (particularly students) some enlightenment on using appropriate language devices in writing for achieving their rhetorical goals. Furthermore, when we read, we may attempt to detecting writers' purposes and stance (hidden or explicit) and critically form our own perception of evaluations on certain people or things.

However, due to the time and space limit, we could only take two texts as the samples of analysis in our essay. Perhaps it is not representative enough for generating our findings with such a small sample size as it is agreed among researchers that anything to be examined less than 10 may not be representative. Nonetheless, we hopefully take the analysis as an exploratory job and we believe if more time were allowed, we would have tried more samples to do the analysis and thus make the work more satisfying.

APPENDIX A

Review A: <http://www.tv.com/shows/desperate-housewives/reviews/>

Who would have thought that the lives of a bunch of suburban housewives would be that interesting? I sure as hell didn't. Desperate Housewives definitely surprised me. At first, I thought the show would be some female soapy drama but I was wrong. It's one of the most wonderful shows I've ever seen.

First of all, the writing is brilliant and amazing. The storylines are well-written and remarkable. Every season there's a mystery that is resolved during the course of the season. Even though some storylines are repeated, the show never gets stale. Some people say that the show got weak after the time jump but I don't think so. I believe the show can reinvigorate itself which is an important quality.

Also, the acting is superb and outstanding. Felicity Huffman and Marcia Cross are true standouts. It's no surprise that they are pretty much always nominated for the Emmy awards.

Moreover, the characters are totally believable and unique. Susan is a neurotic single mother looking for love. Lynette is a stay-at-home mother that is struggling to raise her kids. Bree is a robotic housewives whose family is falling apart. Last but not least there's Gabby, a former model married to a businessman and having an affair with her gardener.

The first season is absolutely epic and genius. Definitely my favorite season of all.

The second season is a great season but it could have been a bit better. It's number 3 on my list.

The third season is decent but I didn't really care for the mystery since it was a little predictable. It's number 4 on my list.

The fourth season is superb with an intriguing mystery and a few interesting twists. It's number 2 on my list.

The fifth season is a good season but it wasn't really up to the standards of the other seasons. It's my least favorite season of all.

Finally, the sixth season is slightly better than season 5 but it is still not as good as the first four seasons. So, it's number 5 on my list.

Another thing that I love about this show is Mary Alice's voiceovers at the beginning and ending of each episode. They are truly magnificent.

Furthermore, I'm excited about season 7 since Vanessa Williams is joining the cast and Mark Moses has returned to Wisteria Lane.

To sum up, I believe that Desperate Housewives is one of the most smart and innovative shows of the decade. I'm sure it will continue to impress me for many years to come.

Review B: <http://www.common sense media.org/tv-reviews/desperate-housewives>

What parents need to know

Parents need to know that this tongue-in-cheek soap opera's focus on adult characters and situations makes it inappropriate for young kids and teens. Characters (adults and teens alike) have had affairs, covered up crimes, been addicted to drugs and alcohol, lied, and manipulated other characters in just about every imaginable way. There are plenty of sexy scenes (though no actual nudity) and banter, as well as over-the-top storylines involving violence and betrayal. Although older teens and adults will understand that many of the storylines are presented in a humorous way, younger children may not be able to differentiate between parody and drama -- yet another reason to make this one adults-only.

• Positive messages

The show plays up many of the typical soap opera characteristics -- betrayal, dark secrets, revenge, manipulation -- but it does so with humor, bringing a light touch to what otherwise would be pure melodrama. Consequently, while no one viewing this show is going to take away positive lessons in behavior or relationship management, they also won't be weighed down with heavy drama. And, in the end, the show does center on strong friendships and family ties.

• Positive role models

Although the ladies clearly care about each other and their families, the way they behave -- manipulating each other, trading on their sex appeal, deceiving people they love -- doesn't exactly make them candidates for role model of the year. But they do have strong friendships and family relationships ... all of which are frequently tested but almost always stand up to even the hardest challenges.

• Violence

The show's narrator is a woman who killed herself in the series' very first episode. Other storylines have included murder, assault, fatal accidents, crashes, fights, gun threats/shots, arson, and more, but there's rarely blood.

- Sex

Lots of skimpy outfits and making out/foreplay; several scenes in which lovemaking is implied (but no sensitive body parts shown). One of the housewives was involved in an affair with a teenager; others have also strayed or been tempted to. One main character cleaned house wearing lingerie while being broadcast on the Web. Some teen sex (and consequent pregnancy).

- Language

Mostly words like "damn" and "hell", with the occasional "ass" or "bitch."

- Consumerism

Regular but not obvious product placements from Buick, KFC, Halston, etc.

- Drinking, drugs, & smoking

The ladies frequently get together for wine and/or margaritas; most of them have gotten tipsy (or more) a few times over the course of the show's run, and Bree has struggled with being an alcoholic. Also some teen drinking and drug use. One character was addicted to her kids' medication for awhile.

What's the story?

The highly addictive, Emmy-winning *DESPERATE HOUSEWIVES* centers on the women of Wisteria Lane and their struggles to cope with suburban life. Narrated by the main characters' friend Mary Alice (Brenda Strong) -- who killed herself in the show's first episode -- the story follows the *many* twists and turns in the lives of Susan (Teri Hatcher), Bree (Marcia Cross), Lynette (Felicity Huffman), and Gaby (Eva Longoria). Amid the standard soap opera plot elements (affairs, addictions, cover-ups), each season features a central mystery that ends up impacting most of the characters and their families.

Is it any good?

The show's stars give great comedic performances, and there are plenty of outrageous moments (klutzy Susan getting covered in cremated ashes, for example). Something positive can also be gleaned from the women's friendships with one another and from the show's examination -- however extreme -- of the complicated lives that women lead.

But it should be stressed that this is adult fare. In the first season alone, viewers were treated to Gabrielle's sexual relationship with a minor, Lynette's dependence on Ritalin, Bree's husband's S&M fetish, a naked nanny, a suicide, a hit-and-run with no consequences, and a grizzly strangulation. And things have only gotten more complicated -- and eyebrow-raising -- since.

APPENDIX B

Main processes analysis of Review A:

Thematized participants	Process	Other participants
1. The lives of a bunch of suburban housewives	would be	that interesting.
2. It	is	one of the most wonderful shows I've ever seen.
3. The writing	is	brilliant and amazing.
4. The storylines	are	well-written and remarkable.
5. The show	never gets	Stale.
6. Felicity Huffman and Marcia Cross	are	true standouts.
7. It	is	no surprise that they are pretty much always nominated for the Emmy awards.
8. The characters	are	totally believable and unique.
9. Susan	is	a neurotic single mother looking for love.
10. Lynette	is	a stay-at-home mother that is struggling to raise her kids.
11. Bree	is	a robotic housewife whose family is falling apart.
12. There	is	Gabby, a former model married to a businessman and having an affair with her gardener.
13. The first season	is	absolutely epic and genius.
14. The second season	is	a great season.
15. The third season	is	decent.
16. The fourth season	is	superb with an intriguing mystery and a few interesting twists.
17. The fifth season	is	a good season.
18. The sixth season	is	slightly better than season 5.
19. Another thing that I love about this show	is	Mary Alice's voiceovers.
20. They	are	truly magnificent.
21. <i>Desperate Housewives</i>	is	one of the most smart and innovative shows of the decade.

Main processes analysis of Review B:

Circumstances	Thematized participants	Process	Other participants	Circumstances
	1. Parents	need to know	that this tongue-in-cheek soap opera's focus on adult characters.	and
	situations	makes	it inappropriate	for young kids and teens.
	2. Characters (adults and teens alike)	have had	affairs,	
		covered up	crimes,	
		been addicted to	drugs and alcohol,	
		lied,		
		and manipulated	other characters	in just about every imaginable way.
	3. There	are	plenty of sexy scenes	(though no actual nudity) and
			banter,	as well as
			over-the-top storylines involving violence and betrayal.	
4. Although older teens and adults will understand that many of the storylines are presented in a humorous way,	younger children	may not be able to differentiate	between parody and drama	-- yet another reason to make this one adults-only.
	5. The show	plays up	many of the typical soap opera characteristics -- betrayal, dark secrets, revenge, manipulation	-- but it does so with humor, bringing a light touch to what otherwise would be pure melodrama
	6. The show's narrator	is	a woman who killed herself	in the series' very first episode.
	7. Other storylines	have included	murder, assault, fatal accidents, crashes, fights, gun threats/shots, arson, and more,	but there's rarely blood.
	8. (There)	(are)	Lots of skimpy outfits and making out/foreplay;	
			several scenes	in which lovemaking is implied (but no sensitive body parts shown).
	9. One of the housewives	was involved in	an affair with a teenager;	
	others	have also strayed or been tempted to.		
	10. One main character	cleaned	house	wearing lingerie while being broadcast on the Web.
	11. (There)	(are)	Some teen sex (and consequent pregnancy).	
	12. (There)	(are)	Mostly words like "damn" and "hell",	with the occasional "ass" or "bitch."
	13. The ladies	frequently get together for	wine and/or margaritas;	
	most of them	have gotten	tipsy (or more)	a few times over the course of the show's run, and
	Bree	has struggled with	being an alcoholic.	
	14. (There)	(are)	Also some teen drinking and drug use.	
	15. One character	was addicted to	her kids' medication	for a while.
	16. The highly addictive, Emmy-winning DESPERATE HOUSEWIVES	centers on	the women of Wisteria Lane and their struggles to cope with suburban life.	
17. Amid the standard soap opera plot elements (affairs, addictions, cover-ups),	each season	features	a central mystery that ends up impacting most of the characters and their families.	

APPENDIX C

Evaluation vocabulary in the two reviews

Evaluations in reviews	Review A		Review B	
	Positive	negative	positive	negative
Affect	surprised; favorite; love; excited; impress		care about; love	
Judgment	believable; unique; true standouts; neurotic; robotic; having an affair		strong	had affairs; covered up crimes; addicted to drugs and alcohol, lied; manipulated; imaginable; sexy scenes; banter; violence; betrayal; typical soap opera; deceiving; murder; assault; fatal accidents; crashes; fights; gun threats/shots...
Appreciation	(Reaction): great; interesting; superb; good; intriguing	predictable; it could have been better; it wasn't really up to the standards... not as good as...	highly addictive; great	inappropriate;
	(Composition): brilliant; amazing; well-written; remarkable;			
	(Valuation): wonderful; outstanding; decent; truly magnificent; smart; innovative		Emmy-winning; outrageous; humorous	Tongue-in-cheek; extreme

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Teachers' Feedback and Students' Motivation in English for General and Specific Purposes Courses in Iran

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Abstract—The problematic realm of ESP needs to be evaluated as any other instructional process which we hope to improve. This study investigates the students' attitude towards such courses and their teachers' views concerning their classes. The literature suggested that most of the teachers and students were dissatisfied with the students' progress in specific English courses. Data was collected by interest and motivation survey and feedback form. To carry out the study, 18 university teachers offered feedback on different aspects of their own courses. The data was analyzed qualitatively using means and percentage analysis. The survey proved that the total motivation and interest of EGP students were significantly higher than ESP students participating in the study. The results may attribute to several factors including the learning environment, the teachers, the techniques, and the material. In addition, the feedback forms show discrepancy between the views of EGP teachers and ESP teachers in some areas including the material effectiveness and students' interest.

Index Terms—teacher feedback, students' interest, ESP students, EGP students

I. INTRODUCTION

A. *ESP versus EGP Teachers*

As observed in a descriptive study by MajidAhmadi (2008) from Shaheed Beheshti Medical University, the students of ESP classes believed that in teaching ESP courses, LD (Language Department) teachers are more qualified than discipline-specialist teachers.

However, the question of what to teach for the course makes ESP different from EFL; needs and wants of the students decide what methodology is suitable for the course. John and Dudley Evans (1991, p.305) maintain that, "ESP requires methodologies that are specialized or unique"; the uniqueness is determined by the study or job requirements.

The difference which makes ESP different from EGP from every point of view is concerned with the analysis of the needs of the students. What is needed is an essential component of the course which decides the entire design of the course.

Theoretically speaking, ESP is a kind of discipline which consists of three realms of knowledge: language, pedagogy, and content which include the students' areas of interest. Considering the bulk of studies on ESP, not many studies have dealt with the pedagogical issues among which is whose territory of activity it is.

A lot of writers (Jordan, 1989; Hutchinson and Waters, 1993; Robinson, 1991; Hyland, 2006; Paltridge and Starfield, 2013) agree that ESP teachers should have the qualities of EFL teachers as well as the knowledge of ESP. In order to avoid the misinterpretations of what ESP means, Hutchinson and Waters (1993) define ESP instruction with three key arguments;

- The purpose of an ESP course is not the instruction of a specific variety and form of English. There are some contextual features which are learned in the target context by language use.
- The learning of technical words and specific grammar is not solely called ESP. Grammar and vocabulary which are surface structures do not lead to communication.
- ESP like other kinds of language teaching is dependent on learning principles. So the processes of learning for both ELT and ESP are similar. Therefore, teaching of ESP does not need any special methodology.

B. *Problematic Areas in ESP Program*

One serious problem for EGP and ESP in Iran lies in the fact that there is not an adequate supply of teachers. There are many teachers teaching or administering ESP who have not received any special training. The status quo in Iranian

universities is much like what Robinson (1980, p. 75) reports of an ESP seminar in 1978 in Manila: "Most participants...were university teachers who had found themselves thrust, willy-nilly, into ESP and service-English programs in their institutions."

According to Majid Hayati (2008) the problems of ESP programs in Iran pertain to three major factors: Teacher, Time schedule, and Textbook. Concerning the first factor, he believes that either the knowledgeable teachers should be granted enough opportunities (about 100 hours) to learn more English or the present ESP teachers should be guided to learn more technical words at a higher level than the textbooks. With regard to this factor he attaches the problem of Iranian ESP/EAP teachers mostly to their knowledge of the subject. Moreover, he believes different techniques should be handled to provide a communicative setting.

Zohreh Eslami (2010, Teachers' voice vs. students' voice) in her article conducted a systematic needs analysis from both students and teachers perspective. The purpose of her study was to discover the problematic areas in EAP program in different academic fields. The results of her survey showed discrepancy between perceptions of EAP learners in different academic fields. The findings of her study support the fact that the students greatly need to enhance their general proficiency in English. Eslami (2010) opined that "It is possible that teachers' perception of students' low English language proficiency and low motivation leads to the teachers' lower use of student-centered activities" (p. 7).

Despite the importance of English in higher levels of education, academics in Iran usually do not pay attention to the quality and efficacy of English language courses. In fact, the EGP and ESP courses in universities of Iran are not quite fruitful due to several shortcomings ranging from outdated methods of teaching to inappropriate textbooks and lack of pedagogically expert teachers and practitioners instructing the EGP and ESP courses. (Atai, 2002, Hayati, 2008, Eslami, 2010)

Mike Guest (2010) criticizes most faculty members in Japan on the ground that they are not familiar with discourse of English. According to him, Japanese faculty members think that they are teachers of terminology. So their role should cover beyond what they think of.

Another researcher in the field, Eric Skier (2010) suggests team teaching to improve one-dimensional teachers' courses. As he observed, even bilingual ESP teachers were unwilling to teach language skills. So what makes an ideal ESP class is one with an English teacher helping a content specialist. But the problem is that no curriculum officially supports such approach of teaching.

Based on the evaluative nature of the study and the issues under analysis in the research, the following questions will be addressed:

- 1- Does attending EGP and ESP classes appear motivating and interesting to the students?
- 2- What are the visions of EGP vs. ESP teachers of an optimal EGP/ESP course?

Based on the second question the following null hypothesis is formulated:

- There is no significant difference between the motivation and interest of the two groups of students attending EGP classes and ESP classes.

C. *Teachers Effectiveness*

Effective teachers highly influence the interest and motivation of their students. Scholars and researchers each suggested a set of values and characteristics to define an effective teacher. So in order to judge teacher effectiveness, an evaluator should take as much values as he can into account. Accordingly, Papanastasiou pointed out that "that no single teacher attribute or characteristic is adequate to define an effective teacher" (p. 6).

Tim Markley (2004) in his argumentative study defines an effective teacher as one who is familiar with the curriculum, teaches different students differently according to various approaches, and significantly adds to student's achievement.

Specifically speaking, an ESP practitioner should have the qualities of an EGP teacher. In addition, he needs to be familiar with syllabus design, needs analysis, material adaptation and writing (Hutchinson and Waters, 1993).

D. *Evaluation of Students' Motivation and Self-efficacy*

A considerable number of studies have addressed motivation either directly or indirectly. In 2005, Dornyei reported that during a decade about 100 researches were published.

According to Ellis (2008), studies on motivation, in 1970s and 1980s, were first focused on Gardner's and Lambert's (1972) integrative motivation. In the next decade, it shifted to cognitive oriented aspects of motivation. Among them, there exist studies by Crookes and Schmidt (1991) and Williams and Burden (1997), which investigated the classroom learning motivation. More recently, the dynamic role of motivation in language learning has been much explored.

Albert Bandura's (1986&1997) theory of self-efficacy has important implications with regard to motivation. To support Bandura, Schunk (2003) believes that perceived self-efficacy or students' personal beliefs about their capabilities to learn or perform behaviors at designated levels, plays an important role in their motivation and learning. Zimmerman (1997) adds that students' perceived self-efficacy influenced their skills acquisition both directly and indirectly by highlighting their persistence. Motivation is directly related to self-efficacy in that if someone perceives him/herself as able to handle a situation (high self-efficacy), s/he will be more motivated to work hard at successfully perform in that situation. Pajares (1997) noted that self-efficacy could influence choices made, efforts expended and perseverance executed when confronted with obstacles, stress and anxiety. Specifically, students who had high

self-efficacy beliefs were persistent when faced with challenges and were more successful in academic achievement (Schunk, 1990; Wang & Pape, 2007). Furthermore, Multon, Brown and Lent's (1991) meta-analysis of researcher studies showed a positive relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and academic achievements (Zare and Davoudi, 2011).

An effective teacher can surely motivate the students and increase their interest in the course. Eggleton (2007) in his article claims that motivation is the key to effective teaching. After discussing some features of motivation, he explains how teacher personality and style lead to motivation. Personality is the one of the aspect of motivation that is difficult to be changed. Some personality features of teachers may be motivating to the students. Among them are teachers' love, kindness, concern, sense of humor and big expectation (Cotrell, 1987; Mathews, 1988; Vasquez, 1988; Meek, 1989; cited in Eggleton, 2007).

Eggleton (2007) also maintains that appropriate tasks and interaction can facilitate motivation and learning. Entertainment and fun are not sufficient enough to make a class motivating. The teacher should be able to use various techniques of teaching such as cooperative learning, teacher-student interaction, student-student interaction, competition and problem solving tasks.

One more issue that facilitates motivation is learning atmosphere (Eggleton, 2007). Some motivating factors that help to establish class environment more motivating include teacher discipline, respect and use of routine steps in lesson plans (Johnson, 1982; Mathews, 1988; cited in Eggleton, 2007).

A study by Connell and Wellborn (1991, cited in Amorose and Horn, 2000) shows that some aspects of teachers' attitude can influence students' intrinsic motivation facilitating learning.

Niemiec and Ryan (2009) review that plenty of empirical researches proved the positive correlation between motivation and involvement in high quality learning. They implied that teachers' consideration of learners' psychological needs are conducive to better academic learning and autonomous performance.

II. METHOD

Because of the qualitative nature of the study, survey was the most appropriate way to collect the data.

A. Participants

The University of Isfahan was considered as the boundary of the research. The study is divided into two phases. Since students comprise one great portion of the EGP/ESP courses, several variables regarding ESP/EGP students' motivation in these courses have been measured using a survey questionnaire (Motivation and Interest Survey, 2008)

In the second phase of the study, the teacher feedback forms adapted in this study were either delivered or emailed to 34 ESP and EGP teachers of the university. However, just 6 ESP and 12 EGP teachers responded at last.

B. Instrumentations

1. The Motivation and Interest Questionnaire

The motivation and Interest Questionnaire (University of Sydney's project) is one of the latest questionnaires measuring the students' interest and motivation towards the course. The 37-item questionnaire (presented in Appendix II) measures seven factors including:

I. Student's Interest (four items): It addresses the interest that students show in learning and following the course.

II. Intrinsic Goal Orientation (four items): It refers to motivation of a person that mainly originates from internal reasons such as enjoyment and fun (Chyung, 2010).

III. Extrinsic Goal Orientation (four items): It describes motivation of a person that mainly stems from external reasons such as improving social rank and money (Chyung, 2010).

IV. Self Efficacy (eight items): It refers to trust in your ability "to organize and execute the courses of action required managing prospective situations" (Bandura, 1995, p. 2).

V. Task Value (six items): It deals with the prediction honor after achieving a success (Atkinson, 1964)

VI. Profession Oriented (five items): It refers to orientations in the learners that justifies their interests in a job they are planning to choose.

VII. Learning Environment Stimulation (six items)

The student participant of this phase of study were requested to indicate their responses on a five point Likert scale ranging from (Strongly disagree) to (Strongly agree).

The researcher translated the questionnaire to Persian. To further validate the adapted instrument to match the purposes of the study, a pilot study was run and the Cronbach's Alpha reliability of the questionnaire (0.82) was examined.

2. Teacher Feedback Form

In TEFL, when someone talks about the feedback almost all think of corrective feedback or else the feedback given by the students about their learning experience. Hardly does anyone consider the importance of the views of teachers about the course themselves have been teaching or the teachers' self assessment.

The final Teacher Feedback Form (presented in Appendix IV) applied in this study was partially adapted by referring to Macer's Teacher Feedback Form (2006).

Following that, in order to test the material to check the content validity a pilot study was conducted. The reliability coefficient of the feedback form was 0.81. The reliability results of the form show that it was reliable enough to be used as an instrument for the actual study.

Therefore, the instrument was piloted subsequently by two EFL professors, two ESP teachers and two EGP teachers. Firstly, the researcher consulted with the professors on the first draft of the form. Based on which some of the items were removed completely since they did not address the research questions and they did not particularly suit the setting and participants of the study. Furthermore one item was added to investigate the favorite methodology proposed by the teachers. After consulting EGP/ESP teachers, two more items concerning teaching experience and the effectiveness of ESP/EGP courses were then added to the form.

Below are the main sections of the teacher feedback form:

Part 1: Course Material: this part reflects the views of the ESP/EGP practitioners about the effectiveness of the material used in their own classroom.

Part 2: Classroom activities and tasks: the second part shows the views of ESP/EGP practitioners about their students' interest in course tasks.

Part 3: Open ended questions: this part investigates teacher's techniques and background information.

The first two parts comprised of 11 Likert type statements. Each of them had 7 response options including 1. SD (Strongly Disagree), 2. D (Disagree), 3. PD (Partially Disagree), 4. NA (Not Applicable), 5. PA (Partially Agree), 6. A (Agree), 7. SA (Strongly Agree)

The responses of the teachers in the third part were reflected for further justification of the two previous sections.

C. Procedure

In order to find optimal EGP/ ESP courses, EGP and ESP practitioners are requested to offer feedback. The instruments were checked by the pilot group including 2 EFL professors, 2 ESP teachers and 2 EGP teachers.

ESP and EGP teachers are then invited to reflect their feedback on a feedback form. The researcher explained the instructions of the feedback form to the teachers before submitting the form to them. The feedback of the teachers is compared against each other to supply answer to the second question.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In order to address the first question, a questionnaire designed by the University of Sydney (2008) was adapted by the researcher. The results are displayed in table 4.2.

TABLE 3.1.
MOTIVATION AND INTEREST QUESTIONNAIRE

Variables	EGP		ESP	
	(Mean+/-SD)	(Min, Max)	(Mean+/-SD)	(Min, Max)
Interest	67.4 +/- 15.7	(18.7, 100)	56.4 +/- 21.2	(6.2, 100)
Intrinsic goal orientation	62.3 +/- 20.9	(0, 100)	48.4 +/- 23.3	(0, 100)
Extrinsic goal orientation	68.4 +/- 17.9	(12.5, 100)	52.9 +/- 23.8	(0, 100)
Self efficacy	62.7 +/- 16.5	(12.5, 96.8)	56 +/- 19.5	(6.2, 100)
Task value	64.6 +/- 19.3	(8.3, 100)	51.4 +/- 25.7	(0, 100)
Profession oriented	72.8 +/- 16	(30, 100)	62.7 +/- 21.3	(5, 100)
Learning environment	55.7 +/- 19.6	(0, 95.8)	46.4 +/- 23.7	(0, 95)
TOTAL	64.3 +/- 12.9	(21.6, 92.5)	53.5 +/- 17.7	(4.7, 87.8)

As the table 4.2 shows total motivation and interest of EGP students were significantly higher than ESP students participating in the study (sig.= .000<.05). The overall mean score of EGP students is 64.3 while total mean score of the ESP students is 53.5. Therefore, EGP students showed to be more motivated than ESP students. The results may attribute to several factors including the learning environment, the teachers, the techniques, and the material. It is interesting that the mean score of the ESP students were higher than that of ESP students in all subsections including; a. interest (67.4 <56.4), b. intrinsic goal orientation (62.3 <48.4), c. Extrinsic goal orientation (68.4 < 52.9), d. Self efficacy (62.7 < 56), e. Task value (64.6 < 51.4), f. Profession oriented (72.8 < 62.7), g. Learning environment (55.7 < 46.4). Figure 4.2 further displays the results.

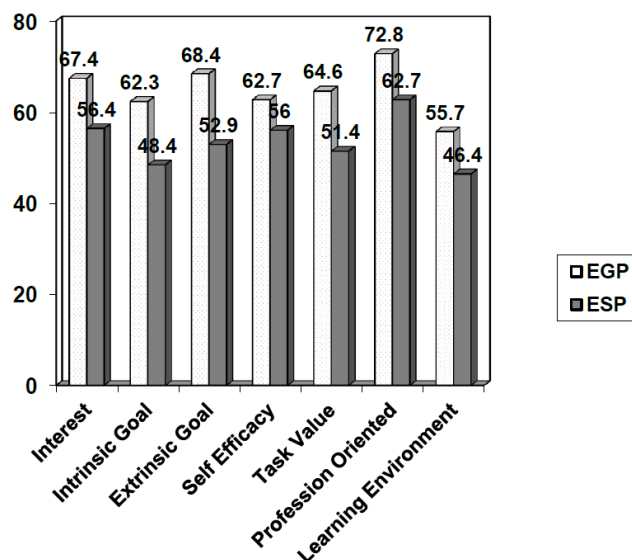


Figure 3.1. Motivation and Interest Questionnaire

To address the second question of the article the teacher feedback forms consisting of 18 items were conducted with 7 items on material of the course, 4 items on the students' interest in classroom activities. The first 11 items are seven point Likert scale statements but the other 7 items of the feedback form are open ended questions about techniques, methods and educational aids teachers often use. Teachers were requested to comment on the seven open ended questions provided at the end of the survey.

The descriptive statistics of 11 seven point Likert-scale questions concerning the material effectiveness and student's interest in course tasks are separately shown in table below.

TABLE 3.2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR TEACHERS FEEDBACK

Variables	EGP		ESP	
	(Mean+/-SD)	(Min, Max)	(Mean+/-SD)	(Min, Max)
Material effectiveness	59.1+/- 15.4	(26.1, 80.9)	72.2 +/- 10.1	(54.7, 85.7)
Student interest in tasks	57.6 +/- 20.5	(25, 83.3)	79.1 +/- 13.1	(62.5, 95.8)

The feedback of EGP teachers was significantly different from ESP teachers regarding the material effectiveness (sig. = .04). It means that lower percentage of EGP teachers (59.1 < 72.2) think that the materials they use are effective. Accordingly, ESP teachers are more optimistic about the material they use in their own classes. So the majority of ESP practitioners (72) percent trust in the effectiveness of the course material. Although about 59 percent of the EGP teachers believe in the effectiveness of the textbooks they are offered to use, almost 41 percent of them do not think that the course books they teach could be of high value to the students.

In addition, the views of ESP teachers concerning their students' interest in classroom activities varies significantly from those of EGP teachers (sig. = .03). So EGP teachers have a less positive view towards their own students' interest in class activity (57.6 < 79.1).

In the following, there are the answers to the open ended questions provided by the two groups of teachers.

1st Question: How many years have you been teaching this course?

Table 4.4 shows the distribution of the teachers' teaching experience in University of Isfahan.

TABLE 3.3.
DISTRIBUTION OF ESP/EGP TEACHERS' EXPERIENCE

Courses	Up to 5 years	6 to 15 years
EGP	10 83.33%	2 16.67%
ESP	1 16.67%	5 83.33%

On the one hand, as the tables 4.4 shows in percent just about 16.67 percent of ELT teachers have more than 5 years of experience. While the majority of them, about 83 percent, have up to 5 years experience. On the other hand, about 83.33 percent of ESP teachers have 7 to 15 years of experience. The statistics show that ESP courses are usually taught by experienced tenured teachers while less experience and usually PHD candidates are devoted to the instruction of EGP courses.

2nd Question: How much do you think your teaching is motivating?

The answers provided by EGP teachers are in the following

- "I did my best to motivate my students but it didn't work."
- "60 percent"
- "I think my classroom is motivating because of interesting discussions."
- "I do my best to make the course as motivating as possible (if the context lends support!)"
- "Somehow, I try to motivate them by making them think of its importance for their future."
- "I did my best to get the students motivated but there is a large variance between the students."
- "Highly motivating"
- "Around 50%"
- "My classes are always motivating but students' lack of proficiency is an obstacle."
- "It should be asked from my students not me, I do my best to relate class materials to real life and motivate students."

On the other hand, ESP teachers believe that:

- "It depends on the comprehension of the students. For good students it is 100% motivating. But for poor students not at all. And others in between"
- "No idea"
- "A lot"
- "I think it can motivate students to continue their studies in the field of linguistics."
- "80%"
- "To some extent"

Regarding the second question the answers by EGP teachers can be categorized into four statements: (I) some are not sure about their students motivation. (II) Some believe that the motivation is low because of the books, context, and learners' lack of proficiency. (III) Some say they did their best to motivate their learners but some are motivated and some not. (IV) A few of EGP teachers claim that their classes are motivating.

On the other hand, ESP teachers' answers can be classified in three generalizations: (I) some think their classes are motivating a lot. (II) a few of them had no idea (III) some believe their classes are just motivating to good students.

3rd Question: How much of the total class time was used for the course material?

ESP/EGP teachers' answers are summarized in the table 4.5.

TABLE 3.4.
CLASS TIME DEVOTED TO MATERIAL IN PERCENT

	Up to 50 percent	Above 50 percent
EGP teachers	0	10
ESP teachers	1	5

The results of the inquiry imply that most of ESP and EGP teachers devoted majority of the class time to the coverage of the course material. Among the ESP teachers, just one of them claimed that he used less than 50 percent of class time to cover the material. All the EGP teachers who participated in the study declared to use above 50 percent of their class time to teach the material.

Therefore, course material is an inseparable part of every English course in the university. One can conclude that the ineffectiveness of the material would certainly lead to substandard courses. Some deficient Iranian textbooks and their failure to attract the attention of students have been the subject of numerous studies (Azizifar, 2009; Rahimi and Nabilou, 2009; Darani, 2013).

4th Question: Do you think this course provides good learning experience for students?

The views of two groups of on this question are divided below.

TABLE 3.5.
VIEWS ABOUT EFFECTIVENESS OF LEARNING EXPERIENCE

	Yes	No	Not Sure
EGP teachers	7	2	1
ESP teachers	5	0	1

The above table shows that both groups of teachers had a positive view toward the learning experience their courses may provide. Among the EGP teachers just 2 of them think that their courses were incapable of providing an effective learning experience while none of ESP teachers had a negative view towards their own courses in the mentioned aspect. In addition, one of the ESP teachers believed that the judgment on this issue depends on students.

5th Question: What types of educational aids did you use? Please circle all those used in the class: charts, role-play, video, flash cards, computer, projector, overhead projector, cassette, CD, DVD, guest speaker, field trip and others

The answer to this question would shed light on the application of useful tasks such as role play and the use of technology to aid the instruction. Half of the EGP teachers said that they used none of the educational aids. One of them commented that "I use nothing other than a whiteboard and a marker". Another teacher has the same opinion. She justifies her idea by asserting that "Regarding the time and the place of teaching, no especial equipment was used. I use

just the book and the marker!” Other EGP teachers claimed to use role play, pair work, charts and computer. None of them used computer, CD, DVD and overhead projector.

Although two of ESP teachers confirmed that they used no educational aid, some of them used at least one educational aid. Unlike EGP teachers, among the aids ESP teachers mentioned were CD, DVD, computer, photocopies of text material and projector.

The importance of educational and visual aids in learning has been the subject of several researches. For instance, King (2002) concluded that DVD movies used as class materials intrinsically motivate students and they introduce further options to teachers.

6th Question: How much do you think ESP/ EGP courses would be effective for students?

In response to this question EGP teachers mostly used conditional sentences. They showed their doubts on the effectiveness of such courses in the current situation. Their views are presented in the following;

- “Could be effective provided that the students have adequate knowledge of English however it wasn’t the case in my class.”
- “It would be effective provided that the course is appropriate and tasks have been chosen according to the context and situation of their fields.”
- “They can be very effective if relevant context is presented.”
- “It can be effective if the instructors had the option to choose the material and students were homogenous.”
- “Certainly ESP/EGP are both useful and effective in a student’s educational life, but it is up to the student to take the opportunity and advantage or not.”
- “I highly recommend EGP/ESP courses”.
- “They are related to students’ majors.”

“It is a great deal effective IF it has an appropriate book or pamphlet concerning students’ goals.”

The quoted views all have some points in common including inadequacy of students’ knowledge, irrelevancy of context, inappropriateness of materials and heterogeneity of students. Accordingly, the solution to these problems may lead to effectiveness of English course in the university.

On the other hand, the majority of ESP teachers found EGP/ESP courses in the university to be of high value. Their views are briefly written;

- To some extent
- A lot
- Very much
- Quite a bit
- Learning scientific/ professional material can be of help to students, since they need to be updated.
- It is highly effective for active students and relatively effective for those who do not have good background information.

In general, ESP teachers did not discuss the conditions under which these courses can be useful. They just sufficed to the conclusion that these courses are highly effective.

7th Question: What method/techniques do you suggest for teaching this course? Why?

Here are EGP teachers’ responses in brief;

- Task based plus translation because of using tasks and their L1
- For the Iran’s context, GTM
- GTM because of their low level
- No suggestion
- Translation works the best with my students because they have no communicational skills whatsoever.
- GTM, because it is more applicable in Iranian system of teaching.
- TBLT with some role plays, tasks related to the field and with a focus on various skills.
- Communicative approach could be a good option as it creates a situation where language learners are able to use language, have an interaction with either their instructor or their peers, and receive a feedback from both of these groups.
- Communicative, because they need speaking as well as listening.
- In my idea, task-based would be a good method for this since students are actively involved in the process of learning. Also, playing games is perfect for memorizing special vocabularies.

Considering the seventh question, the views of EGP teachers can be divided into two visions; first, some strongly believe in the efficiency of Translation and Grammar translation Method(GTM), second, others suggest communicative approaches in general and TBLT in particular. Those who support GTM seek to justify their choice on the grounds that either the students possess no communication skills or they have limited proficiency in English.

In contrast, none of ESP teachers recommend GTM in their views. They suggested;

- Teaching scientific documents from different domains of sport and exercise sciences provided that they are at high school level
- Using materials closely related to the profession, using video clips related to the topics and having small group discussions

- Interactive discussions in addition to role playing would be nice complement to the class.
- Students participation and presentation
- Managing class like a workshop and activating students
- Communicative approach

As it stands, ESP teachers deem scientific documents, closely related materials, communication, role play and presentation to be necessary for an ideal EGP/ESP course.

While the majority of EGP teachers in the study suggest Grammar Translation Method and Audio Lingual method, ESP teachers recommended communicative approach, reading related texts and role play as effective techniques that help the students. However, both groups of teachers did not use various educational aids and innovations to improve learning and motivation of the learners. The overall data provided information on areas of weaknesses in ESP and EGP courses that need to be suitably dealt with in different faculties by policy makers and heads of the faculties and departments.

IV. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

These findings should develop our understanding of the relation between academic motivation and ESP/EGP teachers' instruction. The significantly higher motivation scores obtained by EGP students show that EGP teachers were more successful in motivating their learners. In the contrary, ESP teachers were not much successful in maintaining their learners' interest in their courses. The results are in agreement with a study by Dehghan (2012) which found the lack of motivation in ESP classes. Finally, the results are in line with surveys that implied one way to grow students intrinsic motivation is to matter their priorities in course designing and material development (Khosroshahi, 2013) while it was not the case in many of the ESP classes which still used old colorless books published by SAMT Publication.

The comparative analysis of the responses to the feedback forms showed that a significantly higher percentage of ESP teachers believed that the materials they use are highly effective. In comparison to EGP teachers, a higher percentage of ESP teachers think that their students are interested in their courses. It illustrates a common finding that content specialists have a positive view about ESP courses (Rajabi et al., 2011; Sherkatolabbasi and Mahdavi, 2012).

The results are in line with the findings of Eslami (2005) that implied administration of ESP courses should overcome fundamental limitations to become effective. He highlighted several solutions like the development of cross-discipline departments, co-operation in syllabus design and weekly lesson planning.

Practically speaking, the results may be helpful for English teachers and faculty members teaching ESP. It is suggested that EGP/ESP teachers should become aware of their areas of strengths and deficiencies. Specifically, the implications may be relevant to policy makers. It was noted that the needs of the learners should be taken into account before material development and course design. But, teacher's feedback conveyed that the priorities of students are not satisfied in many cases. Thus, necessary measures should be adopted to guarantee the motivation and interest of the learners in the courses. Finally, this kind of study is greatly relevant for PhD candidates and untenured teachers who want to gain insights into their teaching or are going to become EGP or ESP teachers.

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The Impact of Using Computer-aided Argument Mapping (CAAM) on the Improvement of Writing Achievement of Iranian Learners of English

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Abstract—In the third millennium, writing skill plays a great role in the foreign language education. Also, current advances in computer technology are affecting the ways the teachers use to develop learners' language skills. The present study investigated the effectiveness of computer-aided argument mapping (CAAM) on the improvement of writing achievement of Iranian learners of English. To this end, after administrating a language proficiency test and an essay writing test, 90 students were chosen as the participants of this study. Next, the participants were categorized randomly into three groups as control, experimental 1, and experimental 2. During the course, as the both experimental groups did their writing tasks with the CAAM software (in person/in pairs), the control group did their assignments with pen and paper. Finally, a post test of essay writing was administered for all participants. Using SPSS version 19 and *One-way ANOVA* statistical procedure, the results showed a statistically significant difference between those who received the technique of CAAM and those who wrote their assignments in traditional way. Also, there was a statistically significant difference between the participants in the both experimental groups. In other words, collaborative learning in a computer hands-on learning environment was effective on writing achievement.

Index Terms—writing and second language learning, computer-aided argument mapping

I. INTRODUCTION

The role of writing in academic settings and social interactions is becoming more and more evident in modern communities. The ability to write in an effective way is becoming increasingly important in our global community. Besides, English writing teachers are better prepared, and language programs recognize the value of second language writing competencies. In the recent years, writing in a second language has become very important as many people are using the Internet and their personal computers for a variety of purposes like personal, educational, and so on. a. In this regard, teaching writing to non-native speakers of English is an enterprise that unfolds in such a countless variety of settings and classrooms around the world and even a considerable variation in how writing is taught. Nowadays, due to the widespread use of the technology in the classrooms, it would be a great negligence to downgrade the role of writing in EFL/ESL situations or to consider it as the least important skill to be acquired.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. *The Significance of Writing in Second Language Learning*

In the process of learning a second language, writing skill is a basic communication skill. When one starts to write, his thinking and act of writing are inseparable. In fact, the act of writing has a creative function since it helps the writer find and explore what he wants to say.

In the field of second language education, almost fifty years ago, the experts saw writing as a convention for recording speech and for improving grammatical and lexical characteristics of language (Brown, 2004). Now, it is understood that writing is a unique skill with its own characteristics and conventions. Educators also fully understand the difficulty of learning to write well in any language, even in their own native language.

“The ability to write well is not a naturally acquired skill; it is usually learned or culturally transmitted as a set of practices in formal instructional settings or other environments. Writing skills must be learned through practice” (Myles, 2002). According to Brown (2004), “teachers expect their students learn to express themselves clearly with logical,

well-developed organization that accomplishes an intended purpose as well as write coherent essays with artfully chosen rhetorical and discourse devices" (p. 140).

To formulate new ideas would be a difficult task because it involves transforming of information or reworking it, which is much more complicated than writing itself. When the writer puts the concepts together, he/she engages in "a two-way interaction between continuously developing knowledge and continuously developing text" (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987, p. 12). Compared to writing in native language, writing in second language acquires proficiency in the use of the language, as well as writing strategies, techniques and skills.

Besides its significant contribution to second language acquisition (SLA), writing plays a substantial communicative role in academic contexts. Writing is an essential part of thinking and learning in school contexts, particularly in light of 21st Century demands (Johannessen, 2001). Hence, it seems if the students can present concepts and ideas through their writing, they would be more successful in academic and professional fields.

B. Technology and Second Language Writing

Time has now changed. English writing teachers are better prepared and students are more aware of the writing required in school setting. As English second language research and practices have developed, many techniques and methods have proved successful in English L2 writing classrooms:

- "Careful needs analysis to plan curriculum,
- co-operative and group work that strengthen the community of the class and offer writers authentic audiences,
- integration of language skills in class activities,
- learning style and strategy training to help students learn how to learn, and
- the use of relevant, authentic materials and tasks" (Carter & Nunan, 2001, p. 32)

The use of technology in English L2 writing courses may be the most curricular change today. Composition students regularly use word processing which has revolutionized the writing process. By advent of computer to writing task, according to recent studies, writing is not a laborious effort, but a simple and enjoyable trail (Johns, 1997). Today, with the great progress of computer technology; computers can be at the service of second language students' achievements during the learning process. Also, teachers could benefit from a well-designed computer language learning program in order to assess the students and to provide feedback to their learning needs.

In a word, computer technology also provides "the interdisciplinary and multicultural learning opportunities for students to carry out their independent studies" (Lai, 2006, p.3). Teachers understand that using computer technology and its related language learning programs can be convenient to create independent as well as collaborative learning environments and provide students with language experiences when they move through the different stages of second language acquisition (Kung, 2002). Recent studies show that students have positive attitudes toward writing with computers and less apprehension-anxiety about writing respectively (Warschauer, 1996a).

C. Computer-aided Argument Mapping

Meaningful learning results when a person consciously and explicitly links new knowledge to relevant concepts that she or he already possesses. By storing information in long-term memory in association with similar and related pieces of knowledge, we learn it meaningfully. With rote learning, on the other hand, there is "little or no integration of new knowledge with existing knowledge" one already knows (Novak, 2002, p.553). Generally, in order to have a meaningful learning, the learner should have prior knowledge, the utilizing material should be meaningful by itself, and the learner should decide to learn meaningfully (Novak & Cañas, 2006). It seems mapping would be a tool for learners to achieve meaningful learning by connecting new concepts to already acquired knowledge. As Novak and Gowin (1984) assert, meaningful learning needs a person links new concepts with prior knowledge intentionally. As mapping support meaningful learning rather than rote learning, the information seems to be retained longer (Rafferty & Fleschner, 1993).

Argument mapping as one of the types of mapping permits the learners to "display inferential connections between propositions and contentions, and to evaluate them in terms of validity of argument structure and the soundness of argument premises" (Davies, 2010, p.2). Argument mapping is concerned with "explicating the inferential structure of arguments" (Davies, 2010, p.8). Argument mapping advocates believe that argument mapping seems to be beneficial for learners, as well as teachers. According to Van Gelder (2009), mapping a complicated argument supports clarity and awareness, more accurate and complete articulation, and a better evaluation. In the classrooms, teachers can benefit from argument mapping to instruct their students to learn basic concepts, to understand argument construction, and to develop reasoning skills. Argument mapping would be an effective way to enhance general critical thinking skills, as well (Twardy, 2003).

Computer-aided argument mappings (CAAM) are instructional programs which aim to improve thinking by providing an easy way to diagram reasoning on any topic. *Rationale*, as one of these programs helps the users to have better thinking and reasoning. Mapping arguments in this way helps to have a fully diagrammatic refined conception of reasoning in the mind without using a process of drafting and revision. In other words, the diagrammatically clear reasoning which is prepared in advance assists the users to recognize gaps, errors, unknown facts, and so on for prompting reformulation.

According to Davies (2010), in CAAM, “arguments are understood in the philosopher’s sense of statements (premises) joined together to result in claims (conclusions). At the first (top) level of the argument there is the contention. This is followed by a supporting claim (under the link word *because*) and an objection (under the link word *but*). These are, in turn, supported by more claims of support or objection (which become rebuttals when they are objections to objections). Finally, basis boxes which provide defense for the terminal claims are provided at the end of the argument tree. Objections and rebuttals to objections can be added at any point in the map (in different colors for easier visual identification). The *basis* boxes at the terminal points of the argument also require evidence in place of the brackets provided. Some evidence has been provided like *statistics*, *expert opinion*, and *quotation*” (p.8). Figure 1 shows a sample of CAAM editor page provided in *Rationale* software (2012).

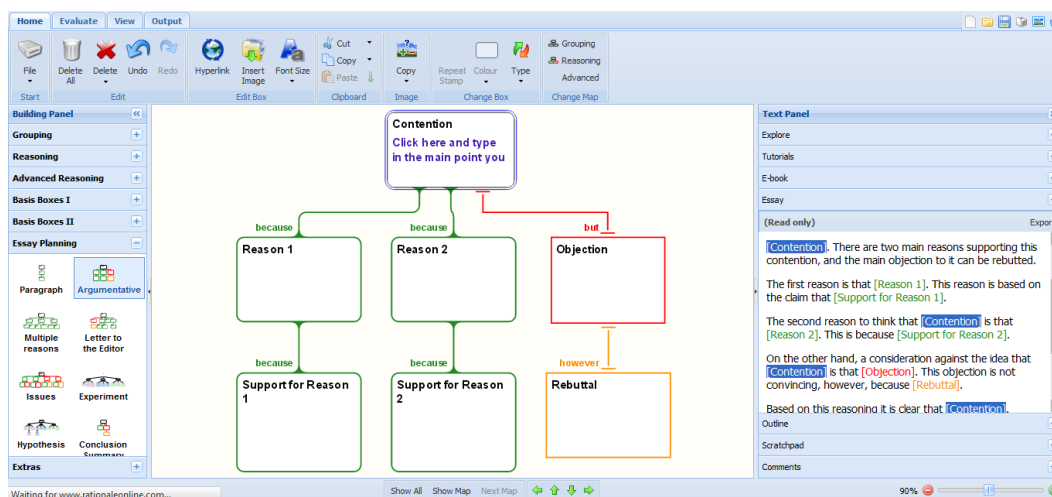


Fig.1 CAAM editor page in Rationale (2012)

Writing is a complex, recursive, and dynamic nonlinear process and writing experts have developed and tested instructional methods and techniques, yet other factors can be influential in the success of second language writers. In this study, the researchers were concerned to investigate the impact of using computer-aided argument mapping (CAAM) on the writing improvement of Iranian learners of English.

III. METHOD

A. Design

As the nature of the current research was to seek the impact of using computer-aided argument mapping (CAAM) on the improvement of Iranian EFL learners' writing achievement, the selected participants in the experimental group 1(EG1) and 2 (EG2) were exposed to the treatment conditions, that was, accomplishing homework assignments through their CAAM environments either individually or in pairs. The participants in the control group, on the other hand, followed the traditional treatment (using pen and paper) for accomplishing the same homework assignments. Due to the lack of true randomization of the participants, this research had a quasi-experimental design. As such, it was dealing with following variables:

1. Independent variable, which was the technique of using computer aided argument mapping (CAAM) in the English language classes in order to do essay writing activities.
2. Dependent variable which was writing achievement.

B. Participants

All the participants of this study were male and female senior university students in English translation at Islamic Azad University, Karaj and Qazvin Branches. By administrating Oxford Placement Test (OPT), as well as an essay writing test to all the students and calculating the results, 90 out of 127 students who enjoyed upper-intermediate language proficiency level, were chosen to be the participants of this study. In this regard, 30 students were considered to be in the control group, 30 students in the experimental group 1(EG 1), and 30 students in the experimental group 2 (EG 2).

C. Instrument

The following tests and devices were utilized as the instruments in this present study:

A test of English general proficiency was used for homogenizing the students regarding their language proficiency level. Among the standardized tests, Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was chosen for measuring language proficiency from beginning to upper-intermediate.

An essay writing test consisting of four topics was used. All students had to choose one topic for writing a five paragraph essay serving as a pre-test. The topics included as explaining the reasons of choosing English translation at

university, explaining a dream house, explaining the advantages and disadvantages of migration to other countries, and explaining the ways a person can be successful in education.

A test of written English was used in the form of a five paragraph essay writing in argumentation text type, serving as a post test for all participants in the three groups.

All participants in the experimental groups used a CAAM software *Rationale*. Also, all participants in the experimental groups were required to do their homework assignments in the CAAM environment.

The TOEFL Writing Scoring Guide (2007) provided by ETS was used in order to score the writing scripts in the control group and the experimental groups.

