# Theory and Practice in Language Studies

# Contents

# An Acquisitionist's Perspective to Teaching Introductory Linguistics

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*Abstract*—**This paper offers the perspective of an acquisitionist for teaching in an introductory linguistics course, the topics corresponding to the more structural component systems or levels of language, namely, phonetics, phonology, morphology, and syntax. Many introductory linguistics textbooks are far too advanced and contain too much information for undergraduate students to grasp within the short period of time customarily allotted in a three-credit course. In fact, it is quite common for instructors to have to pick and choose the information they are going to cover, many times resorting to skipping entire chapters and major concepts that are basic to the linguistic enterprise. Even when comprehensive coverage is attempted, students are often left with little or no time to absorb the necessary concepts within each unit for later application when discussing more specific areas that students find most interesting and relevant such as historical or dialectal differences in the language(s) they are studying. It is argued that approaching these basic components as different steps in the process of acquiring one's L1(s) impresses upon students and provides them with an appreciation for (1) the individuality of each system; (2) the integration among systems (e.g., the difference between phonetics and phonology is easier to remember if one thinks as the former as the earlier infant-stage of perception and articulation and the latter as the eventual organization of rules in a system); (3) how children learn their first language(s); and (4) more generally, the nature and power of the human capacity for language.**

*Index Terms*— **teaching linguistics, language acquisition, human capacity for language**

## I. INTRODUCTION

Linguistics as a science covers a wide range of possible areas of investigation, areas that include the more fundamental structural *components* of language such as phonetics, phonology, morphology, and syntax, as well as topic-specific areas such as synchronic or diachronic variation in language, language acquisition