IV. PROCEDURE

After selecting the eligible participants for the present study, the following steps were taken to accomplish the purpose of the study during the research process:

Writing instruction and tasks: This study was conducted for 12 sessions, 1.5 hours each. The participants in all three groups were assigned to write eight five paragraph argumentative essays on the given topics. The course materials and course contents were the same for all three groups. Then the participants in the experimental groups were guided how to install the CAAM software and how to work with it. Literacy in computer was not a condition for taking part in this course; a rudimentary familiarity was sufficient. For all groups, for five sessions, the instructor described the correct format of argumentative text type in a five paragraph essay format, relevant to the course syllabus: how to write an introduction paragraph, body, and conclusion paragraph. Then all the learners had some practices in the classroom. In the practicing part, the teacher proposed a topic and discussed the issues relevant to that topic. All the learners started writing their introduction paragraphs. Next, the students were required to write an outline of the main points/reasons, as well as supporting ideas for the body. For the experimental groups, this activity was done by drawing maps. Finally, all were required to write their concluding paragraphs. In this regard, they could write their sample essays with the help of the teacher. One or two of the samples were read in the class in order to reveal the areas of possible problems by the learners' participation and the teacher's comments and correction. At the end of the sixth session, the teacher proposed 2-3 topics to students in order to write their homework assignments (a five paragraph essay). The learners were required to choose one of those topics to write their assignments at home and at free pace.

In the control group, the learners had to bring their paper-based assignments to the class for the next session. However, the learners in the experimental groups followed a different path. Participants in the experimental group 1 (EG1) were required to do their assignments individually in their computer hands-on learning environment, while the participants in the experimental group 2 (EG2) did their assignments in collaboration with each other in CAAM environments in the period between two sessions. The teacher received the paper-based assignments from the participants in the control group, and the hard copies of assignments from all participants in the experimental groups, done either in person or in pairs. The participants in the experimental groups could share their hard copies and save their writing files with each other in order to receive the peers' feedback(s). Hence, every learner in the control group had also the chance to read his/her peer's assignments, and give comment(s). For all groups, the previous writings were accessible as the portfolio; for the experimental groups, there were hard copies of the assignments which the researchers saved them in different folders with the name of each participant, and for the control group, there were the paper assignments which were kept in their personal file prepared for them by the researchers. Consequently, all groups had the chance of reviewing their previous assignments in order to assess their writing achievements. This procedure continued until the course finished.

Feedback and scoring procedure: Giving correct feedback to writing scripts is a critical issue, in which it can promote better writing or even it may hinder future writing. In this study, the teacher attempted to be a facilitator. After collecting all assignments from the three groups (papers from the control group, and copies of writings of those in the experimental groups), all the assignments were read by the teacher. In giving comments to all groups, the teacher did not dictate anything to the students, but to give them some feedbacks to repair the parts where communication had broken down. An indirect type of feedback was provided to the students. In other words, the teacher indicated that an error existed but did not provide the correction. The teacher just mentioned some important issues like grammatical errors (such as word order), punctuation errors, and errors in the organizational patterns and wrote them at the bottom of the papers for preventing those errors in future writings. Also, the learners were presented and introduced some references to read and find the correct form of any given comment. Besides, for all groups, not only the teacher but also other peers could give their comments to each writing script. The peers' comments included grammatical correction, suggestions on developing ideas, and diction. In the experimental groups, the teacher, as well as the peers could give their comments in the written form or using the symbols like \surd , \times , or *Mmmmm*? which were available in the section of *Evaluate* in the toolbar of CAAM editor page as a type of indirect feedback, as well. To the experimental groups, because the fact of keep going on writing in CAAM environment was an important issue, the researchers introduced some other capabilities of this software like graphics, colorful boxes, and images to make the writing activity more enjoyable. The students could choose any relevant graphics or box. In addition, they could also receive positive feedback on their extra activities in CAAM environment as a creative use of technology. At last, all the assignments were scored according to TOEFL scoring profile (2007) by the researchers.

V. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

In this study, the researchers used the oxford placement test (OPT) in order to select the participants with upper-intermediate language proficiency level. Table 1 shows descriptive statistics of the placement test.

TABLE1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF OPT

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
OPT	127	44.35	7.48

As the obtained distribution of scores did not significantly differ from the normal distribution, 70 % of the participants were selected, those standing between $X \pm 1$ SD. Therefore, 90 students who scored between 37 and 52 were selected for the study.

In addition to OPT, all participants took a pre-test of essay writing. In order to obtain inter-rater reliability, all scripts were read by three raters, and the correlation among scores marked by each rater was calculated. Table 2 shows the correlation of all writing scores marked by three raters obtained in the pre-test according to TOEFL scoring guide for assessing essay writing.

TABLE2.
INTER-RATER CORRELATION MATRIX

	rater1	rater2	rater3
rater1	1.000	.539	.768
rater2	.539	1.000	.422
rater3	.768	.422	1.000

Moreover, to find out intra-rater reliability, ten scripts of the participants were selected randomly, and were scored in other time without writing any score on them. Next, the data were analyzed statistically to achieve Intra-rater reliability. Accordingly, the researchers could homogenize the selected sample. In order to find the answer of the research question and investigate the accuracy of the null hypothesis, the researchers analyzed the data. By using the SPSS software version 19, the researchers used *one-way ANOVA* among the mean scores obtained from the control group and the experimental groups on the writing post-test in order to find out whether using CAAM in essay writing classes promotes writing achievement. Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics of writing scores in post-test obtained from all three groups.

TABLE3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF WRITING SCORES IN THE POST-TEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
control group	30	3.9743	.62987	.11500	3.7391	4.2095	3.00	5.00
experimental group1	30	4.6403	.51766	.09451	4.4470	4.8336	3.33	5.66
experimental group2	30	5.0523	.54690	.09985	4.8481	5.2565	3.66	6.00
Total	90	4.5557	.71661	.07554	4.4056	4.7058	3.00	6.00

Table 4 shows there is a significant statistical difference of mean scores between and among all learners in three groups at the level of 0.05. Accordingly, using CAAM definitely improves the writing skill of Iranian learners of English.

TABLE4.
ONE-WAY ANOVA STATISTICS OF WRITING SCORES IN THE POST-TEST

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	17.754	2	8.877	27.631	.000
Within Groups	27.950	87	.321		
Total	45.704	89			

Furthermore, by using the *Post Hoc tests*, the researchers wanted to find out whether the learners in a computer hands-on learning environment perform better when they do their assignments in collaboration or in person. The finding results revealed that doing tasks in collaboration improves the learners' writing achievement better than doing writing assignments individually. Table 5 illustrates the statistical difference between two experimental groups who did their assignments in pairs or in person.

TABLE5.
POST-HOC TESTS BETWEEN TWO EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

(I) students	(J) students	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
control group	experimental group1	-.66600*	.14635	.000	-1.0150	-.3170
	experimental group2	-1.07800*	.14635	.000	-1.4270	-.7290
experimental group1	control group	.66600*	.14635	.000	.3170	1.0150
	experimental group2	-.41200*	.14635	.016	-.7610	-.0630
experimental group2	control group	1.07800*	.14635	.000	.7290	1.4270
	experimental group1	.41200*	.14635	.016	.0630	.7610

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

VI. CONCLUSION

Nowadays, as Olshtain (2001) points out within the communicative framework of language teaching, the skill of writing has a significant status. It is a communicative social activity in which a person can exchange a variety of information and messages to a closer or distant, known or unknown reader(s). Such communication is extremely important in the modern world. Whether the interaction takes the form of traditional pen and paper writing or through the most advanced electronic facilities, it needs to be encouraged and nurtured during the language learners' course of study. In this regard, teachers and practitioners try to benefit from any helpful tools in order to facilitate the process of language learning for their students. Computers and instructional software programs as one of these tools have been used in language writing classes in recent years (Trenchs, 1996; Warschauer, 1996b; Lewis, 1997; Goldberg, 2002).

The main goal of this research was to investigate the impact of using computer-aided argument mapping (CAAM) on the writing achievement of Iranian learners of English. After selecting and grouping the participants into three groups, two experimental groups used CAAM for doing writing tasks while the control group did their writing assignments with pen and paper. At the end of the course, all three groups took part in an essay writing test. Based on findings, the researchers concluded there was a statistically significant difference at the level of 0.05 among those participants who did their writing assignments in a computer hands-on learning environment, i.e., CAAM and those who did their writing tasks in the traditional way, i.e., pen and paper. Furthermore, collaborative learning through computers has been focused in previous studies (Kessler, et al., 2012; Yarling, 2011). The statistically significant difference between two experimental groups shows those who did their writing tasks in collaboration had better writing achievement than those who did their writing assignments individually. To sum up, using computers and proper instructional programs in writing classes could reveal areas for students' comments on their peers, positive regulation of effective factors for better achievement like teacher's feedback for keeping on writing, learners' self-monitoring and assessment, cooperative learning, learning autonomy, and computer literacy as an essential factor in our global communication.

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Semantic Prosody Analysis for Commentary of China's National Publicity Film Based on Appraisal Theory

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Abstract—This paper intends to explore the semantic prosody constructed in the commentary text of China's National Publicity film, by using the appraisal framework, and to explain how the prosody stringing throughout the text assists to achieve the film's communicative goal. Its main theoretical framework is based on Appraisal Theory and also combines the analysis of Tenor and Prosody (prosodic structure) to study the interpersonal meaning of the commentary text of China's national publicity film, aiming to probe into whether the prosody constructed in the text can achieve its communicative goal or not, that is, letting the overseas public know and understand a real and positive image of China, by which a model including three steps, that is, 1) analyzing the Tenor; 2) Analyzing and tagging the appraisal resources; 3) Constructing prosody of the text, is been applied. In data analysis, the author tags all appraisal resources of the text and then probes into their attributions to figure out whether they are consistent with text's communicative goal. The research result proves that as a publicity film, it is reasonable to have the positive resources of Appreciation and Judgment foregrounded in the text and hence to demonstrate a positive image to the addressees.

Index Terms—prosody, appraisal theory, tenor, interpersonal meaning, commentary

I. INTRODUCTION

Having been influenced by the difference of values and cultural background, the western media always implant bias and distortion in their reports on China, which may give rise to the misunderstandings about China among the overseas public. Correspondingly, with the development of economic and political status on international stage, China needs to enhance its international power of discourse and to change its public relations strategy so as to let the overseas public know and understand China correctly. The year of 2011 marks the official beginning of China's overseas public relation strategy, for the publicity film on its national image oriented to the overseas audiences has been broadcasted on American TV. Has it achieved its communicative goal of introducing China's contemporary situation and positive image, thus to dispel overseas audience's misunderstanding about China? Thus, it is worthwhile studying interpersonal meaning of the film's commentary text, concerning the stances it adopts towards both the material it presents and those whom it communicates.

Martin and White set up the Appraisal System, targeting on explaining interpersonal meaning in terms of three sub-systems: Attitude, Engagement and Graduation. Interpersonal meaning is associated with prosodic structure, which is constructed by the appraisal resources in the text; and as the text unfolds, those resources resonate with each other to form certain pattern of mood, in manner of a musical prosody, demonstrating the writer/speaker's attitude, slight or strong (Martin & White, 2008). Besides, Martin points out a useful Genre theory is the one that will allow for both textual prediction and contextual deduction. That is, given a description of the context, it is possible to predict the meanings at risk and the linguistic features likely to be used to encode them (Eggins & Martin, 1997). And given the Tenor of the text, we might to some extent predict its interpersonal meaning. The appraisal resources splash across the text, trying to construct the interpersonal meaning in the manner of microstructure, by which the relevant prosody is further constructed by those resources in certain pattern; while analyzing the Tenor can to some extent predict the interpersonal meaning of the text in the manner of macrostructure. Therefore, by combining the Appraisal theory and Tenor analysis, it can better analyze the prosody of interpersonal meaning. This paper adopts the top-down approach for analyzing the prosody of interpersonal meaning, which includes three steps: 1) to analyze the Tenor, figuring out the status of the participants and contact between them to construct macro-level interpersonal meaning of the text; 2) to tag and analyze the appraisal resources in the text to map unfolding interpersonal motifs; 3) to construct prosody of the text based on Step 2 in order to verify whether the interpersonal meaning constructed corresponds with the interactive goals analyzed in Step 1 or not.

II. ANALYSIS OF TENOR OF THE SAMPLE TEXT

As one variable of Register, Tenor associated with the interpersonal meaning can be reflected by the appraisal resources. Halliday and Hasan explain that "The tenor of discourse refers to who is taking part, to the nature of

participants, their statuses and roles: what kinds of role relationship obtain among the participants, including permanent and temporary relationships of one kind or another, both the types of speech role that they are taking on in the dialogue and whole cluster of socially significant relationships in which they are involved” (Halliday & Hasan, 1989, p.12). Poynton (1989) had also provided a model of the Tenor with respect to social context, which is concerned with the constitution of social roles and relationships and the negotiation of these roles and relationships by speakers. This model identified three dimensions to organize the social relationships, that is, power/status, contact and affect. Christie and Martin (1997) exclude the affect oriented variable out of his tenor variables, and believe that power and solidarity (referred as to status and contact) will be sufficient to generalize appraisal patterns across texts at the level of register. Therefore, in this paper, it merely focuses on the power/status and contact between the text-producer and the addressee.

The addressees of the publicity film are mainly the overseas audiences who have had access to know and understand China mainly from the western media for a long time. The unilateral impart of information may result in their misunderstanding and bias about China. Therefore, partially due to these inaccurate reports, and partially due to the difference of the cultural background and value orientation, many westerners are holding a negative impression on China's image. In order to break their stereotyped and misled impression, efforts must be paid to revivify a true and positive image of China. And only truth and openness can correct the prejudice and touch the soul. The truth means turning down bureaucratic tone. Just as Gao Xiaolong, general director of the film, said, the national image is not equal to the government image, but the daily lives of the public. So, the publicity film bases itself on the reality and demonstrates a colorful and real picture of Chinese citizens' lives to the world. At the beginning part of the commentary, it raises two questions using the first person, that is, “Who are the Chinese? What makes us who we are?” to position the key of the commentary on the ordinary Chinese people's tone. Meanwhile, several quotations, in the form of interview, from both Chinese and foreigners are inserted across the film, which gives an impression of that it is a sincere and face-to-face conversation between the addresser and the addressees. To put it in another word, the film is demonstrated for the overseas audiences guided by our ordinary Chinese people rather than the Chinese government. Therefore, the participants engaged in the communication refer to the ordinary Chinese citizens and the overseas audiences, which does not involve the inequality of the social status, but only the different cultural background and value orientation, or the possible implanted misapprehension about the object the participants are negotiating (here obviously refers to China's image). With respect to the solidarity between the participants of this interactive process, the Chinese people want to let the world know more about China on the basis of objectiveness, reality and mutual-understanding, try to dispel their misapprehension about the twisted truth, and further align value positions with overseas audiences through sharing feelings with them.

Through analyzing the Tenor of the sample commentary, it may find the communicative goal of the text is to demonstrate the overseas audience a vivid, harmonious and real China with a hope of aligning with them on the shared values and feelings. How is the text constructed to achieve this goal? Can the appraisal resources attributed across the text serve for accomplishment of the communicative goal? With these questions in mind, the paper will explore the appraisal resources in detail in the following sections.

III. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF APPRAISAL RESOURCES

This paper concerns the interaction of attitude and engagement. In the analysis, the authors attend to appraisal values which are sequenced and made to interact so as to generate particular rhetorical outcomes. All attitude and engagement resources in the sample text have been tagged, and the statistic has been shown in tables and figures in the following sections. As to tagging the appraisal resources, the thesis follows Martin's annotation method to tag the unfolding motifs:

- attitude: affect in *italics*
judgment in **bold**
appreciation is underlined
+ve for positive attitude
-ve for negative attitude
- engagement in boxing
- graduation in **bold + underlining**

A. Statistics of Attitude

In Appraisal System, Attitude is “concerned with feelings, including emotional reactions, judgments of behaviors and evaluation of things” (Martin & White, 2008, p.35). It involves three semantic regions covering what is traditionally referred to as emotion, ethics and aesthetics. Each region corresponds to Affect, Judgment and Appreciation. Affect deals with resources for construing emotional reactions both positively and negatively towards a person, thing, happening or state-of-affairs (Martin, 2000). Judgment encompasses meanings which serve to evaluate human behavior positively and negatively by reference to a set of institutionalized norms. Appreciation is concerned with the resources for construing the evaluations of things, including things we make, performances we give, and also natural phenomena. Values of Appreciation are properties which attach to the phenomenon under evaluation rather than the human subject

doing the evaluation (White, 2002). The paper tags three subsystems of Attitude respectively and collects the number of occurrence times of each attitudinal resource. The result is presented in the following table.

TABLE 1:
STATISTIC OF ATTITUDE RESOURCES IN THE TEXT

Attitudinal resources	positive	negative
Affect	14	1
Judgment	37	2
Appreciation	54	4
Total	105	8

Table 1 shows that the three attitudinal resources are unevenly distributed. The occurrence of Appreciation resource greatly exceeds the other resources. Of the other two resources, the occurrence frequency of Judgment resources greatly surpasses that of Affect resources. Generally speaking, Appreciation is highlighted by the text producer and thus foregrounded. Obviously, the text tends to impress the audience with good and pleasant image of China. Compared with the positive attitudinal resources, the negative ones rarely appear in the text. This is justifiable since the purpose of a publicity film is to show the positive attitude to the audience.

By further studying the attribution of Affect resources, it was found that they are mainly distributed in introduction and conclusion part. And in introduction part Affect resources are inscribed by the relevant attitudinal expression. For example:

In introduction part:

[1]*Our songs of how the earth is our garden and our pride [+ve Affect: inscribed] in surviving our long history suddenly became more vivid and clear.*

In conclusion part:

[2]*Chinese girl: I wish China will be more beautiful. [+ve Affect: inclination]*

The commentary starts with the first-person narration which describes the proud and positive feelings of the Chinese citizens, for they could see their dreams become a reality, and their songs become more vivid. The proud feelings of Chinese people towards their motherland have been inscribed in the abstract narration, which compared with the directly expression is relevantly implicit. By comparison, in the conclusion the text uses direct quotations which directly express the interviewees' inclination affect of wishing their motherland become better and better. The rest of the Affect mainly appears in the quotations from the ordinary Chinese citizens who properly express their satisfaction. The voice from ordinary people makes the Affect more vivid and sincere, and also let the audience construe it as appropriate and reasonable. However, facts should speak louder than affects because facts can justify the affect with proper explanation. That is why Appreciation and Judgment resources are foregrounded in the whole text to evaluate things or behaviors closely related with China or Chinese people. For example:

[3]*Foreigner: Every part of China, you have like different culture, I think it is the best place [+ve Appreciation: valuation] in Asia.*

The Appreciation resources to some extent are woven into an attitudinal net, by which the text intends to demonstrate the delightful development and pleasant situation of China through the eyes of both Chinese people and foreigners who live in China, and hence to let the overseas audiences know this country once again and endear them to China. The pattern with respect to Judgment resources is analogous with that of Appreciation, dispersing across the text. For example:

[4]*30 years opening has been a time of **bravely** [+ve Judgment: tenacity] facing the new and stepping forward on a path of our own choosing.*

Judgment deals with the attitudes to people and the way they behave. Judgment encompasses meanings which serve to evaluate human behavior positively and negatively by reference to a set of institutionalized norms. Under Judgment we may assess behavior as moral or immoral, legal or illegal, socially acceptable or unacceptable and so on. Thus, Martin and White divide Judgment into "social esteem" and "social sanction". "Judgments of esteem have to do with 'normality' (how unusual someone is), 'capacity' (how capable they are) and 'tenacity' (how resolute they are); judgments of sanction have to do with 'veracity' (how truthful someone is) and 'propriety' (how ethical someone is)" (Martin & White, 2008, p.52). The author finds most of the evaluations in the text express 'social esteem', and if more detailed, on aspect of 'tenacity' and 'capacity'. These evaluations are sometimes directly towards Chinese people's confident and brave character. And it is noteworthy that the text does not shun some controversial issues on China, such as problem of human rights and environment, but positively evaluate the efforts China has devoted to commit its responsibility of being a biggest developing country in the world.

It may indicate that Affect, Judgment and Appreciation resources are carefully chosen, with purpose of renewing audiences' impression on China and hence to form communities of feeling and shared attitudes towards its positive image. However, the question emerging out is how the text manipulates the resources of intersubjective positioning to align themselves with the ideal audience and further to achieve its communicative goal. Then, the author will attend on the Engagement resources of the text and analyzing the stance adopted in the text towards to the value position.

B. Analysis of Engagement

Engagement deals with sourcing attitudes and the play of voice around opinions in discourse. Martin and White (2008) group system of Engagement into dialogic heterogloss. They suggest that resources of heterogloss can be divided into two broad categories according to whether they ‘dialogical expand’ (which open up the dialogic space for alternative position) or ‘dialogical contract’ (which close down the space for dialogic alternatives) in their intersubjective functionality. Under Expand and Contract, four options of dialogistic position- Entertain, Attribution, Disclaim and Proclaim are identified to describe what is at stake when one meaning rather than another is employed (Martin & White, 2008). This paper takes the two aspects into account, and the attribution of Engagement resources is presented in the following table.

TABLE 2
STATISTIC OF ENGAGEMENT RESOURCES IN THE TEXT

Engagement	Resource	Number
Expand	Entertain	14
	Attribute	12
Contract	Disclaim: counter	3
	Proclaim: concur	4
	Proclaim: pronounce	2

As shown in Table 2, Entertain and Attribute under Expand are prominent in the text, which account for 40% and 34% respectively; while, the three sub-resources under Contract take a small part of total number. It reveals that the text mainly adopts the resources of Expand to leave the addressee much space for alternative opinion about the information they are getting.

By using of Entertain, the authorial voice represents the proposition as one of a range of possible positions, which admits alternative opinions. It is noticeable that in the sample text several questions operating as Entertain resources are left for the addressees to judge by themselves on the subjects proposed, hence opening up a space for the possibility of divergent views. For example:

[5] *Is tradition a burden, or kind of driving force for development? Do we take our culture heritage too seriously, or not seriously enough?* [Engagement: entertain]

Perhaps influenced by some twisted reports or what is so called ‘China Threat Theory’, many westerners consider China as a foe and its development as a threat. The text producer uses questions as negotiating tone to present the contentious issues to the audiences, which makes allowance for alternative value positions on the propositions, but with the hope of letting the audiences recognize China through their own eyes.

Martin and White (2008) hold that Attribute is most typically achieved through the grammar of directly and indirectly reported speech and thought. On studying Attribute resources in the text, the author found that they are mostly realized by directly reported speech. As discussed before, the resources of Affect, Judgment and Appreciation disperse across the whole text, including the part of frequently-appeared quotations. Therefore, the attitudes demonstrated in this part are attributed to the external voices. Here, in the text, the internal voice is regarded to be from the whole Chinese people. But other voices from some specific Chinese citizens and foreigners, rather than the only and abstract voice (monogloss), can make the opinion and attitude in the film more credible and real. These Attribute resources can be categorized as instances of acknowledge, and interpreted as more or less forthrightly aligning the addressees into the relevant value position. For example:

[6] *Chinese Female: “It is the Chinese people that **adhere to** the environment **no matter how hard, no matter how great the set back** is we **stick to it**. **Optimism, self-confidence and persistence** are the character of Chinese.”*

Although the resources of dialogic contraction do not attribute as prominently as those of expansion do, they still function as positioning the value stance to some extent. With regard to Counter, it appears three times in the text, and each time cooperates with Entertain. For example:

[7] *Some may [Engagement: entertain] argue that under such a huge material and mental stimulation, it would be hard to maintain equilibrium. But [Engagement: counter] after 30 years, the world has seen how much China's profound history and culture essence given leave us the flexibility and unity when facing fast transformation.*

By such Entertain + Counter pairings, the text at first opens up the space for alternative positions and validates the addressees’ possible contrary viewpoints by admitting that it is understandable and has a rational basis. Then, the addressees are countered with particular beliefs or expectations through counter resources. Thus, such pairings can be seen as gestures towards solidarity in contexts where the writer anticipates disagreement on the part of the addressees, but with the hope of winning them over (Martin, 2000). In a word, these resources are used in the text as strategies to align the addresser with the overseas audiences and let them more likely to accept the attitudes inscribed or invoked by resources of Affect, Judgment and Appreciation.

IV. CONSTRUCTION OF PROSODY FOR SAMPLE TEXT

The Attitude resources operate as the basic elements to demonstrate the feelings of the addresser towards the evaluated; whereas, the resources of Engagement which construct the ‘stance’ of the appraiser can be seen as the strategy adopted by the addresser to project attitudes on the addressees, and hence setting up a community with the

shared values. The publicity film uses many positive Appreciation and Judgment resources but relatively less Affects with the request of objectiveness. The resources are mainly deployed within the framework of Entertain and Attribute to construe solidarity with the overseas audience. Combining all appraisal resources together, a semantic prosody is constructed, which can achieve the text's interpersonal function on micro-level.

According to Martin (2004), the structure of interpersonal meaning is realized by three types of prosody: saturation, intensification and domination, and they usually operate together to form a harmonious unity. The realization of saturating prosody is opportunistic, which means relevant interpersonal meaning appears continuously in the discourse; the prosody then manifests where it can. As for intensification prosody, its realization is associated with amplification. The amplification can be realized by repetitions of various kinds to prompt the gradually intensification of relevant interpersonal meaning, which is akin to the use of a pitch movement for highlighting in phonology. Compared with the former ones, the last type of prosody is more complicated. The realization of this kind of prosody is associated with meanings that have other meanings under their scope (Martin, 2004). In the sample text, the foregrounded resources of Appreciation and Judgment are mainly dispersed in the main body, and hence to form the saturating prosody of evaluating positively various aspects of the present China. The structure can be simply presented as follow:

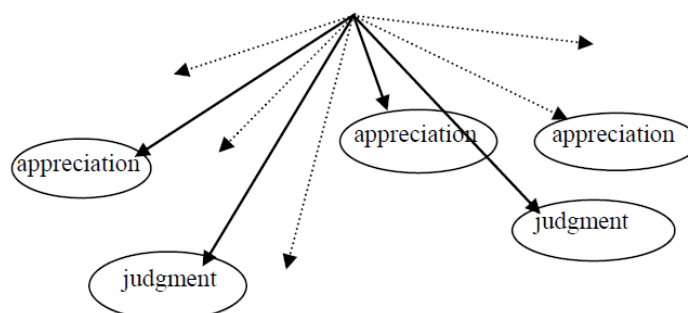


Figure 1 Saturating Prosody of Appreciation and Judgment

With the resources of Affect, they appear mostly in the introduction and conclusion part of the text. Although there is only a small quantity of such resources, they are also attributed in a pattern. It was found that attribution can be construed as forming an intensifying prosody. First of all, the Affect resources attributed in introduction part are inscribed. Then, a few are attributed sporadically in the main body. At last, they are foregrounded in the conclusion part and attributed to several interviewees who directly express their strong wishes for a better China. Therefore, the prosody they construct is like an intensifying one which can be presented as follow:

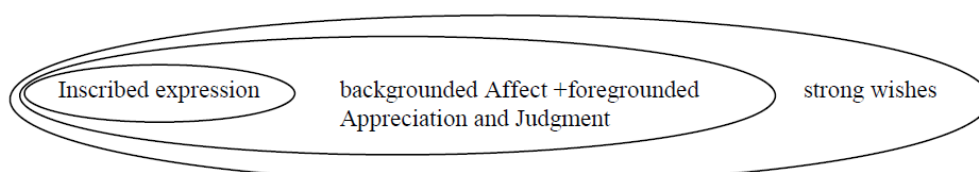


Figure 2 Intensifying Prosody of Affect

Through this prosody, the text-producer intends to evoke the same feelings of the addressees gradually after knowing so many positive aspect of China reflected by foregrounded Appreciation and Judgment resources.

In the sample text, Engagement resources which operate as a strategy to position the stance form a dominating prosody. As mentioned before, the text-producer firstly raised a few questions in the introduction part with the purpose of arousing the audiences' interest and curiosity to know more about China and also inviting the overseas audiences to make their own judgment on those questions being raised after understanding what kind of country China really is through the film. Those questions functioning as Entertain in Engagement system position the text as a negotiable and moderate tone to leave more space for the addressees. Thus, Entertain operates as a dominant strategy to align with the audiences on those positive appreciations and judgments, on which the other resources of Engagement are dependant and serve the same motif. The structure can be presented as follow:

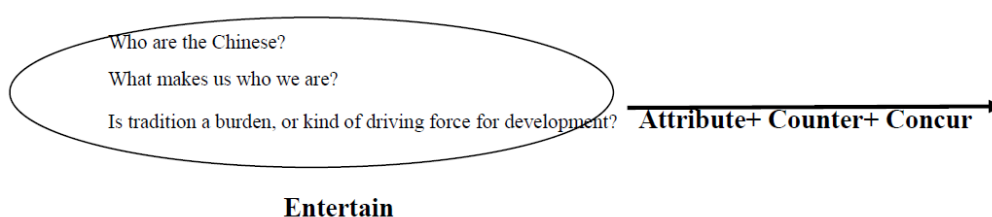


Figure 3 Dominating Prosody of Entertain

The above three structures are analyzed from the perspective of micro angle of the whole text. But none of them can achieve the interpersonal function of the text without cooperating with the others. They operate as a harmonious unity, running through the text to realize the interpersonal meaning.

V. SUMMARY

The communicative goal of the sample text is to align with the overseas audience on the shared value position. The text-producer uses the Entertain and Attribute as main strategy to position the stance of the text and to align with the audiences on the positive image of China reflected by Appreciation and Judgment resources foregrounded in the text. All resources resonate with each other and operate together to form prosodies of interpersonal meaning. These prosodies cooperate with each other to form a harmonious unity to realize the interpersonal function of the text. What should be noted is that whether the goal of a publicity film can be achieved not only depends on the commentary, but also the other factors which should be taken into account, such as the quality of the film itself, the publicity strategy, the respondent of the addressees, the social context and so on so forth. However, the study result shows that from aspect of language used in the commentary, the film proves to be a successful try to show temporary China's positive image to overseas audience and may help to dispel some stereotypes and misunderstandings.

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A Content Evaluation of Iranian Pre-university ELT Textbook

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Abstract—Textbooks and instruction materials are one of the most important components in any language classrooms all over the world. Considering the significant role of textbook in teaching/learning process, it is therefore very important to conduct EFL textbook evaluation so as to ensure ELT textbooks can effectively facilitate the attainment of the teaching objectives, and at the same time, be economically viable to teachers and students. The present study has attempted to evaluate the Iranian pre-university ELT textbook. To the end, four research questions were posed to determine whether the language used in the pre-university English textbook is authentic, whether the conversations, grammar rules, vocabulary words and expressions presented in this book are used in real-life situations, whether the activities and exercises included in the book are appropriate for communicative learning, and whether the texts, examples, and illustrations of this book are variable enough. Four EFL teachers and 335 pre-university students participated in this study. The evaluation was carried out through an ESL textbook evaluation checklist by Joshua Miekley (2005). The questions take the form of Likert scale. Rating scaled are numerically coded as 1 – totally lacking, 2 – poor, 3 – adequate, 4 – good, 5 – excellent. Following the submission of the questionnaire, the obtained data were analyzed by SPSS which revealed unforeseen results that the participants were not mostly satisfied about this English textbook, because the calculated mean for all the questions were below 3. Therefore the four null-hypotheses were supported.

Index Terms—material, textbook, evaluation, authentic language, real-life situation

I. INTRODUCTION

A textbook can be referred to as a published book especially designed to help language learners to improve their linguistic and communicative abilities (Sheldon, 1987). The significant role of textbook in language classrooms has been supported by a number of other scholars. Hutchinson and Torres' statement that no teaching-learning situation is complete until it has its relevant textbook is worth considering in some depth (1994, p. 315). Other theorists hold similar view and assert that textbook continues to play an essential role in ELT classrooms all over the world (Dendrinos, 1992; Lee, 1997; Williams, 1983).

Sheldon (1988) stresses the importance of using textbooks as the visible heart of any ELT program which offer considerable advantages for both the student and the teacher. O'Neill (1982), for instance, implies that textbooks are generally sensitive to students' needs, even if they are not designed specifically for them. Haycroft's (1998) observation that textbooks are psychologically essential for students since their progress and achievement can be measured concretely is another advantage of using textbook.

The use of textbooks in classroom may provide other advantages for teachers as well. According to O'Neill (1982) and Sheldon (1988), textbooks can reduce potential occupational overload and allow teachers the opportunity to spend their time undertaking more worthwhile pursuits. In addition, Cunningsworth (1995) points out that textbooks are a source of ideas and activities, a syllabus where they reflect pre-determined learning objectives, and support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence.

Conversely, some other theorists cast doubt on the previous point of view and declare that inexperienced teacher may over rely on a textbook which might have the opposite effect of saving students from a teacher's deficiencies (O'Neill, 1982; Williams, 1983; Kitao & Kitao, 1997).

Considering the significant role of textbook in teaching/learning process it is therefore very crucial to select an appropriate textbook which closely reflect [the needs of the learners and] the aims, methods, and values of the teaching program" (Cunningsworth, 1995, p. 7). Since EFL syllabus primarily is designed around the selected textbook (Garinger, 2002; Harmer, 2002), so it can determine the success or failure of an ELT course (Green, 1926; Mukundan, 2007).

However, due to the enormous number of textbooks on the market, it is difficult to make a right choice (Cunningsworth, 1995; Green, 1926) and they are often purchased without careful analysis (Green, 1926; McGrath, 2002). Having questioned the appropriateness of the existed textbooks in the market, Tomlinson argues that most current global, local ELT textbooks are developed for commercial purposes but are not based on principles of language acquisition and development recommended by scholars and educators (Tomlinson, 2003, 2008 & 2010).

In order to be ensured that careful selection is made, textbook evaluation can be carried out. One of the advantages of textbook evaluation according to Sheldon's (1988) statement is that a thorough evaluation would enable the managerial and teaching staff of a specific institution or organization to discriminate between all of the available textbooks on the market. Moreover, it would help teachers make optimum use of a book's strong points and recognizing the shortcomings of certain exercises, tasks, and entire texts.

It is therefore very important to conduct EFL textbook evaluation so as to select a textbook based on its pedagogical value because wrong choice of textbooks would be likely negatively affect both teaching and learning. Financial resources would also be wasted (Mukundan, 2007; Sheldon, 1988). To evaluate one of the English textbooks used in Iranian schools, the present study was conducted. This study attempts to engage in an analysis of the pre-university English textbook taught in Iranian schools to designate the pedagogic values as well as the strengths and weaknesses.

This study addresses the following research questions:

1. Is the language used in the Iranian pre-university English textbook authentic?
2. Are the conversations, grammar rules, vocabulary words and expressions presented in this book used in real-life situations?
3. Are the activities and exercises included in the book appropriate for communicative learning?
4. Are the texts, examples, and illustrations of this book variable enough?

On the basis of the above-mentioned research questions, the following null-hypotheses were formulated:

H₀ 1: The language used in the Iranian pre-university English textbook is not authentic.

H₀ 2: The conversations, grammar rules, vocabulary words and expressions presented in this book are not used in real-life situations.

H₀ 3: The activities and exercised included in the book are not appropriate for communicative learning.

H₀ 4: The texts, examples, and illustrations of this book are not variable enough.

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

According to the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2001), evaluation is "the act of considering something to decide how useful or valuable it is". Similarly, Mertens (2005, p. 47) defines evaluation as "the process of determining the merit, worth or value of something". Material evaluation is one of the most important components of language teaching/learning instruction which helps teachers to acquire useful, accurate, systematic, and contextual insights into the overall nature of textbook material (Cunningsworth, 1995; Ellis, 1997).

A number of studies have been carried out in this field a few of which are mentioned below. A survey conducted by Litz (2005) to evaluate a textbook (*English Firsthand 2*) revealed some significant results. According to Litz's (2005) findings, this book which is used by all of the high-beginner English classes in the university's EFL program is a new addition to the ELT materials available on the market. Based on this study, some merits of *EF2* are as follows:

- The entire textbook package contains useful supplementary materials.
- *EF2* manages to integrate the four language skills.
- It is very attractive and organized in a clear and logical manner.
- The activities and tasks in *EF2* are basically communicative.

Having stated several strengths of this textbook, Litz (2005) argues that *EF2* has some shortcomings, too. For instance, the activities of this book are mostly repetitive and do not lead to realistic discourse.

In another similar study, Mahmood et al. (2009) conducted a textbook evaluation both in Pakistan and elsewhere. They believed that there were no explicit criteria for textbook evaluation. Thus, they designed this study in order to develop criteria for review, evaluation and approval of quality textbooks in Pakistan. Based on Garvin's (1988) framework for quality products, they were able to develop a textbook evaluation criterion.

Al-Yousef (2007) evaluated the New Third Grade Intermediate English Course book in Saudi Arabia. He employed both quantitative and qualitative research design. The participants of this study included 184 students, teachers and supervisors. Both the quantitative and the qualitative findings of the study revealed that the participants had positive feelings toward this book, because the obtained mean score was above 2.0 out of 4.0. The content and the visuals of the textbook got the highest mean, while gradation and recycling and supplementary material own the lowest mean.

Furthermore, textbook evaluation has been the subject of interest in Iran. Currently education system in Iran is going through some kind of curriculum reforms. Development and production of textbooks is a continual process which needs continual and rigorous research and development.

Safarnavadeh et al. (2009) conducted a research project. The results of this evaluation indicate that the main goal pursued in the textbook is language components based on the structuralist perspective. Writing skills with emphasis on grammatical precision received more attention compared to others, following traditional stylistic sophistication and mechanistic applications and models. They further add that the content and activities of these English textbooks are

designed based on traditional and mechanical methods. Safarnavadeh's work convincingly demonstrates the need for revising the English textbooks. Having assumed that the main shortcomings belong to theoretical realm, they state that the theoretical foundations largely need to be revised.

Kiyani et al. (2011) have carried out a study in which they discuss the national curriculum of teaching foreign languages from three perspectives. They point up several strengths in this curriculum, including: decentralization and increase in the time of teaching foreign language from 486 to 597 hours in the first and second grades of high school. The national curriculum on the other hand, possesses some drawbacks. The contradictory and the lack of coordination among the expressed goals for teaching foreign languages, lack of participation of experts in authoring these textbooks, inattention to needs analysis, etc. are just few examples of the existed demerits.

Another similar study by Jahangard (2007) perused the English textbooks of first, second, third and pre-university grades. The results of this study indicated that the English Textbook of pre-university has optimum quality in helping the students to learn the learning strategies. However the textbooks of first, second, and third grades require reviews and reconsideration.

Another similar article was published by Ahmadi Darani in 2002. In his article Ahmadi Darani sets out to evaluate the high school textbooks for EFL education in Iran. Some of the findings of this study can be summarized as:

- The purpose of every textbook should be stated in the foreword section, but high school textbooks lack this part.
 - Less attention has been given to students' interests and individual differences in these textbooks.
 - The time for teaching and learning these textbooks is not adequate.
 - There is no teacher's manual for these textbooks.
 - Although authentic language has been used but the conversations of these books are artificial and do not represent real situations.
 - The content does not serve as a window into learning about the target language culture.
 - Reading comprehensions are not interesting and they are boring for the teenagers.
 - The new vocabulary words learned in one lesson are not repeated in subsequent lessons.
 - The physical make-up and the cover of the books are appropriate and satisfactorily.
- Karimi (2004) evaluated a Preparatory English Course, Books 1&2. Followings are some of his findings:
- The texts are attractive. The exercises and activities are useful.
 - Cassette tapes and educational films are available; however, slideshow, film script, large photos and flash cards do not exist.
 - The publisher has provided the teacher's manual in which the strategies of teaching reading comprehension, grammar and vocabularies have been presented.
 - The target language culture has not been mentioned.
 - Reading comprehensions are attractive.
 - The offered pronunciations in this textbook are not satisfactory.
 - Attention has been paid to learners' interests.
 - There are few pictures and they are not colorful and attractive. Although the mode of print, type, cover of the book and quality of papers are satisfactory.

Ahmadpoor (2004) declares the inadequacy of high school English textbooks in his work as follows:

- The use of unattractive, boring, outdated and incoherent texts in the book.
- Incorrect, inappropriate and unattractive pictures of the book.
- The lack of cohesion and proper relevance among the lessons and the texts of subsequent books.
- The lack of coordination between the size of contents and the time dedicated for them.
- Unattractiveness of grammar points and the shortage of variable activities.
- Containing nonstandard questions.
- Lack of logical manner and order of difficulty in presenting grammar points.
- Lack of transparency in the general purpose of the book.

III. METHODOLOGY

Participants

This study relied on the active participation of both teachers and students. 335 students, including 179 females and 156 males, were selected purposively from the 45 schools in Zanzan city. In addition, four English teachers in the same schools also were chosen as the participants of this study to fill out the questionnaire.

Procedures

The procedures followed in this study included both preparation and administration of the instruments and the analysis of the collected data. A brief explanation of each is given below.

Preparation of the questionnaire for the participants: The original form of this questionnaire by Joshua Miekley, 2005 was in English which has been translated to Persian by the researcher. Then the Persian checklist has been back translated to English by someone else. Finally the original questionnaire and translated one were compared by the third

person to see if the translation was accurate in terms of structure and content. Regarding the reliability of the questionnaire, the calculated Cronbach's alpha value was 0.923 which indicated high reliability, internal consistency and homogeneity. This 21-item questionnaire was adapted to address certain variables including: a) content, b) vocabulary & grammar, c) exercises & activities, and d) attractiveness of the text and physical make-up.

Administration of the questionnaire: Empirical data were then collected by using the Persian form of the questionnaire as the evaluation instrument to conduct a post-use evaluation on Pre-university English textbook. The questionnaire was submitted to the participants whom had been chosen purposively.

Analysis of the collected data: Following the submission of the questionnaire, the obtained data were analyzed by SPSS.

IV. RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 shows the distribution of sample according to their gender. As can be seen, the total number of male participants is 158 (156 students and 2 teachers) and the number of female participants is 181 (179 students and 2 teachers).

Inferential Statistics

In this study the items of the questionnaire took the form of Likert scale numerically coded as 1 – totally lacking, 2 – poor, 3 – adequate, 4 – good, 5 – excellent. For investigating research questions T-test was employed, the results of which can be seen in table 2.

Regarding the first research question which was about the authenticity of the language used in the pre-university English textbook, the obtained mean was below 3 demonstrating that the content of the book is poor and the language is not authentic enough.

In order to find out the usefulness of the vocabulary words and grammar rules in real-life situation, the second question was introduced. The obtained mean was again below 3. It would seem that the participants are not satisfied enough about the vocabulary and grammar of the book.

To answer the third research question discussing the appropriateness of the exercises and activities for communicative learning, seven questions were asked whose calculated mean was 2.57, which is poor again.

The last part of the questionnaire was dedicated to the attractiveness of the text and physical make up. The calculated mean for this question was 2.35 showing that the text and illustrations of the book are not variable enough.

Stated briefly, it can be argued that most of the participants are critical of the pre-university English textbook. It is worth recalling that the obtained means for all questions were below 3 which challenges the content of this textbook and convincingly demonstrates the need for revising the English textbook.

TABLE(1):
SAMPLE DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO GENDER

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	158	46.61	46.61	46.61
Female	181	53.39	53.39	100.0
Total	339	100.0	100.0	

TABLE (2):
THE RESULT OF T-TEST

	Mean	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Differences	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
First Research Question	2.66	335	.121	.07619	-.0201	.1725
Second Research Question	2.71	337	.000	.21775	.1163	.3192
Third Research Question	2.57	337	.116	.07650	-.0190	.1720
Fourth Research Question	2.35	337	.009	-.14497	-.2535	-.0364

V. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSIONS

The results of this study confirm the findings of previous studies mentioned in the review of the literature under the title of *Textbook Evaluation in Iran*. In order to answer the first research question considering the authenticity of the language used in the pre-university English textbook, Kiyani et al (2011) state that the lack of participation of experts in authoring these textbooks is one of the existed demerits of national program. Darani (2002) also points out that the content of high school textbooks does not serve as a window into learning about the target language culture. Karimi (2004) proves this claim asserting that the target language culture has not been mentioned. These findings are in line with the result of the current study which showed that the language of the English textbook is not authentic.

The second question of this study deals with the usefulness of the vocabulary words and grammar rules in real-life situation. Regarding the grammatical rules, Safarnavadeh et al (2009) argue that in the writing activities based on the grammatical points, students are supposed to change the sentence according to the specific pattern, make a sentence

using the given vocabularies; combine two sentences, etc. without having any freedom or creativity. This lack of freedom and creativity in using the vocabulary and grammar shows that students cannot use them in real life situation; in addition, Ahmadpoor (2004) notes that there is no logical manner and order of difficulty in presenting grammar points.

In response to the third question of the research about the appropriateness of the exercises and activities for communicative learning, Safarnavade et al (2009) maintain that the content and activities of these English textbooks are designed based on traditional and mechanical methods. Having evaluated different activities and exercises of the English textbooks including language function, speaking, listen & repeat, reading, and writing based on the activities provided by Chastain (1988) and Rivers (1981, 1978), they further add that none of the eight activities set out by Chastain to improve listening skill, can be found in the English textbooks of high school. They also comment that speaking exercises are primarily in the form of imperative sentences. Similarly, Ahmadi Darani (2002) observes that the conversations of these books are artificial and do not represent real situations. Consequently, the result of the current study supports these claims and elucidates the inappropriateness of the activities and exercises included in the book for communicative learning.

The fourth question focusing on the attractiveness and physical make-up of the book, achieved similar findings to ones in the review of the literature. According to Karimi (2004), it seems that the number of the pictures is low yet they are not colorful and attractive. Ahmadpoor (2004) also declares the inadequacy of high school English textbooks due to the unattractive, boring, outdated and incoherent texts, and incorrect, inappropriate and unattractive pictures of the book. Unattractiveness of grammar points and the shortage of variable activities are the other demerits mentioned by Ahmadpoor.

In summary, the textbook is an important element of ELT program whose significant role in language classrooms has been supported by a number of scholars. Considering the significant role of textbook in teaching/learning process it is therefore very crucial to select an appropriate textbook; however, due to the enormous number of textbooks on the market, it is difficult to select an appropriate one. In order to be ensured that careful selection is made, textbook evaluation can be carried out so as to ensure ELT textbooks can effectively facilitate the attainment of our teaching objectives, and at the same time, be economically viable to teachers and students. The ELT textbooks used in Iranian schools are under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education. This study carried out to evaluate one of these English textbooks, i.e. English textbook of pre-university grade. The findings revealed that there are some existed demerits for this English textbook which need to be revised.

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The Effect of Coded and Uncoded Written Corrective Feedback Types on Iranian EFL Learners' Writing Accuracy

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Abstract—The debate about whether or not written corrective feedback (WCF) as a pedagogical act can improve students' written accuracy has been voiced for more than 30 years. The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of two types of WCF (coded and uncoded) on Iranian EFL learners' writing accuracy with regard to 10 kinds of errors (Verb Tense, Capitalization, Punctuation, Spelling, Word Formation, Adding something, Deleting something, Wrong Word, Subject-Verb agreement, and plural vs. singular errors). By means of a placement test, two intact classes in Pre-intermediate level were selected and randomly assigned into two groups receiving the two feedback types (N=27 participants in each). For the first group, teacher underlined all the errors and wrote coded signs on them, but for the second group, teacher underlined and corrected all the errors. This procedure was followed for four weeks and at the end of the fourth composition, immediate test, and after a month the delayed post-test were given to see whether or not the treatment had been effective. The results revealed that coded type of WCF had a positive influence on learners' accurate use of all selected grammatical structures (especially Verb Tense) both in the short term and in the long run. The results were discussed in relation to some implications and recommendations for further research.

Index Terms—coded and uncoded feedback, pre-test, immediate and delayed post-test, writing Accuracy

I. INTRODUCTION

Despite being continuous shifts in instructional methods, accuracy in writing has always been an integral part of second language (L2) teaching and learning and accuracy in writing is important to both readers and writers of L2 academic discourse (Ferris, 2006; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1996; Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Most EFL/ESL writing teachers believe that responding to the learners' writing through teacher corrective feedback is the most important part of any writing course and learners want and expect their teacher's feedback on their written errors (Ferris & Roberts, 2001).

L2 writers, generally, want to improve their grammatical accuracy and as a result, they expect to be corrected and value WCF from their teachers (Sheen, 2007; Truscott, 1996). However, previous studies of WCF have shown contradictory results. Some researchers have found evidence that WCF leads to lower error rates (Lalande, 1982); others are in favor of selective correction of specific error types (e.g., Ferris, 2006); still others have argued that error correction should be deleted because of its ineffectiveness in the long run (Krashen, 1984; Semke, 1984; Truscott, 1996). Truscott (2007) claimed a harmful effect of correction on learners' ability to write accurately and believed that due to CF, learners will avoid using certain language structures in subsequent writings.

Despite these controversial opinions, there has been general agreement among researchers that WCF may be effective, but its effectiveness depends on a number of variables such as language instruction context, learners' proficiency level, and the types of writing assignments. Furthermore, WCF effect may manifest itself differently in short-term writing revisions and long-term language development. For example, Fathman and Whalley (1990) and Ferris and Roberts (2001) found positive WCF effects for short-term revisions (redrafting), whereas Robb, Ross, and Shortreed (1986) and Polio, Fleck, and Leder (1998) found no semester-long WCF effects for a similar samples (ESL students).

Despite the controversy regarding the effectiveness of WCF, plenty of literature has compared different types of WCF to investigate which type produces greater grammatical accuracy in learners' L2 writing. Ferris (2003) and Bitchener and Knoch (2008) identified two main WCF types: direct and indirect. In direct feedback, the correct linguistic form or structure is written by the teacher above the linguistic error, and in indirect feedback, it is shown in some way an error has been made. Both types can be further divided into more explicit and less explicit feedback continuum (Heift, 2010).

Lalande (1982) in a study compared the relative effect of indirect and direct WCF study of 60 intermediate EFL learners, and indicated that indirect feedback was more effective than direct feedback but the difference was not statistically significant. Lee's (2008) survey also found that the use of a correction code is helpful if symbols are few in number and all understood by learners.

Sampson's (2012) study regarding the effects of uncoded correction which is writing the correct forms on each error and coded annotations which is writing symbols for learners in order to self-correct on EFL learners' written accuracy, found that coded feedback seems to be more effective because of the increased cognitive engagement and social interaction it affords. Moreover, Erel and Bulut's (2007) study investigated the effects of direct and indirect coded error feedback on learners' accuracy in writing. According to the results of the study, learners receiving indirect coded feedback had fewer errors than the direct ones. It also seems logical that using a code engages learners in self-editing and cognitive error processing (Gu  ette, 2007).

To investigate the effects of direct and indirect coded error feedback on writing accuracy in a Turkish university context, Erel and Bulut (2007, as cited in Sampson, 2012) found that while an overall comparison of the groups for the whole semester did not yield any statistically significant differences, the indirect coded feedback group committed fewer errors than the direct feedback group for the whole semester. The division of the semester into three periods showed that while the two groups did not statistically differ from each other by the end of the first period, the divergence gradually increased for the second and third periods.

There are other studies, however, that suggest that coded feedback may not lead to accuracy development. Ferris and Roberts (2001) found no significant differences between the learners who corrected the underlined errors and those who self-corrected errors marked with a code. Robb et al.'s (1986) study also showed no advantage for any of coded and uncoded feedback types. Similarly, in Semke's (1984) study, no difference between the two approaches was found.

However, some recent studies by Van Beuningen et al. (2012) and Bitchener and Knoch (2010b) indicated positive short-term effects for both direct and indirect feedback but direct error correction had a more significant long-term effect. Vyatkina's (2010) study was in favor of direct feedback which led to more successful revisions which showed that more implicit feedback types (coded) may be confusing for learners and lead to wrong guesses, which confirms previous research (e.g., Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1996).

The study conducted by Bitchener, Young and Cameron (2005) on the type of feedback (direct, explicit written feedback and student-researcher 5 minute individual conferences; direct, explicit written feedback only; no corrective feedback) given to 53 adult migrant learners on three types of error (prepositions, the past simple tense, and the definite article) resulted in improved accuracy in new pieces of writing over a 12 week period. The study indicated a significant effect for the combination of written and conference feedback. Bitchener, Young & Cameron's (2005) study on the effect of the types of feedback (direct, explicit written feedback and student-researcher 5 minute individual conferences; direct, explicit written feedback only; no corrective feedback) on three types of error (prepositions, the past simple tense, and the definite article) showed improvement in the accuracy of new pieces of writing.

So, the research on how teachers should approach written errors, is inconclusive. But many teachers intuitively feel that WCF does improve learners' ability to produce more accurate forms over time, especially when feedback on the same error type occurs frequently. It also seems logical that using a code, rather than providing overt correction, engages learners in self-editing and cognitive error processing (Gu  ette, 2007).

Some researchers (Bitchener, 2012; Polio, 2012) have discussed WCF from the perspective of various approaches to SLA, for example generative theory, monitor theory (Krashen, 1985), skill acquisition theory (McLaughlin, 1987), processability theory (Pienemann, 1998, 2007; Pienemann & K   ler, 2012), usage-based approaches (Ellis, 2007, 2012), skill acquisition theory (DeKeyser, 2007), sociocultural theory (Lantolf, 2000, 2012), and the interaction approach (Hatch, 1978; Long, 1981, 1983) and examined what each of them might have to say about WCF.

A. Purpose of the Study

A detailed review of literature revealed that there were two more important kinds of WCF strategies used commonly in EFL/ESL writing- coded and uncoded feedback. While there have been studies comparing these and other WCF strategies from different parts of the world, to my knowledge no longitudinal studies have been reported for the Iranian EFL context in this sense. Thus, this study was an attempt to identify the longitudinal effects of the two kinds of WCF strategies, namely coded and uncoded in Iranian EFL context.

B. Research Questions and Hypothesis

The study was designed to address the following research questions:

- 1) Which type of WCF (coded and uncoded) aids learners to improve the accuracy in their writing in immediate post-test?
- 2) Which type of WCF (coded and uncoded) aids learners to improve the accuracy in their writing in delayed post-test?
- 3) Are all the selected errors affected similarly or in a different level by the applied WCF (coded and uncoded)?

Hypothesizing that: 1) coded corrective feedback aids learners to improve the accurate forms in their writing in immediate post-test, 2) coded corrective feedback aids learners to improve the accurate forms in their writing in delayed post-test, and 3) all the errors are affected in a similar level.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

A total of 54 Pre-intermediate EFL learners from two intact classes of Shokuh Language Institute in Tabriz were selected by a comprehensive English language test (CELT) and randomly assigned into two groups (N=27 participants in each) receiving two feedback types, namely, coded and uncoded. They were within the age range of 16 and 18 and had at least 3-year experience of learning English at secondary school and institute.

B. Instruments

To initiate the study, a comprehensive English language test (CELT) was used as a pre-test for the homogeneity purposes. Therefore, available extreme scores carefully crossed out the outliers. Having established homogeneity among the groups in terms of their language proficiency, the researcher selected the topics covered in the students' books for the learners to write about.

C. Procedure

Having taken the CELT, two intact classes were selected in Pre-intermediate level and assigned into two groups. All the learners in the first group were taught the selected coded signs for the purpose of providing coded feedback during the treatment (see table 1 below). However, learners in the second group did not receive any instructions. The learners in both groups wrote one composition per week for four weeks on general topics covered in their students' books (e.g., write about a good memory you had before, write about a bad memory you had before, write about the last trip you took, write about your best holiday). Learners were asked to write at least 150 words in each composition in 40 minutes. During writing time, teacher monitored and observed learners and provided hints whenever needed. Learners' first composition constituted pre-test so they were not allowed to have access to any resources and assistance.

Having gathered the compositions, teacher corrected the papers following two methods. For the first group, teacher underlined all the errors and wrote the coded signs on them, but for the second group, all the errors were underlined and corrected by the teacher, then they were handed to the learners the next session for the purpose of providing feedback on their errors. Learners in the first group (coded feedback) were given 20 minutes to correct the errors showed by signs. Whenever they were not able to self-correct, they were given hints by the teacher. Also, those in the control group were given the same amount of time to read and check the errors corrected by the teacher. This procedure was followed for four weeks and at the end of the forth composition, immediate test (the fifth composition) was given to see whether or not the treatment had been effective. After a month, delayed test was given for the purpose of checking the effectiveness of treatment over time.

TABLE 1:
CODED SIGNS

Signs	Kind of Error	Example
V.T	Verb Tense agreement	I <u>go</u> to the party yesterday.
C	Capitalization	She was born in <u>march</u> .
P	Punctuation	Did you study hard.
Sp	Spelling	I love <u>spageti</u> .
W.F	Word formation	I have a <u>beauty</u> house.
^	Adding something	She is <u>....</u> teacher.
Ø	Deleting something	She is going <u>to</u> skiing.
W.W	Wrong Word	He <u>meats</u> me at school.
S.V	Subject Verb agreement	He <u>play</u> tennis.
Pl/Sg	Plural/Singular errors	I ate two <u>loaf</u> of bread.

D. Data Analysis

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16 for personal computers was used to compute descriptive statistics and perform a Paired Sample T-test for analysis of each group.

III. RESULTS

The frequency of errors from pretest to immediate and delayed post-test are shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2:
FREQUENCY OF ERRORS FROM PRETEST TO IMMEDIATE AND DELAYED POST-TESTS OF CODED AND UNCODED WCF

signs	Coded WCF			Uncoded WCF		
	Pre-test	Immediate post-test	Delayed post-test	Pre-test	Immediate post-test	Delayed post-test
V.T	92	18	17	85	75	80
C	50	19	20	61	62	58
P	45	23	21	44	41	43
Sp	41	18	18	40	42	39
W.F	39	11	10	39	40	39
^	39	17	16	35	33	31
Ø	38	19	20	33	28	30
W.W	20	12	10	23	25	22
S.V	13	1	1	15	15	13
Pl/Sg	12	1	2	10	11	12

Descriptive statistics for the efficacy of coded feedback on learners' immediate and delayed writing accuracy shows that there is a positive difference between the mean score of pretest ($M=84.87$), immediate test ($M=94.39$), and delayed test ($M=93.43$). Nevertheless, for the uncoded group there is not much difference in the mean score of pretest ($M=82.27$), immediate test ($M=82.15$), and delayed test ($M=81.83$).

TABLE 3:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE IMPACT OF CODED AND UNCODED FEEDBACK ON LEARNERS' IMMEDIATE AND DELAYED WRITING ACCURACY

Groups	N	Pre-test		Immediate post-test		Delayed post-test	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Coded	27	84.87	4.82	94.39	3.71	93.43	3.94
uncoded	27	82.27	7.64	82.15	6.40	81.83	6.40

Since descriptive statistics alone are not strong enough to reject or accept the hypothesis, paired-samples t-test was conducted to evaluate the effect of coded feedback on learners' both immediate and delayed writing accuracy. The results shown in Table 4 for both of them were statistically significant ($p=0.02$ and $p=0.00$ respectively, $\alpha=0.05$, $p<\alpha$).

TABLE 4:
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PRE-TEST AND IMMEDIATE POST-TEST AND PRETEST AND DELAYED POST-TEST OF CODED WCF

	Mean	SD	t	df	sig
Coded (pretest and immediate post-test)	-9.51	3.32	-14.87	26	0.02
Coded (pretest and delayed test)	-8.55	3.67	-12.1	26	0.00

On the other hand, according to table 5, paired-samples t-tests to evaluate the effect of uncoded feedback on learners' immediate and delayed writing accuracy did not show any significant result ($p=0.73$ and $p=0.26$ respectively, $\alpha=0.05$, $p>\alpha$). Therefore, providing the two different types of feedback had significantly different effects on written accuracy performance of Iranian EFL learners.

TABLE 5:
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PRE-TEST AND IMMEDIATE POST-TEST AND PRETEST AND DELAYED POST-TEST OF UNCODED WCF

	Mean	SD	t	df	sig
uncoded pretest and immediate test	0.124	1085	0.34	26	0.73
uncoded pretest and delayed test	0.44	2.05	1.13	26	0.26

Also, Figure 1 shows the frequency of errors of selected grammatical features from pre-test to immediate and delayed post-tests in coded feedback type. It is clear that learners have errors in all selected grammatical features in pre-test but the number of errors decreases dramatically after conducting coded WCF in both immediate post-test and delayed one.

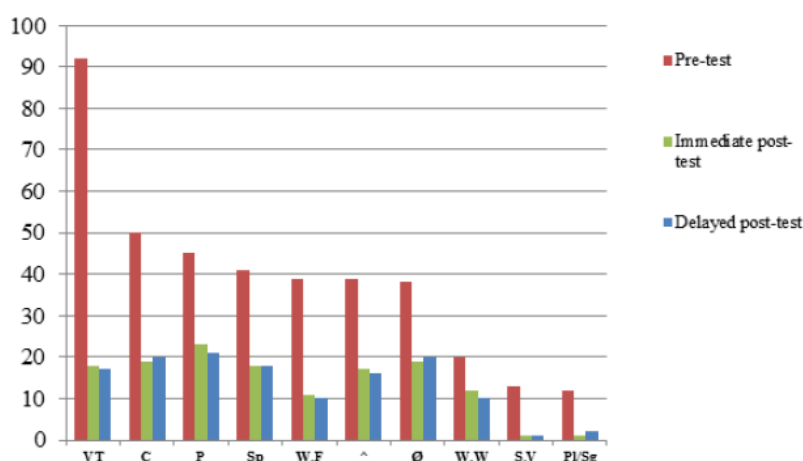


Figure 1: Frequency of the Errors in Pre-test, immediate, and delayed Post-tests in Coded Error Feedback

Figure 2, also, indicates the frequency of errors of selected grammatical features from pre-test to immediate and delayed post-tests in uncoded feedback type. It is evident that learners have errors in all selected grammatical features in pre-test, but the reduction in the number of errors is not significant after conducting uncoded WCF in both immediate post-test and delayed one.

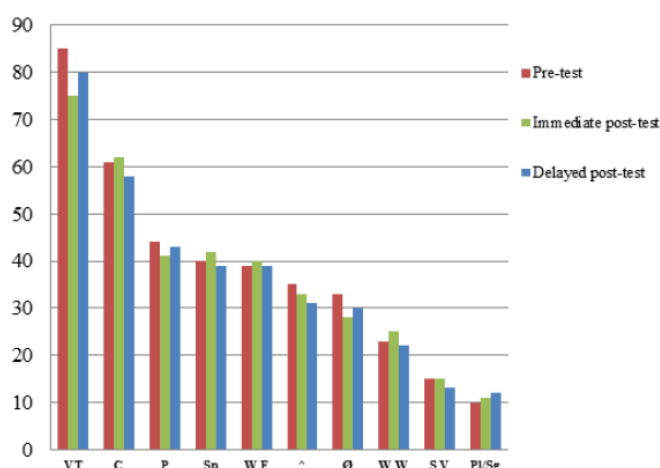


Figure 2: Frequency of the Errors in Pre-test, immediate, and delayed Post-tests in Uncoded Error Feedback

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This research aimed to investigate whether there is a significant difference in the effect of two written corrective feedback (i.e. coded and uncoded) on some selected target features in the short term and in the long run. After the 10-week experiment, it was found out from the results of three tests (i.e. Pre-test, immediate post-test, and delayed post-test) that coded type of WCF had a positive influence on students' accurate use of selected grammatical structures and punctuation both in the short term and the long run. This finding can well answer the research questions and indicates that teachers' decision on WCF selection is of great importance in reducing EFL learners' writing errors.

Regarding the first research question, the results showed that the number of errors committed by coded feedback group gradually decreased during the semester. However, results did not yield any significant difference across the three periods during the semester for the uncoded feedback group. The findings for the second research question revealed the same results as well. So, the results of this study, supporting the first and second hypothesis, showed that coded error feedback had a great impact in error reduction both in short term and long run which are somehow in accordance with results obtained from Sampson's (2012) study.

This difference between indirect and direct WCF strategies (Ferris, 2003; Fratzen, 1995; & Chandler, 2003) and more specifically, between uncoded and coded WCF strategies (Lalande, 1982; Lee, 2008 & Sampson, 2012) are well-supported in the literature.

Regarding the third question, it is worth mentioning that learners' errors in all the selected grammatical features in the study were reduced by the coded WCF, but in contrast with the third hypothesis, the frequency of error reductions is

not the same. Comparing pretest and delayed post –test results of coded WCF, Verb Tense (V.T) errors had the most reduction and Deleting something (Ø) errors less than the other ones were affected (see figure 3).

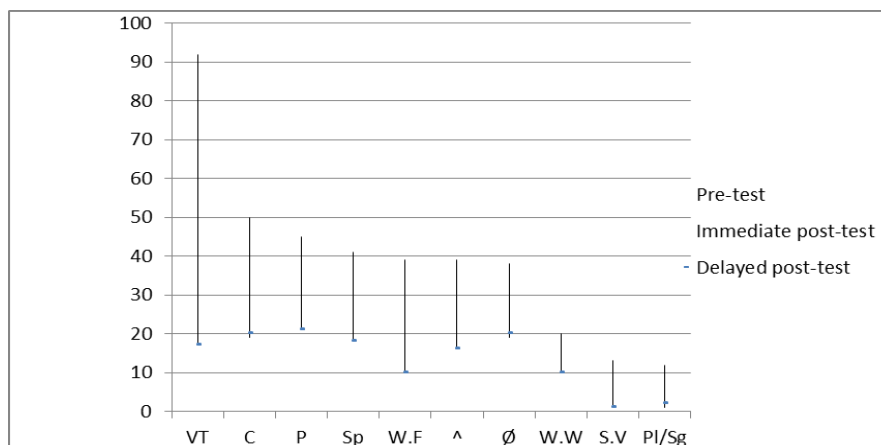


Figure 3: Reduction of errors from pretest to post-test using coded WCF

The findings emphasized the importance of providing input for learners' output problems. Noticing that occurs represents dynamic learning processes. They can be considered as self-initiated focus on form, whereby learners come to pay attention to forms they need whenever they attempt to communicate in the L2 (Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001; Williams, 1999). Such learner initiation is important for learner autonomy, which is another important consideration for long-term L2 development (Dickinson, 1995; Holec, 1981). Our study thus elucidated some key issues: noticing during output, provision of feedback that meets the learners' needs, the promotion of self-initiated focus on form, and learner autonomy.

Based on the findings mentioned above, some implications could be drawn to further enhance the teaching and learning in Iranian EFL context regarding the type of written feedback. Certain error types appear to be more persistent and more likely to be affected by feedback types such as Verb tense, Capitalization, Punctuation and Spelling errors, etc. In order to help learners refine their output in these areas, according to the obtained results in this study, correction codes can be a useful method, in other words, correction codes can help learners close the gap between their current and desired state of interlanguage. Moreover, the type of feedback should be selected depending on learners' interlanguage since comprehensive feedback may demotivate and discourage learners from taking risks and trying more sophisticated language forms.

In addition, any type of feedback should consider the variable of motivation. For learners to improve their writing, they have to be provided with appropriate feedback at the right time and in the right context. Learners should notice the feedback and be given opportunities to apply the corrections. However, when everything is said and done, unfortunately, if the learners are not ready to refine their writing skills, they will not, no matter what type of corrective feedback is provided.

Some important limitations of our study are in order here. First, the sample size of the data was a bit small. A replication with a larger sample size, therefore, would verify the findings more. Also, a more longitudinal investigation is also required. In particular, we need studies that follow learners' progress in writing tasks with feedback types used in this study over a longer period of time. As most of the findings from other cultures or contexts cannot always be generalized, the findings of this research cannot also be generalized beyond its pre-defined context.

Future studies need to triangulate the findings so that we can become more confident with the claims made in this study, also these findings should be investigated more with L2 writers at other proficiency levels. Due to the various limitations of the research design, it is not clear whether teachers should provide grammar correction in EFL/ESL classes and which type of corrective feedback (CF) is more beneficial.

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A Contrastive Study of English and Chinese Book Reviews on Linguistics: Perspective of Attitudinal Meanings

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Abstract—The paper attempts to make a contrastive analysis of English and Chinese book reviews on linguistics in the light of the appraisal theory to discover the similarities and differences between English book reviews on linguistics (henceforth EBRLs) and Chinese book reviews on linguistics (henceforth CBRLs) with respect to the three attitude variables of affect, judgment and valuation. In both EBRLs and CBRLs, affect only takes up a very small part. Appreciation accounts for the great majority of attitude. Among all appreciation instances, positive valuations dominate positive appreciations, and negative compositions constitute the highest percentage of negative appreciations. In addition, EBRLs keep a higher percentage of reaction than CBRLs. Because reaction is more subjective than composition and valuation, it is concluded that English reviewers tend to take subjective ways more frequently than their Chinese counterparts to express their opinions. As for judgment, all the instances of judgment in the 40 book reviews are those of social esteem, especially of capacity. Chinese reviewers attend more to the author's background, such as his history, reputation and previous publications, etc., than their western counterparts who attach more importance to the efforts the author has made to the book.

Index Terms— book review, the appraisal theory, attitude, contrastive study

I. INTRODUCTION

A book review, in simple words, introduces and evaluates a book or books bearing upon a single subject or related subjects. It “describes and characterizes not only the book in question, but also the topic with which it is dealing” (Nicolaisen, 2002, p. 129). Thus, book reviews “can successfully be utilized to trace the flow of information within and across knowledge domains” (Lindholm-Romantschuk, 1998, p. viii) and support “both the manufacture of knowledge and the social cohesiveness of disciplinary communities” (Hyland, 2000, p. 43). They, as a result, could be regarded as important vehicles for scholars and scientists to keep up with the latest professional developments despite the continual growth and dissemination of recorded knowledge.

Since the 1970s, scholars have shown their constant interest in academic discourse, but before the middle 1980s, academic discourse studies were carried out from the perspectives of anthropology, psychology, sociology, etc., rather than from the perspective of linguistics. Since the late 1980s, linguistic approaches such as genre analysis (Swales, 1990), multi-dimensional analysis (Biber *et al.*, 1988) and the perspective from systemic functional linguistics, among others, have been exploited in various attempts to analyze academic discourse (Jiang & Zhao, 2006, p. 1). Since the middle 1990s, academic book reviews have been studied from the perspective of linguistics (such as Motta-Roth, 1995). Few attempts have been made to conduct English-Chinese contrastive analysis in this respect.

Book reviews are rich in evaluative resources, and hence they are evaluation-loaded by nature, especially, in comparison with all the other genres existing in the academy (Hyland, 2000). Evaluation is a central part of the meaning of any text. Any analysis of the interpersonal meaning of a text must take it into account (Thompson, 1996, p. 65). It performs three functions: to express opinions, to construct and maintain relationships, and to organize discourses (Thompson & Hunston, 2000, p. 6). Identifying what speakers or writers think reveals the value system of these persons and their community. Evaluation in book reviews, as a result, is a topic worthy of study.

Evaluation is a concept that crosses discipline boundaries and has many diverse applications. Even within the field of linguistics, the term is used in different ways across a number of specialisms. In this paper, book reviews are studied in the light of the appraisal theory (Martin, 2000; Martin & Rose, 2003; Martin & White, 2005).

Appraisal refers to “the semantic resources used to negotiate emotions, judgment and valuations” (Martin, 2000, p. 145). It “includes gradable resources for evaluating people, places and things in our experience (attitude), for adjusting our commitment to what we evaluate (engagement) and for tuning up or down the volume of these (graduation)” (Macken-Horarik, 2003, p. 296). In view of the broad system of appraisal and limited space, the present study focuses on attitude, one type of specific appraisal resources.

For considerable disciplinary distinctions exist among book reviews across disciplines (Hyland, 2000; Suárez-Tejerina, 2005; Suárez-Tejerina & Moreno, 2006), the book reviews examined in the study are restricted to those on linguistics, with which we are more familiar than those in other disciplines. What is more, the literature reveals

that few studies focus on or are related to Chinese book reviews. On account of these facts, this thesis attempts to study attitudinal meanings and their realizations in English and Chinese linguistics book reviews in the light of the appraisal theory, the system of attitude in particular in order to explore similarities and differences between EBRLs and CBRLs in terms of attitude. The differences may reveal some genre-dependent and language-bound rhetorical preferences and some differences between western and Chinese cultures.

II. ATTITUDINAL MEANINGS

Halliday (1985; 1994; 2004) claims that language is structured to make three main kinds of meanings simultaneously. They are ideational, interpersonal and textual meanings. Interpersonal meaning is mainly achieved by means of mood and modality. However, there are some other potentials of linguistic units for realizing interpersonal meaning. Evaluation, among others, is another kind of linguistic resource to express interpersonal meaning. It expresses speakers' or writers' opinion, and in doing so to reflect the value system of these persons and their community; it constructs and maintains relations between addressers and addressees; it organizes the discourse (Thompson & Hunston, 2000, p. 6). Halliday (1985; 1994; 2004) argues that comment adjuncts and the attitudinal type of epithet express speakers' or writers' attitude, and express interpersonal meaning too. Butt (1994, p. 83) also mentions that comment adjuncts and attitudinal lexis can be used to express attitude.

The appraisal theory (Martin, 2000; White, 2001; Martin & Rose, 2003; Martin & White, 2005) provides us with an integrated framework to have a comprehensive study of interpersonal meaning and the construction of evaluative stance in texts. Appraisal is characterized by three evaluative resources: attitude, engagement and graduation. "Attitude is concerned with our feelings, including emotional reactions, judgments of behavior or character and evaluation of things" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 35). Accordingly, attitudinal meanings refer to "speakers' or writers' emotional responses" or their view of the "social acceptability of the behavior of human actors" or their assessment of "semiotic and natural phenomena by reference to their value" (White, 2002, p. 5-6). According to the theory, resources for expressing feelings are technically referred to as affect, resources for judging behavior or character as judgment and resources for valuing the worth of things as appreciation.

Affect is concerned with resources for speakers or writers to indicate how they are emotionally disposed to the person, thing, happening or state of affairs (White, 2001, p. 8). Under affect, we are concerned with emotions, with positive and negative emotional responses and dispositions: do we feel happy or sad, confident or anxious, interested or bored? As such, affect may be classified into three major sets having to do with un/happiness, in/security and dis/satisfaction.

"Judgment is concerned with resources for assessing behavior according to various normative principles" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 35). Under judgment, we criticize or praise, condemn or applaud the behavior — the actions, deeds, sayings, beliefs, motivations etc. — of human individuals and groups (White, 2001, p. 16). Judgment falls into two major groups: social esteem and social sanction. Social esteem which involves admiration and criticism has to do with normality (how unusual someone is), capacity (how capable they are) and tenacity (how resolute they are); social sanction which on the other hand involves praise, and condemnation has to do with veracity (how truthful someone is) and propriety (how ethical someone is) (Martin & White, 2005, p. 52).

As for appreciation, we turn to meanings construing our evaluations of things, including the things we make, performances we give and natural phenomena — what such things are worth (how we value them) (Martin & White, 2005, p. 56). Appreciation of things includes our attitudes towards natural phenomena and semiosis (as either product or process). It is organized around three variables — reaction, composition and valuation. Reaction has to do with the degree to which a thing in question captures our attention (reaction: impact) and the emotional impact it has on us (reaction: quality); composition has to do with our perceptions of proportionality (composition: balance) and detail (composition: complexity) in the thing; valuation has to do with our assessment of the social significance of the thing in question (Martin & Rose, 2003, p. 55-56).

Instantiations of appraisal can be explicit (inscribed) or implicit (evoked as tokens). Under the inscribed category, the evaluation is often explicitly presented by means of a lexical item carrying attitudinal value, thus, "happy", "beautiful", "wonderful", etc. Under the evoked category, attitudinal values are achieved by lexical enrichment of some kind over one or more spans of text and triggered by what can be viewed as simply "facts", apparently unevaluated descriptions of some event or state of affairs. Readers can infer the attitudinal meanings from the descriptions.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Miranda (1996) puts forward the key features of successful reviews, among which are identifying the strengths and weakness of the arguments and evaluating the contribution of the text. Consequently, the so-called reviews which provide only a general view of the book rather than an actual evaluation are not included in the present study. The study is based on a corpus of 40 linguistics book reviews: 20 in English and 20 in Chinese. The 20 English book reviews are drawn from 3 English linguistics journals: *Language* (published by the Linguistic Society of America), *Journal of Linguistics* (the journal of the linguistics Association of Great Britain), and *Applied Linguistics* (published in cooperation with American Association for Applied Linguistics, International Association of Applied Linguistics and

British Association for Applied Linguistics). Likewise, the 20 Chinese ones are taken from *Foreign Language Teaching and Research* (published by Beijing Foreign Studies University), *Modern Foreign Languages* (published by Guangdong University of Foreign Studies) and *Contemporary Linguistics* (published by the Institute of Linguistics under the Chinese Academy of Social Sciences). All these academic journals are among the most prestigious and representative ones in the field of linguistics either abroad or at home. All the EBRLs for study are written by native English speakers in western countries, and CBRLs by native Chinese speakers.

As for the research method, quantitative and qualitative approaches which are complementary to each other will be adopted in the study. The quantitative approach serves to calculate attitudinal resource occurrences to produce comparable data in both EBRLs and CBRLs, while the qualitative approach is employed to decide whether the similarities and differences are significant or not. The study will be carried out at the following three stages.

At the first stage, all the complete texts are read and analyzed with the purpose of identifying all the instances of attitude within the texts. The identification is conducted manually.

The second stage involves classifying these instances of attitude according to different criteria, e.g. positive and negative attitudes, explicit and implicit expressions etc. and processing quantitative data for the two groups of texts. In addition, a parallel comparison of the quantitative results will be included at this stage.

At the third stage, similarities and differences between the two groups of texts with respect to attitudinal meanings will be sorted out. The chi-square test (χ^2) is used on the frequency data so as to test whether the differences are statistically significant or not. Then, the similarities and differences will be interpreted in terms of context and characteristics of book reviews.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

After identifying and analyzing, we find that instances of attitude, positive or negative, intersperse throughout different parts of EBRLs and CBRLs.

A. General Tendency of Sub-types of Attitude

Attitude falls into three categories: affect, judgment, and appreciation. Each of them has different performance in the book reviews of the two languages. Table I presents the total numbers and percentages for each of the three categories.

TABLE I
SUB-TYPES OF ATTITUDE IN EBRLS AND CBRLS

Attitude Review	Affect		Judgment		Appreciation	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
EBRL	19	3.3%	92	16.1%	462	80.6%
CBRL	6	1.0%	100	17.2%	477	81.8%

As the table shows, there are few instances of affect in both of EBRLs and CBRLs. In EBRLs, there are 19 instances of affect and they take up only 3.3% of the total attitudinal items. In CBRLs, there are fewer instances of such variable (6 instances), and their proportion is only 1.0%.

Book reviews are a type of academic discourse in the sense that they evaluate books from the academic perspective and are like research papers in some ways (Xu, 1993, p. 80). As such, book reviews have to be “scientific and objective” (Markkanen & Schroder, 1997, p. 12). However, affect, as indicated above, is modeled as a semantic resource for construing emotions. It is subjective. Frequent use of affectual positioning may make the text personalized and make the reviewer’s point of view less convincing. Therefore, in book reviews, affectual positioning is seldom used to express the reviewer’s attitude. On average, English book reviews keep a higher proportion of affect than Chinese ones (3.3% for EBRLs as compared with 1.0% for CBRLs), but a chi-square test conducted on the data shows that EBRLs and CBRLs are statistically significant in terms of affect ($\chi^2=8.89$, $df=1$, $p<0.01$).

As to judgment, in the 20 EBRLs, there are 92 instances of judgment which make up 16.1% of the total attitude instances; in CBRLs, there are 100 instances of judgment which constitute 17.2% of the total attitude instances. In this respect, EBRLs and CBRLs are alike ($\chi^2=0.27$, $df=1$, $p>0.01$). As we know, the quality of a book is related to, or determined by, to some extent, the author’s efforts and performance. Sometimes, reviewers evaluate a book by appraising the author’s performance. On the other hand, judgment deals with human behavior, which is not the emphasis of book reviews. Thus it is reasonable that there are a certain number of judgment instances, but they only constitute a small part of the total instances of attitude.

Both EBRLs and CBRLs foreground appreciation. In EBRLs, out of 563 cases of attitude, 80.6% of them are appreciations; in CBRLs, out of 583 instances of instances, 81.8% of them are appreciations. A chi-square test conducted on the data shows that EBRLs and CBRLs are remarkably close to each other in this respect ($\chi^2=0.005$, $df=1$, $p>0.01$). Appreciation accounts for the great majority of attitude items. This phenomenon arises due to the characteristics of book reviews.

Appreciation is modeled as a semantic resource for construing our evaluations of things. Book reviews are concerned with books, so reviewers put greater emphasis on appreciation than affect or judgment. Appreciation can be expressed from various perspectives. Composition has to do with the language, coverage, structure or organization of the book.

Valuation deals with the significance and importance of the book, or of the study the book focuses on. “*Intriguing*” and “*interesting*” are often used to express reaction. Judgment and appreciation in book reviews on linguistics will be discussed in the following sections.

B. Judgment

As discussed above, judgment falls into two categories: social esteem and social sanction. Social esteem has to do with normality, capacity and tenacity; social sanction has to do with veracity and propriety. In both EBRLs and CBRLs, all the judgments made by reviewers belong to the category of social esteem. This means that they appraise the author in terms of normality, capacity and tenacity. In most cases, the author’s capacity is appraised. For example,

(1) She **succeeds** in resuscitating “Grassmann’s important demonstration of the fundamental accusative identity of these forms”, showing, that is, that they function as pronominals even in the Rigveda.¹

(2) 作者 Maeve Olohan 是英国曼切斯特大学翻译与跨文化中心的高级讲师, 曾与 *Mona Baker* 一起创建了世界上第一个翻译语料库, 在翻译语料库研究方面**颇有建树**。²

In these examples, the boldfaced parts are inscribed instances of judgment which indicate the authors are capable. The italicized part in (2) also implies that the author is capable, but it is an instance of implicit capacity. All the instances in (1) and (2) are judgments of social esteem as opposed to judgments of social sanction that might carry ethical or legal weight and be used to make judgments about morals. Reviewers in the study present no evidence of the latter kind of persuasive opinions. This might be seen as related to the field and characteristics of book reviews. EBRLs and CBRLs share a common field. They are academic discourse, and serve to introduce and evaluate books on linguistics positively or negatively from the academic perspective. Academic issues are discussed in book reviews. The quality of books is mainly related to authors’ capacity and tenacity instead of veracity or propriety.

Table II below tabulates the numbers and percentages for positive and negative judgments in EBRLs and CBRLs.

TABLE II
POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE JUDGMENT IN EBRLS AND CBRLS

Judgment Review	Positive		Negative	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
EBRL	68	73.9%	24	26.1%
CBRL	84	84.0%	16	16.0%

In EBRLs, the negative judgments amount to 26.1% of the total judgments; in CBRLs, the negative judgments take up only 16.0% of the total judgments. The percentage of negative judgments (26.1% in English and 16% in Chinese) is lower than that of negative appreciations in all appreciations in either EBRLs (40.3%) or CBRLs (21.2%). These statistics indicate that reviewers criticize the book with preference to the author.

In book reviews, the author is involved. His behavior is appraised. At the same time, he perhaps is a reader. Judgment which is made more directly to the author than affect or appreciation which is made directly to the book can be seen to hold much higher interpersonal stakes than affect or appreciation. Negative judgment, in particular, causes damage to the author of the book in question as it can undermine his academic reputation, credibility and the solidarity between the reviewer and the author more seriously and directly. For example,

(3) *Anthonissen (p. 95) writes of the three metafunctions which discourse performs often simultaneous. Often? It is hard to imagine any text without the simultaneous presence of ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings; surely that is the point of the Hallidayan metafunctions?*³

(4) 作者并没有在书的哪个部分严格地总结出男性语言的特点和男子气概的定义, 所以在许多分析中让人觉得有些**随意**。⁴

In (3), there is no inscribed attitudinal lexis used to criticize the author, but the italicized part, especially the two question marks and “*hard*”, implies the reviewer’s criticism towards the author for his incapacity or ignorance. According to the reviewer, the author should have known the basic point of systemic functional linguistics very well. Such a negative judgment, though it is evoked, carries more interpersonal implications for the author than negative affect or appreciation which is made to the book and mitigates the criticism to the author. Negative judgment is more likely to elicit interpersonal conflict and undermine the solidarity between the reviewer and the author seriously.

The boldfaced word in (4) is an explicit instance of negative judgment, which is a serious criticism to the author’s behavior. The italicized part in (4) is also an instance of negative judgment. Though implicit, they are made directly to the authors’ behavior, and more likely to elicit interpersonal conflict. Thus it is reasonable that the proportion of negative judgments to all judgments is lower than that of negative appreciations to all appreciations in both EBRLs and CBRLs.

¹ Joseph, B. D. (2006). Review of *Indian Linguistic Studies: Festschrift in Honor of George Cardona* edited by M. Madhav, Deshpande, & Peter E. Hook. *Language* 83. 4, 902-904.

² Huang, Qin (2007). Review of *Introducing Corpora in Translation Studies* by M. Olohan. *Contemporary Linguistics* 9. 1, 87-91.

³ Baynham, M. (2006). Review of *Re/reading the Past: Critical and Functional Perspectives on Time and Value* by J. R. Martin and Ruth Wodak. *Applied Linguistics* 27. 2, 331-334.

⁴ Wu, Yayin. (2006). Review of *Men Talk: Stories in the Making of Masculinities* by Jennifer Coates. *Contemporary Linguistics* 8. 3, 272-277.

So far, the similarities between EBRLs and CBRLs in terms of judgment have been discussed. According to Table II, it seems that no significant differences exist. However, a deeper investigation of the instances of judgment reveals that it is not the case.

In book reviews, there is a step which introduces the author. It provides the information about the author, such as his experience, previous publications and so on. Meanwhile, the reviewer appraises the author's behavior in the step. The study finds that only 3 out of the 20 EBRLs provide such information and only 9 instances of judgment (accounting for 9.8% of all instances of judgment) inform about the author in EBRLs. The great majority of judgments appraise the author's efforts he has made to the book. In contrast, 10 out of the 20 CBRLs provide such information and 27 instances (accounting for 27% of all instances of judgment) appear in CBRLs. These statistics might be interpreted in stereotypical terms as that Chinese reviewers attend more to the author's academic title, reputation and previous publications than English reviewers. This phenomenon might be related to the different cognitive styles of field-dependence (FD) and field-independence (FI).

According to Witkin *et al.* (1977), the FI /FD dimensions are defined as "the extent to which a person perceives part of a field as discrete from the surrounding field as a whole, rather than embedded in the field and the extent to which a person perceives analytically" (p. 7). A field-independent person has an analytic view focusing on salient objects and their attributes, while a field-dependent person has a holistic view that takes into account the context and relationships involved (Nisbett, 2003, p. 82).

Usually, East Asians are more field-dependent. They pay more attention to background than westerners. Instead, westerners are more field-independent. They are more likely to separate the object from its environment, and attach more importance to objects themselves (Nisbett, 2003). As to judgment in book reviews, Chinese reviewers pay more attention to the background of the author, i.e. academic title, reputation and previous publications, than English reviewers. According to them, there is an important relationship between the author's academic title, reputation and previous publications and the success of the book under review. English reviewers put more emphasis on the author's efforts which he has made to the book. They tend to attribute the success of the book to the efforts the author has made. For instance,

(5) Her **insistence** on the interdisciplinary nature of the enterprise is fully warranted and, to some extent, borne out in the chapters that follow.⁵

(6) John Sinclair, 英国著名语言学家, 出版著作 30 多本, 发表文章上百篇, 在话语分析和语料库语言学两个领域成绩显著。⁶

In (5), the author is praised for her insistence. Instead, example (6) experiences a different phenomenon. It introduces the authors' background, i.e. their academic records, professional titles and reputation. The boldfaced and italicized parts, certainly, are instances of judgment. In addition, the expression in bold face in (2) is an instance of judgment too. All of them provide the readers with some information of the authors' background.

Chinese reviewers attend more not only to the background of the author, but also to the background of the study to which the book relates. They introduce the background of the study and insert the study into the broad field. Among the 20 Chinese book reviews, 11 have an introduction of the background of the study. In contrast, only 4 out of the 20 English book reviews introduce such study background.

C. Appreciation

The system of appreciation is organized around three variables: reaction, composition and valuation. In order to gain a clear picture of the configurations of appreciation, we study these variables of appreciation from two perspectives: positive and negative perspectives.

1. Positive Appreciation

Table III tabulates realizations of positive appreciation variables of reaction, composition, and valuation.

TABLE III VARIABLES OF POSITIVE APPRECIATION IN EBRLS AND CBRLS						
Review	Reaction		Composition		Valuation	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
EBRL	66	23.9%	52	18.8%	158	57.2%
CBRL	22	5.9%	100	26.6%	254	67.5%

In EBRLs, there are 158 occurrences of positive valuation, making up 57.2% of the total positive appreciations in the corpus. In CBRLs, there are 254 cases of such type, comprising 67.5% of the total positive appreciations. These statistics suggest that positive valuation is dominant in positive appreciations. Reviewers often appraise the valuation of book reviews positively from many perspectives, such as research results, research methods, data, significance, implication and so on. For example,

(7) Any knowledgeable reader can see that his paper are full of **new** insights and **provide** data on which others can build.⁷

⁵ Bickerton, D. (2007). Review of *Language Origins: Perspectives on Evolution* edited by Maggie Tallerman. *Journal of Linguistics* 43. 1, 259-264.

⁶ Huang, Ruihong. (2007). Review of *Trust the Text: Language, Corpus and Discourse* by John Sinclair. *Modern Foreign Languages* 30. 1, 102-104.

(8) 本书的最大**价值**在于给语用学**提供**了许多**新**的启示, **开启**了**新**的研究领域。⁸

In (7), the reviewer praises the book for its value in terms of research result and data respectively by means of “new” and “provide”. Similarly, in (8), the author appraises positively the value and significance of the research result by the boldfaced words 价值(value), 提供(provide), 新(new) and 开启(start).

There are fewer instances of positive composition than positive valuation in the book reviews on linguistics. Compositions take 18.8% of the total positive appreciations in EBRLs; in CBRLs their percentage is about 26.6%. What is more, one important purpose of book reviews is to promote the book. Positive valuation of the book is certainly the most important to potential readers. In addition, the reviewer appraises positively the composition of the book from fewer perspectives than they do on positive valuation. Usually, they express their attitude towards composition in terms of organization, structure and language. Examples of this kind include:

(9) The presentation is always **lucid** and there are **ample** illustrations that can be discussed in class.⁹

(10) 本书回顾了西方幽默研究理论和方法, 着重从语义学、句法学、语用学、语篇分析等角度分析了笑话的语言结构、语篇特征、生成和理解的心理机制及计算机处理, **例证丰富, 可读性很强**。¹⁰

In (9), “lucid” means the points are expressed clearly, and “ample” is used to praise the book in that there are enough illustrations and the conclusion is convincing. In (10), “例证丰富” means that there are enough examples, and “可读性很强” is an instance appraising the language. It means the book is easy to understand.

As to positive reaction, English reviewers tend to make more positive appraisals on reaction than Chinese reviewers. As Table III reveals, positive reactions make up 23.9% of all the positive appreciations in EBRLs, but the percentage of positive reaction in CBRLs is only 5.9%. They are sharply different ($\chi^2=51.37$, $df=1$, $p<0.01$).

2. Negative Appreciation

As to negative appreciation, the situation is a little different. Table IV presents the number and percentage for each type of negative appreciation.

TABLE IV
VARIABLES OF NEGATIVE APPRECIATION IN EBRLS AND CBRLS

Appreciation Review	Reaction		Composition		Valuation	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
EBRL	32	17.2%	89	47.8%	65	34.9%
CBRL	4	4.0%	58	57.4%	39	38.6%

In EBRLs, 47.8% of negative appreciations are instances of composition, and 34.9% of them are instances of valuation. These statistics mean that in negative appreciations, compositions account for the highest percentage in EBRLs. Much the same can be said for the analysis of negative appreciation in CBRLs, in which the percentage of negative compositions is 57.4%, and that of negative valuations is 38.6%.

The perspectives from which they make negative and positive composition are different. Reviewers usually point out explicitly or implicitly the incompleteness of the book under review. They may point out what should be added. Examples of negative composition include:

(11) A number of the texts need more interpretation (such as the ICQ dialogue, pp. 218ff.).¹¹

(12) 其次, 书中没有提及转喻在认知中的重要作用。¹²

These two examples are instances of implicit composition. Each of them criticizes the book for its incompleteness. All these examples suggest that some more interpretation or materials should be added.

As far as negative valuation is concerned, EBRLs and CBRLs contain the similar percentage of the total negative appreciations (34.9% and 38.6% respectively). They are statistically of no difference ($\chi^2=0.75$, $df=1$, $p>0.01$). The following examples are instances of negative valuation.

(13) I consider this to be a **limitation** of the book since, at least in principle, the interaction could be profitable in both directions.¹³

(14) 尽管该书在强调词汇的重要意义、连接二语习得研究与词汇教学等方面体现了显著的特点, 但也存在**不足之处**。如部分章节有前后重复引用前人的研究以作论证的现象。¹⁴

⁷ Ladefoged, P. (2007). Review of *Speech Acoustic and Phonetics: Selected Writing* by Gunnar Fant. *Language* 84. 1, 189-191.

⁸ Du, Shihong. (2006). *Context as Other Minds: The Pragmatics of Sociality, Cognition and Communication* by Talmy Givon. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research* 38. 5, 316-318.

⁹ Jucker, A. H. 2007. Review of *Regularity in Semantic Change* by Elizabeth Closs Traugott and Richard B. Dasher. *Journal of Linguistics* 43. 1, 264-267.

¹⁰ Liu, Chengyu & Yingying, Li. (2006). Review of *The Linguistics Analysis of Jokes* by G. Ritchie. *Contemporary Linguistics* 8. 3, 278-283.

¹¹ Gupta, A. F. (2006). Review of *Chinese Englishes: A Sociolinguistic History* by Kingsley Bolton. *Applied Linguistics* 27. 1, 145-147.

¹² Yu, Jianliang. (2006). Review of *A Study of Cognitive Metaphor* by Zhuanglin Hu. *Modern Foreign Languages* 29. 2, 206-209.

¹³ Cecchetto, C. (2007). Review of *Universal Grammar in the Reconstruction of Ancient Languages* edited by Katalin E. Kiss. *Journal of Linguistics* 43. 1, 240-244.

¹⁴ Li, Qinshen. (2006). Review of *Vocabulary Myths: Applying Second Language Research to Classroom Teaching* by Keith S. Folse. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research* 38. 6, 472-474.

All the boldfaced parts here are explicit instances of negative valuation, and the italicized parts are implicit ones. Reviewers appraise the valuation of the book negatively from the same perspective as they do positively. In (14), 不足之处 means limitation.

It is interesting to note that positive valuation constitutes the highest percentage of positive appreciation, and negative composition accounts for the highest percentage of negative appreciation. That is to say, as for positive appreciation, valuation of the book in question is stressed; as for negative composition, shortcomings in language and structure receive the most attention.

Usually, when introducing a book to others, we assume it is valuable; we hardly introduce a book for its good organization or structure alone. The value of the book under review takes precedence over its structure or organization. If we attend too much to negative valuation, the reader may doubt that the book is valuable. Therefore, when praising a book, we usually make its value prominent; when criticizing a book, we pay much more attention to the shortcomings in composition. Moreover, such shortcomings and limitations are easy to be mended, and negative compositions are also suggestions for improvement when the book is republished.

As for negative reaction, it constitutes 17.2% of the total in EBRLs, but it takes only about 4.0% of all the negative appreciations in CBRLs. They are significantly different too ($\chi^2=9.94$, $df=1$, $p<0.01$). From Table III, we learn that the percentage of positive reaction in EBRLs is higher than that in CBRLs. All these confirm that English reviewers keep a higher percentage of reactions. Examples of positive and negative reaction in EBRLs include:

(15) Moreover, the paper by Peter Hook and Kusum Jain offers some **intriguing** facts about how sarcasm is achieved in Hindi-Urdu, providing as well a typology of different kinds of sarcasm.¹⁵

(16) From my overview of PPL so far, the title of the book might seem **puzzling**.¹⁶

In the two examples, “intriguing” is an instance of positive reaction, and “puzzling” is one of negative reaction. According to our study, positive reaction, in most cases, is expressed by means of “*intriguing*”, “*interesting*” in EBRLs.

Table I confirms that EBRLs make more frequent use of affect though the difference is not significant. In this section, we conclude that EBRLs keep a higher percentage of reaction, positive or negative, than CBRLs. We think they are caused by the same reason.

As illustrated above, affect is personalized and subjective. Appreciation reworks feelings as propositions. It describes the writer’s or speaker’s feelings through a comparatively objective way. However, among the three variables of appreciation, “reaction is the least differentiated from affect” (Painter, 2003, p. 205) and is more subjective than composition and valuation. In book reviews, reviewers express their personal views towards the book; as such their views are subjective in nature. However subjectivity in academic discourse is often avoided in order to achieve objectivity, for book reviews are a kind of academic discourse. From these propositions, it follows that English reviewers tend to take subjective ways more frequently than Chinese ones to express their opinions, and Chinese reviewers are more likely to take objective ways in order to achieve objectivity.

V. CONCLUSIONS

In both EBRLs and CBRLs, affect only takes up a very small part among all the instances of attitude because it is personalized and subjective. Appreciation accounts for the great majority of attitude. Positive valuations dominate positive appreciations, and negative compositions constitute the highest percentage of negative appreciations. Usually, when introducing a book to others, we assume it is valuable; generally we do not introduce it just for its good organization or structure. Therefore, when praising a book, we generally make its value prominent. Instead, when criticizing a book, we attend much more to the shortcomings and limitations in composition. If we attend too much to negative valuation, the reader may doubt that the book is valuable. EBRLs keep a higher percentage of affect and reaction, positive or negative, than CBRLs. Affect is personalized and subjective. Among the three variables of appreciation, reaction is more subjective than composition and valuation. There are more instances of reaction in EBRLs than in CBRLs. Therefore, we conclude that English reviewers tend to take subjective ways more frequently than Chinese ones to express their opinions, and Chinese reviewers are more likely to take objective ways in order to achieve objectivity.

On the other hand, books are written or edited by human beings; sometimes, the author is appraised in book reviews. So there are some instances of judgment in book reviews but they are not dominant in all the instances of attitude. Appreciation accounts for the great majority of attitude. All the instances of judgment in the 40 book reviews are those of social esteem, especially of capacity. In addition, authors are involved in judgment, and as such judgment bears higher interpersonal stakes than affect or appreciation. Therefore, the percentage of negative judgment is lower than that of negative attitudes in all attitudes and that of negative appreciations in all appreciations in either EBRLs or CBRLs. What is more, Chinese reviewers attend more to the author’s background, such as his history, reputation and previous publications, etc., than their western counterparts who attach more importance to the efforts the author has made to the

¹⁵ Van Valin, R. D. (2007). Review of *Constructions at Work: The Nature of Generalization in language* by Adele E. Goldberg. *Journal of Linguistics* 43. 1, 234-239.

¹⁶ Dryer, M. S. (2007). Review of *Possible and Probable Languages: A Generative Perspective on Linguistic Typology* by Frederick J. Newmeyer. *Journal of Linguistics* 43. 1, 244-251.

book. This is because Chinese are more field-dependent, and give more attention to background; westerners are more likely to separate the object from its environment and attend more to the object itself.

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The Role of Cross-linguistic Experience on English Idiom and Proverb Comprehension: A Case of Iranian Turkish Learners of English as a Foreign and Third Language

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Abstract—The current study aimed to establish whether linguistic background influences Iranian EFL learners' English proverb and idiom comprehension. The specific research question was whether there is a statistically significant difference between the performances of Persian monolinguals and Persian-Turkish bilinguals in idiom-proverb comprehension on the one hand, and among bilinguals themselves on the other. The performance differences between male and female participants, as well as the age factor were also examined. Subjects included English Language Translation students in University of Zanjan (Iran). Monolinguals were Persian speakers, whereas bilinguals were Persian-Turkish speakers. After administering Nelson English Language Test, English Proverb Test, and Yandell's English Idiom Test, the results were analyzed through ANOVA, Independent-samples t-test, and Pearson product-moment correlation. Findings indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in the between-group and within-group performances of monolinguals and bilinguals. However, the results showed that males outperformed females in the idiom test, but not in the proverb test. The existence of a relationship between age and idiom-proverb comprehension was not supported. The findings lent support to the arguments proposed by Cummins's (1976) *Threshold Hypothesis* – which may thus have some implications for encouraging bilingual education in schools; the findings of this study may also be useful for the curriculum developers and policymakers in multilingual societies.

Index Terms—bilingual education, Persian language, English idiom and proverb comprehension, sex-age factor, threshold hypothesis

I. REVIEW OF PREVIOUS STUDIES

Bilingual and multi-language use, as Grosjean (1982) points out, is becoming widespread; it also characterizes a bulk of the world population. To be more accurate, as Crystal (1997) estimates, two-thirds of the world's children grow up in bilingual environments. In this regard, Iran is not an exception. Colin and Prys (1998) report a large part of Iranian population to be bilingual in which about 20% are Turkish speakers.

Research on bilingualism and bilingual education is wide-ranging and has grown noticeably in quantity and quality in recent years; it is often argued that whether knowing more than two languages enhances learning new languages. Hence, its investigation covers an extensive array of pro-bilingual and anti-bilingual inquiries.

On the one hand, some studies (Cenoz & Valencia, 1994; Cummins, 1979; Eisentein, 1980; Hoffman, 2001; Klein, 1995; Modirghamane, 2006; Sanz, 2000 and Thomas, 1988) consider bilinguality as advantageous on third language acquisition. For example, Ben-Zeev (1977) compared two groups of Hebrew-English and English children and came to the conclusion that bilinguals outperformed monolinguals on *grammaticality judgment tasks*. This research is in line with that of Galambos (1982) which proposed that Salvadoran children proficient in English and Spanish demonstrated a *stronger syntactic orientation* when judging grammatically correct and incorrect sentences in both languages. Eisenstein (1980) carried out a research on the relationship between bilingualism and foreign language learning, the results of which indicated that bilingual children were more prone to learn a foreign language. Lindfors' findings (1991) showed that *metalinguistic awareness* as an effect of bilingualism is a crucial factor in educational development such as grouping words by parts of speech, word definition, thinking about language forms, recognizing sounds and component syllables of words.

Likewise, Cook (1997) claimed that foreign language study results in “increased *metalinguistic awareness* of phonology, syntax, and the arbitrary nature of meaning, and gains in cognitive flexibility” (p. 235). Kaushanskaya and Marian (2009) tried to work out whether or not bilingualism *facilitates acquisition of novel words* in adults, comparing monolingual English speakers, early English-Spanish bilinguals, and early English-Mandarin bilinguals. They suggested that “acquisition of any two languages early in life facilitates the ability to learn new words in adulthood” (p. 709).

In a study conducted by Thomas (1988), two groups of English monolinguals and English-Spanish bilinguals were compared in *learning French*. Her study demonstrated striking differences between the two groups, as the bilinguals outperformed the monolinguals. She concluded that bilinguals learning a third language seem to have developed a *sensitivity to language as a system* which helps them perform better on those activities usually associated with formal language learning as compared to the monolinguals learning a foreign language for the first time. In the same way, Cenoz and Valencia (1994) and Sanz (2000) investigated the influence of bilinguality (mostly balanced and biliterate bilinguals) on third language learning. They found bilinguals’ performance on *metalinguistic awareness* tasks outstanding and disclosed the reason as the consequence of bilingual experience. Similarly, in a longitudinal survey Modirghamene (2006) examined the possible effects of bilinguality on reading comprehension proficiency achievement. The results indicated that “bilinguals performed significantly better than monolinguals, [and that] bilingualism may be a good predictor of achievement in learning a third language” (p. 280).

On the other hand, some studies (Anastasi & Cordova, 1953; Darcy, 1953; McNamara, 1966; Nayak et al, 1990; Saer, 1923 and Yousefi, 1995) find bilinguality disadvantageous. Darcy (1953) concluded from a review of related research on intelligence and bilingualism that bilinguals suffer as a language handicap. McNamara (1966) stated that bilingual children *never reached comparable levels of linguistic proficiency* as did monolinguals and their “lower verbal intelligence was a result of a ‘balance effect,’ whereby proficiency in a second language necessitated a loss in proficiency in one’s first language” (p. 505). Nayak et al. (1990) conducted a research on the acquisition of an artificial grammar by multilinguals, bilinguals and monolinguals. The results showed no clear evidence indicating that multilinguals and bilinguals were superior in language learning abilities. Yousefi (1995) compared Persian and Turkish learners in terms of *intelligence* and *English language achievement*. The results indicated that bilinguals did not perform better than monolinguals on intelligence test. He also demonstrated that monolinguals performed better in English language achievement test. He hypothesized the weak performance of bilinguals in illiteracy in first (Turkish) language and argued that “the bilingual children studying foreign languages as a part of their curriculum would fall behind their monolingual classmates. Therefore, providing some extra-curriculum EFL classes for the minority language children seems to be of great help, if not necessary” (p. 54). He maintained that developing first language skills will directly flourish second and foreign languages. Likewise, Bahrainy (2003) found monolinguals’ performance better than that of bilinguals. She conducted a research among 150 female subjects and found significant differences between the two groups of Turkish-Persian bilinguals and Persian monolinguals; that is to say, “Monolinguals surpassed bilinguals in both areas of lexicon and syntax” (p. xii).

II. THE PRESENT STUDY

The present research attempts to offer a new perspective on some of the issues of bilingualism, proposing a *new direction* for the bilingual research. The study addresses *degrees of bilingualism* and argues that parents-child communication (which benefits from a more extensive usage of Turkish language) results in better achievements in proverb-idiom comprehension. Thus a comparison is conducted amid between-groups (monolinguals and bilinguals) and within-groups (bilinguals). Sex and age effect are also investigated. This study also demonstrates a relationship between cross-linguistic experience and *figurative language*, particularly idiom and proverb.

Idiom and proverb are considered as figurative language because they cannot be meaningful literally. Interpreting them requires a cognitive process made of all the possible meanings entering to the mind. Besides, every society—and consequently every culture—have its own sets of idioms and proverbs. These are mostly context-dependent and vary from culture to culture; this is also true from one language to another.

Some observations in the literature on bilingualism and multilingualism suggest that bilingual children are more flexible in thinking as compared to monolinguals, and that they have greater language awareness. As language has an influence on thoughts and beliefs, people who know more than two languages may have a wider range of thought and a greater command of language. Thus, in order to comprehend and interpret figurative language, the role of cross-linguistic experience seems crucial. This issue is yet to be addressed in the research on bilingualism. The study examines this issue by measuring the English language comprehension of both monolinguals and bilinguals.

Another issue to be considered in bilingualism is its *extent*. Zanjan is considered a bilingual province among Iran’s thirty-one provinces. Azeri (often called Turki/Turkish) is spoken as an informal language, while Persian is spoken and taught as the formal language in schools and universities. Turkish is learned orally and there is no script for it, yet city inhabitants can speak it very well (although they cannot read or write it). Indeed, there is no official and unanimously agreed-upon script for Turkish neither in Zanjan nor in Iran. Thus, the bilinguals are considered as dominate not balanced; furthermore, they go under three categories based on language of communication to their parents: a) the ones who use Persian, b) the ones who use Turkish and c) the ones who use both languages. This study examines ALL *three*

categories, highlighting the role of bilinguality on idiom-proverb comprehension (not only between-groups but also within-groups). The age and sex factors of participants are considered as well.

III. QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY

- 1- Is there any significant difference in idiom comprehension scores of bilinguals and monolinguals?
- 2- Is there any significant difference in proverb comprehension scores of bilinguals and monolinguals?
- 3- Is there any significant difference among three groups of bilinguals?
- 4- Which sex performs better? Females or males?
- 5- Can age factor be influential?

IV. METHODOLOGY

Participants

All the subjects in this study were students of English Language Translation in University of Zanjan (a Turkish-speaking city in Iran). Among the whole 126 participants, 91 subjects were distributed into four groups of both female and male. They were selected according to their English proficiency level (intermediate) by a standard test (Nelson English Language Test) and a demographic questionnaire.

Hence, Group A₁ consisted of Persian monolinguals (n = 20, 13 females and 7 males, mean age = 21.73 years, SD = 1.58), Group A₂ Turkish-Persian bilinguals (n = 25, 22 females and 3 males, mean age = 22.32 years, SD = 2.44), Group A₃ Turkish-Persian bilinguals (n = 26, 23 females and 3 males, mean age = 21.55 years, SD = 1.57), Group A₄ Turkish-Persian bilinguals (n = 20, 9 females and 11 males, mean age = 21.81 years, SD = 1.11).

The difference between the last three groups is their degree of being bilingual. Consequently, GA₂ participants, though knowing Turkish, speak Persian to their parents. GA₃ use both languages, and finally GA₄ speak Turkish to their parents.

As Fig. 1 shows, the percentage of bilinguals who speak both Turkish and Persian with their parents (GA₃) is the highest of all, while the percentage of bilinguals who speak Turkish with their parents is the lowest.

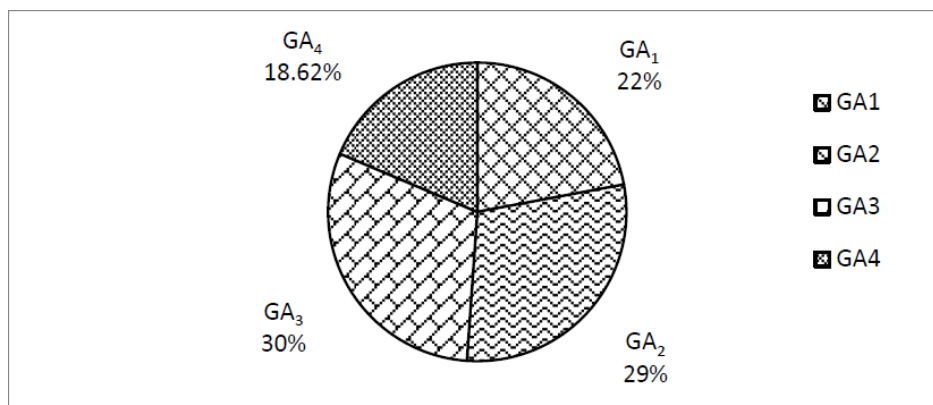


Figure 1. The four participated groups.

Instrumentation

In order to test the hypotheses, the researchers utilized four tools; Nelson English Language Test, Yandell's Idioms Test, English Language Proverb Test and Demographic Questionnaire.

Being cautious about the homogeneity of participants with respect to English language proficiency level, the researchers decided to administer one of the Nelson English Language Battery of tests (300 D), which is commonly used for three major reasons. First of all, it is quick. Second, it is standard (Cronbach's Alpha is 0.67). It benefits from 50 multiple-choice items and measures the subjects' English language knowledge, focusing on grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. It took the subjects 45 minutes to respond. The third reason is its practicality. The allocated time for the researchers for each session was limited, while they also wanted the students to fill out the test completely with enthusiasm and willingness.

The idiom test used in this study was first developed by Maurine Yandell in 1959 at the University of New Mexico. Later, it was applied by Esther Amelia Hoiland in 1973 at the University of Saskatchewan, Canada. The estimation of reliability through Cronbach's alpha is 0.75.

The proverb test used in this study is developed by Santos at Texas Tech University in 2000. It contains twenty-four short stories (e.g., six to ten sentences in length) accompanied by a proverb at the end of the story. The subjects were asked to choose the general meaning of the proverb which explained it in various situations. The estimation of reliability through Cronbach's alpha was 0.84.

The main purpose of preparing demographic questionnaire was to sift out participants into four groups based on their knowledge of Persian and Turkish languages. The construction of the questionnaire has benefited a panel of

professionals in English language teaching. This questionnaire covers items of age, sex, place of residence, mother tongue, father tongue, and the language of communication between parents and subjects.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Summary descriptive statistics including the performance mean of the subjects are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF IDIOM AND PROVERB TESTS AND AGE OF THE SUBJECTS

	Number of Subjects	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Idiom Test	86	4	27	12.22	4.528
Proverb Test	86	4	23	14.05	4.937
Age	84	19	31	21.90	1.788

As Table 2 shows, there is no significant difference in scores for monolinguals ($M = 12.84$, $SD = 4.79$) and the ones for bilinguals, $M = 12.04$, $SD = 4.47$; $t(84) = 0.67$, $p = 0.50$ (two-tailed). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = 0.79, 95% CI: -1.55 to 3.14) is very small (eta squared = .005) according to Cohen's rating (1988, cited in Pallant, 2007).

TABLE 2:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR YANDELL'S IDIOMS TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-taild)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	0.061	0.806	0.674	84	0.501	0.797	1.181	-1.551	3.145
Equal variances not assumed			0.649	27.494	0.522	0.797	1.229	-1.722	3.317

Table 3 reveals no significant difference in scores for monolinguals ($M = 13.21$, $SD = 4.99$) and bilinguals, $M = 14.28$, $SD = 4.93$; $t(84) = -0.83$, $p = 0.40$ (two-tailed). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = -1.07, 95% CI: -3.62 to 1.48) is very small (eta squared = .008) according to Cohen's rating (1988, cited in Pallant, 2007).

TABLE 3.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR PROVERB TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-taild)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	0.039	.844	-.835	84	0.406	-1.073	1.286	-3.629	1.48
Equal variances not assumed			-.829	28.730	.414	-1.073	1.295	-3.722	1.576

The bar charts illustrated in Fig. 2 provide a clear overview of monolinguals' and bilinguals' mean scores in idiom-proverb comprehension. In idiom test monolinguals performed slightly better than bilinguals, while in proverb test bilinguals performed better than monolinguals.

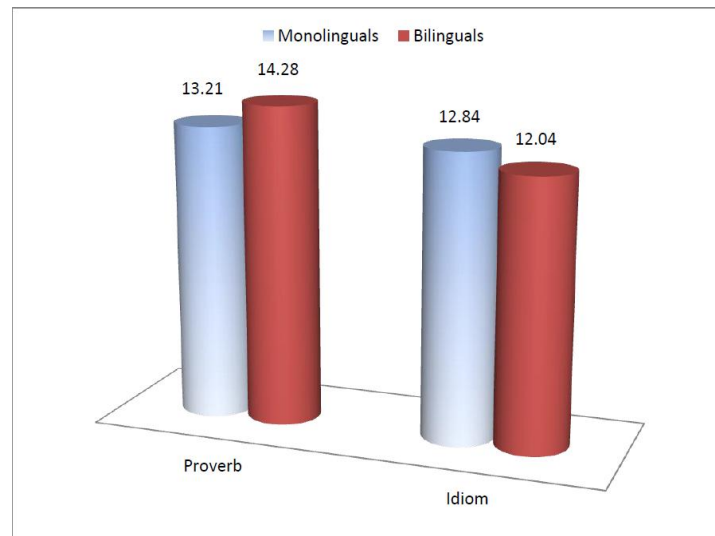


Figure 2. Comparison of bilinguals and monolinguals on idiom and proverb tests.

In order to answer the third question, One-Way ANOVA seemed to be a suitable option. Table 4 presents differences among three groups of bilinguals regarding the *idiom test* performance. Degree of freedom equals 2 and as $F(2, 64) = .23$ and less than 3.14, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. Here, the p-value (.79) is higher than .05 at the level of 95 percent probability. The calculated $\eta^2 = .007$ which is a very small effect, indicating that only .7 percent of the variance in idiom comprehension is explained by Turkish language.

TABLE 4.
DIFFERENCES AMONG GROUPS IN YANDELL'S IDIOMS TEST

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	f	sig.	Partial eta squared
BETWEEN GROUPS	9.417	2	4.709	0.230	0.795	0.007
WITHIN GROUPS	1309.448	64	20.460			
TOTAL	1318.866	66				

Table 5 shows the differences among three groups of bilinguals in reference to *proverb test* performance. Degree of freedom equals 2 and as $F(2, 64) = 1.34$ and less than 3.14, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. The p-value (.26) is higher than .05 at the level of 95 percent probability. As a result, there is no significant difference among bilinguals themselves. The calculated η^2 (partial eta squared) equals .04 which is a small effect, signifying that only 4 percent of the variance in proverb comprehension is explained by Turkish language.

TABLE 5.
DIFFERENCES AMONG GROUPS IN PROVERB TEST

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	f	sig.	Partial eta squared
Between groups	64.730	2	32.365	1.344	0.268	.040
Within groups	1540.882	64	24.076			
Total	1605.612	66				

Fig. 3 displays the mean differences – though not significant – among bilinguals themselves, illustratively.

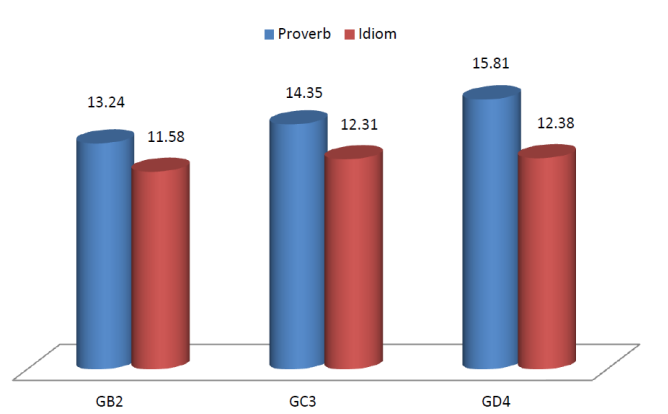


Figure 3. Comparison of three groups of bilinguals on idiom and proverb tests.

In order to answer the fourth research question, an Independent Samples T-test was used. In Table 6, t-value equals 2.31, degree of freedom equals 84 and p-value equals .02. For the calculated t in comparison to T-table (2.00) with the probability of 5 percent is greater and $p < .05$ which induces that another null hypothesis of this study is rejected.

TABLE 6.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR YANDELL'S IDIOMS TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-taild)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	0.066	.798	2.312	84	0.023	2.488	1.076	0.348	4.628
Equal variances not assumed			2.104	33.319	0.043	2.488	1.182	.083	4.893

As Table 7 indicates, ($p = .06$ and $p > .05$) there is no significant difference between males and females in proverb test. None of the two groups performed superior. In Table 4.13, t-value equals 1.84, degree of freedom equals 84 and p-value equals .06. For the calculated t in comparison to T-table (2.00) with the probability of 5 percent is smaller and $p > .05$ – which indicates that the null hypothesis is confirmed. In contrast to idiom test, males did not perform better than females in proverb comprehension test.

TABLE 7.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR PROVERB TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-Test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-taild)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	0.230	0.633	1.848	84	0.068	2.192	1.168	-0.167	4.550
Equal variances not assumed			1.790	36.932	.082	2.192	1.224	-0.289	4.673

Fig. 4 illustrates the differences between males and females in both tests of idiom and proverb.

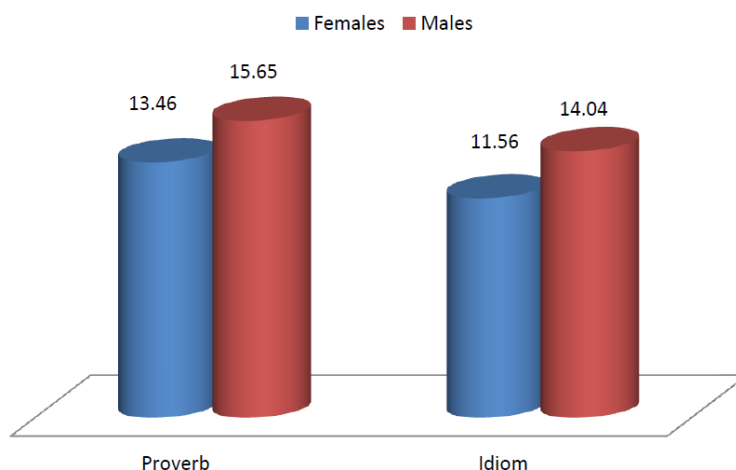


Figure 4. Comparison of females and males on idiom and proverb tests.

In order to answer the last question, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation was used to explore the relationship between age (19 to 31 years old) and idiom comprehension score.

In Table 8 the estimated correlation (r) is .13, indicating a small correlation. As $p = .23$ and $p > .05$, there is no significant relationship between age and idiom comprehension.

TABLE 8.
PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION

		Age	Idiom
Age	Pearson Correlation	1	0.132
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.232
	N	84	84
Idiom	Pearson Correlation	0.132	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.232	
	N	84	86

In order to explore the relationship between age and proverb score, again Pearson Product-Moment Correlation was applied since both variables were interval and continuous. As Table 9 shows, estimated correlation (r) is .07, indicating a very small correlation. As $p = .51$ and $p > .05$, there is no significant relationship between age and proverb comprehension.

TABLE 9.
PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION

		Age	Idiom
Age	Pearson Correlation	1	0.073
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.510
	N	84	84
Idiom	Pearson Correlation	0.073	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.510	
	N	84	86

VI. CONCLUSION

In order to find answers for the role of cross-linguistic experience and discover whether it has an effect on English language comprehension, particularly idiom and proverb, among the 86 participants—all English language translation students at the University of Zanjan, Iran—the Persian monolingual were sieved from the Persian-Turkish bilinguals. Some of the questions addressed in this study may be original in the sense that first, the study highlighted the *degree of bilingualism* in: a) dominant bilinguals, whose language to communicate to their parents is Persian, b) dominant bilinguals, who communicate to their parents through Turkish, and c) dominant bilinguals, whose language to communicate to their parents are both Persian and Turkish. Second, the study sought to find answers in the realm of English proverb and idiom, which is a novel issue in studies on bilingualism.

Taken together, the findings lent support the hypothesis that bilinguality cannot be considered as an enhancement or a hindrance in learning the third language (English). Nevertheless, high proverb mean differences of bilinguals in comparison to monolinguals, as well as high proverb-idiom mean differences among bilinguals themselves imply the fact that bilinguality may have a positive role if bilinguals' mother tongue attains a certain level of proficiency (i.e. learning mother tongue academically). This statement is line with Cummins's (1976) *Threshold Hypothesis* which assumes that individual bilinguals will not benefit from their bilinguality until they have attained a certain minimum or *threshold level* of competence in a second language. He also points out that balanced bilinguals show positive effects when various aspects of cognitive development are measured. Dominant bilinguals would show neither positive nor negative effects, i.e. their achievement will not differ from that of monolinguals. Those, on the other hand, who achieve a native level in neither of their languages would perform at a lower level as compared to monolingual children.

With regard to the sex factor, the results of independent samples T-test revealed the fact that *males'* performance on idiom comprehension was more *significant* than that of females. This result was true for proverb comprehension [the mean score of males (15.56) was greater than females (13.46)] but not statistically significant.

With regard to the sex factor, a small correlation yielded. It can be concluded that age factor is irrelevant to idiom-proverb comprehension as senior students did not perform better than freshman students.

One implication of the report may be said to be the significance of *bilingual education* in order to let bilingual children benefit from the privilege of their mother tongue. In Iran for example, curriculum developers and policy makers of the Ministry of Education are encouraged to design and assign courses in Turkish language. Dube and Herbert (1975) found that school performance and linguistic proficiency in both languages increases when children's mother tongue is valued and used in the classroom. Furthermore, from a social point of view, bilingual education would help society benefit from enhanced linguistic resources in its political, economical, and international relations.

To take a step further, bilingual education may encourage parents to raise their children bilingually. This may help Turkish language (which is indeed in danger of extinction) to regain its position among the Persian-Turkish families. This fact is in line with researchers who support learning a language *earlier*, including Zied et al. (2004, p. 256) who argue that "the more proficient in a certain language a person is being young, the more proficient he will remain in that language being older." Also, De Bot (2006) reports the study which Mechelli et al. conducted on Italian learners of English in 2004 suggesting that "there is an increase of density [gray matter density in the inferior parietal cortex] with language learning and a decline with the increase of age of onset of acquisition" (p.128). Another implication for the this study is for English language teachers to consider more seriously the teaching of idiom and proverb; presenting

them comparatively, the teachers can observe the cultural differences for the sake of a more effective teaching. Extensive exposure and systematic practice can be beneficial.

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The Evaluation of Iranian EFL Textbooks from Post Method Principles Pedagogy

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Abstract—EFL materials and textbooks are important factors in many language programs and making judgments about their needs meticulous book evaluation. In Iran, different textbooks are used for teaching general and technical English to undergraduate students at universities. Despite the great use of these textbooks and dominance of post method in EFL classrooms, it is not yet known to what extent the principles of particularity, possibility, and practicality are observed in the currently practiced EFL textbooks at Iranian universities. The main objectives of the presents study were to investigate whether the principles of post method have been applied in these textbooks or not. The data of the present were collected through a researcher developed instrument. This instrument, book evaluation consists of ten items measured on a five point Likert scale. The participants were selected from two different groups: EFL teachers and EFL learners at all universities in Sistan and Baluchistan province. The data were analyzed using T-Test. The results of the study indicated that both learners and teachers believed that the current textbooks are not against the learners' ethnicity, gender, and cultural values. However, they argued that the other principles were not given appropriate attention.

Index Terms—EFL textbook evaluation, post method

I. INTRODUCTION

It is a deed doubt that English has become the core of communication in the world. EFL materials and textbooks are key factors in many language programs and making judgments about them needs book evaluation. The main objectives of the presents study were investigate whether the principles of post method have been applied in these textbooks or not.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Textbook Evaluation

English Language is the lingua franca of modern world. According to (Dubin& Olshtain, 1986), suggest that the textbook is tangible element for teachers and learners to gives a face validity to a language course. Further, Hutchinson and Torres (1994) declare that suitable textbook is the best means to have long- lasting changes. Regarding the multiple roles of textbooks in EFT, Razmjoo (2007) propose that students working with a textbook have a sense of progress, security and achievement. Besides, Cuuingsworth (1995) suggests that textbooks are an effective source for presenting materials by the teachers, a useful source for self-directed learning, a reference source for students, a source of ideas and activities, a syllabus that reflects prescribed learning objectives, and support for few skillful teachers who have yet to gain in confidence. Regarding the advantages, there are many strategies available about book evaluation and many scholars work on it. Such as (Hutchinson & Waters, 1996; Cunningsworth, 1984; Chambers, 1997; Littejohn, 1996; McDonough & Shaw, 1993; Breen & Candlin, 1987; Shelden, 1988 ; Tucker, C. A., 1975; Mathews, 1985; Ur, 1996; Skierso, 1991).

B. Current Approaches to Materials Evaluation in ELT

Evaluation is a familiar term in the realm of education. Every educational system has five important parameters (a teacher, students, teaching methods, materials, and evaluation). As (Tarone & Yule, 1989) argue freedom of making decisions is ignored if learners' needs just mentioned without awareness of prescribed textbooks that is staple in EFL classes. According to Germaine and Rea-Dickens (1992), argue that evaluation is related to learning process in one way and to development and teacher changes in another way. Furthermore, Kiely (2009) discuss that evaluation is pivotal role to ensure enhancement and quality assurance.

Similarity, Jones (1999) declares that evaluation has root in theoretical and empirical determination of curriculum and its details from various perspectives, consideration of teacher's performance, learner's accomplishment, and materials. Additionally, Yumuk (1998) defines evaluation as an "interactive process " that includes a deep assessment of the used materials . In another definition, he emphasizes on integral relation between teachers, learners and materials.

As Tomlinson (2001) argues that textbook evaluation is an applied linguistic activity through that supervisors, teachers, materials developers, and administrators can make judgments about the benefit of the materials for the people using them. Additionally, Ellis (1997) and Cunningsworth (1995) propose that textbook evaluation helps teachers act beyond impressionistic assessments.

In this regards, Ellis (1997) defines two kinds of evaluation, namely, predictive and retrospective. The former relates to what materials are suitable to learners' needs and latter definition regards to whether that materials have applied or not. Moreover, he adds that teachers have two principles for predictive evaluation. One is depends on expert reviewers' attitude who distinguish specific criteria for material evaluation.

C. Models for Material Evaluation

As regarding two approaches in material evaluation, model evaluation can be in line with Macro and Micro evaluation. At this view, Grant (1987) suggests a three-stage process for material evaluation. At the first, initial evaluation that is related to appearance of the book without scrutinizing in details. At the next, detailed evaluation that is related to the effectiveness of the course for learners, teachers and syllabus. Finally, in-use evaluation re-evaluates the specific material durably.

In line with Grant (1987), McDonough and Shaw (1993) show a three-stage evaluation. External evaluation that refers to overall view of the material from the outside. Second stage, internal evaluation that is related to investigate materials deeply. At the last, Overall evaluation that is refers to some factors such as suitability, generalizability, flexibility and adaptability in materials. In regards to material evaluation model, Breen and Candlin (1987) suggest a two-phase evaluation. The first phase consists of some initial question to see the effectiveness of materials and second phase relates to that first question in phase one that are the best and the closest to choose and use materials for specific group. However, all of these models focus on define, choose, advance criteria that the best serve the goal of the assessment aimed at (Breen and Candlin, 1987; Hutchinson, 1997; Grant, 1987; McDonough and Shaw, 1993; Ellis, 1997; Yumuk, 1998).

D. Criteria for Material Evaluation

A large and growing body of literature has investigated about materials evaluation. Therefore, various evaluation criteria suggested by many scholars. Regardless of the learning and teaching situation, criteria proposed by scholars for material evaluation order a checklist or guideline to better understanding. However, far too little attention has been paid to select reliable criteria. According to Sheldon (1988), nobody knows what criteria are applicable in ELT text, content, and worldwide.

1. Evaluating the Sketch and the Figure:

A number of scholars such as (Sheldon, 1988; McDonough & Shaw, 1993; Cunningsworth, 1995) emphasize on the practicality of the textbook package price as an elementary option to choose and evaluate textbook. To start with, (Daoud & Celce-Murica, 1979) declare that physical figure of the textbook can be analyze in line with cover durability and the attractiveness of the textbook parameters such as cover, form, page and binding. In another way, it is important to estimate weight and size of the textbook for learners to handle it (Sheldon, 1988; Mc Donough & Shaw, 1997).

2. Evaluating the Skills and the Sub-Skill:

In line with the methodologies in language teaching, in previous decades, authors just had been accepted GTM (grammar translation method) or ALM (audio-lingual method). Recently, there has been critical and dynamic change since 1980s. In this view, some approaches get important to write textbooks as CB (content-Based), TB (task-based), or skill-based. All of them emphasize on the language skills following communication principles. According to Breen & Candlin (1987), three aspect mention to evaluate skill and sub-skill. The first aspect is to find skills in materials and next aspect is the proportion of each skill in the course period, and last aspect, whether the first purposes are followed or not.

3. Evaluating the cultural components:

In term of cultural view, as Alptekin (1993) declares similarity between L1 & L2 is a facilitator of learning. In another way, target culture should be taught in a way that fills the gap among two languages. Similarity, Cunnigworth (1995) states that cultural and social factors made learning better. Moreover, he adds the characteristic of textbook is a staple of the cultural of society. In this view, Sheldon (1988) emphasize on the assessment in ELT materials based on cultural bias.

E. Transition from Method to Post Method

As this regards, Okazaki (2005) based on recent research on SLA discusses that classroom are far from social and historical conditions. Furthermore, (Norton & Toohey, 2004; Pennycook, 1991, 2001; Ramanathan, 2002; Canarajah, 1999, 2001; Morgan 1998; Benesch, 2001) suggest critical pedagogy or an alternative approach should be the heart of language teaching. Moreover, Vandrick (1994) points out that the main aim of critical pedagogy to educate all people regardless of their class, race, and gender.

In the early of twentieth century, the EFL practitioners and researcher argued to realize that no single approach and method would be the vital frame work to bring success in teaching a foreign language. They used critical pedagogy as a cornerstone of new method which is called post method. Brown (2007) defines it a rational for language teaching and learning and Kumaravadivelu (2006) explains approach as theoretical principles governing language teaching and learning. Post method pedagogy helps us to go beyond and overcome the limitation of methods. As kumaravadivelu (2003) emphasizes the consequences of post method are three features; particularity, possibility and practicality.

1. Macro strategic framework

As Kumaravadivelu (2006) states Macro strategic framework was defined from theoretical empirical and experimental knowledge. As Kumaravadivelu (1994) mentions this way gives teachers meaningful guidelines based on which they simultaneously will be aware of teaching process and be able to proof it.

2. Kumaravadivelu's 10 Macro strategies for language teaching:

1. Maximizing learning opportunities:
2. Minimizing perceptual Mismatches
3. Facilitating Negotiated Interaction
4. Prompting Learner Autonomy
5. Foster Language Awareness
6. Activating Intuitive Heuristics
7. Contextualizing Linguistic Input
8. Integrating Language Skills
9. Ensuring Social Relevance
10. Raising Cultural Consciousness

Despite the great use of these textbooks and dominance of post method in EFL classrooms, it is not yet known to what extent the principles of particularity, possibility, and practicality are observed in the currently practiced EFL textbooks at Iranian universities.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants were selected from two different groups: EFL teachers and EFL learners. EFL teachers were selected from all EFL teachers at all universities in Sistan and Baluchistan province. 42 EFL instructors were selected through convenience sampling. The criterion for recruiting teachers in the study was teaching experience at the universities at least for three semesters.

The next group of the participants consisted of 150 undergraduate students from different fields of the study at the mentioned universities. The participants were selected through multistage sampling. That is, at first from all university one or two universities were randomly selected. Then, from each university 10 departments were randomly selected. Next, from each department one major was selected. Finally, from each field of study, the students who were volunteer to take part in the study were selected through convenience sampling. The criterion for selecting the participants was either passing English course or taking it within the present term. The final number of the students who voluntarily took part in the study was 150. For the sake of ethical considerations, all the participants were informed about the purpose of the study. They were also allowed to withdraw from the study anytime they liked.

B. Instrumentation

The data of the present were collected through a researcher developed instrument. This instrument, book evaluation consists of ten items measured on a five point Liker scale. In line with the meanings of the items as well as the 10 principles of post method, the instrument was divided to 10 dimensions. Then, the content validity of the present scale was approved by three applied linguists, faculty members of state universities in Zahedan and Tehran. The construct validity was estimated through confirmatory factor analysis. That is, factor analysis was run for all dimensions of the instrument. the reliability of the instrument was estimated through cronbach alpha for the total instrument and all 10 dimensions separately. The reliability index for the whole instrument and its dimensions exceeded 10 which are all acceptable.

C. Procedures

Upon arrival, the data collection was scheduled to be conducted in autumn, 2013 in Zahedan, Iran. The administration of the survey continued 30 minutes each section. The completely attempted questionnaires were coded and entered into SPSS. (version 16).The data of the study were analyzed through running descriptive and inferential statistics. The mean and standard deviation of each person on all dimensions of the instrument as well as all items of the instrument are calculated. One sample t-test for all dimensions was also run to compare the means of the sample and population. In addition, independent sample t-test was run to compare the means of teachers and learners.

The reliability coefficient of the factors, which forms part of the book evaluation dimension, appeared to vary between 0.75 and 0.88 which could be regarded as acceptable internal consistency (Kline, 1999). Therefore, it could be strongly argued that the data gathered from the students and the teachers had acceptable internal consistency.

TABLE 1.
RELIABILITY ANALYSIS OF THE SCALE

Variable	group	Cronbach alpha
Maximizing learning opportunities	teacher	.8
	student	.75
Minimizing perceptual mismatches	teacher	.82
	student	.76
Facilitating negotiated interaction	teacher	.88
	student	.8
Promoting learner autonomy	teacher	.75
	student	.76
Fostering language awareness	teacher	.82
	student	.80
Activating intuitive heuristics	teacher	.86
	student	.84
Contextualizing linguistic input	teacher	.78
	student	.8
Integrating language skills	teacher	.81
	student	.82
Ensuring social relevance	teacher	.85
	student	.75
Raising cultural consciousness	teacher	.86
	student	.76
Total score	teacher	.81
	student	.78

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IV. THE RESEARCH FIRST QUESTION

Q1- To what extent Iranian EFL textbooks are prepared by principle of post-Method?

In the following table, teachers' means and mean ranks on all dimensions are represented.

TABLE 2.
TEACHERS' MEANS ON MEAN RANKS ON ALL DIMENSIONS OF THE SCALE

Principles	Mean	Mean ranks
Maximizing learning opportunities	2.7698	7.61
Minimizing perceptual mismatches	2.0317	3.88
Facilitating negotiated interaction	2.9365	7.99
Promoting learner autonomy	2.3413	5.46
Fostering language awareness	1.9603	3.36
Activating intuitive heuristics	2.2143	3.52
Contextualizing linguistic input	2.5619	6.49
Integrating language skills	2.0952	3.94
Ensuring social relevance	3.6310	9.74
Raising cultural consciousness	1.9286	3.01
Valid N (listwise)		

The results in the above table show that the mean scores of the teachers on the dimension of ensuring social relevance is 3.63 which falls above the cutoff point. The results also show that the teachers scores on the other dimensions of book evaluation scale fall below the cutoff point. Their mean scores on the next two dimensions "Facilitating negotiated interaction" and maximizing learning opportunities are 2.93 and 2.76, respectively which are a little bit above the median (2.5).

Generally speaking, it seems to Iranian university EFL teachers have a positive perception about the ensuring social relevance dimension of the book evaluation scale. Their perceptions about the other dimensions tend to be either neutral or negative.

TABLE .3
FRIEDMAN TEST FOR TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TO PRINCIPLES OF POST METHOD

N	42
Chi-Square	231.376
df	9
Asymp. Sig.	.001
a. Friedman Test	

The table shows the results of Friedman test and the mean of post-method variables and the researcher has used it to clarify the degree to which the variables of above mentioned method have been observed in the universities' EFL textbooks. Results show that from teachers' points of view, the dimensions of the book evaluation from post method perspectives can be ranked as follows:

- 1- Ensuring social relevance
- 2- Facilitating negotiated interaction
- 3- Maximizing learning opportunities
- 4- Contextualizing linguistic input
- 5- Promoting learner autonomy
- 6 -Integrating language skills
- 7- Minimizing perceptual mismatches
- 8- Activating intuitive heuristics
- 9- Fostering language awareness
- 10- Raising cultural consciousness

Also, from Chi-Square test ($X^2 = 231$, $df=9$, $p=0.001 < 0.05$), it can be concluded that the above mentioned test is statistically significant and with a 99 percent certainty, it can be said that the post method has been applied in university textbooks and from professors and students' point of view it has been effective. Therefore, it could be strongly argued that in the reviewed textbooks, students' awareness of cultural differences was given the least attention by the textbook developers.

Learners' means and mean ranks on all dimensions of the scale

In the following table, learners' means on all dimensions are represented.

TABLE 4.
LEARNERS' MEANS AND MEAN RANKS ON PRINCIPLES OF POST METHOD PEDAGOGY

Principles	Mean	Mean ranks
Maximizing learning opportunities	2.04	3.76
Minimizing perceptual mismatches	2.1	4.01
Facilitating negotiated interaction	2.25	5.72
Promoting learner autonomy	2.17	5.53
Fostering language awareness	2.3	6.30
Activating intuitive heuristics	2.2	4.06
Contextualizing linguistic input	2.12	4.32
Integrating language skills	2.00	3.84
Ensuring social relevance	3.12	8.61
Raising cultural consciousness	2.3	8.85
Chi-square	23.17	
Sig.	0.001	

The results in the above table show that the mean scores of the learners on the dimension of ensuring social relevance is **3.12** which falls above the cutoff point. The results also show that the learners scores on the other dimensions of book evaluation scale fall below the cutoff point. Generally speaking, it seems to Iranian university EFL learners have a positive perception about the ensuring social relevance dimension of the book evaluation scale. Their perceptions about the other dimensions tend to be negative.

Also, from Chi-Square test ($X^2 = 23.7$, $df=9$, $p=0.001 < 0.05$), it can be concluded that the above mentioned test is statistically significant and with a 99 % certainty, it can be said that the post method has been applied in university textbooks and from professors and students' point of view it has been effective.

V. THE RESEARCH SECOND QUESTION

Is there any difference between the evaluations conducted by EFL teachers and EFL learners?

TABLE 4.8.1
THE RESULT OF INDEPENDENT T- TEST CONCERNING THE POST METHOD APPLICATION BASED ON GROUPS

Principles	Mean		t	sig
	learners	teachers		
Maximizing learning opportunities	2.04	2.76	.77	0.4
Minimizing perceptual mismatches	2.1	2.03	.87	0.3
Facilitating negotiated interaction	2.25	2.93	.97	0.27
Promoting learner autonomy	2.17	2.34	.82	0.29
Fostering language awareness	2.3	1.96	1.1	0.3
Activating intuitive heuristics	2.2	2.21	.4	0.25
Contextualizing linguistic input	2.12	2.56	-1	0.6
Integrating language skills	2.00	2.52	.4	0.4
Ensuring social relevance	3.12	3.63	1.3	0.21
Raising cultural consciousness	2.3	1.92	.5	0.12

The results in the above table show that there is no significant difference between learners and teachers perceptions about the application of the principles of post-method in the EFL textbooks used at Iranian universities. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected ($p > 0.05$).

VI. DISCUSSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION

The findings of this study raise a number of important issues regarding the EFL textbook evaluations. First, since the textbook are used for university students, the topics should be rearranged or chosen by taking into consideration their ages, expectations, and needs. Second, the illustrations may be restructured to meet the expectations of university students by providing high-quality standards similar to the ones proposed by the tenants of post method.

Third, from the teachers' perspectives, the teacher's guide can be revised in order to provide practical ideas for the teachers to use in the classroom. Fourth, the results are considered to be informative considering the textbook elements which do not require revision regarding teachers' and students' textbook evaluation results such as the social relevance principle which was not violated the textbook developers. Fifth, the textbook developers should take into account the findings a revise the textbooks through cooperation with experts such as applied linguists and education experts. Finally, the students should know the use of the only introduced textbooks by the teachers cannot solve their language learning problems.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

In line with results of the study the following conclusions were made:

- 1-Textbook exercises were provided for learner with different learning strategy preferences.
- 2-The books are not accompanied by supplementary materials such as Videos, slides, photocopies, CD and etc.
- 3- Undergraduate students and EFL teachers have not been involved in the process of material development.
- 4-University EFL textbooks do not promote critical thinking among teachers and learners.
- 5- The textbooks do not promote interaction between teachers and learners.
- 6-Learners with different language background cannot benefit from the textbooks.
- 7-There are no appropriate activities to help students develop intellectually.
- 8-The contents of textbooks are not designed in line with attempt to draw learner's attention to formal and functional properties of their second language learning
- 9-The instructional activities of the textbook do not promote learners' creativity.
- 10- Authentic and real life materials were not used in the textbook.
- 11-They do not promote learners' responsibilities as the agents of social changes.
- 12-The current textbooks are not against the learners' ethnicity, gender, and cultural values

VIII. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Like the other survey studies, the present had some limitations. Due to the time limitation, only the English textbooks which were taught as general English courses were selected. Therefore, the results are context dependent and they should be generalized with great care. The other limitation was that the participants were not selected through random sampling. The last limitation of the study was students problems in understanding the English version of the instrument, therefore, the research had to provide them with Persian version of the instrument which might not have had cross-translation reliability.

IX. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

The other researchers can replicate the present study using a representative sample of participants from all universities in Iran. Moreover, this study selected participants from all fields of study, as the results might be different across different fields of study; the other participants are recommended to take into account the variable of academic disciplines or fields in the other studies. The other researchers are also recommended to evaluate the textbooks used at Iranian universities with those in English speaking countries. The last but not the least, the other researchers are recommended to evaluate the English textbooks designed by local and non-local applied linguists.

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On Cross-cultural Pragmatic Failures in C/E Interpretation

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Abstract—Cultural and pragmatic factors are quite often ignored in the interpretation analysis and practice for a long time. At the same time, in the complicated process of interpretation, the lack of interpreters' cross-cultural consciousness gives rise to pragmatic failures which may lead to misunderstanding and even communication breakdowns. The study of interpretation has long been confined to linguistic competence and interpretation skills for a long time. This paper probes into the pragmatic failures in the Chinese and English interpretation practice.

Index Terms—culture, pragmatic failures, interpretation

I. INTRODUCTION

Interpretation has been used in every walk of life with China's opening up and the world's economic globalization. For this reason, interpreters, the bridges between the different countries and different cultures, must improve their language abilities to meet the requirements to ensure the communication with their bilingual talents and high-demanded skills. Despite their sound knowledge of grammar, semantics and syntax, pragmatic failures are so pervasive among Chinese learners of English and even the interpreters. It is not a rare case that an interpreter may confuse "of course" with "certainly", which have quite different pragmatic implications in different situations. It is also not unusual for a Chinese employee in a joint venture to address his/her colleague as "Old Wang" and the American associate as "Miss Mary". He seems to be quite uneasy and replies "No, no, you flatter me" when praised by his American boss for the job well done. He says, out of sincere care, "Be careful" to the department manager when the manager is getting into a car. What he says is semantically and grammatically perfect, but unfortunately is bound to spoil the situation because his utterances are pragmatically out of place.

However, for a long time, in the interpreter training the importance has been attached to the linguistic focus, namely, vocabulary, grammar, listening comprehension, memorizing, pronunciation and note-taking etc. because they are the standards to judge the language fluency. Unfortunately, even though the interpreters are linguistically qualified, they still tend to fail in the cross-cultural interpretation due to the misunderstanding of the cultural and pragmatic differences between the target language and source language.

II. CROSS-CULTURE COMMUNICATION

A. Culture

1. The concept of culture

Culture can be found its existence everywhere in the society, exerting tremendous influence in a substantial way. So we can conclude that every aspect of human life is influenced and touched by culture due to its omnipresent characteristic. At the same time, the definitions of culture have never been achieved due to culture's all-pervasive quality. That is why over 160 definitions of culture found since 1952 in the anthropology literature. At the same time, a lot of new definitions have come into existence every since. All the definitions include the patterns of behavior and thought, artifacts and so on.

2. The characteristic of culture

Though we have never reached a specific definition about culture, there would have been multitude of agreements with regard to the main qualities of culture. Anthropologically, the cultural definitions agree on the following qualities:

(1) Culture is commonly shared

If a man thinks or does a certain thing, his thought and action will represent his personal habit. Similarly, the pattern of culture does so. That is to say, if we consider a thought or action culturally, it must be shared by a large number of people instead of the individuals.

(2) Culture is learned

In spite of that, not all the things shared by groups of people can be called culture. For example, the typical complexion is not cultural. Culture must be learned and shared if we want to define it.

(3) Culture is integrated

Every aspect of culture is tangled up with the other aspects in culture--- it functions as a whole. If one part of culture is touched, everything else of culture will be influenced and touched. For instance, family size and spiritual outlook will

be influenced by the material values in a culture.

(4) Culture is based on symbols

Language is a kind of symbol, which includes a lot of entities and events that cannot be caught alone. This kind of thought has been proved by many anthropologists who think that language is the carrier of culture. To be more specific, a culture without language is unbelievable.

3. The classification of culture

Culture can be divided into the following four sub-systems according to an anthropological standard.

(1) Techno-economic system: Techno-economic System: ecology, means of production, exchange and distribution of goods, crafts, technology and science and artifacts.

(2) Social System: social classes and groups, kinship system, politics and law, education, sports and entertainment, customs and general history.

(3) Linguistic System: phonology and graphemes, morphology and syntax and pragmatics.

(4) Ideational System: cosmology, religion, magic and witchcraft, folklore, artistic creations as images, values, cognitive focus and thinking patterns, and ideology.

In the above-mentioned four sub-systems, the ingredients are varied from culture to culture. So when translators want to solve the cultural gap between the source language and target language, some misreading will arise accordingly.

B. Cultural Communication

1. Culture and communication

Mentioned about communication, most people will think about language, though it is only one essential part in fact. Rather, we can communicate with others in many ways about our thoughts, feelings, desires and wishes etc. At the same time, communication can be in other forms except for verbal communication--- non verbal communication, without using words: facial expressions, hand gestures, posture, body orientation, tone of voice, pitch, intonation, interpersonal space, touching behavior and so on. Similar to verbal actions which are affected by the culture, the nonverbal actions are still influenced by the cultural models which got from the social contacts.

Owing to the cultural differences, communications which are brought up in different cultures are variable too. At the same time, the culture-communication relationship is reciprocal---- affecting and influencing each other all the time. For example, the subjects we are talking about, the way we are talking about are decided by our culture. In turn, these ingredients will influence or even permeate the culture. That is to say, language and culture are co-existent instead of isolation. We can compare communication to swimming, language swimming skill and culture water. Without culture, communication cannot exist at all because one cannot swim without water. Since we cannot separate language, culture and communication respectively, we can draw a safe conclusion that the three factors are closely interrelated. Language is the carrier of culture and it can be used to communicate. Thus without a good command of the different cultures knowledge, communication will fail and understanding cannot be reached. In one word, communication via language cannot be reached without a good cultural learning in different cultures.

2. Barrier in cross-cultural communication and their causes

The main obstacles in the cross-cultural communication can be classified as cognition, stereotype and ethnocentrism mistakes (Hu, 1994). First, people from different cultural backgrounds live an illusion that there is no difference between them in cross-cultural communication. Therefore, they will try to interpret or translate others on the view of their own cultural background. This kind of mistake can be called cognition mistakes. The cognition mistakes are the source of the cross-cultural failures in the end. Thus we should be aware of the fact that different people are the premises of the different cultural grounds and customs. To be more specific, we should develop a kind of cultural consciousness that our culture is different from others. At the same time, we may have a kind of stereotyped impression of the other cultures, even though we have never contacted with them. The examples of that can be find many words to describe a nation, for examples, romantic French, free Americans and hard-working Japanese. The stereotypes have merits and demerits in many ways. The worst of that is that when your stereotype deprives you of your cultural sensitivity and subjective interpretation of another culture. Because of that, it will damage the relationship with others and be harmful to our cross-cultural communication. Though in cross-cultural communication stereotypes are regarded as mixed-blessings, we cannot totally steer clear of them when we talk about cultural differences. The reason is quite simple, in the discussion of cultural differences, summarization, which bears a close resemblance with stereotypes. For example, if you hear people say that Americans are quite brave to tell their private opinions. This kind of observation will be found in books or newspapers on cross-cultural communication. These kind of observation can be called stereotypes. In this aspect, we should pay attention to the individual differences instead of interpreting things from the stereotypes. At the same time, the definition of ethnocentrism means to evaluate everything in other cultures from the angle of the own culture. In the civilized world few people dare to utter that their cultures are superior to others'. But that does not mean that they do not evaluate other cultures with their own standards subconsciously. Because ethnocentrism coexists with culture, some scholars state that no one can avoid it. In the process of cross-cultural communication, the main obstacles have been mentioned though some others are being left out of attention.

Since cultures vary in different societies, the essential feature is that the culture is learnt and acquired. Culture is usually got through education in which an older generation compels the younger one to establish a kind of lifestyle; therefore, culture is rooted in a person's life style. At the same time, culture is difficult to define because it appears at an

unconscious level. Just because of this deep-rooted reason, it leads to many serious problems in communication. People from one cultural community will find it difficult to accept the things which are regarded as quite proper in another culture. Another potential cause of cultural difference is the cultural prejudice or the cultural arbitrary. That is to say that the one-to-one reflection between the language form and object shape the language reflects. (Levinson, 2001)

Qian Guanlian describes the phenomenon as no two languages can be qualified to take the responsibility to represent the same reality socially. At the same time, language arbitrariness is also the reason for language variation in different cultures. (Qian, 2008) Different language speakers will make the sounds of the language mixed to communicate and use different structural patterns at the same time. The expression is influenced by the different concepts in various cultures. For example, the pure white in Chinese language is described as snow, and the Chinese people will use the term *xuebai*, meaning as white as snow, while the counterpart expression in English is as white as bed sheets.

English and Chinese are totally different just because they are arising from the two totally different cultures. Among them, natural environment and social environment are the two primary elements for forming the differences in the language evolution history. In this process, the two languages have been playing a very important role in forming the two languages, the representatives of the eastern and western culture.

III. PRAGMATIC FAILURE

1. What is pragmatic

We should winkle out the originality of the pragmatics if we want to understand the pragmatic failure development. The term pragmatics is a very important interdisciplinary study on interpretation. Pragmatics was not regarded as an independent subject with the journal of pragmatics came into existence in 1977. And in 1983 the International Pragmatics Association was founded and this marked the maturity of the pragmatics. (Newmark, 2001) Fortunately, pragmatics study has developed very quickly in the past two decades and has achieved a lot in spite of the short history. At the same time, pragmatics study has witnessed some new born interdisciplinary studies: inter-language pragmatics, social pragmatics, cross-cultural pragmatics, developmental pragmatics and cognitive pragmatics etc. Pragmatics study's central part is the study of words and its language in the context, which is a new study branch in linguistics. Though its own conception should be given to pragmatics as any other terms, it is far from easy to definite pragmatics in an exact and precise way. In different books, a great many definitions can be found and many linguists have given their own definitions in various situations. Mey gives his definition of pragmatics and has been widely accepted as it is a kind of language way and that can be seen in relation to the language speakers. (Mey, 1993) Also, Leech, the famous linguist, makes his contribution to pragmatics by dividing it into two types: sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics. The former type refers to the study of the language use in the society, while the latter type refers to the utterance meaning in the social characteristics. At the same time, sociopragmatics tends to study in a broader way, covering the language use criteria and making language a communicative tool in various contexts and situations. Besides that, sociopragmatics lays its emphasis on many other studying areas, say, the characteristics of the language speakers who come from the different cultural backgrounds and how to behave in language learning. On the other hand, another type, pragmalinguistics focus on the study on the problems of language pragmatic problems----- the relationship between the language forms and functions in pragmatics. Vocabulary, phonetics, grammar, discourse and rhetoric, all these mentioned forms in language are within the study areas of pragmalinguistics.

2. Definitions of pragmatic failure and causes of pragmatic failures in interpretation

Pragmatic failures can be traced by to its original study and in China they can be found in a specific way as a correct sentence in grammatical way but has broke a kind of hidden or unconscious rule, conventions or without noticing the addressers, space or time etc. (Qian, 2008)

As the social and cultural image, language must be co-existent with a kind of certain cultural background---- every language is a carrier of a kind of language. As we have mentioned above, similar to the huge differences of the human society cultures, human languages are the source of many differences. For the people from the different cultural backgrounds, they cannot communicate without encountering the pragmatic differences, arising from their cultures. This paper will focus on the English and Chinese pragmatic difference in the following part.

a. Pragmatic failures due to social and custom distinctions

Sometimes most of the sociopragmatic failures in the Chinese and English interpretations result from the ignorance of the huge difference between the two languages in the cultural and social aspects. Among them, most of the failures are about the taboo topics, utterances register and the social identities. This kind of failure is often the source of communicative breakdown and bad public relationship. For example, despite of the different social status and ages, the English speakers will call others' names directly with the aim of showing their intimate relationship and people's equality. On the contrary, the native speakers may feel that the addressing words as manager or director before the names show the lack of willingness to be intimate to others. Rather, Chinese people will feel embarrassed, at least unnatural, to call others given names. Because of this, the interpreters can use other expressions like Mr. John or Mrs. Brown to address the people from the English-speaking countries.

b. Pragmatic failures due to image patterns

As we know, the Chinese dragon or the oriental dragon, which originated from China, is a mythical symbol in East Asian culture. In the Chinese culture, the oriental dragon has been described as a snake-like, scale animal with five

claws and four legs. The oriental dragon has long been the symbol of royal families in China, standing for power and authority. Quite different from the Chinese tradition, the western dragon is the symbol of evil. Considering about that, the dragon position in Chinese can be decoded into the throne, the dragon gown in Chinese can be decoded into the emperor gown, the dragon chair can be decoded into the royal chair and the dragon hat can be decoded into crown.

c. Pragmatic failures derived from different world perceptions

To the same object, the people from the different countries and cultures view from the different angles because of the existing customs in their minds. But the misunderstandings and obstacles may stem from the cultural differences in the process of cultural communications of the two languages. Among them, values and religion are two important elements to the forming of the outlook. The sad truth is that the religious beliefs vary greatly between China and western English speaking countries. For example, English speakers are quite religious and they have a faith in God, they cherish the individualism and they are sensitive to the individual rights. On the contrary, Chinese counterparts follow the religion of Taoism and Buddhism. At the same time, collectivism is their primary concern. This kind of cultural differences may lead to misunderstanding even the cultural barriers in communication. Considering that, the Chinese typical saying of greeting: where are you going is beyond understanding for the people from English-speaking countries, who think their privacy cannot be offended.

d. Pragmatic failures due to different mentality and thinking patterns

As two large civilization origins in the world, the communication between Chinese and western English speaking countries really deserves close study. Then in a healthy global culture, the ideal condition is that each participating number is equal and not one is marginalized. Similarly, all cultures should be equal so that most cultural members can have a chance to acquire it. Considering all the things mentioned above, all of the cultures should participate the cultural system though it has its merits and demerits, thus it can make its own contribution to the global culture.

IV. TENTATIVE SOLUTIONS TO INTERCULTURAL PRAGMATIC FAILURES IN INTERPRETATIONS

According to Newmark, cultural stereotype can still be use as a tool to uplift the cultural awareness of the interpreters from the primary level to higher level, though it has been over simplified and universalized, because it can help the translators to develop the cultural difference sensitivity. (Newmark, 2001) At the same time, as a qualified interpreter, he or she is should expose himself/herself to the source language culture just like to the simple fact that the more you read, the more chances you have to be familiar with the native's mentality. Besides that, interpreters should be home at collecting and summarizing all of the differences about culture which they have felt in the practice of interpreting or when they communicate with the native speakers from English-speaking countries. Of course, in the interpreting teaching practice, the trainers should enable their students having this kind of sensitivity to cultural differences by letting them know the method of contrastive cultural studies.

As has been mentioned in the above chapters, the Chinese and English cultural differences may cause pragmatic failures in the interpretation practice. However, interpretation cannot exist without language--- they go hand in hand. These two elements are inflecting each other all the time at any place because language is represented by its culture. Thus, interpretation plays an important part in the communication in cross-cultural aspect. To avoid pragmatic failures, the interpreters should bear in mind that they should have the cultural difference sensitivity all the time.

A qualified interpreter should have the consciousness to the different cultures in order to avoid cross-cultural failures. Being home at the cultural backgrounds and customs in different cultures is their job, at the same time, being home at the language habits and cultural backgrounds every time he gets the opportunity. Being aware of the differences and similarities is not enough, they should make adjustments according to the different cultural backgrounds. To do that, a good interpreter should put the knowledge he learnt into practice.

1. Cultivating and enhancing cross-cultural communicative competence

Cross-cultural communication refers to the exchange of knowledge, concepts and thoughts among the people from the various cultural backgrounds. (Linen, 2004) accordingly, cross-cultural communication happens when the people from the different cultural backgrounds meet each other. Then, the cross-cultural communicative competence is a kind of action that is proper and effective in a certain or given context. (Gile, 1993) The effective outcome from the cross-cultural communication is the standard to judge the communication competence in different situations. At the same time, cross-cultural commutative competence can be divided into two classes or two fields, namely, the linguistic and pragmatic competence. (Eugene, 1993). For the first class, linguistic aspect consists of three factors: grammar, lexicon and phonology; rather, for the pragmatic aspect, the dominating part of communicative competence, is kind of capability to choose a linguistic form which is right or proper for the specific communicative situation---using English or Chinese properly in the social communicative interactions. As has been found, the acquirement of pragmatic competence of a target culture starts the moment a student is exposed to it. (Hatim, 1997) And that is why both the teachers and students can improve this kind of communicative competence by developing the cross-cultural consciousness.

2. Developing pragmatic competence

First of all, for English learners or interpreters, pragmatic principles can be introduced to them. To be more specific, linguistic knowledge is essential in English learning, but knowing how, when and where to apply the linguistic knowledge in anther cultural context weighs more. That is say, pragmatic teaching is of necessity. Pragmatics can be

divided into pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. (Leech, 1983) Accordingly, the pragmatic competence can be divided into the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence. The former is on the premises of grammatical competence, dealing with the language rules in use, such as the wording and phrasing; the latter is on the premises of language uses in social aspect, which is a higher level. Despite of the different explanations, the pragmatic competence focuses on one point---- the right or proper communication. (Eugene, 1993) Thus, the decency and properness require the competence of understanding, expressing and context controlling. The three competences are interrelated to each other and they are quite essential for the smooth cross-cultural communication. The comprehending competence depends on context controlling while the comprehending competence can enhance the competence of expression of text.

V. CONCLUSION

Language is the carrier of the culture, while culture is carried all the time by language in communication. Interpreters are charged with essential task in a cross-cultural situation where two people from the different language and social backgrounds, try to express themselves with no knowledge of the different cultures. It is the interpreters job to translating their information, both linguistic and cultural, from one language to another. To be more specific, interpreters can be compared to bridges of language and culture between the gaps of the two people, who are ignorant of his counterpart's language and culture. In this article, it is my standpoint that the competent interpreters cannot achieve their aims without knowing the pragmatic differences between English and Chinese. To sum up, it is of great importance for qualified interpreters to be conscious of the pragmatic differences.

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Does Extensive Reading Combined with Form-focused or Meaning-focused Activities Affect Lexical Collocational Knowledge of Iranian Learners?

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Abstract—This study attempted to investigate the effect of an ER program -coupled with form versus meaning-focused activities- on the development of lexical collocations among Iranian Intermediate EFL learners. To this end, 41 students of English language and literature studying at the department of English at the University of Mazandaran participated in this study. A reading comprehension test taken from TOEFL was used to measure candidates' reading ability to homogenize them in terms of their entry behaviour. Moreover, a modified Word Associates Test (WAT) developed by Read (1993, 1998) was administered to examine the participants' lexical collocation knowledge. Participants were divided into two experimental groups: Both groups were assigned to read extensively and do some after reading activities; the first group was given a form-focused activity (FFA) while the second group worked on a meaning-focused activity (MFA). The results of paired and independent sample t-tests revealed the fact that both FFA and MFA groups progressed in the interval between the pre- and post-test, but, there was not a significant difference between the effects of form-focused and meaning-focused activities.

Index Terms—extensive reading, depth of knowledge, incidental learning, intentional learning, lexical collocational knowledge

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background

Extensive reading (ER) as one of the approaches to teaching reading has received increasing attention from L2 educators as an effective form of L2 reading instruction (Yamashita, 2008). Research has emphasized the important role of ER in helping learners gain fluency in the areas of word recognition, vocabulary acquisition and developing reading comprehension skills (Grabe and Stoller, 1997; Horst, 2005; Hudson, 2007; Pigada and Schmitt, 2006; Yamashita, 2008). Over the past two decades, numerous studies in this area have underscored the fact that ER can promote language proficiency in general, and can lead to vocabulary development in particular. Some researchers such as Coady (1997), Grabe (1991), Shin & Kyu-Cheol (2003), Nassaji (2003), and Horst (2005) have reported the usefulness of this approach in vocabulary development. Zimmerman (1997) and Nuttall (1982), too, have highlighted the usefulness of ER in vocabulary learning through a broad exposure to the target language.

As to the concepts of intentional versus incidental vocabulary learning, research has shown that vocabulary forms, collocation, and parts of speech are better learnt through incidental learning, while for getting the sense of a word and the innuendo intentional learning will be more effective (Nation, 1990). There has been a reasonable amount of research on incidental vocabulary learning from Extensive Reading (e.g., Grabe & Stoller, 1997; Horst, 2005; Kweon & Kim, 2008; Paribakht & Wesche, 1999; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Yali, 2010). These studies argue that incidental learning occurs more particularly through extensive reading in input-rich environments, although at a rather slow rate. Extensive reading has also led to improvement in learners' fluency because they try to read group of words while reading and do not read every individual word they encounter.

However, although the employment of extensive reading as a means of implicit learning has been shown to facilitate the learning of the formal features of language (Day & Bamford 1998, Green 2005); for fast vocabulary expansion, research indicates that just using incidental vocabulary instruction is not adequate and that there is a need for integrating it with intentional learning (Hulstijn, 2011; Mirzaii, 2012; Yali, 2010). These studies have found that extensive reading alone doesn't lead to vocabulary acquisition. Yali (2010) argued that for language acquisition to occur, students need to notice the form, understand the meaning and create the form-meaning connection. Other studies have also demonstrated that extensive reading alone is not sufficient for developing language skills and a more focused approach (intensive

reading), including explicit instruction is also needed. Additionally, although extensive reading has been found to be an effective means of developing vocabulary, and learners' knowledge of the target language (Renandya & Jacobs, 1997 as cited in Tran, 2006), in developing English language skills, especially the vocabulary, explicit approaches to instruction have also proved to be successful (Coady, 1997 as cited in Tran, 2006). All this illustrates the fact that acquisition of vocabulary does not occur automatically simply through extensive reading for meaning and the success in doing so relies as much on the context around each word, the amount and type of the learner's attention, the demands of the task, and other factors. For example, as Nation and Coady (1988) point out: "the very redundancy or richness of information in a given context which enables a reader to guess an unknown word successfully could also predict that the same reader is less likely to learn the word because he or she was able to comprehend the text without knowing the word. (p. 101)". Green (2005) also contends that extensive reading is truly an important means of language acquisition, yet this does not mean that it is the most effective medium for acquiring English vocabulary.

In research on vocabulary learning, a distinction is often drawn between depth of knowledge and breadth of knowledge (Qian, 1999; Paribakht & Wesche, 1996). Breadth of vocabulary knowledge refers to the quantity or number of words learners know at a particular level of language proficiency (Nation, 2001). Depth of vocabulary knowledge, on the other hand, refers to the quality of a learner's lexical knowledge, or the degree of a learner's familiarity with a word (Read, 1993). Qian (1999) proposed that depth of vocabulary knowledge contains components such as pronunciation, spelling, meaning, register, frequency, and morphological, syntactic, and collocational properties. He demonstrated that depth as well as size of learners' vocabulary knowledge contributed to reading proficiency. Waring (2002, cited in Lau Man-ye, 2004) pointed out that vocabulary exercises for the purpose of enhancing depth of vocabulary knowledge should focus on deepening and internalising knowledge of words and not merely focus on the form-meaning level. This means that simple matching of meaning of words would not be sufficient to deepen students' knowledge of words. He suggests that focus should be on the collocates of the target words, on how the words fit into the normal context in which it appears by looking at the word relationships and not just keeping words in isolation. Over the last few years, research into collocations in the area of acquisition of a second language has become increasingly important (Fernández et al, 2009; Martyńska, 2004; Ramos, 2006). A collocation consists of two or more words that convey how things should be conventionally said and the meaning of the words together is different from the sum of their parts (Fernández, 2009). It was argued (Lin, 1998) that meanings of words are determined to a large extent by their collocational patterns and perhaps that is why collocational knowledge is given prominence in second language acquisition. The idiosyncratic nature of collocations can explain the many errors that are observed in second language learners' performance (Leed and Nakhimovsky, 1979). Shin and Nation (2007) consider learning collocations as an efficient way of improving the learners' language fluency and native-like selection of language use. The chunked expressions make learners fluent by enabling them to reduce cognitive effort, to save processing time, and to have language available for immediate use. Learners may produce grammatically correct sentences, but many of them may not sound native-like. Pawley and Syder (1983) believe that there are different ways of saying something in a language but not all of them are what native-speakers of the language use naturally. Collocational knowledge is one thing that can help learners to have a natural language use which allows them to choose the right lexical items and generate collocationally correct sentences (Smadja, 1993). Although nowadays the applied linguistics community accepts the need for teaching collocations, we consider that there have been few attempts to systematically study how the development of collocational knowledge could be achieved through performing tasks (either intentionally or incidentally) after an extensive reading done by the learners.

To sum up, although several studies have demonstrated a relationship between learners' vocabulary knowledge and their subsequent learning of vocabulary through reading (Grabe & Stoller, 1997; Horst, 2005; Kweon & Kim, 2008; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Rashidi & Piran, 2011; Yali, 2010), some studies have found that extensive reading alone doesn't lead to vocabulary acquisition (Paran, 2003; Coady, 1997; Green, 2005; Paribakht & Wesche, 1997; Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001). Studies have suggested that the acquisition of vocabulary is an incremental process and that it is only after repeated exposures to words that these can be required (Nation, 2001). Unlike native speakers who are exposed to the language daily, students in Iran mostly come into contact with English during English lessons. For these students, repeated exposure to the same items may mean several months or longer. Studies have found that vocabulary acquisition can be achieved through vocabulary-focused tasks (form-oriented and message-oriented) given to students while reading (Paribakht & Wesche 1997, Hulstijn & Laufer 2001). The tasks may lead to deeper word processing which then results in better word retention and retrieval. Therefore, this experiment is carried out to investigate if teachers can help deepen the students' vocabulary knowledge by means of a vocabulary-focused task. The aims of the present research are to explore the differential effects of form-oriented and meaning-oriented tasks added to an ER program on improving the depth of vocabulary knowledge of students and to further examine their effects on the learning of the lexical collocations.

B. Research Questions

The present study sought to answer the following research questions:

Q1. Does extensive reading coupled with form-focused/meaning-focused activities affect EFL learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge?

Q2. Is there a significant difference between the effects of form-focused and meaning-focused activities on learners' lexical knowledge?

II. METHODOLOGY

1. Research Design

The study employed a quasi-experimental design which used a pre-test-treatment-posttest procedure to collect data. The present study had two experimental groups with no control group. Participants of this study were selected from one class to reduce the teacher effect.

2. Participants and Setting

The first year students, both male and female majoring in English language and literature at the department of foreign languages of University of Mazandaran participated in this study. They were taking the reading comprehension (II) course. Their ages ranged from 19 to 21. All of the candidates took a reading comprehension test at the beginning of the course. This was done to homogenize the participants of the study with regard to their reading proficiency and make sure that their entry behaviour was not varied. All the students of the class participated in the class activities but the focus of this study was on the activities of intermediate students, not advanced, pre-intermediate or elementary ones. At the beginning, the number of subjects for this experiment was 41, but a number of students had to be excluded from the analysis due to the reason explained above. The students were then divided into two experimental groups: Both groups were assigned to read extensively and complete a number of task after their reading; the first group (n=11) was given a form-focused task while the second group (n=14) worked on a meaning-focused task. The class met twice a week for 90 minutes and the students were engaged in both intensive and extensive reading approaches.

3. Instruments

Four instruments were used to collect the data needed for this study: TOEFL Test: the students were given a reading comprehension test of TOEFL. The rationale behind such a test was to homogenize the subjects and select the participants with the same level of reading proficiency. The reading comprehension tests were chosen from TOEFL Reading Flash (2002) and included 23 items; Word Associates Test (WAT) developed by Read (1993, 1998) was modified to fit the purpose of the study.

The WAT consists of 40 items, each item having one stimulus word (an adjective) and two boxes. One of the boxes contains 4 adjectives which are either synonyms or polysems of the stimulus word and the other box contains nouns which can collocate with the stimulus word. Each item always has 4 correct choices. The reliability of the test, is reported by Read to be 0.93 and by Qian (1998, 2002) and Nassaji (2004) above 0.90 (as cited in Marzban & Hadipour, 2012).

4. Procedure

All the participants (n=25) of this study were assigned to read a book each week i.e. students should have read ten books after finishing the program. This study used a modified version of WAT as a validated standardized test of vocabulary depth, and utilized it both as the pre-test and the post-test. The test was modified to increase its content validity and to make sure that the content of the test is relevant to the participants' covered texts. It was administered once prior to the treatment (the pre-test) and once following the treatment (the post-test). During the first class, students were given the WAT. The test took approximately 30 minutes to complete. Based on Nassaji (2004) and Qian's study (1999), the time allotted to the depth of vocabulary knowledge test was 30 minutes, and another 15 minutes was considered for handing out papers, giving directions, and collecting them. Immediately following the treatment, students were given the post-test vocabulary quiz, which took approximately 30 minutes to complete (plus another 10 minutes for handing out papers, giving directions, and collecting them). They read books with different genres because each genre opens different world of words to students and in this way students could encounter variety of lexical collocations. Then, they were given two types of tasks to accompany their extensive reading. The students were divided into two experimental groups: the first group engaged in a Form-focused activity (n=11) in which the subjects were required to read a book every week outside of the class and keep a vocabulary notebook in which they wrote down the unfamiliar words, their dictionary definition, the sentence they locate the word in, the right collocations for the words, and an example of the word given in the dictionary. The other group (n=14) did a Meaning-focused activity which required learners to orally present their books to the class after each reading and they were also asked to fill in a book report form. In their presentation which took about ten to fifteen minutes, at first each student started with a summary of the book accompanied by a discussion of his or her own ideas regarding the story including whether the story was good or bad, whether they liked the book or not, if yes, which parts did they enjoyed the most and why. In this task students' attention was directed toward meaning as they attempted to talk about the story and share what they have read with their classmates.

5. Data Analysis

In this study, there were two experimental groups (MFA & FFA); therefore, paired t-tests were used to compare students' progress from the first test to the second. At the same time, an independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the performance of the two groups and examine which group has outperformed the other. The collected data was analyzed through SPSS software. The results revealed the fact that both FFA and MFA groups progressed in the

interval between the pre- and post-test; but, there was not a significant difference between the effects of form-focused and meaning-focused activities on learners' lexical knowledge.

III. RESULTS

Before analyzing the results, it seemed necessary to compare the mean scores of FFA and MFA groups on the pre-test to determine whether the groups were homogeneous in their entry behaviour regarding the depth of vocabulary knowledge.

TABLE 1

Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 pre - post	-13.909	14.45998	4.35985	-23.623	-4.19475	-3.190	10	.010

As can be seen in table 1, at the 0.05 level of significance, there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups before the study began and the two groups started with quite the same knowledge of vocabulary.

In order to answer the first research question and investigate whether task-based extensive reading affected learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge, the test of WAT was used as a pre- and post-test. Thus to determine how much progress each group has made in the interval between the pre- and post-test, two paired sample t-tests were run, using SPSS software. Table 2 and 3 show descriptive statistics for the results of the pre-test and the post-test for the FFA and MFA groups. As the tables indicate, the mean score of the pre-test for the FFT was 73.1818, and that of the post-test was 87.0909. Paired differences of means showed that mean scores of second stage (posttest) of form-focused task group had an increase (13.9 points). The sig=.010 and since it was less than 0.05, it showed that there was a meaningful difference between mean scores of pre- and post-test for FFT group.

TABLE 2

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE RESULTS OF THE PRE-TEST AND THE POST-TEST

Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 pre - post	-13.909	14.45998	4.35985	-23.623	-4.19475	-3.190	10	.010

The mean score of the pre-test for the MFA was 79.14, and that of the post-test was 89.35. Paired differences of means showed that mean scores of second stage (posttest) of meaning-focused activity group also increased (10.214 points). The sig=.001 and since it was less than 0.05, it showed that there was a meaningful difference between mean scores of both stages of pre- and post-test for MFA group.

TABLE 3

Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 pre - post	-10.214	8.82460	2.35847	-15.309	-5.1191	-4.331	13	.001

As displayed, results (gain scores) showed that the change was meaningful according to t-test for both groups. Thus, both groups showed progress from pre-test to post-test which means that task-based extensive reading improved participants' depth of vocabulary knowledge.

To address the second question and examine whether there is a significant difference between the effects of form-focused and meaning-focused activities on learners' lexical knowledge, an independent sample t-test was run. Table 4 shows that the pre-test's sig=.342 and post-test's sig=.720 both of which are more than 0.05. As a result, there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two FFA and MFA groups. It means that both groups performed the same at least regarding their collocational knowledge and both form-focused and meaning-focused activities can affect learners' lexical knowledge.

TABLE 4
Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
pre	Equal variances assumed	1.456	.240	-.970	23	.342	-5.96104	6.14464	-18.672	6.75011
	Equal variances not assumed			-.931	17.391	.365	-5.96104	6.40424	-19.450	7.52760
post	Equal variances assumed	.025	.875	-.363	23	.720	-2.26623	6.24647	-15.188	10.6556
	Equal variances not assumed			-.357	19.999	.725	-2.26623	6.35531	-15.523	10.9908

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study investigated whether combining extensive reading with two different types of tasks would make a significance difference in the development of collocations, and if yes which type of task would contribute to better learning of collocations. The results revealed that task-based extensive reading improved participants' depth of vocabulary knowledge based on both groups progress from pre-test to post-test. But, there were not any significant differences between the effects of form-focused and meaning-focused tasks on learners' lexical knowledge. The gains made by the experimental groups are quite consistent with previous reports of the positive effect of extensive reading on second language learners. The results of the present study, in fact, corroborated previous findings in the field which had demonstrated the effects of this approach on improving different linguistic elements. In other words, this study added to the evidence in the literature that ER could be fully incorporated into the EFL language programs in which exposure to the target language can be provided to the learners through their engagement in extensive reading. This as Nuttall (1982) stated would be the second best way to help EFL learners to see the target language in context as it is truly used by the native speakers. Moreover, the results also indicated that both groups demonstrated some degree of achievement regarding their collocational knowledge and that both form-focused and meaning-focused task can affect learners' lexical knowledge. This can be discussed in two ways: firstly, this may mean that ER alone can account for learners' lexical improvement and that it is purely due to the effect of this extensive exposure to the way language parts are put together that learners have progressed (Hafiz & Tudor, 1990). Secondly, it is also possible to claim that the addition of tasks in general, no matter if they are form-oriented or meaning-oriented in nature would add up to the effectiveness of the extensive reading. In other words, it may mean that ER alone, as other studies have shown, may not suffice in helping learners to develop their lexical knowledge. More specifically, this may be true with regard to the depth knowledge which deals with how well learners know a word and for improving this knowledge, learners need to either see how the words are used in context (incidental learning) or to try their hands in putting the words together through actually writing them or at least recognizing their patterns in context (intentional learning).

However, the results of this study are, at best, suggestive due to some limitations that could not be controlled.

There appears to be a limit on just how far the results could be generalized since an absence of a control group have made it impossible to make conclusive remarks. With the presence of a control group in which only ER was introduced to the learners, it would have been possible to accredit some of the claims made above.

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The Relationship between Self-efficacy and Writing Performance across Genders

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Abstract—The study examined the relationship between the learners' self-efficacy and their writing performance across genders. Specifically, this study investigated the self-efficacy and writing performance of Makoo and Marand EFL students majoring in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). One hundred twenty learners, between ages 20-29, were chosen. Two instruments were used to collect data. At three different points in time, the participants were given writing assessments and also responded to the questionnaires on self-efficacy. The data were analyzed using Pearson's correlation statistic and independent-samples *t*-test. Results revealed that there was no significant relationship between male and female EFL students' self-efficacy and writing performance. It was also found that there was a significant positive relationship in self-efficacy between female and male EFL students. This study is expected to contribute to the related literature by shedding light on the relation of student self-efficacy and writing performance.

Index Terms—English as a foreign language, self-efficacy, writing performance, gender

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the four skills in language learning which more attention must be paid to is writing. It is the major tool by which learners show their knowledge in the target language (TL). However, it is a hard skill to learn and a demanding task as it requires a number of processes that should be performed simultaneously. As it seems, EFL learners should work hard to develop and improve their writing abilities.

One of the main tasks of language teachers is promoting students' cognitive, behavioral, and motivational engagement through enhancing students' self-efficacy. According to Bandura (1986) self-efficacy is learners' beliefs in their capability to succeed and acquire new information or complete a task or activity to an appointed level of performance. Bandura (1992) believed that there is a difference between students with high self-efficacy and those with low self-efficacy. The learners with high self-efficacy feel confident about finding the solution to a problem because the learners have created an idea to problem solving that has accomplished in the past. They believe that their own competency will better when they work more, the learners assign their success according to their own attempts and schemes and acknowledge that errors are a process of acquisition. However, low self-efficacious learners believe that they have innate low ability, choose less requesting tasks on which they will make few errors, and do not try hard because they believe that any attempt will reveal their own lack of ability.

Traditionally, the teaching of writing has put a lot of emphasis on the written product. Students' writing has typically been evaluated according to its form and presentation without concern for how they generated ideas. Teachers always need to discover a way to support students and encourage the unwilling writers. As is often discussed, self-efficacy plays an important role in the development of writing competence, as well. While most writing self-efficacy studies have been studied in Western countries, in the Iranian EFL context there is a lack of research about writing self-efficacy beliefs. In fact, there have been few studies that examined the relationship between self-efficacy and writing performance. Thus, it seems urgent to fill this research gap.

That said, the purpose of this study was twofold. First, it aimed to study the relationship between self-efficacy and writing performance of students learning English as a foreign language. Second, it intended to look into the self-efficacy and writing performance across male and female EFL students. In line with the purpose of the study, this investigation attempted to find appropriate answers to the following questions:

RQ#1: Is there any relationship between male EFL students' self-efficacy and writing performance at three different administrations?

RQ#2: Is there any relationship between female EFL students' self-efficacy and writing performance at three different administrations?

RQ#3: Is there any significance difference in self-efficacy between female and male EFL students?

RQ#4: Is there any significance difference in writing performance between female and male EFL students?

Based on the above questions, four hypotheses of the study were stated as follows:

H1: There is a significant relationship between male EFL students' self-efficacy and writing performance at three different administrations.

H2: There is a significant relationship between female EFL students' self-efficacy and writing performance at three different administrations.

H3: There is a significance difference in self-efficacy between female and male EFL students.

H4: There is a significance difference in writing performance between female and male EFL students.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Perhaps most well-known for his development of the self-efficacy theory is Albert Bandura. Bandura (2006) believes that people are more probably to be confidently affected in related activities when they accept they have capacity of attaining a certain task. These beliefs influence the choices people make and the courses of action they pursue (Pajares, 1996).

1. *The Role of Self-Efficacy in Performance*

According to Bandura, 1994, the people who have self-efficacy beliefs decide how think, feel and act. So if individual believe that they can actually form the wanted outcome, they will have the motivation and encouragement to develop a definite action. When people select to take part in activities, these self-efficacy beliefs influence them, these beliefs also affect the attempt that they extend and how they bear when encountered with troubles. (Bandura, 1986; Pajares, 1997; Schunk, 1991). In the past research, among all the motivational constructs, perceived self-efficacy was usually discovered to have the strongest predicting power, over individuals' writing performance; such discovering support the claim made by Bandura based on social cognitive theory that self-efficacy has a main function in predicting writing performance. For example, Rankin, Bruning and Timme (1994), searched to explore the relationship between self-efficacy, result expectancy, ascriptions for good spelling, previous accomplishments, and spelling performance as measured by a 30-item grade level spelling test. This study included 687 public school students in grades 4, 7, and 10, and discovered that self-efficacy at all grade levels was the strongest predictor of performance. Pajares and Valiante (2001) investigated on 218 fifth grade students. They wanted to know the influence of the influence of writing self-efficacy, writing ability, perceived usefulness of writing, and writing apprehension on the essay-writing performance. They found that self-efficacy beliefs made an independent constituent to the expectation of performance despite the expected strong outcome of writing ability.

2. *Gender and Self-Efficacy:*

Gender is something we born with, not something we have, but something we do (West & Zimmerman, 1987) - something we perform (Butter, 1990). Regarding writing self-efficacy and performance, gender differences are particularly common (Hansen, 2009). Previous researchers about school children have revealed that boys report lower writing self-efficacy than girls, despite the fact that boys tend to over-estimate their writing ability. (Pajares, 2002). On writing task the girls consistently out-performed the boys in studied with the girls and boys had same levels of self-efficacy beliefs. (Wigfield, Eccles, & Pintrich, 1996). Pajares and Valiante (2001) suggested that these gender differences were tied with task orientation: in other words, writing is a female area when higher female self-efficacy is linked in the stereotypical view. In writing self-efficacy gender differences become vague when task orientation was controlled. (Pajares & Valiante, 2001; Pajares, Valiante, & Cheong, 2007). Greene (1999) found that in writing self-efficacy there are not gender differences among college freshmen but in performance there is a difference, in his study about composition the females gaining higher grade than the males. Such findings make the question of whether in gender, age is an unimportant factor in writing self-efficacy when the students enter to the university.

3. *Self-efficacy and writing*

Writing self-efficacy means to students' beliefs in their ability to perform written English task successfully. Such tasks include composition, correctly punctuating writing and creating grammatically correct samples of writing. At the end of school term, students writing skill and self-efficacy predicted. Overall, students who evaluate themselves as poor writers tend to perform being reluctant to engage in writing works and making brief or incomplete pieces of writing while students with higher writing self-efficacy have been found to complete writing tasks at a higher standard. (Bandura, 1994). In both areas of composition and self-efficacy, researchers have discovered enormous interest in writing self-efficacy, and they have worked the relationship between writing self-belief and writing final result in universities; their findings displayed a strong relationship between them (Bruning & Horn, 2000; Pajares, 2003; Pajares & Johnson, 1996). Pajares and Valiante (2001) examined on 218 fifth grade students about the influence of writing self-efficacy, writing ability, perceived usefulness of writing, and writing apprehension on the essay-writing performance. They discovered that despite the anticipated strong effect of writing ability, self-efficacy beliefs made an independent part to the prediction of performance.

4. *Limitations and Delimitation of the Study*

Several limitations of the study deserve discussion. Similar to other self-efficacy studies, it is really hard to observe the self-efficacy of people as they are not observable directly. Another limitation of this study is related to the quality of the questionnaire used. In this regard, Farhady (1999) stated that "they [questionnaires] take away the freedom with

which respondents can answer the questions. In fact, we have limitation to choice the responses. The generalizability of the results can also be a limitation of the study. The participants of this survey were 120 students from Islamic Azad University of Makoo and Marand. So, the results can be generalized only to this group of learners. Younger learners maybe have lower self-efficacy than older ones and this limitation was out of researcher's control. Time was another delimitation of this current study; the researcher had to give a questionnaire at one week interval. It was possible the learner received the questionnaire once a month, so the learner's self-efficacy maybe different from that ones

III. METHODOLOGY

1. Design of the Study

This study was regarded as a correlational research investigation. There were three variables in this study, one of which is the academic self-efficacy of the TEFL candidates and the other ones were their writing performance and gender.

2. Participants

In this study, the participants were chosen from Islamic Azad University of Makoo and Marand. At the time of conducting this research, they were majoring in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). Out of 200 individuals, 120 participants (56 males and 64 females) were chosen as the ultimate candidates for the research. The basis of the choice was a standardized English proficiency test of TOEFL. There were 95 items in the test. It was administered to determine the homogeneity of the participants. Then, those candidates who scored one standard deviation above and below the mean were conceived of as being at the intermediate level and selected as the plausible subjects. The age of participants ranged from 20 to 29. There was no age limitation since we observed an age disparity among the participants.

These participants were selected through the purposive sampling as long as they fit the requirements of the research effort and the researcher desires, of course, through the filter of an English proficiency test.

3. Instruments

For the purpose of the current study, the following instruments were used:

A. Sherer et al.'s General Self-Efficacy Scale (SGSES)

B. Three IELTS writing tasks

General Self-Efficacy Questionnaire: The instrument used in this study was Sherer et al.'s General Self-Efficacy Scale (SGSES), designed by Sherer, Maddux, Mercandante, Prentice-Dunn, Jacobs, and Rogers (1982). It was used to assess the participants' self-efficacy (See Appendix A). SGSES is a self-report questionnaire and consists of 17 statements. The scoring method for general self-efficacy is a matter of one to five points awarded (totally disagree=1 to totally agree=5) based on Likert scale. In general, the questionnaire included 17 sections which scores increases for the sections 3, 8, 9, 13, 15 from left to right and others from right to left; higher scores indicating higher self-efficacy.

Writing Test: The writing test was selected from the IELTS test. The results were studied according to a nine-band scale. Each overall band scale point out a descriptive statement which tells a summary of the English language ability of a student categorized at that level. These levels go as follows (for more details, see www.ielts.org): these guidelines appear in Appendix B.

4. Data Collection Procedure

Each participant performed composition (writing test) and filled out a questionnaire (SGSES) on 3 occasions at one week intervals. The SGSES was distributed among participants after two days of participant selection. To find out the relationship between self-efficacy and writing performance, the participants were required to fill out the SGSES. The questionnaire consists of 17-item. Completing the questionnaire took 20 minutes. The participants had to fill out this questionnaire for 3 times at one week interval. The reason for this timed filling-out was to ensure the consistency of participants' scores over time. Then, with a one week interval, a test of writing ability based on IELTS writing topics was given to the participants. Three topics were given to the participants and they were asked to select one. The writing tests took 40 minutes, which required participants to write at least 250 words. Their writing test was scored by three raters based on the guidelines available on the IELTS official website.

5. Variables of the Study

As the current research is a correlation study, the main focus is on the three variables of writing performance, self-efficacy, and gender. The writing performance was considered as the dependent variable which includes the value of writing according to the content of the writing test. Gender was another variable which appeared as the moderator variable in terms of writing performance and self-efficacy. And finally, self-efficacy was considered as the independent variable. The age of the learners was not controlled as a variable.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

In the analysis of the obtained data, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS Version 16) software was used. First, descriptive statistics was calculated. Then, Pearson product-moment correlation was employed to determine the association between participants' English writing performance and self-efficacy beliefs. Also, the effect of gender on participants' writing performance and self-efficacy beliefs was determined by conducting t-tests.

The relationship between male EFL students' self-efficacy and writing performance was examined using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. As shown in Table 4. 1, at three different points in time, no significant relationship was found between male EFL students' self-efficacy and writing performance.

(Time 1) $r = .09$, $n = 56$, $p = .49$; (Time 2) $r = .00$, $n = 56$, $p = .97$; and (Time 3) $r = .13$, $n = 56$, $p = .31$. Therefore, the first research hypothesis, H1: There is a significant relationship between male EFL students' self-efficacy and writing performance at three different administrations was rejected.

TABLE 1.
RESULTS OF PEARSON'S CORRELATION FOR MALE SELF-EFFICACY & WRITING SCORES

	N	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)
Male Self-efficacy*Writing (Time 1)	56	.093	.497
Male Self-efficacy*Writing (Time 2)	56	.004	.974
Male Self-efficacy*Writing (Time 3)	56	.136	.317

Similarly, the relationship between female EFL students' self-efficacy and writing performance was examined using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. As shown in Table 4. 2, at three different points in time, no significant relationship was also found between female EFL students' self-efficacy and writing performance, (Time 1) $r = -.00$, $n = 64$, $p = .94$; (Time 2) $r = .06$, $n = 64$, $p = .58$; and (Time 3) $r = .03$, $n = 64$, $p = .79$. Therefore, the second research hypothesis, H2: There is a significant relationship between female EFL students' self-efficacy and writing performance at three different administrations, was rejected.

TABLE 2.
RESULTS OF PEARSON'S CORRELATION FOR FEMALE SELF-EFFICACY & WRITING SCORES

	N	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)
Female Self-efficacy*Writing (Time 1)	64	-.008	.947
Female Self-efficacy*Writing (Time 2)	64	.069	.587
Female Self-efficacy*Writing (Time 3)	64	.034	.790

To test the third and fourth research questions, an independent-samples t-test with an alpha level of .05 were used. As Table 4.3 indicates, there was no statistically significant difference between the self-efficacy scores of the male EFL students and the female EFL students ($M = 78.77$, $SD = 3.22$) and the female EFL students ($M = 79.74$, $SD = 2.62$), $t(118) = -1.81$, $p = .07$ (two-tailed). The results indicate that the third research hypothesis is rejected. Thus, it can be said that male and female EFL students' self-efficacy is at the same level for this sample.

TABLE 3.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR SELF-EFFICACY SCORES

Variable	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Self-efficacy Scores	1.49	.22	-1.81	118	.073	-.96	.53	-2.02	.09

The final research question was about the difference in writing performance between female and male EFL students. As Table 4.4 indicates, there was no statistically significant difference between the self-efficacy scores of the male EFL students and the female EFL students ($M = 5.93$, $SD = 1.76$) and the female EFL students ($M = 6.07$, $SD = 1.87$), $t(118) = -.39$, $p = .69$ (two-tailed). The results indicate that the fourth research hypothesis is rejected. Thus, it can be said that male and female EFL students' writing performance was also at the same level for this sample. Thus, it can be said that male and female EFL students' writing performance was also at the same level for this sample.

TABLE 4.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR WRITING SCORES

Variable	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig.	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Self-efficacy Scores	.11	.73	-.39	118	.69	-.13	.33	-.79	.52

V. DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

As for the first question, it was aimed to examine the relationship between male EFL student's self-efficacy and writing performance at three different points in time. The finding showed that there was no significant relationship between male EFL students' self-efficacy and writing performance at three different points in time. Similarly, there was no significant relationship between female EFL students' self-efficacy and writing performance at three different points in time. Therefore, the second hypothesis was rejected. These findings are in contrast with researchers' findings that have revealed strong feeling in writing self-efficacy and they have investigated the relationship between writing self-belief and writing final result in universities; these findings shown a strong relationship between them (Pajares, F., 2000, Pajares, F. and M.J. Johnson, 1996, Pajares, F. and G. Valiente, 2001). The resulted displayed among all the motivational conceptions studies about writing performance, self-efficacy was usually found to have the strongest predicting power: such findings maintain the claim made by (Bandura, A., 1986) based on social cognitive theory, that self-efficacy behaves an essential function in predicting writing performance.

The third question was aimed to examine the differences in self-efficacy between female and male EFL students. The results showed there was no statistically difference between self-efficacy scores of the male EFL students and the female EFL students. Similarly, the fourth research question was indicated that there is a significance difference in writing performance between female and male EFL students. But the result revealed that there was not. These findings are in contrast with the research of Berry & West, 1993; Bruning & Horn, 2000; Pajares, Valiante, & Cheong, 2007; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996 that have reported that in writing self-efficacy gender differences dropped off with age, mainly due to falling in females' sense of self-efficacy. Gender differences are particularly common with regard to writing self-efficacy and performance (Hansen, 2009).

This study gave further evidence to support Pajares's statement (2000), who claims that the inner procedures of learners and the beliefs they grasp about their capabilities must be given due attention, since they might contribute to success or failure in school. We believe that this study contributes to the understanding of students' self-efficacy; this information should enable educators to develop innovative teaching materials taking account of these findings and upgrade their pedagogical practices. L2 learners also need to be helped to develop substantive knowledge of the writing process and to be trained in effective writing strategies. Such measures could increase learners' writing self-efficacy and benefit them in the long run, as well as empowering them to go through wonderful, though subconscious, lifelong learning experiences.

Pedagogical Implications of the Study

From the findings of this study, two pedagogical implications have been suggested, which are (i) to highlight writing strategies in the teaching, and (ii) to put the students in groups with students of different background and gender. As found in this research, the self-efficacy levels of the answerers are high but this does not mean that they will always be at the high level. It is very important that this high level is kept. In order to guarantee this, teachers should always give encouragement to students to maintain their level and/or further increase their confidence level since level of self-efficacy depends on the difficulty level of a specific task. The higher the level of studies they are in, the more difficult and challenging their tasks will be. They will have to do more to create ideas, thus they have to be more critical and analytical in thinking. Learners get self-efficacy information from knowledge of others' performances through social comparisons (Shunk & Meece, 2006). Students who detect similar peers learning a task may also make sure that they can learn it. As such, students should work in groups which consist of mixed gender, especially small groups so that they can learn better from each other. As gender distribution in the teaching profession keeps on to be prevailed by females, the percentage of female students is higher than male students. However, mixing the students with the opposite gender should not be a problem, since it is not necessary to have equal number of students from the same gender in a group.

Suggestion for Future Research

To put the discussion of this section in a nutshell, this study has the following implications for practitioners:

- Teachers should examine various ways to discover effective methods in reducing unconscious gender stereotyping.
- There are ways in which to influence students' views of writing so that it is perceived as valuable and relevant to both male and female perceptions.
- Teachers can explain and model gender self-beliefs amongst students to help them to recognize "feminine" expressive, and the "masculine" wish to succeed so that they are better able to draw on the potential contribution of both.
- The professional development implications of these findings for the teachers would a whole school approach to gender stereotyping help to reduce differences in achievement amongst boys and girls.

APPENDIX A. THE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR GENERAL SELF-EFFICACY

آزمون نگارش					SGSES
نام و نام خانوادگی: _____ سن: _____ تحصیلات: _____ جنسیت: _____ تاریخ اجرا: _____					
باسلام					
لطفاً جملات زیر را با دقت بخوانید و یکی از گزینه‌ها را که به بهترین وجه ممکن میزان موافقت شما را با عبارات مورد نظر بیان می‌کند با درج علامت X مشخص فرمایید.					
۱	۲	۳	۴	۵	عبارات
					۱- وقتی طرحی می‌ریزم مطمئن نیستم که می‌توانم آن را انجام دهم.
					۲- یکی از مشکلات من این است که وقتی باید کاری انجام دهم نمی‌توانم از عهده آن برآیم.
					۳- اگر نتوانم کاری را بار اول انجام دهم به تلاش برای انجام آن ادامه می‌دهم. ✓
					۴- وقتی اهداف مهمی برای خود تعیین می‌کنم به ندرت به آنها دست می‌یابم.
					۵- قبل از تمام کردن کارهایم آنها را رها می‌کنم.
					۶- از روبرو شدن با مشکلات اجتناب می‌کنم.
					۷- در صورتی که کار خیلی پیچیده به نظر برسد حتی زحمت امتحانش را به خود نمی‌دهم.
					۸- هنگامی که کاری باید انجام دهم که نامناسب است انقدر پایداری می‌کنم تا آن را تمام کنم. ✓
					۹- وقتی تصمیم به انجام کاری گرفتم به طور جدی و دقیق روی همان کار تمرکز می‌کنم. ✓
					۱۰- هنگامی که می‌خواهم چیز جدیدی بیاموزم اگر در ابتدا موفق نشوم بزودی آن را رها می‌کنم.
					۱۱- وقتی مشکلات غیر مترقبه‌ای برایم رخ دهد، بخوبی از پس آنها بر نمی‌آیم.
					۱۲- از یادگیری مطالب جدید هنگامی که به نظرم مشکل می‌آید، اجتناب می‌کنم.
					۱۳- شکست باعث تلاش بیشتر می‌شود. ✓
					۱۴- به توانایی خود برای انجام کارها اعتماد ندارم.
					۱۵- به خود متکی هستم. ✓
					۱۶- به سادگی تسلیم می‌شوم.
					۱۷- توانایی برخورد با اکثر مشکلاتی که در زندگی برایم پیش می‌آید، ندارم.

APPENDIX B. NINE-BAND SCALE FOR WRITING TEST FROM IELTS TEST

9	Expert user	Has fully operational command of the language: appropriate, accurate and fluent with complete understanding.
8	Very good user	Has fully operational command of the language with only occasional unsystematic inaccuracies and inappropriate words. Misunderstandings may occur in unfamiliar situations. Handles complex detailed argumentation well.
7	Good user	Has operational command of the language, though with occasional inaccuracies, inappropriate words and misunderstandings in some situations. Generally handles complex language well and understands detailed reasoning.
6	Competent user	Has generally effective command of the language despite some inaccuracies, inappropriate words and misunderstandings. Can use and understand fairly complex language particularly in familiar situations.
5	Modest user	Has partial command of the language, coping with overall meaning in most situations, though is likely to make many mistakes. Should be able to handle basic communication in own field.
4	Limited user	Basic competence is limited to familiar situations. Has frequent problems in understanding and expression. Is not able to use complex language.
3	Extremely limited user	Conveys and understands only general meaning in very familiar situations. Frequent breakdowns in communication occur.
2	Intermittent user	No real communication is possible except for the most basic information using isolated words or short formulae in familiar situations and to meet immediate needs. Has great difficulty understanding spoken and written English.
1	Non user	Essentially has no ability to use the language beyond possibly a few isolated words.
0	Did not attempt the test	No assessable information provided.

Three topics which were selected from IELTS test include:

1. *It is generally accepted that families are not as close as they used to be.*

A. Give some reasons why this change has happened and suggest how families could be brought closer together.

B. Include any relevant examples from your experience.

2. Some people believe that children's leisure activities must be educational, otherwise they are a complete waste of time:

Do you agree or disagree?

Give reasons for your answer and include any relevant examples from your experience.

3. Some people think that it is better to educate boys and girls in separate schools. Others, however, believe that boys and girls benefit more from attending mixed schools. Discuss both views and give your opinions.

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Mules and Women: Identify and Rebel — Janie's Identity Quest in "*Their Eyes Were Watching God*"

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Abstract—The paper explores the signification of the mule image in *Their Eyes Were Watching God*, and analyzes its equivalence with the role of black women in the American society. In his work, Hurston drew the pictures of a whole bunch of women, which doesn't show a solo performance. In the paper, the author discussed the vivid picture of black community Hurston offered in "*Their Eyes Were Watching God*".

Index Terms—Afro-American tradition, mule of the world, king's mule, black women, Janie

Their Eyes Were Watching God is widely acclaimed as the best novel by Zora Neale Hurston, and a classic of Afro-American literature. And it is widely studied from many different angles, such as the feminist consciousness; the racial suppression; and the Afro-American folklore tradition; and the Black ascetics of this novel, etc. In this paper, the author intends to combine several of these approaches to offer the reader a comprehensive interpretation of this novel. Like many other Afro-American novels, this novel applies a highly signifying language, for example, it uses a lot of natural images such as the sun light, the pear tree in blossom, the bees, the mules, the mad dog, etc. These natural images play a very important role in the development of the plots and characters of the novel.

To some extent, the understanding of these animal narrations holds the key to the information contained in this novel. To justify this statement, it is necessary for the reader to dip into the Afro-American's collected experience as a slave community. Firstly, when they were sold to the United States, they had no rights at all. They were sold and purchased like animals in the market. Once purchased, they became the property of their master counted along with the master's land and livestock. Secondly, as slaves, they had to do all the work and took care of everybody, everything, including the animals. And their work brings them close nature and to all forms of life in the world. It is just natural for them to develop an intimate feeling to the animals; especially those they work with and take care of. Thirdly, the cruel ruling of the white masters makes it impossible for them to express their displeasure in a direct way. Therefore, they choose to talk about the animal world as a safe way to tell their true feelings. By creating an animal world of their own, they introduce their own rules about good and evil, redemption and punishment. It's a form of "dethrone of the official order." (Chen Guangxing, 2005, p35) In all these animal talks they expressed their hatred of the abuses and exploitation from the white world; their despise of their white master's ignorance and viciousness; their acclamation of the black people's industriousness and intelligence; and they also expressed their hope of salvation.

During the long process of struggle for Afro-American liberation, some of these animal images has gained some special meanings. And some of them are even fixed to refer to certain kinds of people. And the mule is one such image. It is a fixed image of hardworking slaves, stupid, yet obedient. And it becomes a stereotype of the black women. Such stereotypes become so powerful in the Afro-American culture that they become a chain on the American women, preventing them from developing individuality, and from pursuing their personal happiness. In this novel, there are mainly two types of mule image; one is the mule of the world, which is introduced in Nanny's description of black women's role in the world. This image defines black women's role as to carry the burden for the black man and their white master. They are under double pressure, the racial and the sexual. The second mule image is the mule freed by Joe in Eatonville. Joe purchases the mule and put her to rest, and she finally gets herself killed by fat. This mule reminds the reader of Janie's place in her second marriage and her relation with Joe. Joe plays the role of savior for Janie and helps her escape from Logan's farm, but he is a pure egoist and expects obedience out of everybody. For him, Janie's identity is Mrs. Mayor Starks, and her only function is to extend his own ego. Everything that contains the least individuality of her own is considered absurd and unacceptable. She is like the king's mule, and the king's pleasure is everything she is there for, nothing else.

Black women who fit in this first type work even harder than the mule all through their life. Besides cooking, cleaning, and raising children, they also have to work in the field or in business to support the family income. Their health and youth are often wasted too early. Despite of their contribution to the economy and to the family, their contributions are taken for granted, and very few people really appreciate their effort. They are used and abused till they can be put to no use any more, and then they are left alone to die. Their fate is analogized in the novel by the story of Matt Banner's mule. Matt uses the mule very harshly, yet he never feeds her enough. The mule becomes so skinny from

hard work and hunger that it becomes a topic for the townspeople. Yet the men talking about the mule just want to make fun out of the mule's owner, and they don't really care about the mule's fate. They even catch the poor creature and poke her around until she exhausts herself. Nanny's experience is a living example of this type of woman. And the heroine in *Sweat* also fits in this category. The second stereotype is a borrowed concept from the middle class white community. This idea is introduced into the black community by Joe, who works for a long time with the white and is deeply influenced by their values.

Their Eyes Were Watching God draws pictures of a whole bunch of women, and it is not a solo performance. There is Nanny the former slave, who is raped by her white master and driven out of the family by his wife. She gives birth to Janie's mother and sends her to school, hoping that she might escape the same cruel fate. However, Janie's mother is raped by her black schoolteacher, who then abandons her. After Janie's birth, the mother disappears, and Nanny takes over the responsibility for little Janie, raises her and protects her. Nanny the grandma fits tightly into the stereotype of the mule. She works hard all her life, and she takes in hurts and sufferings and swallows them down her throat. She simply assumes her role as the mule of the world. And her most daring dream is to have a safe and warm home of her own, enough food, and some leisure time out on the porch of her own house.

And there are the women in Eatonville, and they are a new generation without any slave experience. They are not in much better conditions than Nanny, and most of them don't have a home of their own. Yet, to some extent, they have realized Nanny's dream at least partly, for they have a husband, a family, and some leisure talking on the front porch. They may be like many of the women on the muck where Tea Cake and Janie live together. And they don't strike the reader as individuals; instead they show up as a group of shadows without any characteristic. They may have been born free, but deep inside they are still slaves to the stereotype. And if one dives into their mind, he is likely to find that their dreams go no further than that of Nanny. In fact, they are grouped by black men like Joe with cows and mules, who cannot think for themselves and who need someone to think for them. The real breakthrough for women's personal fulfillment comes in Janie. Most of the common women surrender to these stereotypes, and only few of outstanding willpower and intelligence are able to break the bonds, and fulfill their dreams. And Janie is a member of this small group of forerunners for the liberation of the black women.

Therefore, it may be worth exploring the relationship between Janie and these mule images, and how they interfere with her struggle to find her real identity. Janie's journey to self-fulfillment starts early in her girlhood, and it is a journey full of setbacks and frustrations. And there are three main stages in her identity pursuit, and each stage comes along with a marriage.

Janie starts to question her own identity since she was a little girl as a result of her virtuous orphanage and her accommodation in the backyard of a white family. She plays so well with the children of the white family where Nanny works that she identifies herself with them, and that is why she couldn't recognize herself on the photo among the white kids. Besides, as she is dressed by her white patron much better than her peer blacks, they become jealous of her and isolate her from their circle. Worse than this, they continuously humiliate her by telling about her father's being hunted for the rape of her mother. Living between the white world and the black world, and not being accepted into any one of them, young Janie starts her quest about her identity long before she gets any reasoning power for such a challenging question. And this quest accompanies her all through her life.

Of course, Janie doesn't reach the maturity of her selfness upon her first try. Her first two attempts are both failures. And her adventure of self-fulfillment is full of yielding to and rebelling against the stereotypes for black women. Her first marriage is to an old black man with sixty acres of land, and it is an arranged-marriage by her grandma. It is a marriage without love, and Janie is merely the old man's mule. (Cheng Xilin, 2001) This is an obvious surrender to Nanny's concept of black women, which defines women as the mule of the world, and they are expected to serve her husband in the bed, in the kitchen and in the field. At first, Janie is treated as if she wasn't capable of any sort of work, the old husband fetches the water for her, cuts the firewood for her, and even carries the firewood into the kitchen for her. Slowly, the old man begins to reveal his real attitude about her. And he starts to expect her to work not just in the kitchen, but in the barn and in the field as well. Noticeably, all through the process, her opinion is never wanted. Her attempt to communicate with the old man never succeeds, and all he expects is her obedience and gratefulness for his taking her as a wife. He thinks has done her a great favor by marrying her, so she should kiss the dirt under his feet and treat him like a god. "You ain't got no particular place. It's what Ah need yuh. Git uh move on yuh, and dat quick." (Hurstons, 1978, p52) From this quotation, the reader can see that the old man never really cares for Janie as a person. He does whatever he thinks she should need without asking her, and expects her to be grateful for everything he does. He never washes his feet even if Janie put a basin of water ready under his feet. It's obvious he regards Janie as not much different from an animal, a mule to be exact. And she is not supposed to have any feelings, nor is her opinion worth of listening. When she tries to tell her opinion or argue with him, he simply gets mad, and threatens to kill her.

Disillusioned with her first attempt of self-fulfillment, Janie elopes with Joe Starks, who becomes her second husband. Joe Starks is deeply influenced by the values of the white people, and he is eager for power and property. He promises to make Janie a lady, Mrs. Mayor Starks. Even before their elopement, Janie realizes Joe is not her bee to the blooming pear tree, yet he represents the far horizon for her, something different from her present situation with old Logan, so she puts away her dream and gets along with him. Once been there, Janie soon finds the life far from what she has desired. Joe doesn't like to see her get involved with other black women in the neighborhood, for he considers

them of a lower position. Thus she is separated from her fellow black women. Joe doesn't like seeing Janie stand on the front porch of the shop and listen to the evening leisure talks, and always order her to go into the shop and serve some customers when the talk is going on, while he himself enjoys the stories. He also deprives Janie of her right to speak in public without asking her opinion, and he forces her to tie her pretty hair up and hide it with a piece of rag. In a word, Janie has to behave herself strictly by the book written by Joe-the "I God".

"Joe assigns her the role of 'Mrs. Mayor Starks.' She must hold herself apart from the towns people, conduct herself according to the requirements of his position. Under no circumstance must she speak in public. ... Being forbidden to speak is a severe penalty in an oral culture. It short-circuits Janie's attempt to claim identity of her own, robs her of the opportunity to negotiate respect from her peers." (BLC, 1076)

Joe's failure lies in his indiscriminate absorption of the white world values. He is not much different from the white master he works for in Pennsylvania. He is obsessed with power and property, and he looks down at his fellow townspeople in Eatonville because they can't afford to buy their own house. And his forbidden of Janie's involvement in the front porch talk is a clear sign of his sense of class superiority over the others in Eatonville. And the idea from the white world that directly causes the failure of his marriage is the patriarchal discrimination which poisons both the black world and the white world. Everything he does for Janie is trying to make her into a middle class white woman, a lady in his own word. If Nanny were alive to see Janie as Mrs. Mayor Starks, she may feel satisfied. And many of the townswomen envy Janie's place very much. Yet these women are too much poisoned by the stereotype for black women, and they are blind to their own potentials. Like Janie said at the end of the novel, these women never see the dawn all their life. But Janie never values material security higher than spiritual fulfillment, and she keeps her dream alive all her life. Unfortunately, Joe's narcissism never let him see through Janie's inner feelings.

"The mule is the embedded image that haunts Janie through two marriages and becomes a metaphor for the roles she repudiates in her quest for self-fulfillment. It is the idea against which the book implicitly argues. Love, for the old ex-slave, is 'de very prong all us black women gits hung on'; that is, as Nanny goes on to explain love makes black women see substance in a "dressed up dude" who can't keep himself in shoe leather, much less provide for someone else; his women tote that burden for him. Love doesn't kill black women; it makes them 'sweat.'" (BLC, 1087)

And this is exactly the situation in which Janie finds herself in her first two marriages. Both of her two husbands cut a role for her according to their own expectations. The first husband, old Logan Hollicks wants to shape her according to the old stereotype of black women, and make her work like a mule both inside and outside of the house. Though Logan himself works just as hard, he considers Janie not of an equal position with him, but of a much lower position. Suppose he used to be a slave himself like Nanny, he never regards his wife as freed as himself, instead, he thinks he can treat her the he was treated by his white master. It's a great pity that he never realizes that Janie is an intelligent, free and romantic woman, and no wonder Janie leaves him at last.

The second husband, Joe Starks wants to shape Janie according to another stereotype, which is also haunted by the image of the mule. But Joe intends to make her wife a mule free of labor in the field. He makes her a mule in the shop. But a mule is still a mule, no matter where she is. Therefore, he would never have her speak in public; who is going to listen to a mule anyway? And the fact that he never tells how she loves Janie and is jealous of other man's beholding her, touching her hair also shows his attitude towards her; who is going to tell his mule that he loves her anyway, it would seem ridiculous? And if you do love your mule, all you have to do is to lessen her job, and feed her well, and that is exactly what he does for Janie.

If we take a closer look at the narration about Matt Bonner's yellow mule, we may get a better understanding of the equivalence between Janie's situation and that of the mules. "They had him up for conversation everyday the lord sent. Most especial if Matt was there himself to listen. Sam and Lige and Walter were the ringleaders of the mule talkers. The other threw in whatever they could chance upon..." (Hurston, 1978, p83) And the mule is the talk material for everybody on the front porch, but no one really cares for her; Janie as the pretty Mrs. Mayor is also the topic of the townspeople, but the talk never amounts to more than mere sexual interest or jealousy. The mule has no word in all the talks about her, and so is Janie denied the chance to communicate with her fellow towns people. Whenever Janie tries to join in the mule talk, she is ordered to go in the shop and sell something. She finally develops a hatred towards the inside of the shop just like the mule hate Matt Bonner and the plow. All these similarity makes her sympathize with the yellow mule. When the others torture the mule and have fun out of this event, Janie couldn't bear with it anymore.

She snatched her head away from the spectacle and began muttering to herself. "They oughta be shamed uh theyselves! Teasin' dat poor brute beast lak they is! Done been worked tuh death; done had his disposition ruint wid mistreatment, and now they got tuh finish develin' 'im tuh death. Wisht Ah had mah way wid 'em all." (Hurston, 1978, p89)

The last sentence is a open condemnation upon the cruel patriarchal world. Janie wishes she claim penalty on all the men who tortured the poor mule. And it may not be very hard for the reader to sense the anger in Janie directing at the mercilessness and dumbness of the townsman. Sensing Janie's disgust with the mule-torture, Joe decides to buy the mule from Matt Bonner and set her to rest. This is probably the only time that Joe is sensitive to what Janie feels inside and does something accordingly to make her happy. Janie takes this action as a manifestation of love for her, and responds to it very emotionally.

...When it was all done she stood in front of Joe and said, "Jody, dat wuz uh mighty fine thing fuh you tuh do. 'Tain't

everybody would have thought of it, 'cause it ain't no everyday thought. Freein' dat mule makes uh mighty big man outa you. Something like George Washington and Lincoln. Abraham Lincoln he had de whole United States tuh rule so he freed de Negroes. You got uh town so you freed uh mule. You have tuh have power tuh free things and dat makes you lak uh king uh something." (Hurston, 1978, p91-92)

Janie is very grateful to Joe for this liberation, yet this liberation doesn't change the mule's condition at the very basic level, because it remains a topic to the townspeople and it still cannot defend itself. Therefore, when we think again about Janie's speech, we sense something ironic. This irony lies in Janie's interpretation of power and freedom. Joe's purchase of the mule to set her to rest is a kind action from the ruler, and the action is a demonstration of power. And the comparison between Joe and Abraham Lincoln seems to escalate Joe to the level of the great president who give freedom to all black slaves, yet from the reading we can see that Joe is just a little figure who is hunger for power. Thus, the comparison only exposes the absurdity of Joe's self-complacency. And the last sentence betrays Janie's hatred of Joe's affectedness. Janie seems to tell us that Joe set the mule to rest not because he thinks she deserves rest, but because he wants to show he has the power to free the mule and the image of the king draws people's attention further away from the democratic Lincoln, and closer to a dictator.

In fact, after this analysis, we have more reason to believe Janie is not just talking about the mule, she is talking about herself. Though Joe helps her escape the control of her first husband, she won't thank him, because she is not being respected as an equal human being. She is something purchased, a piece of property, just like the mule. The role she is assigned to presently is not out of her own choice, and it is a product of dictatorship. And the final death of the mule also affirms Janie's judge of this case. The freedom given from above is not always sweet, and sometimes the cost is even higher than if you fight for it. When the corpse of the mule is left alone, the dead-eating birds' chant sarcastically tells us the cause of her death is pure fat. In purchasing her and set her to rest, Joe saves her from dying from exhaustion, yet kills her by leisure.

Fortunately, sensing the danger of sharing the same tragic fate with the mule, Janie takes to rebel against the role assigned to her by Joe, otherwise she may end up just like the mule. Failing to find recognition of her individuality from the outside world, she withdraws from Joe and the male-dominated world he represents. And she realizes that she has kept many things from Joe, and she tries to live a double life. Silence becomes her weapon to Joe's male chauvinism. Lu Xun used to tell two possible results of silence, one is to die in silence, the other is to explode. Janie's silence belongs to the second type. Deep inside, she never really surrenders to the pressure of the male world. Instead, her silence is the declaration of a cold war, is a demonstration of protest. This is a weapon she once used against her first husband, and now she resort to it again in her fight against the abuse of her second husband. When she is slapped in the face for a burnt dinner, she doesn't say a word, nor does she try excuses or cry out of pain, for these behaviors would add to Joe's sense of triumph and betray her powerlessness against his abuse. She leads the hit inside, let it shake the shelf in her mind where she keeps Joe's picture frame, and let the frame fall to the floor, break into pieces. The silent protest gives her power to resist being hurt by Joe's physical and verbal abuse. The slap in her face, the critics against her physical appearance and against her intelligence only makes her hate Joe harder. At the same time, she accumulates strength for her counterattack. That is what she does when Joe criticizes her again in front of the townspeople in the store. She takes up Joe's words against her and uses them directly against him, that is she laughs at Joe's loss of sexual power. This attack drives right at the weakest point in Joe, and he soon gets sick and dies.

After the death of Joe, Janie resumes her freedom just like when she was the little girl under the blossoming pear tree. And she soon recovers her nature as a romantic and adventurous woman. As manifestation of her protest against the bondage placed on her by the patriarchal system, she burns all the hair rags and let her hair fall freely down to her waist. (Cheng Xilin, 2001) She also refuses the wedding proposals of some men generally viewed as accomplished. Like the narrator said at the beginning of the novel that a woman's dream is the truth for her, so Janie decides to be the blooming pear tree and waits for her bee man to show up.

Finally, Tea Cake comes into Janie's life. He is a troubadour, a travelling businessman, having no property worth of bragging about, totally free from the influence of white male values. He is ready to challenge all the conventional male and female concepts, and he is willing to invite Janie join him as a partner in his life adventure. He is the bee for Janie's blooming pear tree. (TCLC, 1077) Only with him is Janie able to fully explore her potential as a person, to freely display her physical beauty; to play chess; to shoot and to fish; and to enjoy the life among companions. Though she has to kill him after he is infected with the mad dog disease, she will never change her feelings for him and will love him just the same forever. This short-lived marriage with Tea Cake helps Janie complete her self-fulfillment. She finally escapes the fate of exhausted to death as the mule of the world, and the fate of bored to death as the mule of a king. She has been to the horizon and is back. She knows what she is capable of and knows how it feels to be oneself.

With her animal talks, Hurston offers us a vivid picture of black community. This world may not be as prosperous materially as the white world; and compared with the elite white civilization, this black culture still seem a little underdeveloped. However, we may also notice that the white civilization is at very hard period, and more and more people are losing their faith in the society drawing nutrition from this dying culture. Viewing from this aspect, the black culture is full of vitality; it is closely related with the great nature. And the black people are still full of hope and passion for the future. When one read this work, we see people enjoying life, and we see people try to make meanings out of their life because they believe there is a meaning. Maybe this is what we need most when the world is full of

desperation. And in dealing with the modern theme of identity searching, Hurston sets a model by combining black traditions with modern themes. Undeniably, Hurston's suggestion for women's salvation may seem too traditional for she seems to place too much emphasis on marriage. Later feminist writers have explored more ways for women's self-fulfillment, such as through artistic creation, through profession, and through sisterly love among women. Yet, judging from the time she lived in, her suggestion that women can have their own identity must have been no less shocking than later feminist's telling the world that lesbian love is natural. Therefore, no matter in her creative use of the Afro-American culture, in her imitation of the spoken language of the black community, or in her exploration of black women's identity, this work all deserves our full respect and attention.

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The Effect of Authentic and Inauthentic Materials in Cultural Awareness Training on EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension Ability

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Abstract—This paper aimed to examine the effect of authentic and inauthentic materials in cultural awareness training on the listening comprehension ability of EFL learners. To this end, the Cambridge ELT placement test was given to 116 students, 60 of them who were at intermediate level were chosen as the sample. The participants were randomly divided into two equal groups, the control and experimental groups. They also took a listening pretest to investigate the possible difference between them. The control group underwent listening activities through inauthentic materials, while the experimental group dealt with authentic materials. Test scores in pre- and post-test were compared. Using SPSS, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality was run for the post-test scores to check the applicability of parametric statistics. A Paired-Sample T-Test proved that the listening comprehension ability of the participants has improved in a statistically significant way. A One-way ANOVA test was then run to compare the mean-scores of the groups in the post-test. All tests were at the alpha level of .05. The results revealed that the listening ability of learners in the experimental group had improved better than the learners in the control group. This study may have implications for improving EFL learners' listening ability.

Index Terms—authentic materials, inauthentic materials, listening comprehension ability

I. INTRODUCTION

Listening is an important skill through which language learners internalize linguistic information without which they cannot produce language (Brown, 2007). According to Rubin & Thompson (1994), among the four language skills_ listening, speaking, reading, and writing_ listening is possibly the most conspicuous and elemental one, because language users spend nearly 60% of their time listening. As Flowerdew (1994) claims, in daily life listening is used the most frequently (42%), pursued by speaking (32%), reading (15%), and writing (11%).

Chastain remarks that listening functions as “the basis for development of speaking” (1976, cited in Chen 2003). Hence listening proves to be the natural prerequisite in learning a second or foreign language, just like first language acquisition. Listening necessitates cognitive processes, physiological processes, and attention to contextual and “socially coded acoustic clues” (Swaffar & Bacon, 1993; Field, 2002; Lynch, 2002; Rost, 2002).

In spite of all these, listening was once supposed to be a passive skill, enjoying little research and classroom attention. But today listening is identified as an active process, crucial to foreign and second language acquisition and worthy of methodical involvement as a skill in its own regard (Morley, 1999). In recent years, substantial effort has been dedicated to formulating theories elucidating decisive factors that could enhance foreign language listening comprehension (Nagle & Sanders, 1986; Buck, 1991). Although still there exists no generally accepted theory on foreign language listening comprehension development, some researchers (e.g. Richards, 1983; Christine & Christa, 1995) think that listeners' linguistic knowledge and background knowledge are the necessary factors that are capable of influencing their comprehension of the foreign language.

Thus understanding the chemistry of listening processes proves to be of utmost significance, since it performs a principal role in second or foreign language acquisition. Numerous researchers have scrutinized the difficulties that language learners encounter while listening. O'Malley, Chamot, and Kupper (1989) have mentioned Inattention as one of these difficulties learners suffer. Goh (1997) claims if learners are not familiar with the strategies used, they will probably have problems while listening. Lexis, is one other difficulty that impedes learners' progress (Kelly, 1991). Chen (2002) mentions fast rate of speech as one other difficulty for progressive understanding. But, maybe the most influential element that could prove itself as a major difficulty for learners' listening comprehension is Background knowledge (Long, 1990; Chiang & Dunkel, 1992).

Among these factors learners' background knowledge and content schemata can affect the quality of listening comprehension to a large extent. Research in reading corroborates the idea that activating background knowledge and applying this knowledge to new input greatly expedite the processing and understanding of texts (Graves & Cook,

1980). Listening's major purpose is the construction of meaning by matching what listeners hear with what they already know, i.e. their background knowledge (Rost, 2002). One aspect of background knowledge is culture that is embedded in even the simplest act of language (Hao, 2000; Kramsch, 1993). Kramsch (1993) maintains that every time we speak we perform a cultural act. Accordingly, cultural knowledge as a basis for language learning is now emphasized in modern language teaching.

This knowledge_ background knowledge, and/or cultural knowledge_ presents itself in the facilitation of the input processing inferentially, i.e. the language user makes inferences in the process of decoding the message. These inferences should necessarily conform to the semantic, pragmatic, and particularly discursive codes of any specific language, here the target language. Thus background knowledge, or more specifically cultural knowledge, is necessary for the language user to be able to make appropriate inferences. As Rost (1990, p. 9) claims, the notion of listening is often considered in parallel to reading; both are texts with which readers interact, although the information in written or spoken text is packaged differently. Indeed, Eysenk (1990, p. 224), Clark and Clark (1977, p. 97) and Rost (1990, p. 62), do in fact indicate that listeners must utilize inferencing skills in order to make sense of discourse.

In an EFL classroom there are limited sources for students to learn the culture of the target language. Among these sources authentic materials such as movies and series could be more effective since they present the target culture unabridged. As Herron, Cole, Corrie, and Dubreil (1999) showed, students achieve significant gains in overall cultural knowledge after watching videos from the target culture in the classroom.

Due to their very nature, authentic materials_ unchanged texts that are produced by and for native speakers (Bacon, 1992) _ more effectively promote the learning of procedural and experiential knowledge, while inauthentic materials promote the learning of conceptual knowledge more effectively (Ellis, 2008).

Thus the objective set for this study is: To find out whether or not authentic materials are more effective than inauthentic materials in improving the listening comprehension ability of EFL learners at the intermediate level. This research thus addresses the following question:

Q. Are authentic materials more effective than inauthentic materials in improving the listening comprehension ability of EFL learners at the intermediate level?

H₀. Authentic materials are not more effective than inauthentic materials in improving the listening comprehension ability of EFL learners at the intermediate level.

II. THEORETICAL AND RESEARCH BACKGROUND

A. Cognitive Models of Listening Process: The Bottom-up, Top-down, and Interactive Processing Models

In bottom-up processing, the various elements of the discourse, from the phonemes to the sentences, are analyzed. This analysis requires the comprehensive linguistic features processing of a given language. In this type of processing the language user attempts to correspond the initial sounds of new words to their own lexicon to guess what a word probably is. This matching might happen before all sounds have been heard because of the elimination process. According to Field (1999), this process might last no more than 0.25 second, and the processes of analyzing and processing of phonemes, syllables, words, phrases, and sentences probably occur at the same time. If learners face input for which they do not have any background knowledge, they might rely on bottom-up processing (Wilson, 2003).

The term top-down processing is used in description of the cognitive processes of listening and reading. In this type of processing, the learner relies on background knowledge to infer what the intentions of the speaker could be. According to Jung (2003), language users adopt factual knowledge of here and now and consider different types of schemata that help them foretell what will come next through top-down processing. According to Rost (2005) two types of schemata exist: *content* and *formal* schemata, content schemata deal with the factual discourse content, the message which is intended, while formal schemata deals with the organization of discourse.

According to Park (2004), the Interactive Process model reveals how both top-down and bottom-up processing types mingle for comprehension to take place. Bottom-up demands linguistic knowledge and top-down occurs by activating the background knowledge. Comprehension best takes place through the interaction of both.

B. Culture: Definition, Themes, and Sources of Culture

According to Hinkel (1999), culture refers to areas of inquiry into human societies, groups, systems, behaviors, and activities. According to Moran (2001), culture is "the great achievement of people as reflected in their history, social institutions, works of art, architecture, music, and literature" (p. 4).

Adaskou, Britten, and Fahsi (1990) define culture by outlining four meanings of it: aesthetic sense, sociological sense, semantic sense, and pragmatic or sociolinguistic sense. The last one covers background knowledge, language code, and social skills which are essential for successful communication.

According to these definitions language is an aspect of culture because language is basically learned and shared by man as a member of society. As Mitchell and Myles (2004) postulate, culture and language are the same in nature, acquired together and providing support for the enhancement of each other. Liddicoat et al. (2003) claim that no level of language is independent of culture. According to Kramsch (1998B) the point that language expresses and symbolizes culture proves that language and culture are tightly bounded to each other. 'A fluent fool' is what Bennett, Bennett & Allen, (2003, p. 237) call the person who learns a language without learning its culture. Richards and Rodgers (2001)

argue that for humans, language is the most important means of communication (as cited in Liu & Laohawiriyanon, 2013).

According to Lee (2009) and Peterson (2004) two types of culture can be assumed: the *Big "C"* and the *Little "c"*. Lee (2009, as cited in Liu & Laohawiriyanon, 2013) sees *Big "C"* culture as the culture which shows a series of facts and statistics relating to the history, arts, festivals, education, business, geography and customs of a target speech society. For Peterson (2004, as cited in Liu & Laohawiriyanon, 2013) the culture relating to grand themes, is classified under *Big "C"* culture which includes the following themes such as geography, architecture, classical music, literature, political issues, society's norms, legal foundation, core values, history, and cognitive processes. For Lee (2009, p. 78, as cited in Liu & Laohawiriyanon, 2013) this type of culture is "the invisible and deeper sense of a target culture" including attitudes or beliefs and assumptions. Peterson (2004, as cited in Liu & Laohawiriyanon, 2013) defines *Little "c"* culture as the culture focusing on common or minor themes. It includes themes such as opinions, viewpoints, preferences or tastes, gestures, body posture, use of space, clothing styles, food, hobbies, popular music, and popular issues, and certain knowledge (trivia) facts. However, it can also possibly result in "pragmatic failure" when attempting to communicate with other cultural groups. Therefore, if EFL learners know about small "c" culture in the target culture, they will better comprehend how those people communicate with each other in that culture (Lee, 2009, as cited in Liu & Laohawiriyanon, 2013).

Sources of cultural information could be classified into: *source culture* (learner's own culture), *target culture* (any English-speaking countries where English is spoken as a first language), and *international target culture* (English speaking or non-English speaking countries around the world, where English is not used as a first language) (Cortazzi and Jin, 1999, as cited in Liu & Laohawiriyanon, 2013).

C. Materials Used for Teaching Culture: Authentic and Inauthentic

What type of culture should be taught in the SL/FL classroom? Relating the essential ideas provided by the previously mentioned definitions and the reasons for the inevitability of incorporating cultural matters into the SL/FL classroom, it is apparent that the major forms of culture we need to deal with in a foreign language program should be the one that views culture as a "blue print" or integrated patterns of abstraction derived from observable behavior of a group of people. In other words, the major cultural contents to include in a language classroom should be what Tomalin and Stempleski (1993) call with the little "c" of culture. In relation to this, Brooks (1983) suggests that the cultural elements to be emphasized in the classroom are models of living. Therefore, realistic elements of culture we should include are notions like when and what people eat, how they earn money, the ideas they have toward their friends and families, how they show approval or disapproval of something, educational attitudes, time and space patterns, work values, and etc. In this sense, culture is a set of solutions to the problems. Although the concrete forms of culture like painting, music, tools, and facts of history or geography are interesting to discuss, since they do not provide an intimate view of what life is really like in the target culture, they are not of high important to deal with in relation to the teaching of a foreign language.

The term 'authentic materials' means different things to different people in the literature. The common theme in the definitions given for 'authentic materials' is 'real language and its use in its own community'. The most common definition for second-language research is 'unaltered texts that are produced by and for native speakers' (Bacon, 1992; Joiner et al., 1989). Jordan (1997, p. 113) refers to authentic texts as "texts that are not written for language teaching purposes".

Guariento and Morley (2001) claim that at post-intermediate levels, the use of authentic materials is advantageous. It is probably because at these levels most students know a wide range of vocabulary and all of the structures. Accordingly, they claim that at lower levels the use of authentic materials may discourage and frustrate students since they lack enough lexical items and structures necessary for dealing with authentic materials.

Authentic materials are culturally rich and thus more interesting (Bacon, 1992). Authentic materials can give students direct access to the cultural information need and help them use the target language authentically (Rogers & Medley, 1988). Stagich (1998) claims that understanding cultural context is the most effective way to learn real meaning of the language.

According to Rivers (1981), movies and series, as authentic materials, could be used as the medium of study of the culture for the development of cultural awareness. Movies and Series offer students a chance to see behaviors that are not seen in texts. Movies and Series involve students with issues of language and culture simultaneously (Stephens, 2001). The study by Herron, Cole, Corrie, and Dubreil (1999) showed that learners' cultural knowledge significantly improved after watching videos from the target culture.

D. Consciousness Raising Tasks

Consciousness raising tasks for cultural awareness training were carried out in both groups. The tasks were devised in line with the characteristics of Consciousness Raising given by Ellis (2003). The purpose was to make subjects in these groups aware of the possible differences between the Iranian and American cultures. Considering the requirements of this study, these features were revised by the researcher in the following way:

1. The "attempt to isolate a specific linguistic feature for focused attention". Revised version: Isolating a specific cultural feature for focused attention.

2. The provision of “data which illustrate the targeted feature”. Revised version: Providing learners with relevant data for illustrating the target culture features.

3. The requirement that learners ‘utilize intellectual effort’ to understand the targeted feature. Revised version: Requiring learners to utilize intellectual effort to understand the targeted cultural feature.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Initially a placement test was administered among the 116 candidates who had registered to participate in this study in the English department of Novinpouyan Cultural Institute in Arak, Iran. Among those who qualified as intermediate, 60 were randomly chosen to be randomly assigned to the experimental and control groups. Among these 60 participant, 30 were males and 30 were females. The age of the participants ranged from 19 to 28. Their first language was Persian and 6 of them had travelled to non-English speaking countries as tourists.

Intermediate level participants were chosen because the description of what a learner is supposed to be able to do in reading, listening, speaking and writing at the intermediate level, provided by CEFR (Martyniuk, 2005), best fulfilled the theoretical assumptions of the study which are thoroughly discussed in the second chapter.

B. Materials: Authentic Materials, Inauthentic Materials

Three types of material were used in this study: authentic materials, inauthentic materials, which are both in American accent, and consciousness raising tasks. According to Rivers (1981), movies and series could be used as the medium of study of the culture for the development of cultural awareness. The study conducted by Herron, Cole, Corrie, and Dubreil (1999) showed that students achieved significant gains in overall cultural knowledge after watching authentic videos from the target culture. Based on what has been previously done in studying the efficacy of authentic videos in cultural training of students, an American television comedy-drama, *Shameless*, on SHO January 9, 2011 – present, was selected to be used in the experimental group.

The listening activities to be used in the control group were chosen from the following course books: *American English File* by Clive Oxenden et al., *Impact Values* by Richard Day, et al., *Tactics for Listening* by Jack C. Richards, *Tune in* by Jack C. Richards and Kerry O’Sullivan, *Listen In* by David Nunan.

C. Instruments: Placement and Listening Tests

Cambridge (Oxford) ELT placement test was administered among 116 candidates to select the sample of this study. The test used to investigate the possible difference between control and experiment groups was a standard TOEFL listening test.

D. Procedures

To select the subjects necessary for this study the Cambridge (Oxford) ELT placement test was administered. The candidates were asked to start at the beginning of the written test and stop when the questions become too difficult. The maximum time allowed for this section of the test was 40 minutes. 116 candidates took this test. Due to space limitations, it was impossible to administer this test at one session, thus it took four sessions to administer this test.

The oral section of the placement test was administered by two raters among the students with scores within the pre-intermediate (9 students), intermediate (56 students), and upper intermediate (41 students) categories. The oral test took six sessions to be administered. After administering the oral test 72 students proved to be at the intermediate level.

Since in this study 60 participants were needed, the researchers had to randomly cross out 12 candidates, leaving 60 participants to be divided into control and experimental groups.

To check the participants’ listening ability level prior to the treatment, the TOEFL listening pretest was administered among them.

Then each group received instruction using the predetermined type of listening material during the course of twelve weeks. The classes were held three times a week. After receiving 36 sessions of treatment the post-test was administered.

IV. RESULTS

A. Placement Test Scores Analysis

The following table shows the results of the placement test:

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
scores	116	29.00	113.00	74.2500	15.10075

As it is clearly shown in the above table, the mean score and standard deviation are approximately 74 and 15 respectively. 106 candidates were allowed to take the proceeding oral section of the placement test after being

provisionally placed in the pre-intermediate, intermediate, and upper intermediate categories provided by the Cambridge (Oxford) ELT placement test guide.

An inter-rater reliability analysis using the Kappa statistic was performed to determine consistency among raters. The data on the assignment of categories by the two raters is presented in the following chart:

TABLE 2
RATERS A*B CROSSTABULATION

		B			Total
		Pre-intermediate	Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	
A	Pre-intermediate	6	3	0	9
	Intermediate	3	80	3	86
	Upper-intermediate	0	4	7	11
Total		9	87	10	106

The results of the Kappa statistical measure are shown in the following chart:

TABLE 3
SYMMETRIC MEASURES

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error	Approx. T	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement Kappa	.613	.098	8.223	.000

The interrater reliability for the raters was found to be 0.613, according to Landis and Koch (1977) if the values of Kappa are from 0.61 to 0.80, there is substantial agreement between the raters.

B. Descriptive Results of the Pretest Scores

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICAL RESULTS OF THE PRETEST SCORES

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
Pretest Control	30	14.00	27.00	19.8667	.60787	3.32942
Pretest Experimental	30	14.00	28.00	20.6333	.66347	3.63397
Valid N (listwise)	30					

According to table 4, the mean score of the control group in the pretest is 19.86 and the minimum and maximum scores are 14 and 27, respectively. The mean score of the experiment group is 20.63 and the range of scores is from 14 to 28.

To confirm the homogeneity of the control and experimental groups, the pretest scores were analyzed through the one-way ANOVA test. The results are shown in the following chart.

TABLE 5
TEST OF BETWEEN-SUBJECT EFFECTS: PRETEST SCORES

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	8.817 ^a	1	8.817	.726	.398
Intercept	24603.750	1	24603.750	2025.767	.000
group	8.817	1	8.817	.726	.398
Error	704.433	58	12.145		
Total	25317.000	60			
Corrected Total	713.250	59			

Since the p-value in the above table is 0.398, the two groups are homogeneous.

C. Descriptive Results of the Post-test Scores

The descriptive statistical results of the listening comprehension post-test scores of all groups are reported in table 6.

TABLE 6
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICAL RESULTS OF THE POST-TEST SCORES

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
Post-test Control	30	16.00	30.00	21.9667	.70055	3.83705
Post-test Experimental	30	19.00	33.00	25.7667	.74229	4.06570
Valid N (listwise)	30					

According to table 6, the mean score of the control group in the post-test is 21.96 and the minimum and maximum scores are 16 and 30, respectively. The mean score of the experiment group is 25.76 and the range of scores is from 19 to 33.

To check the normality of the post-test scores the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality was also run. This was to confirm that parametric statistics could legitimately be used for this study. Table 7 shows the result of this test.

TABLE 7

ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST	
	Post-test scores
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	.896
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.399

According to the above table, Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z equals .896 and the p-value is .399, thus the data comes from a normal distribution and using parametric statistics in this study is legitimate.

D. The Statistical Analysis of the Post-test Scores: The Effect of Material Types

To examine the effect of material types on the listening comprehension ability of the participants, two steps were taken. The first step was to check if the treatment has been effective in improving the listening comprehension ability of the participants from a statistically significant point of view. To this end a Paired-Sample T-Test was run. The results of this test are shown in the following table.

TABLE 8								
PAIRED SAMPLE TEST								
	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pre control – Post control	-2.10000	3.99439	.72927	-3.59153	-.60847	-2.880	29	.007
Pre Experi – Post Experi	-5.13333	3.41127	.62281	-6.40712	-3.85954	-8.242	29	.000

According to table 8, since all p-values are less than .05 it is confirmed that the treatment has significantly improved the listening comprehension ability of the participants.

In the second step the mean-scores in the post-test were compared running a one-way ANOVA test. The result of this test is presented in table 9.

TABLE 9
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Group	216.600	1	216.600	13.861	.000

According to table 9, the p-value is .000, this shows the mean-score of the experimental group is significantly different from the mean-score of the control group. Since the mean-score of the experimental group is 25.7667 and the mean-score of the control group is 21.9667, it is proved that the experimental group has outperformed the control group.

Thus, it is concluded that the null hypothesis is rejected and authentic materials are more effective than inauthentic materials in improving the listening comprehension ability of EFL learners at the intermediate level.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study aimed at investigating the effect of authentic and inauthentic materials in cultural awareness training on EFL learners listening comprehension ability. To this purpose two groups of intermediate EFL students took part in a series of listening comprehension classes. One group (Control) was taught using inauthentic material, whereas the other group (Experimental) received instruction using authentic materials.

Regarding the research question that is “Are authentic materials more effective than inauthentic materials in improving the listening comprehension ability of EFL learners at the intermediate level?” it can be concluded from the results that authentic materials could be more effective than inauthentic materials in improving the listening comprehension ability of EFL learners at the intermediate level.

Further research is needed to investigate the effect of other authentic materials on the listening comprehension ability of EFL learners at the intermediate level. Finally, it must be pointed out that further research is needed to be done considering other proficiency levels.

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Attitudes toward the Effectiveness of Communicative and Educational Language Games and Fun Activities in Teaching and Learning English

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Abstract—This research intended to investigate the attitudes of learners and teachers about the effectiveness of using games and fun activities regarding learning English. To do so, a modified questionnaire with 25 items was conducted. The participants were 40 students and 40 teachers from one of Shiraz language institutes. The results showed that both learners' and teachers' attitudes were positive toward language games and they considered games as learning lubricants. Also, games and fun activities can help learners to be interested in learning as well.

Index Terms—communicative language games, educational language games, fun activities

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is defined by Collins dictionary (2000) as a system for the expression of thoughts, feelings, etc., by the application of spoken sounds or conventional symbols. Game means an activity in which the learners play and usually interact with others and is defined as a system of manipulating spoken words to the untrained ear. Language games are identified as play languages. In another sense, language games are not technically artificial languages as much as heuristics for modifying language, like a code. The first group who used the language, just attempted to conceal their conversations from others. It is obvious that all language learners respond differently to language games. Each language game involves a usually simple standard transformation to speech, in order to encode it. Teachers have preferred to minimize competition when they select and describe the games, with winners and losers, and to maximize challenge and competition, where everyone feels inspired to do their best. Games help and encourage many learners in sustaining their interest and work (Wright, Betteridge, & Buckby, 1984). By conducting games, teachers can create more useful and meaningful situations for understanding the languages. In conducting language games, both teachers and learners have critical roles to make it understandable and applicable.

McCallum (1980) emphasized that games automatically result in student interest, and increase their motivation. Avedon (1971 cited in Deesri, 2000, p. 2) discussed that games cause motivation and make students interested to have positive competition in doing games; moreover, they become excited and try their best to play these games. In other words, games make them motivated and automatically result in learning. Crookal (1990) believed that games have a lot of advantages to decrease anxiety and make them feel better, so they can feel more confident and relaxed, because they feel free and never think about punishment and any bad consequences of wrong answers. Games can be useful for teachers as well in their educational aspects.

Nedomov á (2007), Bekiri (2003) and Hong (2002) all mentioned some major areas in using games for teaching grammar to young learners. Nedomov á (2007), Rixon (1991), and McCallum (1980) decided about type of language games. Lee (1979) and Rinvoluceri (1990) mentioned the best time for applying the games. McCallum (1980) discussed the role of teacher in using games especially for young learners and class organization and participation of the learners. Teacher's preparation and his/her role as a facilitator is argued by Celce-Murcia (1979) and the effectiveness of using games in teaching grammar to young learners was observed by Amato (1988), Gunn and McCallum (2005), Deesri (2000), Celce-Murcia and Hilles (1988). As the games are the natural part of every classroom activity, they are the most suitable and effective activities for young learners.

Nedomov á (2007) argued that young learners became bored after 20-30 minutes when they are in the class. Teachers can use instructional or educational games in different language skills in their classes to improve their students' understanding. FAS (2006), Hays (2005), Sitzmann, (2011), Tobias and Fletcher (2011) confirmed that instructional games and simulations can be exciting in classrooms especially when teachers use them in different areas in their teaching. Sindre (2009) stated that educational games, compared to other types of learning materials, could convey new

concepts to players in a much funnier, communicating and active way. Their use in education can increase students' motivation and skills acquisition. Hirumi, Appelman, Rieber, and Van Eck (2010) found that designing games can be a difficult attempt, and planning educational games has the extra layer of including educational intentions in the design. Rieber, Barbour, Thomas, and Rauscher (2008) mentioned that a game should have an enticing storyline and keep the player motivated by providing the appropriate amount of difficulty to be considered good.

A. Suitable Types of Games

The games and fun activities should be suitable for the level of the students in the class and with the purpose of reinforcing taught materials to be digestible and understandable for all learners in the class.

B. Suitable Time for Playing Games

Games should be conducted when all the students are ready, the time when they are distracted and the teacher wants to draw their attention and needs their involvement. Games can be done at the end of the class time or after each part of the lesson to reinforce learning materials. The time that teachers want to motivate their students is the best time to conduct games.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The review of the studies related to language games indicated that games are one of the most important parts in foreign language teaching and learning in a variety of areas. Barrett (2012) stated that games are for playing, more often than not playing, a game is a social experience; it is enjoyable, and all people enjoy playing games. Play and playing are ways through which we learn, so games can be parts of the normal activity of the classroom. Clyde and Wilkinson (2012) believed that the use of digital games is a new way in handling a class and motivating students by applying simulation because they are different from text or board games, and it is more exciting for learners.

Connolly, Stansfield, and Hainey (2011) mentioned Alternate Reality Games (ARGs), is an innovative way of telling story, and narration by employing multiple media and gaming elements based on participants' actions. In his article, Dickinson (1981) explained different use of methods in involving learners in their second language for the purpose of communication such as games, role-play, and reproductions for better interaction with others. Guillen-Nieto (2012) also stated that besides the value of games, it is important to consider types of games, their procedure for class application, and the result of using these games in the class. He concluded that the video game is an effective learning tool for the teaching. In particular, games had learning effect on both learners' intercultural and cultural knowledge, and their communicative competence for culture.

Larsen (2012) created a new design perspective for game-based learning in which there is no teacher interference is needed and learners can do it by using their computers. Anyaegbu (2012) discussed the integration of Serious Games specifically Mingoville for motivating EFL learners in China. He used this in two different schools and got different results because of the attitudes of teachers and parents toward game-based learning in classrooms.

Arnold (1979) also discussed the role of instructional games in foreign language learning at the intermediate and advanced levels. Games can provide an outline for correct use of language and can create conversation. Yolageldili's investigation (2011) about the usefulness of games in teaching grammar in Turkey demonstrated that Turkish EFL teachers accept that games are effective in learners' better learning but they do not use games in their class a lot. Sylven and Sundqvist (2012) mentioned that playing digital games like multiplayer online role-playing games (MMORPGs) improve learners' linguistic and cognitive knowledge a lot, which are conducive to L2 learning, because it brings opportunities for L2 input and foster their interactions in the L2.

Sundqvist's research (2009) in vocabulary learning demonstrated that there is a positive correlation between playing digital games and L2 proficiency among learners aged 15-16. The researcher found out that gender also made differences in which boys outperformed girls as well as the frequency of gaming and types of games played. The findings suggested that playing digital games at an early age could be important for L2 acquisition without considering which gender outperforms the other.

Shameem and Tickoo (1999) investigated classroom games to teach communicative skills in English as a second language, allowing students to use communication strategies in English in realistic situations similar to those in which they would use their native language. An introductory section outlines the rationale for the use of games in communicative second language learning, the method used for selecting the tasks and activities presented, and the goals of communicative activities. Subsequent sections detailed activities in five categories: learning communication strategies (asking questions, negotiating, pronunciation); learning content material (guessing words in context, developing reading skills, promoting writing skills, forming speaking skills); learning from one another (enriching vocabulary and productive vocabulary use, imparting and seeking factual information, confirmation and clarification, expressing emotional attitudes); developing skills in discourse (conducting interviews and conversations, cooperative storytelling in verbal and written forms, grammar in discourse), and developing fluency (review and correction, improving fluency with known vocabulary, capitalizing on content, improving speaking skills, working with writing). Information provided about each activity includes targeted class levels, instructional aims, class time, preparation time, materials needed, procedures, caveats and options, references and further reading, and with the help of the teacher.

Savignon (1973) said that communicative competence, the ability to use a language proficiently in impromptu contacts with native speakers, must be the last objective of language teaching. Drills and repetition of designed expressions do not result in real language use. We should begin giving students chances to use language in unrehearsed, amorphous situations much earlier than we presently do. The emphasis should be on communicative competence then linguistic competence. A research indicated that a group of French students who had been given systematic opportunities for creative use of French in a variety of unrehearsed settings far outperformed the control group in tests designed to evaluate communicative competence. A cultural context could be simulated to give authenticity to language learning and bring about emotional involvement on the part of the students. Games were a relatively unexploited means for generating spontaneous language contacts. "Maisvousetes ma femme!" was an illustration which met all criteria for a good language game. The main concern of the language teacher must be authenticity in the classroom. Structural exercises and drills were the most effective opportunity for free use of language.

Kimball's and Palmer's paper (1978) described a formal communicative game, which required the students to process other players' utterances for implicit meaning before responding. The game could be adapted for content and difficulty level. Students had to choose between two alternatives on dimensions such as structure and style. Sample games were included as well. Jones (1986) outlined in his booklet the instructions for 10 games that have proved to be effective in English for speakers of other languages (ESOL) courses. The games presented are divided into four categories: dialog games, vocabulary games, structure focus, and pronunciation practice. "The Chain Game" called for students to take turns asking each other questions, always repeating the response given by the previous player before posing the question to the next player. The second dialog game allowed students to demonstrate reading comprehension by matching pictures with stories. A vocabulary game called "Is It?" gave students the opportunity to practice a common question-and-answer pattern and simple descriptions. Four structure-focus games were described as "Cooperative Sentences" (which taught sequential sentence order), "What Happened?" (in which students increased reading comprehension by acting out character roles and gain cultural insight as they role-play); "Where Is It?" (It is designed to increase students' comprehension of prepositions); and "Colored Sentences" (in which students learned the proper placement of modifiers in English sentences). "Hearing and Writing", "Say-Show," and "Vowel Bingo"--allowed students to get immediate feedback on their pronunciation accuracy are all pronunciation games.

Generally, beside the value of games in the instructional and learning processes, they are also effective in improving linguistic skills and communicative abilities. Harper (1981) introduced a large number of group activities and games for elementary and intermediate levels based on the purpose, the procedure, and some examples of game, which could also be appropriate in more advanced classes.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study intended to investigate the attitudes of learners and teachers toward the effectiveness of games and fun activities for learning English and find ways through which learners' knowledge can be enhanced and reinforced.

A. Participants

The participants of this study included 40 male and female EFL teachers from one of Shiraz language institutes and 40 male and female EFL learners of teen levels of the same institute.

B. Instrumentation

A modified questionnaire was designed for both teachers and students in which the first part was about their demographic information and the second part was a Likert scale of 25-item questionnaire (strongly agree (SA), agree (A), neutral (E), disagree (DA), and strongly disagree (SDA)) on the effectiveness of language games and fun activities. The learners' questionnaire was translated into their L1 (Persian) for better understanding of the questions.

C. Procedure

The questionnaires were handed to teachers and learners. With their helpful participation, all 80 questionnaires were collected; 40 were related to learners and the rest were for teachers.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

After data collection was done, the questionnaire was codified based on the motivation of students for using games and fun activities, the effectiveness of using games and fun activities, attitudes of learners and teachers toward these games and fun activities, and the difficulties encountered by teachers and students in using games and fun activities. The Likert scale was also codified in a way each answer got its own score: strongly agree (2), agree (1), neutral (0), and disagree (-1), and strongly disagree (-2).

The researchers selected two methods for analyzing data: *t*-test by using SPSS software and giving percentage for each item. Tables 2 to 9 are attached for clarification of the results in appendix A.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

An independent sample t-test was performed to investigate effectiveness of application of communicative and educational games and fun activities. The result of this test indicated that there is a statistically significant difference between teachers and learners attitude for the application of games and fun activities in classroom to promote learning. (Table 1)

The percentages for each item showed that both teachers and learners are motivated in using games and fun activities in the classroom and they think that games and fun activities are effective in learning a new language. Both groups had positive attitudes toward games and fun activities, however; there were some problems and difficulties in performing games and fun activities. They thought that using games and fun activities can make class more active and energetic in learning new lessons. (See Appendix A, Tables 2-9)

TABLE 1:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE EFFECTIVENESS OF GAMES AND FUN ACTIVITIES

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
score Equal variances assumed	4.149	.045	3.059	78	.003	4.37500	1.43003	1.52803	7.22197
Equal variances not assumed			3.059	73.313	.003	4.37500	1.43003	1.52516	7.22484

VI. CONCLUSION

It is obvious that using traditional methods of teaching cannot be sufficient these days and learners need to have abilities for communication, they need to be confident enough to communicate in real life context and they should not memorize or duplicate some rules. To do so, teachers should apply different methods beside traditional method of language teaching to motivate learners for meaningful learning and this goal is achievable if teachers use games and fun activities, which are more attracting and interesting for learners. These methods can activate their minds to learn through games and remember learned materials better, and then use them in their communication. Teachers can facilitate their teaching by adding some educational and communicative games and fun activities in teaching to motivate their learners and make learning more understandable for them.

APPENDIX A. TABLES 2-9

TABLE 2:
MOTIVATION OF TEACHERS FOR USING GAMES AND FUN ACTIVITIES IN THE CLASS

Questions	SA	A	E	DA	SDA
1. When I use games, my students learn better.	57.5	37.5	5	-	-
6. Games make lessons more interesting.	57.5	40	-	2.5	-
12. I like to give my students more time to play.	7.5	57.5	20	12.5	2.5
18. I like my students to sing songs aloud in class.	22.5	37.5	20	17.5	2.5
21. I like my students to choose the games/ activities themselves not me.	2.5	17.5	35	32.5	12.5
24. I prefer to start the lesson with fun activities for students to give them more energy.	32.5	32.5	12.5	7.5	2.5

(Figures in percentage)

TABLE 3:
THE EFFECTIVENESS OF USING GAMES AND FUN ACTIVITIES FROM TEACHERS' PERSPECTIVE (FIGURES IN PERCENTAGE)

Questions	SA	A	E	DA	SDA
2. I like to conduct games just for fun not learning.	-	10	7.5	60	45
3. I like to use games for teaching new things.	17.5	72.5	7.5	2.5	-
4. When students play games, they can speak English more.	20	40	40	-	-
5. I don't like to give marks when my students play games.	25	30	25	20	-
16. I like to play games during the lesson not after that.	2.5	35	37.5	22.5	2.5
19. I like to compare my students in games.	2.5	35	25	25	12.5
22. I prefer my students to play games other than educational games.	-	5	12.5	50	32.5
23. I like to play games when I am tired and cannot teach my students something.	-	12.5	20	45	22.5

TABLE 4:
ATTITUDES OF TEACHERS TOWARD GAMES AND FUN ACTIVITIES (FIGURES IN PERCENTAGE)

Questions	SA	A	E	DA	SDA
9. I don't like fun activities because they can't help learners learn anything more than they know.	-	2.5	7.5	47.5	42.5
13. Students are not aware of the purposes of playing games.	12.5	37.5	37.5	12.5	-
14. Some games are hard and confusing for students to play.	2.5	50	27.5	20	-

TABLE 5:
DIFFICULTIES THAT ARE ENCOUNTERED BY TEACHERS IN USING GAMES AND FUN ACTIVITIES (FIGURES IN PERCENTAGE)

Questions	SA	A	E	DA	SDA
7. My class environment is not suitable enough for playing games.	-	27.5	25	45	2.5
8. When students play games, they make a lot of noise.	22.5	30	27.5	17.5	2.5
10. When students play games, I can't understand whether they learn or not.	-	12.5	10	55	22.5
11. There is a lack of materials for good language games in the textbooks.	17.5	37.5	30	12.5	2.5
15. Some students are too shy to speak English in front of their classmates, even in game sessions.	12.5	57.5	17.5	10	2.5
18. I like my students to sing songs aloud in class.	22.5	37.5	20	17.5	2.5
20. I prefer cooperation in my class during using games.	32.5	62.5	-	2.5	2.5
25. Some games are not practical and suitable enough for students to play.	12.5	67.5	12.5	7.5	-

TABLE 6:
MOTIVATION OF LEARNERS FOR USING GAMES AND FUN ACTIVITIES IN THE CLASS

Questions	SA	A	E	DA	SDA
1. When my teacher uses games, I learn better.	47.5	42.5	7.5	2.5	-
6. Games make lessons more interesting.	60	27.5	7.5	5	-
12. I like my teacher to give us more time to play.	25	17.5	27.5	17.5	12.5
18. I like to sing songs aloud in class.	17.5	12.5	20	30	20
21. I like to choose the games/ activities myself not my teacher.	17.5	12.5	32.5	22.5	15
24. I prefer my teacher to start the lesson with fun activities for us to give us more energy.	62.5	20	10	5	2.5

(Figures in percentage)

TABLE 7:
THE EFFECTIVENESS OF USING GAMES AND FUN ACTIVITIES FROM LEARNERS' PERSPECTIVE (FIGURES IN PERCENTAGE)

Questions	SA	A	E	DA	SDA
2. I like to play games just for fun not learning.	2.5	5	10	12.5	70
3. I like my teacher to use games for teaching new things.	40	27.5	22.5	10	-
4. When we play games, we can speak English more.	40	27.5	17.5	10	5
5. I don't like my teacher to give marks when I play games.	22.5	15	25	12.5	25
16. I like to play games during the lesson not after that.	25	17.5	17.5	20	20
19. I like my teacher to compare us in games.	30	7.5	12.5	20	30
22. I prefer my teacher to conduct games other than educational games.	17.5	15	15	17.5	35
23. I like to play games when I am tired and cannot listen to my teacher.	32.5	15	15	22.5	15

TABLE 8:
ATTITUDES OF LEARNERS TOWARD GAMES AND FUN ACTIVITIES (FIGURES IN PERCENTAGE)

Questions	SA	A	E	DA	SDA
9. I don't like fun activities because they can't help me learn anything more than I know.	5	5	27.5	17.5	45
13. We are not aware of the purposes of playing games.	10	5	30	30	25
14. Some games are hard and confusing for me to play.	2.5	17.5	20	22.5	37.5

TABLE 9:
DIFFICULTIES THAT ARE ENCOUNTERED BY LEARNERS IN USING GAMES AND FUN ACTIVITIES (FIGURES IN PERCENTAGE)

Questions	SA	A	E	DA	SDA
7. My class environment is not suitable enough for playing games.	25	15	40	5	17.5
8. When we play games, my classmates make a lot of noise.	27.5	17.5	35	7.5	12.5
10. When we play games, my teachers can't understand whether we learn or not.	12.5	7.5	37.5	22.5	20
11. There is a lack of materials for good language games in the textbooks.	20	20	27.5	25	7.5
15. I am too shy to speak English in front of my classmates, even in game sessions.	2.5	15	17.5	12.5	52.5
18. I like to sing songs aloud in class.	17.5	12.5	20	27.5	20
20. My teacher prefers cooperation during using games.	32.5	17.5	32.5	10	7.5
25. Some games are not practical and suitable enough for us to play.	17.5	5	47.5	10	20

APPENDIX B. QUESTIONNAIRES

Teachers' Questionnaire

1. Age:

2. Gender:

3. Degree of education:

A) Please mark the choice that you think is right.

SA= Strongly Agree ■ A= Agree ■ E= Neutral ■ D= Disagree ■ SDA= Strongly Disagree

Items	SA	A	E	D	SDA
1. When I use games, my students learn better.					
2. I like to conduct games just for fun not learning.					
3. I like to use games for teaching new things.					
4. When students play games, they can speak English more.					
5. I don't like to give marks when my students play games.					
6. Games make lessons more interesting.					
7. My class environment is not suitable enough for playing games.					
8. When students play games, they make a lot of noise.					
9. I don't like fun activities because they can't help learners learn anything more than they know.					
10. When students play games, I can't understand whether they learn or not.					
11. There is a lack of materials for good language games in the textbooks.					
12. I like to give my students more time to play.					
13. Students are not aware of the purposes of playing games.					
14. Some games are hard and confusing for students to play.					
15. Some students are too shy to speak English in front of their classmates, even in game sessions.					
16. I like to play games during the lesson not after that.					
17. Sometimes the large number of students in each class makes problems for conducting games.					
18. I like my students to sing songs aloud in class.					
19. I like to compare my students in games.					
20. I prefer cooperation in my class during using games.					
21. I like my students to choose the games/ activities themselves not me.					
22. I prefer my students to play games other than educational games.					
23. I like to play games when I am tired and cannot teach my students something.					
24. I prefer to start the lesson with fun activities for students to give them more energy.					
25. Some games are not practical and suitable enough for students to play.					

Learners' questionnaire

1- Age

2- gender

3- level

B) Please mark the choice that you think is right.

SA= Strongly Agree ■ A= Agree ■ E= Neutral ■ D= Disagree ■ SDA= Strongly Disagree

Items	SA	A	E	D	SDA
1. When my teacher uses game, I learn better.					
2. I like to play games just for fun not learning.					
3. I like my teacher to use games for teaching new things.					
4. When we play games, we can speak English more.					
5. I don't like my teacher to give me mark when I play.					
6. Games make lessons more interesting.					
7. My class environment is not good for playing.					
8. When we play games, my classmates make a lot of noise.					
9. I don't like fun activities because they can't help me learn anything more than I know.					
10. When we play games my teacher can't know that we learn or not.					
11. There is a lack of materials for good language games in our textbooks.					
12. I like my teacher to give me more time to play.					
13. We are not aware of the purposes of playing games.					
14. Some games are hard and confusing for me to play.					
15. I am too shy to speak English in front of my classmates, even in game sessions.					
16. I like to play games during the lesson not after that.					
17. Sometimes the large number of students in each class makes problem for conducting games.					
18. I like to sing songs aloud in class.					
19. I like my teacher to compare us in games.					
20. My teacher prefers cooperation during playing games.					
21. I like to choose the games/ activities myself not my teacher.					
22. I prefer my teacher to play games other than educational games.					
23. I like to play games when I am tired and cannot listen to my teacher.					
24. I prefer my teacher to start the lesson with fun activities for us to give us more energy.					
25. Some games are not practical and suitable enough for us to play.					

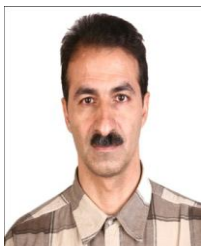
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An Empirical Study of the Teaching Mode of Scenarios Simulation in Business English under Verbal Behavior Theory

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Abstract—With the rapid development of Chinese economy, the international cooperation become stronger and stronger. The business English Course has been offered in almost all the Chinese universities. Different from common English, Business English is a branch of ESP (English for Special Purpose), which is a kind of English usage under the pragmatic situation from the angle of the teaching content and teaching methods for meeting the actual needs of the learners. Business English is featured with high expertise and applicability, which purpose and practical value are clear and high. The traditional teaching methods can not follow the new trend and development of economic age. So the new teaching mode is needed deadly. The empirical study of the teaching mode of scenarios simulation in English to business English under verbal behavior theory is based on the analysis of the questionnaire and test by SPSS statistical method. Then the author made a conclusion that this mode is the most suitable teaching method of business English and is a good training pattern for multi-skilled talents who have positive energy.

Index Terms—verbal behavior, scenarios simulation in English, validity, empirical study

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Introduction of Verbal Behavior Theory

Verbal behavior is provided by psychologist B. F. Skinner (1957) who analyzes human behavior, encompassing what is traditionally called language, linguistics, or speech. For Skinner, verbal behavior is subject to the same controlling variables as any other operant behavior, although Skinner differentiates between verbal behavior which is mediated by other people and that which is mediated by the natural world. The book *Verbal Behavior* is almost entirely theoretical, involving little experimental research in the work itself. It was an outgrowth of series of lectures first presented at the University of Minnesota in the early 1940s and developed further in his summer lectures at Columbia and William James lectures at Harvard before the book's publication. A growing body of research and applications based on Verbal Behavior has occurred since its original publication, particularly in the past decade. In addition, a growing body of research has developed on structural topics in verbal behavior such as grammar.

The context of speaker utterances is central to Skinner's perspective on language. With this as a background, Skinner (1983) developed the premise that Verbal Behavior—behavior under the control of consequences mediated by other people (who can interchangeably function as speaker and listener)—was best understood in a functional analysis. This theoretical extension was a direct product of his basic research using what he referred to as the “three-term contingency model” with the basic behavioral unit being the response and its consequence in a specified situation (antecedent–behavior–consequence). This is now sometimes called the four-term contingency model with setting conditions added as a fourth term. This consists of a motivating operation, discriminative stimulus, response, and reinforcement. Skinner's Verbal Behavior also introduced the autoclitic and six elementary operants: mand, tact, audience relation, echoic, textual, and intraverbal. Skinner argued that verbal behavior is a function of the speaker's current environment and his past behavioral and genetic history. For Skinner, the proper object of study is behavior itself, analyzed without reference to hypothetical (mental) structures, but rather with reference to the functional relationships of the behavior in the environment in which it occurs. This analysis extends Ernst Mach's pragmatic inductive position in physics, and extends even further a disinclination towards hypothesis-making and testing. Verbal Behavior is divided into 5 parts with 19 chapters. The first chapter sets the stage for this work, a functional analysis of verbal behavior. Skinner presents verbal behavior as a function of controlling consequences and stimuli, not as the product of a special inherent capacity. Neither does he ask us to be satisfied with simply describing the structure, or patterns, of behavior. Skinner deals with some alternative, traditional formulations, and moves on to his own functional position.

B. Definition of Business English

As for Business English, some researches have been done a lot in this area. But the researchers can not reach an agreement on the definition of Business English until now because it involves both in General English and Special

Purpose English.

As early as in the 1960s and 1970s, in order to distinguish business English from General English, the emphasis was put on business English vocabulary. So Ruth Moyer holds the view that "Business English is a study of English fundamentals which involves in grammar, punctuation, spelling, word usage, capitalization and so on, applied to sentences containing the vocabulary and concepts of business." Business English was simply viewed as general English plus business English vocabulary.

Many experts and scholars have defined different definitions of business English. With the expansion of economic activities and emergence of ESP, many scholars believe that Business English is a branch of ESP. Business English is classified into EGBP (English for General Business Purposes) and ESBP (English for Specific Business Purposes). But Business English differs from other varieties of ESP in that it is often a mix of specific content and general content. The former is usually related to a specific professional area while the latter is related to a general ability to make an effective communication in the business situation. However, business English is a kind of practical English, which involves not only general English, such as vocabulary, grammar, discourse, inter-cultural communication, but also economy, trade, finance, marketing, business, service. Business English is not special words in special grammar. It means "English used in the business context" (Jones & Alexander, 2000, p7). Business English can not separate from the specific business context. According to that, we can say business English teaching can not leave business context.

Ever since China's entry into the WTO and its success in winning the bid to host 2008 Olympic Games, 2010 World Expo and 2010 Asian Games, China has been getting more and more integrated into the global village and economic globalization. Therefore, a higher demand of well-qualified, all-rounded international business talents with a good command of language and communication skills are urgently required. And then many universities set up business English major.

C. *Limitation of Traditional Teaching Methods to Business English*

Even though Business English teaching has more than twenty years' history and many universities and colleges have set up Business English course, there are many problems existing in the teaching class of Business English. The teaching mode needs to be improved better and perfect the research of Business English teaching method.

First, the teaching in the class is centered on textbooks or language knowledge. Teachers put emphasis upon imparting theoretical knowledge rather than cultivating practical ability. Therefore, it deviates from the emphasis of class teaching. Some class teaching are partial to impart vocabulary and grammar in the business textbooks; some put stress on teaching business professional knowledge and concepts; some put the point on passing exams in order to get some Business English certificates. However, the practical capability does not get improved.

Second, Business English teaching makes use of the teaching link of General English teaching for the influence of traditional teaching thought. They often organize teaching, review old knowledge, impart new content, strengthen and make practice, make homework, etc. Language knowledge can only be practiced over and over in the non-context situation. Business English is a kind of applied language in the business situation where the business scene and language context are very important. Without the specific business situation, students can not master the skills of using language precisely. Even if the students can learn how to use language skill in the non-context situation, it is not easy for them to use language in the real business situation and the work environment.

Third, Business English teaching continues to use the teaching method of General English, putting much stress on teaching. The traditional teaching method includes lecture, discussion, demonstration, role-play and so on. Especially the lecture is used as the most common method. However, it also has some shortcomings. For example, its teaching goal is to acquire knowledge rather than master skill; the process of teaching must be involved with learners; materials are complex and numerous. From the quality of Business English, Business English teaching aims to develop students' ability to use English in the real business context. So it needs more knowledge involved in the teaching content and more practical methods used in the class.

Forth, a great progress has been made in the teaching tools, but in fact the tools are still backward. Because of lacking multimedia classroom, some Business English teachers still take use of the traditional teaching tools such as blackboard, chalk and recorder. In addition, some teachers can not master the cognition and usage of modern teaching technology, thus multimedia facilities can not be able to get full use.

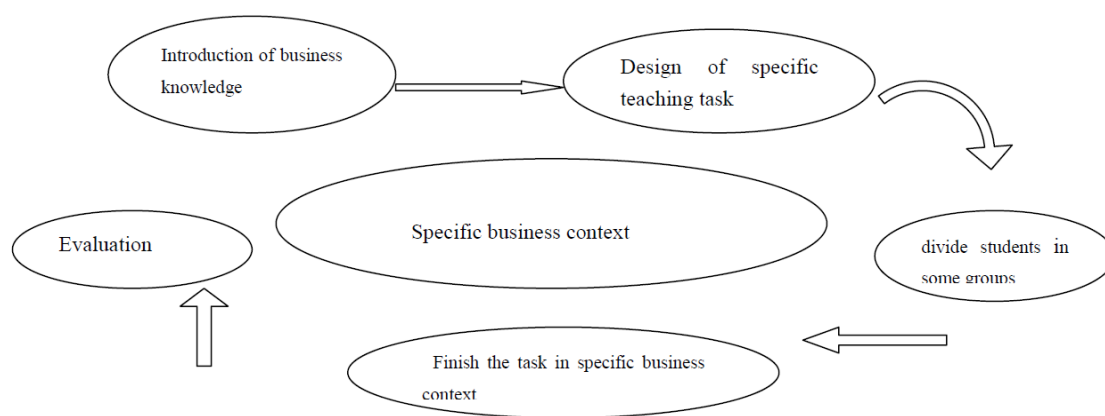
Traditional teaching methods emphasize that teacher is the center as well as the leader in the class. Teachers are main speakers and they speak during the whole class. In the other side, students just only the listeners. And the teachers will talk about the business material in the textbook, for example, the language points, vocabulary, grammar, and structure of sentences. In the business class, the teachers always focus on the theories-teaching. They have never designed the practical plan, for example, group discussion and so on. Obviously, the traditional teaching methods is not a better mode to fit the new business English talent training mode. So we need a new mode deadly.

D. *Introduction of the Teaching Mode of Scenarios Simulation in English to Business English under Verbal Behavior Theory*

The teaching mode of scenarios simulation in English under verbal behavior theory to business English is developed from "the situation-based teaching mode". The situation-based teaching mode can be traced back to the Direct Method

developed at the end of the nineteenth century as a revolution against the grammar-translation method. Practitioners of the Direct Method believe that language is learned best in a natural way by hearing words and sentences in the context and imitating what is heard. "Direct" here means associating meanings directly with the physical world — actions, objects, persons, situations, etc. — without translating or referring to the learners' mother tongue. In the classroom where the Direct Method is applied, only the target language is used and meanings are conveyed through showing, drawing, miming or demonstrating things. Great stress is placed on the oral practice of the target language by the question-answer exercises and conversation practices in which learners are encouraged to imitate and participate as much as possible.

Then the teaching mode of scenarios simulation in English is a better way in business English class. What is the meaning of the teaching mode of scenarios simulation in English? It means that students can communicate each other with English thought, analyze some cases and deal with some business issues by application of specific business situation and real business scenarios simulation in business English class. At the same time, both the teacher and students communicate each other only in English in the whole class, which can make some important and difficult business knowledge into students' deep memory. And students can grasp all kinds of business English skills. The teaching mode of scenarios simulation in English shown as the following diagram:



For example, specific business situation is that the production manager of a company has known that his component supplier had a financial crisis from the radio news. His company's production line will stop if he can not find better supplier until next Wednesday. Then design of task in the class: a. Contact with some suppliers by telephone, E-mail and fax to inquire the price; b. Choose the better suppliers according to their offers by analyzing their price, quality and reputation and so on; c. Negotiate with suppliers whom you selected. In this phase, divide all students into some teams, who act on a different role in the situation, such as purchase manager, general manager and sales representatives of supplier. d. Sign a contract according to the result of negotiation and form an agreement. Then report to the board or manager meeting and make a final decision. e. After the students finish the task, the teacher will evaluate all the teams' work and draw a conclusion. As last, notice: for all steps of the task including arranging the task, discussion and so on, the teacher and students must communicate with each other in English in the whole class.

The writer has designed an experiment of the teaching mode of scenarios simulation in English, and analyzed SPSS statistical theory and found that the mode can improve the students' abilities of creative business English.

II. DESIGN OF THE TEACHING MODE OF SCENARIOS SIMULATION IN ENGLISH TO BUSINESS ENGLISH UNDER VERBAL BEHAVIOR THEORY: AN EXPERIMENT

A. *The Experiment Purpose of the Teaching Mode of Scenarios Simulation in English*

The writer wants to investigate the effectiveness of the teaching mode of scenarios simulation in English to business English. So the writer does an experiment among her students in business English class and gets more useful information. There are 218 students from 8 classes taking part in both pre-test and post-test. Meanwhile, the writer designs a questionnaire which is about the teaching mode of scenarios simulation in English after experiment.

B. *The Experiment Subject of the Teaching Mode of Scenarios Simulation in English*

The subject involves in 218 students who major in English from 8 ordinary classes. All students are in the second semester of their third year. And all students are 17 to 19 years old. They have been studying business English and international business and trade in Chinese in the first semester of their third year. That is to say, they have some knowledge about business and business English. During the experiment, they have 16 weeks business English classes, and they will have gotten 4 credits by the end of the semester. All classes are experimental classes. The writer designed the experiment as two parts: one is the first semester, using traditional teaching mode, and using the final exam as

pre-test. The other is the second semester, using scenarios simulation teaching mode, and using the final exam as post-test, then collecting and analyzing data to get the experiment result.

C. The Experiment Steps of the Teaching Mode of Scenarios Simulation in English in Business English Class Time

Now, we use 2 class periods as an example to talk the specific steps of experiment class. Teaching content is the same as the one that mentioned above: finding component suppliers. In class time, the teaching steps are in accordance with the five steps of the teaching mode of scenarios simulation in English. Specific teaching plan is shown as the following table:

	Design of task	Scenarios simulation activities	Design students' teams	Time
The first class period	After listening to the news, the students analyze the situation which the supplier faced. Meanwhile, the teacher will introduce some relevant knowledge of esquire, offer and business contract.		All students	20 minutes
The first class period	inquire to the suppliers	Purchase department meeting to discuss and make a decision of some items of inquire	Divide the students into 4 teams. There are 6 to 7 members in each team. One of the teams is purchase department, the other three are different suppliers.	15 minutes
The first class period	Offers of suppliers	Suppliers teams discuss the offer items.	There are 6 to 7 members in each team. One of teams is purchase department, the other three are different suppliers.	10 minutes
The second class period	Negotiation and signing the contract	Role-play: negotiating and sign the contract at last.	Four teams, there are 6 to 7 members in each team. Two of teams is purchase department, the other two are different suppliers.	30 minutes
The second class period	The teacher will evaluate all team's work and draw a conclusion		All students	15 minutes

D. Collecting Data and Analyzing Result According to SPSS

1. Analyzing the result of business English level test

All students who took part in the experiment have some business knowledge of business English. So before the experiment, we did pre-test of all students. And all students have taken part in the pre-test. The pre-test including four parts: listening, speaking, reading and writing. The total score is 100, including speaking test (40%) and writing test (60%). The analysis of the result data, analyzed by SPSS 13.0, is showed as the following table 1:

TABLE 1

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std Error Mean
Writing	77.50	208	8.576	0.821
Speaking	69.21	208	8.431	0.806
Total	74.18	208	7.773	0.654

To show students' business English levels, post-test questions are designed by the same teacher as the pre-test. And the structure of scores are the same as pre-test, also the total score is 100, including speaking test(40%) and writing test (60%). , the result of post-past is showed as the following table 2:

TABLE 2

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std Error Mean
Writing	85.51	208	6.025	0.576
Speaking	84.30	208	5.606	0.536
Total	85.02	208	6.051	0.481

From the table 1 and table 2, we can know easily that the writing average number (Mean) has increased from 77.50 to 85.51, the speaking (Mean) has increased from 69.21 to 84.30, and the total has increased from 74.18 to 85.02. According to that, we can learn students' abilities of all parts of business English have improved a lot after the experiment. To justify students' ability is superior to that before experiment, we analyze the data using SPSS 13.0 and the result is shown as table 3:

TABLE 3

Contrast two tests	Contrast differences			T	Sig
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std Error Mean		
Writing	8.013	4.688	0.448	-17.83	.000

Speaking	15.092	5.823	0.557	-27.055	.000
Total	10.84	5.063	0.486	-18.558	.000

According to table 3, the result is so clear, the T number is -17.83, -27.055 and -18.558; and Sig is .000≤.05.

Obviously, the result has justified that students have made a big progress in business English after the experiment. That is the teaching mode of scenarios simulation in English.

2. Analyzing the result of the questionnaire

To test and analyze the effectiveness of the teaching mode of scenarios simulation in English, we have designed a questionnaire, which can test the students' interesting and abilities of business English, including all kinds of parts: traditional teaching mode, scenarios simulation teaching mode and so on. There are 10 questions of the questionnaire, and each question's answer includes 8 levels. All students (208 students) have taken part in the questionnaire investigation. The results are shown as table 4:

TABLE 4

Questions	Like very much	P	Like	P	Ok	P	Dislike	P
1. Traditional teaching mode: the teacher is a leader and introduces so much business and trade knowledge.	2	0.9	31	14.2	32	14.7	153	70.2
2. After teacher's introduction, the teacher asks some questions to the students. Occasionally, discussion mode is applied on the class	5	2.2	12	4.6	23	10.6	178	81.7
3. The teacher communicates with students both in Chinese and English.	47	21.6	33	15.1	20	9.2	118	54.1
4. The teacher communicates with students in English.	125	57.3	35	16.1	36	16.5	22	10.1
5. The class mode of scenarios simulation in English to analyze case.	130	59.6	30	13.8	24	11	34	15.6
6. The class mode of scenarios simulation in English to role play.	189	86.7	12	5.5	11	5	6	2.8
7. Group discussion in English	182	83.5	15	6.9	0	0	21	9.6
8. The class mode of scenarios simulation in English to show real business situation	201	92.2	5	2.3	0	0	12	5.5
9. The class mode of scenarios simulation in English to report.	153	56.4	17	7.8	13	6.0	35	16.1
10. The class mode of teacher's evaluation and conclusion in English.	131	60.1	32	14.7	25	11.5	30	13.8

From the table 4, we can find that obvious statistical data which shows the students who like all parts of the teaching mode of scenarios simulation in English very much are over 50%. And the two questions: one is "the class mode of scenarios simulation in English to role play," and the other is "group discussion in English", the students like them very much over 80%. From the result, we can know students like the mode, and at the same time the mode can stimulate students' interests and practise their abilities. Of course, there are 20% students like "the teacher communicate with students both in Chinese and English". But the reasons are that the students do not want to face the difficulties. We believe if we can insist on using the mode in business English class for a long time, all students can accept the mode and feel the benefits.

III. CONCLUSION

From the above analysis, we can know clearly that after almost one semester's experiment and practical use, students have made a great progress in every parts of business English, including speaking, listening, reading and writing, even interesting of business English. So we believe the teaching mode of scenarios simulation in English to business English class is better than traditional teaching mode which is "teacher is center, class is leader, text book is center". And the new mode can build the new teaching mode, that is, "students are leader, practice is leader, verbal behavior is leader". But we must think about some problems as following:

(1) The business English teachers must renew their knowledge continuously in order to provide the latest business English context. Today society is developing so quickly. For providing the advanced business knowledge and situation, the teacher must learn more and more, and renew more and more.

(2) The teachers must link more business situations, and link the key points to make students understood. This point is a high requirement of teachers. First, the teachers must find key points and difficult points before the class. Then, they must plan, organize and arrange the class task according to the specific business situation. So they can use the new mode effectively, and at the same time the key and difficult points are distinguished.

(3) The teachers must lead students to use English to solve all kinds of problems in business situations under society function and society culture.

All in all, with the application of the teaching mode of scenarios simulation in English to business English class, we can make students learn language points, practice language points and understand business knowledge. The mode can

link the language learning and business theories. According to that, we can know that the mode can provide a better way to cultivate the creative business talents and the mode is the trend of business English.

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EFL Learners' Self-efficacy, Metacognitive Awareness, and Use of Language Learning Strategies: How Are They Associated?

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Abstract—This study aimed at exploring the relationship among EFL learners' self-efficacy, metacognitive awareness, and language learning strategy use. To this aim, 150 EFL learners majoring in English Translation and English Literature at Karaj and Sari Islamic Azad Universities were randomly selected and were asked to fill in the three questionnaires on General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSES) by Schwarzer, & Jerusalem (1996), Metacognitive Awareness Inventory (MAI) by Schraw & Dennison (1994) and Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) by Oxford (1990). After discarding incomplete answer sheets, 143 acceptable cases were used in statistical analyses. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. The relationship among GSES, MAI, and SILL was investigated using Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient. Statistical analysis indicated that significant relationships exist between EFL learners' self-efficacy and metacognitive awareness, self-efficacy and use of language learning strategies, and metacognitive awareness and use of language learning strategies. Moreover, regression analysis revealed that significant difference exists between EFL learners' self-efficacy and metacognitive awareness in predicting use of language learning strategies in a way that metacognitive awareness entered the model as the best predictor of language learning strategies. It can be concluded that, the obtained results may help EFL teachers and educators to bear in mind the benefits of developing their learners' self-efficacy and metacognitive awareness when dealing with promoting language learning strategies in learners.

Index Terms—individual differences, language learning strategies, metacognitive awareness, self-efficacy

I. INTRODUCTION

Most of the theories of learning are all attempts to describe universal human traits which are influential in the process of learning (Brown, 2007). These theories intend to account for the way human beings recognize, filter, store, and remember information. However, it seems that processes like these do not sufficiently explain the differences among people regarding how they learn and the dissimilarities within every person (Brown, 2007) which are very important factors in the process of learning.

During the past decades, there has been a gradual but significant shift among language educators from "teacher-centered to more learner-centered approaches" (Riazi, 2007, p. 433) in the field of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). This shift gave rise to many studies on the effect of various factors such as socio-cultural, psychological, cognitive, and affective variables on learning, particularly on second language learning (Brown, 2000; Nunan, 1988). Today, it is almost known that each learner has his/her especial way of learning that may have a fundamental role in his/her success or failure (Fewell, 2010; Zare & Noordin, 2011). Most of the researchers have gradually moved from focusing on teaching paradigms toward exploring individual characteristics (Carson & Longhini, 2002; Oxford & Anderson, 1995). Therefore, the learners and their individual variables have been the subject of many studies.

Educators and researchers in the field of applied linguistics believe that these variables are the origin of dissimilarities among L2 learners in language learning (Dörnyei, 2009). The growing interest in the function of these variables has been the driving force for many studies which inspect individual learning styles and language learning strategies (LLS) and the way they are associated to success in L2 learning (Green & Oxford, 1995; Griffiths & Parr, 2000; Hsiao & Oxford, 2002; Wharton, 2000). In this regard, Chamot (2001) states that:

Applied research on language learning strategies had two major goals: (1) Identify and compare the learning strategies used by more and less successful language learners, and (2) Provide instruction to less successful learners that helps them become more successful in their language study. (p. 25)

Language learning strategies are known to be the certain acts and behaviors that learners intentionally or unintentionally use to facilitate their L2 skills' development. These techniques make the internalization, storage, retrieval, and use of the new language much easier. They are regarded as specialized tools for a self-directed involvement which is necessary for improving language skills (Oxford, 1990).

Generally, studies conducted on use of language learning strategies (Dreyer & Oxford, 1996; Grenfell & Harris, 1999; Wharton, 2000) point to the fact that language learners, consciously or unconsciously, employ a range of language learning strategies which help them increase their knowledge and comprehension of a second/target language. They are the conscious thoughts and behaviors which are used by the learners to smooth language learning tasks and to make the language learning process more personal (Cohen, Ledford, & Spreitzer, 1996). It can be argued that successful language learners utilize more effective and diverse language learning strategies than less successful learners (Oxford, 2003). Due to the fact that language learning strategies have a great role in facilitating the acquisition, storage, retrieval/use of information, gaining higher degrees of autonomy, and self-confidence improvement, it is important to help learners achieve greater control over their own learning through using strategies.

Another important cognitive factor which helps learners to become more effective and, importantly, more autonomous is developing metacognitive awareness (Winne & Hadwin, 1998). Metacognitive awareness is described as knowing how you think. When it comes to an ELT classroom, it is equal to being aware of the way you acquire the knowledge of language. If learners are conscious of how they learn, then they can identify the most effective ways of doing so. Metacognitive knowledge is regarded as the high order executive skills that employ the knowledge of cognitive processes and found an attempt to control and adjust ones' own learning process through planning, monitoring, and evaluating (Livingstone, 2003). Students who know better regarding the way of studying and learning (i.e., those who possess a higher degree of metacognitive knowledge) learn better (Winne & Hadwin, 1998). Moreover, Chamot (2004) stated that "Strategic language learners possess metacognitive knowledge about their own thinking and learning approaches, a good understanding of what a task entails, and the ability to orchestrate the strategies that best meet both the task demands and their own strengths" (p. 14). In order for learners to use metacognitive strategies to enhance their learning, they need to be aware of their own learning tendencies and control their learning (Conner, 2006; White & Frederiksen, 1998; Winne, 1995).

One of the most important and influential factors of metacognitive awareness which helps learners gain enough confidence in order to be autonomous and successful is self-efficacy (Bandura, 1989; Bouffard-Bouchard, Parent, & Lariv  , 1991; Coutinho, 2007). The concept of self-efficacy is rooted in the socio-cognitive theory (Jalaluddin, 2013). It was proposed for the first time by Bandura (as cited in Su and Due, 2012). Bandura (1986) states that self-efficacy is learners' judgment of their capacities to identify and carry out something to master some specific functions. According to   ubuk  u (2008) "Self-efficacy deals with cognitively perceived capability of the self" (p. 150). Whether or not a person can do what leads to the desired success is the focus of efficacy. Put another way, self-efficacy is linked to learners' beliefs about their abilities of completing and undertaking a task. It can be regarded as the question students ask themselves, asking "if I can do it?". It is widely accepted that learners who possess a stronger sense of self-confidence and/or self-efficacy can organize their own learning process better and are more prepared for expending their efforts, whereas learners with lower degree of self-efficacy are less motivated and usually do not exhibit enough interest in learning which causes encountering academic failure (Elias, Mahyuddin, Noordin, Abdullah, & Roslan, 2009).

Many studies have indicated that self-efficacy has significant and positive correlation with learner's academic performance (e.g. Chou, 2007; Ho, 2005; Lin, 2002; Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2007). Moreover, some other groups of studies have focused on the relationship between self-efficacy and use of learning strategies. For instance, Zimmerman (1990) indicated that individual's self-efficacy has a significant relationship with the effective use of learning strategies. In this respect, Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary and Robbins (as cited in Ho, 2005) argued that the difference between more and less effective learners lies in the quantity and range of employed strategies, in the way the strategies are applied to the task, and in the appropriateness of tasks.

Considering the important role of language learning strategies and metacognitive awareness as the bridge between areas such as thinking and memory, learning and motivation, and learning and cognitive development (Metcalf & Shimamura, as cited in Heidari & Bahrami, 2012), on the one hand, and the existence of a positive relationship between students' learning strategies and self-efficacy (Magogwe, Mokuedi, & Oliver, 2007; Siew & Wong, 2005) on the other hand, this study focused on the relationship among these three important variables: language learning strategies, metacognitive awareness, and self-efficacy.

Although many studies have been conducted on language learning strategies, metacognitive awareness, and self-efficacy two by two in the context of Iran, (Abedini, Rahimi, & Zaree, 2011; Bonyadi, Rimani Nikou, & Shahbaz, 2012; Heidari, Izadi, & Vahed Ahmadian, 2012) it seems that no study has addressed the relationship among these three variables simultaneously. Since, Iranian learners are not high strategy users (Riazi & Rahimi, 2005; Zare 2010) the findings of the present study would reveal if this lack of strategy use is associated with and/or affected by their self-efficacy and metacognitive awareness. Furthermore, the findings of the present study can contribute to the field of teaching English as a foreign language by providing more knowledge and information about characteristics of EFL

learners in terms of their efficacy beliefs, metacognitive awareness, and their use of language learning strategies. In this regard, the following research questions were formulated:

Q₁: Is there any significant relationship among EFL learners' self-efficacy, metacognitive awareness, and use of language learning strategies?

Q₂: Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' different types of metacognitive awareness and their self-efficacy?

Q₃: Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' use of language learning strategies and their self-efficacy?

Q₄: Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' use of language learning strategies and their different types of metacognitive awareness?

Provided that a significant correlation is obtained between the variables two by two, the following question was also raised:

Q₅: Is there any significant difference between EFL learners' self-efficacy and metacognitive awareness in predicting their use of language learning strategies?

II. METHOD

Participants

The participants of this study were 143 sophomore, junior, and senior students (109 females and 34 males) with the age range of 18-25, studying English Translation and English Literature at Karaj and Sari Islamic Azad Universities. It should be mentioned that the preliminary number of participants was 150 (112 females, 38 males), but 7 of them were excluded from data analysis due to careless coding, incomplete answers, and subject mortality, bringing the final number to 143 participants.

Instrumentation

Self-Efficacy Questionnaire

To assess learners' level of self-efficacy, a questionnaire of General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSES) including 10 items designed by Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1996) was employed. It requires five minutes on average to answer the questions. Responses are made on a four-point Likert scale. Responses to all 10 items are summed up to yield the final score, with a range from 10 to 40.

Regarding the reliability of this questionnaire, Cronbach's alphas ranged from 0.76 to 0.90 based on the results of studies which gathered from 23 nations. Moreover, related validity is documented in many descriptive studies where positive coefficients have been observed with favorable emotions, dispositional optimism, and work satisfaction. Negative coefficients have been found with depression, anxiety, stress, burnout, and health complaints (Schwarzer, Bäßler, Kwiatek, Schröder, & Zhang, 1997; Schwarzer, Born, Iwawaki, Lee, Saito, & Yue, 1997).

In the present study, the Persian version of the instrument, translated by Nezami (2000), was administered. The reliability of the Persian version had been measured in Iranian studies, and the obtained Cronbach's alphas ranged from 0.79 to 0.88 (Bastani, 2012; Dehdari, Heidarnia, Ramezankhani, Sadeghian, & Ghofranipour, 2008). In the present study, its reliability was computed through K-R21 formula which turned out to be 0.78.

Metacognitive Awareness Questionnaire

The Metacognitive Awareness Inventory (MAI), developed by Schraw and Dennison (1994) was utilized to assess metacognitive awareness of the participants. It includes 52 items which assesses various facets of metacognition. Items of MAI are under two categories: "Knowledge of Cognition" and "Regulation of Cognition". Seventeen items of the MAI measure knowledge of cognition, and the remaining thirty five items assess regulation of cognition. Table1 demonstrates the eight components of MAI and the related items.

TABLE 1:
COMPONENTS AND ITEMS OF MAI

Components	Number of Items in Each Component	Total Number of Items
Knowledge about Cognition		
Declarative Knowledge	5, 10, 12, 16, 17, 20, 32, 46	8
Procedural Knowledge	3, 14, 27, 33	4
Conditional Knowledge	15, 18, 26, 29, 35	5
Regulation of Cognition		
Planning	4, 6, 8, 22, 23, 42, 45	7
Information Management Strategies	9, 13, 30, 31, 37, 39, 41, 43, 47, 48	10
Debugging Strategy	25, 40, 44, 51, 52	5
Comprehension Monitoring	1, 2, 11, 21, 28, 34, 49	7
Evaluation	7, 18, 24, 36, 38, 49	6

The responses are based on true and false scale. The participants are supposed to answer the items in 30 minutes. Different studies have supported the satisfactory reliability and validity of the instrument. The internal consistency (reliability) for the knowledge of cognition scale has varied from the low 0.70s to the high 0.80s and for the regulation of cognition scale has varied from the low 0.80s to the high 0.90s. For the entire inventory, the internal reliability has

been reported to be 0.90 (Schraw & Dennison, 1994; Sperling, Staley, & Du Bois, 2004; Zhang, 2010). The validity of the this instrument has been inspected and substantiated by Schraw and Dennison (1994) who performed a two-factor solution on the data. The result supported two factors accounting for 65% of the sample variance.

Since the questionnaire is designed for the native speakers, to avoid any misunderstanding in part of cultural differences and not having enough knowledge of some of the participants in vocabulary and grammar, the researchers used the Persian translated version of the questionnaire. Its reliability was ensured in different studies through Cronbach's alpha which ranged from 0.74 to 0.96 (Delavarpour & Motahedi, 2007; Marzoogh & Safari, 2009; Shahniyeilagh, Boostani, Alipoor, & Hajiyakhchali, 2012).

The reliability of MAI questionnaire, in this study, was estimated to be 0.95 using the K-R 21 formula, which demonstrated a fair degree of reliability. Table 2 shows the reliability of MAI and its components.

TABLE 2:
RELIABILITY INDEX OF MAI AND ITS COMPONENTS

Reliability Statistics		
	K-R21	N of Items
MAI	.95	52
Declarative Knowledge	.70	8
Procedural Knowledge	.68	4
Conditional Knowledge	.52	5
Planning	.66	7
Information Management Strategies	.72	10
Debugging Strategy	.76	5
Comprehension Monitoring	.89	7
Evaluation	.77	6

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), developed by Oxford (1990) was used in this study. The 50-item version of SILL, used in this study, covers six categories of strategies for language learning: Items 1-9 concern the effectiveness of memory (memory strategies); items 10-23 concern the use of mental processes (cognitive strategies); items 24-29 are the compensation for missing knowledge (compensation strategies); items 30-38 deal with the organization and evaluation of learning (metacognitive strategies); items 39-44 concern emotion management (affective strategies); and items 45-50 deal with learning with others (social strategies). The participants responded on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 "Never or Almost Never" to 5 "Always or Almost Always". The recommended time was 30 minutes. The range of scores for SILL is between 50 and 250. The higher score means that the participant is an efficient strategy user, and the lower the score means that the participant is not an efficient strategy user.

According to Ehrman and Oxford (1995), SILL has mostly scored above .90 using Cronbach's alpha which indicates high internal reliability. Oxford (1996) reported Cronbach's alpha of 0.96 for SILL. SILL was translated to Persian, and its content validity was checked by Tahmasebi (1999). Tahmasebi (ibid) argues that the validation process of the translated version has happened through collaboration of some professors at Islamic Azad University while analyzing the data through related procedures. Moreover, Tahmasebi (1999) reported Cronbach's alpha of 0.77 for Persian version of SILL.

In this study, to avoid any misinterpretation, the researchers administered the translated version of the SILL questionnaire (Tahmasebi, 1999) which consists of 50 multiple-choice items. Each item has four options ranging from "Never" to "Always" with a range of scores between 1 and 5. Therefore, the ultimate score is estimated in the possible range of 50 to 250, and the participants are supposed to answer the items in 30 minutes. The reliability of SILL questionnaire in this study was estimated to be 0.97 using the K-R 21 reliability indices, which demonstrated a fair degree of reliability. Table 3 shows the reliability of SILL and its components.

TABLE 3:
RELIABILITY INDEX OF SILL AND ITS COMPONENTS

Reliability Statistics		
	K-R21	N of Items
SILL	.97	50
Memory	.82	9
Cognitive	.69	14
Compensation	.60	6
Metacognitive	.71	9
Affective	.77	6
Social	.69	6

Procedure

In order to achieve the purpose of the study, the following procedure was carried out. All participants of the study were randomly selected from among both male and female sophomore, junior and senior students majoring in English Translation and English Literature at Karaj and Sari Islamic Azad Universities.

Before administrating the questionnaires, the participants were fully briefed on the process of completing the questionnaires; this briefing was given in Persian through explaining and exemplifying the process of choosing answers. Then, a package of three distinct questionnaires was given in one session in order to collect the required data of this study. It should be mentioned that, the researchers intentionally randomized the order of questionnaires in each package to control for the impact of order upon the completion process and validity of the data.

The initial package included the English version of the questionnaires, but in the course of administration, it was found that many of the participants could not answer many of the items. To overcome this problem which was due to misunderstanding, not having enough knowledge of vocabulary and grammar, and cultural differences, the researchers administered the Persian version of the questionnaires, and the English questionnaires were excluded from the data. The participants were asked to complete the questionnaires approximately in 65 minutes. Moreover, the researchers randomly observed the process of filling out for some individuals to make sure they were capable to fully understand the questions and responses.

Out of 150 students who took part in the administration, seven of them were excluded from data analysis due to careless coding and incomplete answers, bringing the final number to 143 participants among which 109 (76%) were females and 34 (24%) males. The justification for the lower number of males in the context of this study is that female candidates usually outnumber males in selecting English as their major in university entrance exam.

III. RESULTS

In order to answer the research questions of the study, the descriptive statistics were obtained and the assumptions of linear correlation were checked, the results of which are presented hereunder.

Testing the Basic Assumptions

Since the present data were analyzed through Pearson's correlation and regression analyses, five assumptions of interval data, independence of subjects, normality, homoscedasticity and linearity should be met. The data should be measured on an interval scale. The subjects should be independent, that is to say their performance on the test is not affected by the performance of other students. The data should enjoy normal distribution, the relationships between the variables should be linear, and finally, the residuals should have homogeneous variances (homoscedasticity).

The present data were measured on an interval scale. The subjects performed independently on the questionnaires. The assumption of normality is met; the values of skewness and kurtosis are within the ranges of ± 1.96 as shown in Tables 4 and 5.

TABLE 4:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF SILL, MAI, AND GSES

	N	Mean	Variance	K-R21
SILL	143	160.22	1037.358	0.97
MAI	143	35.83	152.173	0.95
GSES	143	30.72	29.780	0.78

TABLE 5:
TESTING NORMALITY ASSUMPTIONS, SILL, MAI AND GSES

	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
SILL	143	.036	.203	.092	.403
MAI	143	-.473	.203	-.567	.403
GSES	143	-.549	.203	-.045	.403
Memory	143	.099	.203	-.454	.403
Cognitive	143	.225	.203	-.225	.403
Compensation	143	-.258	.203	.047	.403
Metacognitive	143	-.287	.203	.683	.403
Affective	143	.559	.203	.136	.403
Social	143	-.332	.203	.427	.403
Declarative Knowledge	143	-.609	.203	-.568	.403
Procedural Knowledge	143	-.533	.203	-.660	.403
Conditional Knowledge	143	-.446	.203	-.642	.403
Planning	143	-.377	.203	-.750	.403
Information Management Strategies	143	-.452	.203	.076	.403
Debugging Strategies	143	-.928	.203	.262	.403
Comprehension Monitoring	143	-.479	.203	-.509	.403
Evaluation	143	-.284	.203	-.726	.403

The assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity are discussed when reporting the results of the regression and correlations, although in this case the assumptions are violated; therefore, one can make inferences only for the immediate population from which the sample was selected (Little, 2004).

Answering the Research Questions

Following the descriptive statistics of the study, the first four research questions were answered through correlational analysis and the next fifth question through regression analysis of the data.

The First Research Question

The Pearson's correlation was run to probe any significant relationships among EFL learners' self-efficacy, metacognitive awareness, and use of language learning strategies. Based on the results displayed in Table 6, it can be concluded that there were significant relationships between:

A: Language learning strategies and metacognitive awareness [$r(143) = .87, p < .05$, it represented a large effect size].

B: Language learning strategies and general self-efficacy [$r(143) = .80, p < .05$, it represented a large effect size].

C: Metacognitive awareness and general self-efficacy [$r(143) = .91, p < .05$, it represented a large effect size].

TABLE 6:
PEARSON CORRELATION; SILL, MAI, AND GSES

SILL	Pearson Correlation	.871**	.803**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	143	143
MAI	Pearson Correlation		.915**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N		143
		M	

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As displayed in Figure 1, despite minor outliers, the relationships between the three variables were linear.

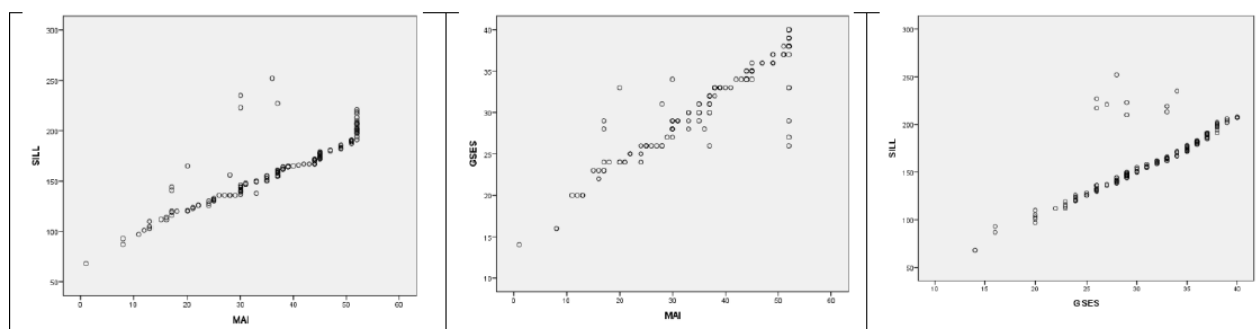


Figure 1: Scatter Plot of the Assumption of Linearity; SILL, MAI and GSES

The Second Research Question

The Pearson correlation was run to probe any significant relationships between components of metacognitive awareness and general self-efficacy. Based on the results displayed in Table 7, it can be concluded that general self-efficacy scale shows significant relationships with:

A: Declarative knowledge [$r(143) = .87, p < .05$, it represented a large effect size].

B: Procedural knowledge [$r(143) = .86, p < .05$, it represented a large effect size].

C: Conditional knowledge [$r(143) = .87, p < .05$, it represented a large effect size].

D: Planning [$r(143) = .89, p < .05$, it represented a large effect size].

E: Information management [$r(143) = .88, p < .05$, it represented a large effect size].

F: Debugging strategy [$r(143) = .88, p < .05$, it represented a large effect size].

G: Compensation Monitoring [$r(143) = .92, p < .05$, it represented a large effect size]. &

H: Evaluation [$r(143) = .89, p < .05$, it represented a large effect size].

TABLE 7:
PEARSON CORRELATION; GSES WITH COMPONENTS OF METACOGNITIVE AWARENESS INVENTORY

		GSES
Declarative Knowledge	Pearson Correlation	.876**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	143
Procedural Knowledge	Pearson Correlation	.866**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	143
Conditional Knowledge	Pearson Correlation	.874**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	143
Planning	Pearson Correlation	.892**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	143
Information Management	Pearson Correlation	.888**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	143
Debugging Strategy	Pearson Correlation	.889**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	143
Compensation Monitoring	Pearson Correlation	.921**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	143
Evaluation	Pearson Correlation	.893**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	143

**, Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As displayed in Figure 2, despite minor outliers, the relationships between the variables were linear.

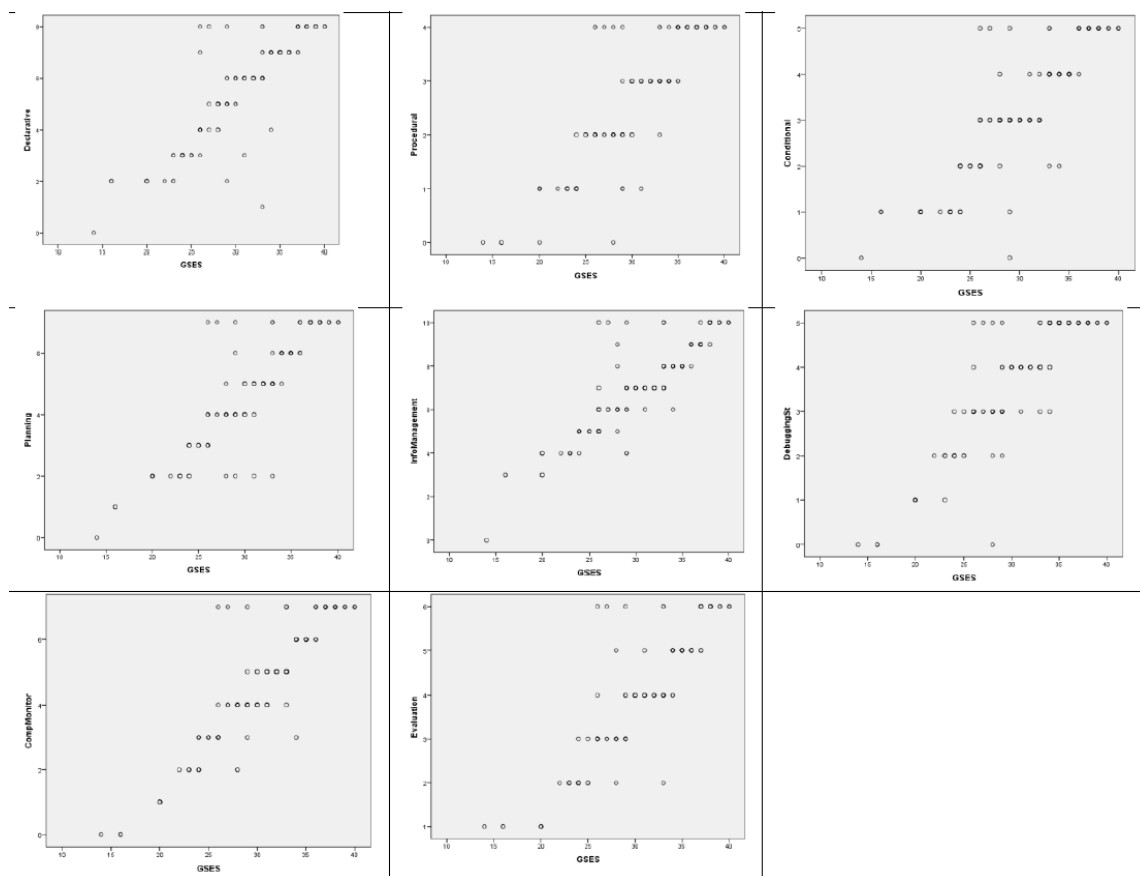


Figure 2: Scatter Plot of the Assumption of Linearity; GSES with Components of MAI

The Third Research Question

The Pearson correlation was run to probe any significant relationships between components of language learning strategies and general self-efficacy. Based on the results displayed in Table 8, it can be concluded that general self-efficacy scale shows significant relationships with:

- A: Memory Strategy [$r(143) = .79, p < .05$, it represented a large effect size].
 B: Cognitive Strategy [$r(143) = .77, p < .05$, it represented a large effect size].
 C: Compensation Strategy [$r(143) = .81, p < .05$, it represented a large effect size].
 D: Metacognitive Strategy [$r(143) = .81, p < .05$, it represented a large effect size].
 E: Affective Strategy [$r(143) = .71, p < .05$, it represented a large effect size]. &
 F: Social Strategy [$r(143) = .82, p < .05$, it represented a large effect size].

TABLE 8:
 PEARSON CORRELATION; SELF-EFFICACY WITH COMPONENTS OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

		GSES
Memory Strategy	Pearson Correlation	.795**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	143
Cognitive Strategy	Pearson Correlation	.772**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	143
Compensation Strategy	Pearson Correlation	.814**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	143
Metacognitive Strategy	Pearson Correlation	.816**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	143
Affective strategy	Pearson Correlation	.718**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	143
Social Strategy	Pearson Correlation	.827**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	143

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As displayed in Figure 3, despite minor outliers, the relationships between the variables were linear.

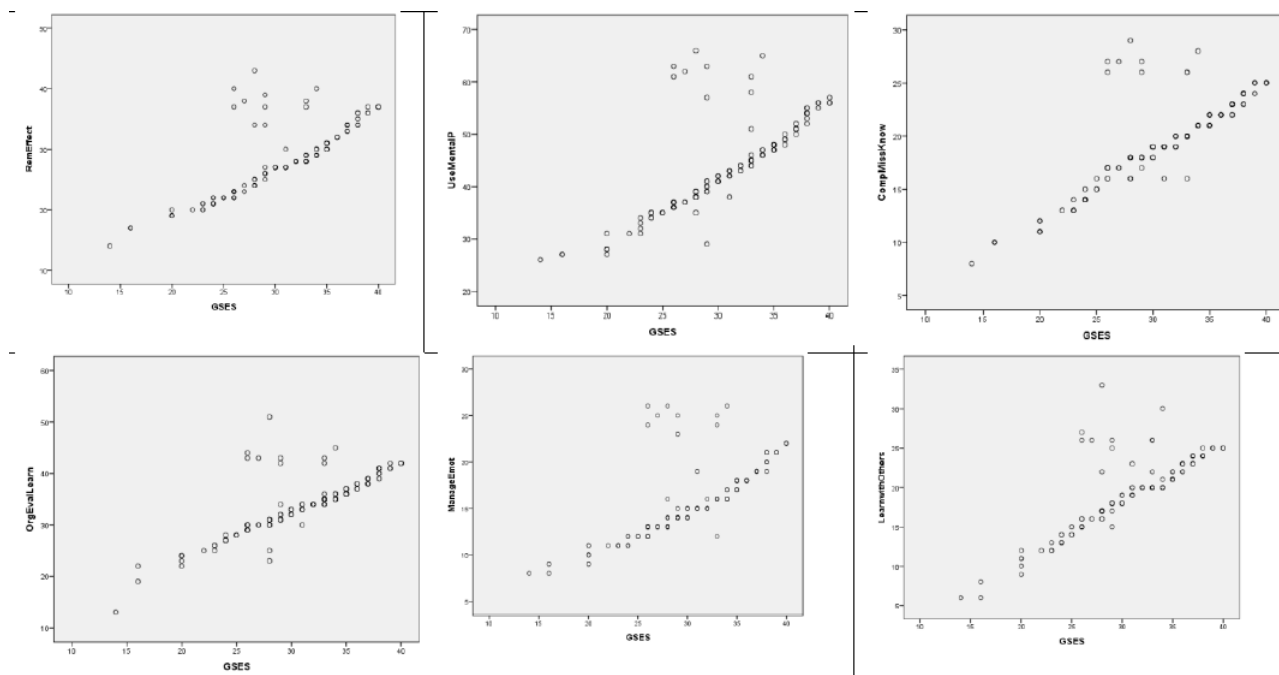


Figure 3: Scatter Plot of the Assumption of Linearity; Self-efficacy with Components of SILL

The Fourth Research Question

The results of the Pearson correlations (Table 9) run to probe significant relationships between the eight components of metacognitive awareness (MAI) and six components of language learning strategies (SILL) were all significant ($p < .05$). The highest correlation was between Compensation Strategy and Evaluation ($R = .90, p < .05$). All the Pearson correlations enjoy large effect size ($R > .50$).

TABLE 9:
PEARSON CORRELATION OF COMPONENTS OF GSES WITH COMPONENTS OF SILL

	Memory	Cognitive	Compensation	Metacognitive	Affective	Social
Declarative knowledge	R.813**	.829**	.885**	.843**	.792**	.828**
	P.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Procedural knowledge	R.757**	.794**	.835**	.816**	.758**	.824**
	P.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Conditional knowledge	R.773**	.795**	.828**	.806**	.761**	.827**
	P.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Planning	R.828**	.858**	.899**	.875**	.819**	.858**
	P.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Information Management	R.824**	.837**	.861**	.858**	.801**	.870**
	P.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Debugging Strategy	R.778**	.817**	.868**	.869**	.757**	.843**
	P.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Comprehension Monitoring	R.800**	.812**	.853**	.834**	.772**	.832**
	P.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Evaluation	R.874**	.869**	.908**	.888**	.858**	.887**
	P.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

**, Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The Fifth Research Question

A regression analysis was run to predict total SILL by using general self-efficacy and total MAI. As displayed in Table 4.7, the metacognitive awareness entered the model as the best predictor of SILL ($R = .87$, $R^2 = .759$). Also, MAI can predict 75.9 percent of SILL.

TABLE 10:
MODEL SUMMARY; SILL ON MAI AND GSES

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.871 ^a	.759	.757	15.868

a. Predictors: (Constant), MAI

b. Dependent Variable: SILL

The results of the ANOVA test of significance of the regression model [$F(1, 141) = 444.01$, $p < .05$] (Table 11) indicated that the results displayed in Table 10 were statistically significant.

TABLE 11:
ANOVA TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE OF REGRESSION MODEL; SILL ON MAI AND GSES

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	111801.595	1	111801.595	444.016	.000 ^b
	Residual	35503.244	141	251.796		
	Total	147304.839	142			

a. Dependent Variable: SILL

b. Predictors: (Constant), MAI

The assumption of homoscedasticity was not met. As displayed in Figure 4 the spread of dots did not show a cloud shape. As noted by Filed (2009), when the assumption of homoscedasticity is violated, the results of the regression analysis can only be applied to the immediate population from which the sample was selected. In other words, the results would not be generalizable to other contexts.

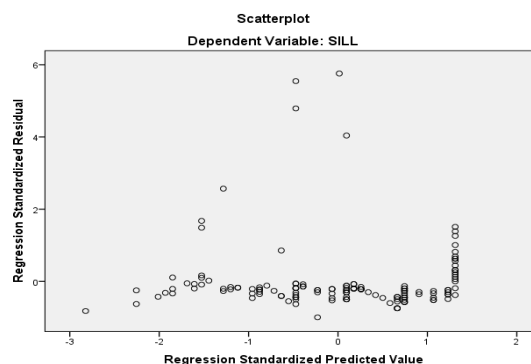


Figure 4: Testing Assumption of Homoscedasticity; SILL on MAI and GSES

The assumption of multicollinearity was also met (Table 12). The variance inflation rate (VIF) is lower than 10 and tolerance is higher than .1 (.162).

TABLE 12:
MULTICOLLINEARITY STATISTICS; SILL ON MAI AND GSES

MULTICOLLINEARITY STATISTICS, STEP ON MAY AND GSES								
Model		Beta In	T	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
2	GSES	.036 ^b	.353	.725	.030	.162	6.167	.162

a. Dependent Variable: SILL

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), MAI

The results of Cook's distance indicated there were not any significant outliers (Table 13). The minimum (0) and maximum (.13) Cook's distances are lower than one.

TABLE 13:
COOK'S DISTANCE

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Cook's Distance	.000	.134	.005	.019	143

a. Dependent Variable: SILL

IV. DISCUSSION

The findings of the current study show that there is a significant relationship between language learning strategies and metacognitive awareness. It can be interpreted that learners with a high degree of metacognitive awareness are more language learning strategy users. This means that strong metacognitive beliefs and the use of language learning strategies empower second language learners. Having positive beliefs in metacognitive and adjusting their language learning strategies in learning may result learners to obtain higher grades. A number of studies indicate that metacognitive awareness determines students' success in second language learning (e.g. Anderson, 1991; Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinnary, & Rubbins, 1999; Oxford, 2001; Wenden, 1991). This result is also consistent with Mevarech & Kramarski's (2003) idea that metacognition should be embedded in the learning process, and supports Rasekh & Ranjbary's (2003) conclusion that metacognitive awareness contribute to improvements in students' vocabulary learning. An important aspect in regarding oneself as a successful learner can be self-control over the use of language learning strategies (Paris & Winograd, 1990). This kind of self-control would improve if language learning strategy instruction is merged with metacognitive awareness (Paris & Winograd, 1990). Learners who have greater metacognitive awareness comprehend the similarity between a new learning task and previous ones, recognize those strategies required, and predict that using these strategies will bring about success (Paris & Winograd, 1990).

Also, based on the results of this study a significant relationship between use of language learning strategies and general self-efficacy was found. It can be interpreted that learners with a high sense of self-efficacy are more language learning strategy users. This means that students who perceived themselves as more confident in their language learning abilities are better language learning strategy users. Self-confident learners then may be more ready to take on challenging learning tasks. As Zimmerman & Pons (1986) claim employing strategies have been linked to a sense of self-efficacy which leads to anticipation of good learning. The growth of an individual's self-efficacy or level of confidence in successfully completing a task is closely related to efficient use of language learning strategies (Zimmerman, 1990). The results of the present study is in line with the findings of researchers such as Azrien & Adnan, 2011; Dreyer, 1992; Green & Oxford, 1995; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007, which show that there is an obvious link between self-efficacy and language learning strategy use. Pajares (2003) asserted that most difficulties of students originate from students' self-beliefs. In many situations students' low self-beliefs are the reason for low motivation, participation, performance and achievement rather than their lack of abilities and skills.

Besides, Heidari, Izadi, & Vahed Ahmadian (2012) explored the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' self-efficacy beliefs and their use of vocabulary learning strategies. The obtained results revealed that students had rather high level of self-efficacy which was positively associated with their use of the four subcategories of vocabulary learning strategies in general and the use of memory strategies in particular. Those learners who are highly self-efficacious use vocabulary strategies much more than those with low self-efficacy. This result is supported by the findings of Magogwe, Mokuedi, & Oliver (2007) who found a significant relationship between use of language learning strategies and self-efficacy beliefs.

It should be said that the above-mentioned results are opposed to the findings of Bonyadi, Rimani Nikou, & Shahbaz (2012) who investigated the relationship between EFL learners' self-efficacy and use of language learning strategies. They found that there is no significant relationship between self-efficacy and language learning strategy use. The reason for the difference between the finding of this study and Bonyadi et al.'s study is probably due to the difference in proficiency levels of participants in these two studies. The Bonyadi et al.'s participants were a group of 130 freshmen, while the participants of this study were among sophomore, junior, and senior students.

Moreover, the study reveals that there is a significant relationship between Metacognitive awareness and general self-efficacy. In other words, students' with high sense of self-efficacy are likely to have high metacognitive awareness. This result is somehow in line with the findings of Savia (2008) who found that the relationship between metacognitive awareness and performance was deeply influenced by self-efficacy. This means that learners with reasonable

metacognitive awareness also have strong belief in their own capabilities to successfully undertaking a task. This finding was in line with the findings obtained by Coutinho, 2007; Kruger & Dunning, 1999; Multon, Brown, & Lent, 1991. Their studies in self-efficacy and metacognitive awareness have already shown that both self-efficacy and metacognitive awareness are essential to successful learning. Students should be persuaded to analyze and inspect their own learning processes to improve their degree of metacognitive awareness, which may reinforce their sense of self-efficacy. Sinclair (2000) suggested that when there is not an explicit awareness of the processes involved in learning, learners will not be able to make informed decisions about their own learning.

It is recommended that the teachers, by considering the findings of this study, not contribute the failure of the students completely to their weak knowledge or inadequate skills but to different individual characteristics of the learners in the process of learning such as self-efficacy, metacognitive awareness, and language learning strategy use. They are expected to teach and encourage the learners how to use these strategies and take the maximum benefit of them in the process of their learning.

When learners believe in their abilities to perform tasks, they would create deeper interest in learning and developing their confidence in order to overcome difficulties of learning. Highly self-efficacious learners also exhibit higher engagement in the classroom and better academic performance. Accordingly, instructors should improve the sense of self-efficacy in their students which would be beneficial to their achievement. Cotterall (1999) has stated that it is crucial to provide teachers with a means of identifying and supporting individual learners who need to develop their sense of self-efficacy. If this can be done before they engage in learning tasks, the ensuing intervention in their language learning experience should result in superior performance.

Based on the results of this study, a positive significant correlation was found between EFL learners' self-efficacy and their metacognitive awareness, which means that promoting metacognitive awareness may enhance student self-efficacy. In the process of learning, if teachers design tasks to help the students increase their self-efficacy and metacognitive awareness, this increase might have positive effect on their academic performance. Since, it is very important for students to understand the importance of using language learning strategies in the process of language learning; hence, EFL teachers should deliver this message to their students. Teachers should help students cultivate and raise their awareness of language learning strategies. Once students are aware of advantages of using strategies in their language learning process, they will be willing to appropriately employ these strategies to facilitate their learning.

Due to the fact that language learning is a multidimensional phenomenon, not only language teachers, but also language learners themselves are required to play their role properly in order to facilitate and optimize this complicated process. Therefore, the results of the current study have implications for language learners, encouraging them to become more conscious and autonomous. The findings provide information for language learners by indicating that self-beliefs of language ability can affect their language achievement depending on the strength of their efficacy beliefs. Pajares (2000) states that many, if not most, academic crises are confidence crises.

Syllabus designers as providers of a great portion of the language learning setting, have a fundamental role to make the learning process easier. They are required to know that incorporation of language learning strategies in their courses can result in intellectual analytical learners that through using strategies can overcome their learning difficulties. When relevant training hints or motivation are inserted in appropriate parts of a course book with different tasks, teachers are provided with a powerful device to optimize language learning activities, which may result in promoting the learners' metacognitive awareness and self-efficacy.

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On the Relationship between Problem-solving Trait and the Performance on C-test

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Abstract—Individuals attend language classrooms with miscellaneous personal attributes which are going to influence learners' test performance. Therefore, individual differences play an important role in sources of variance in test scores. This paper aims at investigating the effect of problem solving on the language ability obtained through C-tests. To this end, 70 EFL learners were randomly chosen and they were required to fill Parker's Problem-Solving Style Questionnaire (PSSQ). Simultaneously, they were given three C-tests to complete. The PSSQ measures four functions of problem solving: Sensing, Intuitive, Feeling, and Thinking. These four functions are the independent variables of this research. The Multiple Regression showed that there is a high positive correlation between C-test and intuitive (.844) and thinking (.838) functions. The results also point out a large effect size ($R^2 = .786$) for correlations which in turn describes how much of the variance in dependent variable is accounted for by the four functions of problem solving. To link theory into practice, the pedagogical implications in the EFL context are discussed.

Index Terms—problem solving, multiple regression, personal attributes, PSSQ questionnaire, C-test

I. INTRODUCTION

An alternative form of cloze test, C-test has been widely used to investigate learners' proficiency level. As it is stated by Mousavi (1999, p. 78), in C-test, "the second half of every second word is deleted, leaving first and the last sentence of the passage intact." The term *cloze* comes from the Gestalt psychology in which it is believed that individuals are able to fill in the gaps in incomplete patterns (Bachman, 1985; Taylor, 1956). Therefore, C-test requires learners to establish a relationship between linguistic elements and contextual cues. As it is mentioned by Mousavi (1999, p. 40) and advocated by Oller (1979), "The cloze technique ... approaches comprehension of meaning and pattern relationships directly through the reader." C-test originates from a dominant paradigm to language testing which is the integrative approach (Farhady et al., 2009). This view of testing advocates the use of language not in discrete-point form but in the context of larger sentences. C-test, as an alternative to cloze test, came to the vogue after Klein-Braley and Raatz (1981). It has been advocated that C-test provides several advantages over cloze test (Raatz & Klein-Braley, 1983) one of which is the ability of C-test to measure specific linguistic elements in a text (Weir, 1993). Moreover, Farhady (1980, 1983, 1996) criticized cloze test on the grounds that it distorts the assumption of item independence which is an index of reliability and validity in classical test theory. C-test has been theoretically justifiable since it "is based upon the same theory of closure or reduced redundancy as the cloze test" (Alderson, 2000, p. 225). Another advantage of cloze test is related to marking process. As it is postulated by Weir (1990), since testees are to restore the words, test takers have littler difficulties evaluating learners' proficiency.

When words such as comprehension and organizing are highlighted, the role of thinking becomes much more outstanding. One of the skills which can impose control and discipline over thinking is *problem solving skill*. Problem solving is a cognitive process that imposes control over memory and leads memory toward appropriate selection of activities. These activities are utilized to solve the challenges individuals encounter in their tasks (Sutherland, 2002). Steckroth et al. (1980) defined problem solving as "processes through which individuals organize information from the environment and evaluate it" (p. 77).

The first models of problem-solving styles came from the theory of psychological functions which was developed by Carl Jung (1923). This theory has been further developed by Mitroff and Kilmann (1978) and Zmud (1979). Jung's model consists of four psychological functions as *thinking*, *feeling*, *sensation*, and *intuition*. Feeling and thinking are placed in opposite sides on a continuum. As it is advocated by researchers, one of the functions is more likely to be

stronger in an individuals' problem-solving style (Jung, 1923). Steckroth et al. (1980, pp. 78-79) determined the scope of each of these functions as below:

- **Dominant Feeling Style.** These managers are aware of other people's feelings, tend to be sympathetic, and dislike telling people unpleasant things. They tend to make decisions that are likely to result in approval from others, such as one's peers or subordinates, and avoid decisions that will likely result in disagreements. The establishment of friendly relations may even supersede and possibly interfere with a concern for achievement, effectiveness, and sound decisions. A feeling type, therefore, is likely to emphasize affective and personal processes in reaching a decision.

- **Dominant Thinking Style.** These managers are constantly trying to make decisions through intellectual processes. These intellectual processes are based upon external data and/or generally accepted ideas and values. Thinking types often try to fit problems and their solutions into standardized formulas. There is considerable similarity between the thinking style, major elements in the scientific method, and most modern theories of decision processes that stress rationality, such as mathematical decision theory and game theory.

- **Dominant Sensation Style.** Sensation type managers dislike new problems unless there are standardized ways to solve them, and prefer routine to non-routine work. In essence, these managers usually dislike coping with unstructured problems that contain considerable environmental uncertainty. In popular terms, sensation types are detail people. They gather data (that are highly specific and factual) from their environment through the use of the five senses.

- **Dominant Intuition Style.** These managers like to solve new problems, are impatient with routine details, and dislike taking time for precision. Whereas the sensation managers tend to perceive the environment in terms of detailed facts and specific events, intuitive managers tend to perceive the whole environment or the totality of the environment.

Throughout the history of SLA, some methods and approaches toward language teaching have targeted the writing skill to show its nature and its intricacies. Whole Language proponents, for instance, advocated that "writing is not primarily as a means of demonstrating knowledge to a teacher, but a way of discovering for oneself what one thinks" (Rigg, 1991, p. 522). Maybe it is the process of thinking itself which render the task so cumbersome. Moreover, as it is mentioned by Cottrell (2005), it is difficult for many individuals to manage their thoughts in a logical and consistent way. Maybe the key to success in improving writing skill is laid outside the realm of linguistic elements. For solving the mystery of writing skill, other areas such as the ability to reason and logic may prove to be useful—two major aspects of critical thinking.

When words such as *discovering* and *introspection* are highlighted in a particular activity, the role of thinking becomes much more obvious. Some researchers have stated that thinking and writing skill go hand in hand and are inseparable (Brown, 2001); therefore, the better one thinks, the better that person is going to deal with writing. Unfortunately, EFL curriculum is alienating itself from such important aspect of education—critical thinking. Moon (2008) believed that, "although thinking must surely be at the heart of education, it is not often explicitly taken into consideration in pedagogy" (p. vii). As learners grow up in their academic life, some crucial elements of education become much more outstanding though unknown to most learners and, disappointingly, to many educators. In order to think well, one should impose *control* and *discipline* on his/her thinking. This imposition is called *critical thinking*.

The importance of critical thinking has been addressed variously through educational life. Taylor and Mackenny (2008) stated that "critical thinking is a natural outgrowth of normal educational efforts" (p. 131). In *Toward a postmethod pedagogy*, Kumaravadivelu (2001) proposed the idea of "liberatory autonomy" in which the learners are empowered with critical thinking skills (p. 547). As the review of literature reveals, critical thinking is an underlying element of any educational effort and surely one cannot separate writing from critical thinking. According to Zamel (1982, p. 197), "writing is the record of an idea developing" in which individuals should manage their thoughts to come up with a consistent and coherent writing. Critical thinking is a subject of considerable current interest, both in terms of theory and pedagogy and most researchers have advocated the integration of critical thinking into other areas of foreign language learning (Bailin, Case, Coombs, & Daniels, 1999).

This study tries to investigate the way these styles are going to alter performance on C-test. Beside the aforementioned goal, this study embraces the following questions:

1. Is there any significant relationship between each of four functions of problem solving and C-test?
2. Which of the problem solving functions has the most influence on the variation in learners' C-test scores?
3. Is there any significant relationship among four problem-solving functions?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

In order to measure the effect of problem solving on C-test, 70 EFL learners were randomly chosen from different institutes in Mashhad, Iran. Gender was equally distributed among learners with 35 persons in each gender. They were aged between 18 and 30. All of the learners spoke Persian as their main language in home and they were able to speak Persian as the national language too. Learners' proficiency level was mainly advanced. The criterion to figure out their proficiency level was the placement test of the institute as well as the terms they had passed.

B. Instruments

C-test: To investigate learners' proficiency score, three passages in which the second half of every other word is deleted were given to students. The three texts have been adopted from Mousavi (1999, p. 80). The texts are from different fields and enjoy different levels of difficulty. Totally, there are 80 mutilated words in three passages and the length of each passage is nearly the same. In order to make the statistical process more manageable, the score of each testee is divided to 4, which provides a score of 20 for each learner. The passages are mentioned in Appendix 1.

Problem Solving Style Questionnaire: In this study, Parker Problem Solving Style Questionnaire (PSSQ) is used which includes 20 Likert scale. The questionnaire measures four concepts of problem solving as Sensing, Intuitive, Feeling, and Thinking. Therefore, each concept embraces five questions (Appendix 2).

Procedure: Learners were required to answer three C-tests and after that they were given the PSSQ to put their answers on a Likert scale. Then, the papers were gathered and they were investigated by two independent raters. When the data were investigated, the Multiple Regression was used to study the effect of each problem solving concept on the performance of C-tests.

III. RESULTS

Since the goal of this article is to investigate the effect of independent variables, which are the four concepts of problem solving mentioned earlier, on the dependent variable, which is C-test, Multiple Regression is the suitable path. In using this model, the shape of the distribution of dependent variable is of key importance. The distribution of dependent variable defines the nature of relationships between dependent and independent variable to find whether it is a linear or a nonlinear one. If the distribution is normal, it is possible to show the relation between dependent and independent variable through a linear or a multiple regression. Therefore, before choosing the model, the dependent variable should be investigated. To this aim, a histogram is used which is showed in Figure 1. According to this figure, the distribution of Skewness is to left and the statistics reveal an amount of $-.930$ for Skewness which is pointed out in Table I. Since this amount is less than one, it is possible to consider normal distribution for the dependent variable.

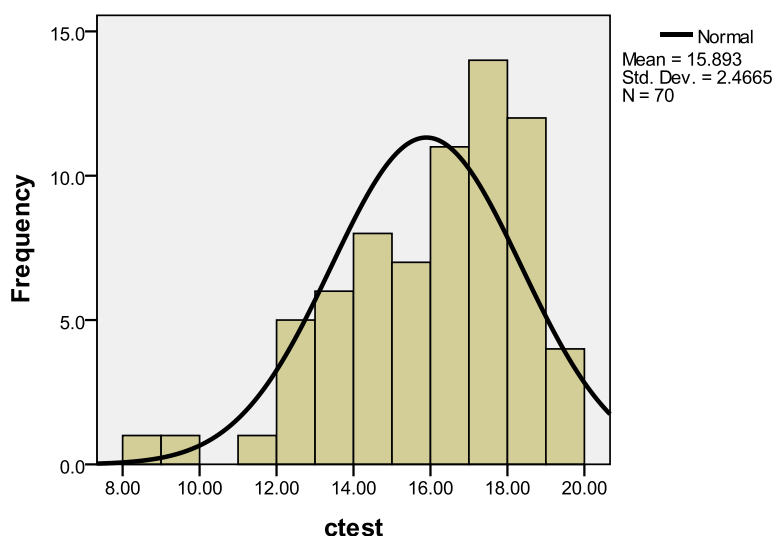


Figure 1. The Distribution of Dependent Variable

To figure out the nature of relationships between dependent and independent variables, the data was put into SPSS. Table I shows the descriptive statistics of the results:

TABLE I
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

	N	Mean	Variance	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
C-test	70	15.8930	6.084	-.930	.287	.741	.566
Valid N (listwise)	70						

After the preliminary investigations, the data was put into SPSS for estimating the nature of relationships among variables. Figure 2 shows the correlations between dependent and independent variables as well as the nature of correlations among the independent variables (S= Sensing; I= Intuitive; F= Feeling; T= Thinking)

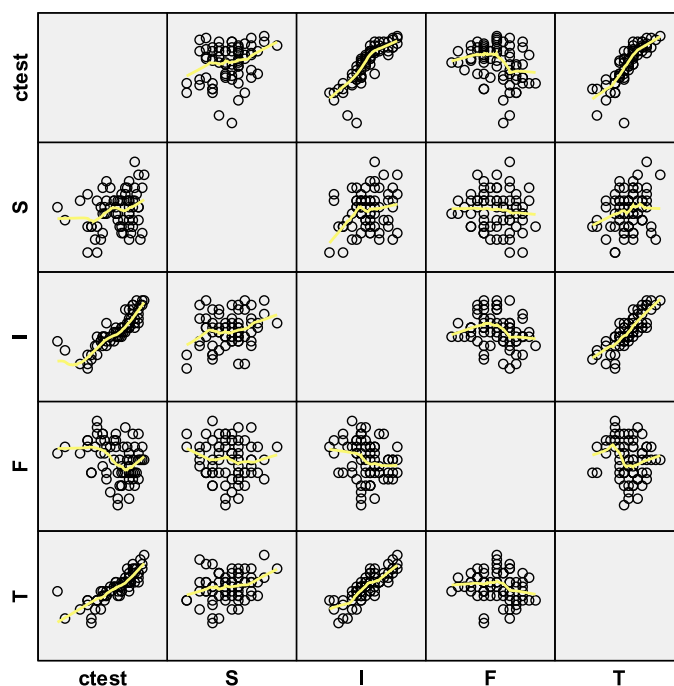


Figure 2. The Relationship between Dependent and Independent Variables

Figure 2 shows that there is a high positive correlation between the dependent variable and independent variables of thinking and intuitive. Furthermore, the two independent variables of intuitive and thinking have a high correlation with each other.

TABLE II
PEARSON CORRELATIONS AMONG THE VARIABLES AND THEIR SIGNIFICANCES

		C-test	S	I	F	T
Pearson Correlation	C-test	1.000	.247	.844	-.307	.838
	S	.247	1.000	.246	-.098	.265
	I	.844	.246	1.000	-.235	.840
	F	-.307	-.098	-.235	1.000	-.167
	T	.838	.265	.840	-.167	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	C-test	.	.020	.000	.005	.000
	S	.020	.	.020	.209	.013
	I	.000	.020	.	.025	.000
	F	.005	.209	.025	.	.083
	T	.000	.013	.000	.083	.

Pearson correlation has a coefficient between 1 and zero. As Table II reveals, the correlation between the dependent variable of C-test and the independent variable of intuitive is 0.844 and the correlation of C-test with the independent variable of thinking is 0.838 which are high positive correlations. This is to say that there is a high positive correlation between dependent variable and intuitive and thinking concepts of problem solving. Table II points out that there is significant correlation between dependent variable and independent variables. This is in part because of the large number of participants in the study. The results show that there is a weak correlation between the dependent variable and two independent variables, namely, feeling and sensing.

TABLE III
MODEL SUMMARY

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.886	.786	.772	1.17679

In the end, the most important information that can be obtained from Table III is the amount of R Square which equals .786. This figure shows that 78.6 percent of the changes in the dependent variable is for the sake of independent variables not by chance alone. To verify the changes in the dependent variable, two conditions should be met:

1. The variance should be fixed.
2. Errors should have a normal distribution

For investigating whether the variance is stable or not, the diagram of dependent variable with regarding the errors has been showed in Figure 3. If the diagram is like a funnel, the variance is not stable and fixed. Figure 3 shows that the variance is fixed.

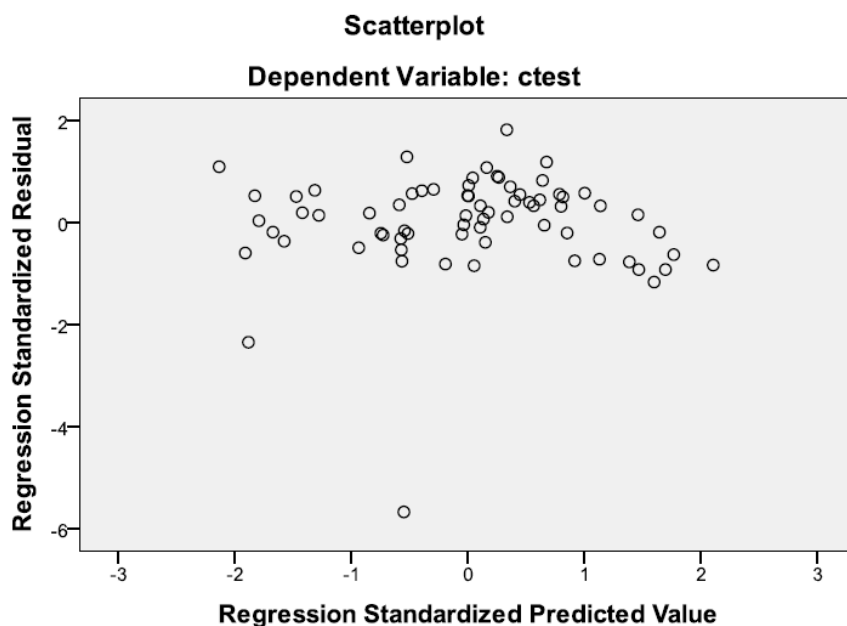


Figure 3. The diagram of dependent variable with regarding the errors

For investigating the degree of normal distribution of errors, Q-Q diagram should be used. If the distribution of dots is concentrated around the line, the data are distributed normally. As it can be seen in Figure 4, errors have a normal distribution.

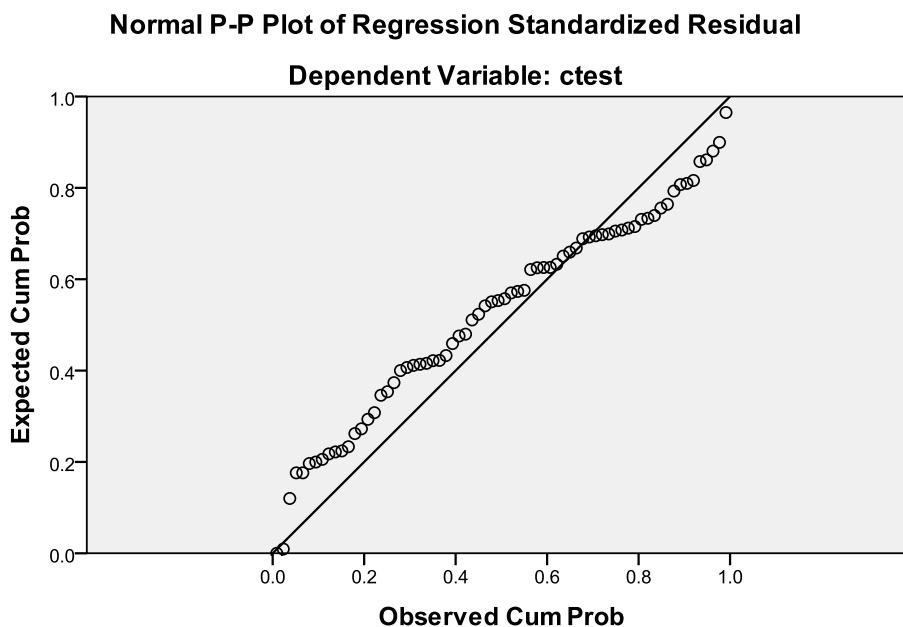


Figure 4. The degree of normal distribution of errors

IV. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The first question of this study was to investigate whether there is any significant relationship between each of the four categories of problem solving and C-test. The results showed that there is a high positive correlation between C-test and two concepts of problem solving which were thinking and intuitive. The second question of this article was to understand which of the problem solving categories has the most influence on the variation in learners' C-test scores. Intuitive learners were performed better on C-tests and this shows that being intuitive has the most influence on the

variance of C-test. The third problem of this study deals with finding whether there is any significant relationship among the four independent variables. The results showed that there is a high correlation between thinking and intuitive variables.

As for the implications of this study, it can be mentioned that teachers in EFL classes can use thinking and intuitive activities to increase learners' proficiency. The importance of this study is fourfold. First, it is useful for the EFL learners in that they will be familiar with the dominant problem solving functions and they can increase their problem solving abilities to enhance their performance on language proficiency tests. Furthermore, the findings of this study may be a fruitful source for EFL learners in order to be acquainted with the effects of problem solving functions of language performance. When learning L2, most students resort to linguistic strategies in order to come up with different drawbacks in performing a task. However, some problems are in relation with psychological processes. Acquainting and teaching learners some problem solving techniques can solve their problems performing tasks in language classrooms. The findings can help EFL learners to overcome the difficulty of using appropriate paths in various situations. Second, teachers as the conductors of the class can use the findings in order to instruct learners. This study also helps teachers to find out why some students have problems learning and applying the language appropriately. Third, this study may be of interest for material developers. Learners interact most of their time with their books. Textbooks are also a road map for most teachers and students. Material developers can use the findings of this study to develop and provide beneficial exercises in order to increase learners' problem solving abilities. Learning problem solving techniques may increase the quality of leaning and performance among individuals.

Fourth, researchers can use the findings of this study to compare and contrast different learners' proficiency level based on a model of problem solving. It is also of great help to those who want to investigate individual differences in language classes. Moreover, it is possible for the researchers to study whether individuals in different situations and different contexts reveal the same patterns of problem solving functions mentioned in this paper.

APPENDIX A. CLOZE TESTS USED IN THE STUDY

C-Test 1

Controlling the pollution is another crucial objective. Without fo-----, man c-----, live f----- about fi----- weeks; with----- water ab----- five da----- . Without a-----, he c----- only li----- five min-----, so pu----- air i----- a mu----- . Here t----- wrongdoer i----- the autom----- . Where th----- is a concern of autom-----, as i----- our b----- cities, a----- pollution i----- severe. I----- is impo----- to s----- that o----- cars a----- equipped wi----- pollution-control dev----- . Such devices effectively reduce the harmful gases emitted from the engine.

C-Test 2

There are usually five men in the crew of a fire engine. One o----- them dri----- the eng----- . The lea----- sits bes----- the dri----- . The ot----- firemen s----- inside t----- cab o----- the f----- engine. T----- leader h----- usually be----- in t----- Fire Ser----- for ma----- years. H----- will kn----- how t----- fight diff----- sorts o----- fires. S-----, when t----- firemen arr----- at a fire, it is always the leader who decides how to fight the fire. He tells each fireman what to do.

APPENDIX B. PROBLEM-SOLVING STYLE QUESTIONNAIRE (PSSQ)

Statement	Strongly agree	Slightly agree	Not sure	Slightly disagree	Strongly disagree
1. Most people think that I am objective and logical	5	4	3	2	1
2. Most people would say that I am emotional and rather motivating	5	4	3	2	1
3. Most people believe that I know the details of my job and do it very accurately	5	4	3	2	1
4. Most people agree that I am a complex and intellectual person	5	4	3	2	1
5. I tend to focus on immediate problems and let others worry about the distant future	5	4	3	2	1
6. I try to please others and need occasional praise myself	5	4	3	2	1
7. When I face a problem, I try to analyze all the facts and put them in systematic order	5	4	3	2	1
8. I'm more interested in long-range implications and am often bored with minor here and now details	5	4	3	2	1
9. I'm usually more people oriented than task oriented	5	4	3	2	1
10. Before I put energy into a project, I want to know what's in it for me	5	4	3	2	1
11. I normally solve problems quickly without wasting a lot of time on details	5	4	3	2	1
12. When I have a job to do, I do it, even if others' feelings might get hurt in the process	5	4	3	2	1
13. I get bored with routine and prefer to deal with new and complicated challenges	5	4	3	2	1
14. I'm a pretty good judge as to how others feel about problems	5	4	3	2	1
15. I don't let problems upset me, no matter how difficult they are	5	4	3	2	1
16. I like to do things that I do well, but I'm not comfortable trying to learn new skills	5	4	3	2	1
17. I prefer harmony in a work group—otherwise efficiency suffers	5	4	3	2	1
18. I really enjoy solving new problems	5	4	3	2	1
19. I am a quick learner, but I don't like theoretical, futuristic concepts	5	4	3	2	1
20. When necessary, I have no trouble making tough, hard-nosed decisions	5	4	3	2	1

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The Impact of Using Computer-aided Argument Mapping (CAAM) on the Improvement of Writing Achievement of Iranian Learners of English <i>Parviz Maftoon, Parviz Birjandi, and Pantea Pahlavani</i>	982
Semantic Prosody Analysis for Commentary of China's National Publicity Film Based on Appraisal Theory <i>Ling Zhang</i>	989
A Content Evaluation of Iranian Pre-university ELT Textbook <i>Ataollah Maleki, Fariba Mollaei, and Robab Khosravi</i>	995
The Effect of Coded and Uncoded Written Corrective Feedback Types on Iranian EFL Learners' Writing Accuracy <i>Shima Ahmadi-Azad</i>	1001
A Contrastive Study of English and Chinese Book Reviews on Linguistics: Perspective of Attitudinal Meanings <i>Chunsong Cheng</i>	1009
The Role of Cross-linguistic Experience on English Idiom and Proverb Comprehension: A Case of Iranian Turkish Learners of English as a Foreign and Third Language <i>Behnaz Moein, Robab Khosravi, and Hooshang Yazdani</i>	1017
The Evaluation of Iranian EFL Textbooks from Post Method Principles Pedagogy <i>Yalda Hooman</i>	1026
On Cross-cultural Pragmatic Failures in C/E Interpretation <i>Xuedong Shi</i>	1033
Does Extensive Reading Combined with Form-focused or Meaning-focused Activities Affect Lexical Collocational Knowledge of Iranian Learners? <i>Fatemeh Khonamri and Sakine Roostaei</i>	1038
The Relationship between Self-efficacy and Writing Performance across Genders <i>Felor Hashemnejad, Masoud Zoghi, and Davoud Amini</i>	1045
Mules and Women: Identify and Rebel — Janie's Identity Quest in " <i>Their Eyes Were Watching God</i> " <i>Hongzhi Wu</i>	1053
The Effect of Authentic and Inauthentic Materials in Cultural Awareness Training on EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension Ability <i>Behzad Barekat and Hamed Nobakhti</i>	1058
Attitudes toward the Effectiveness of Communicative and Educational Language Games and Fun Activities in Teaching and Learning English <i>Marjan Sobhani and Mohammad Sadegh Bagheri</i>	1066
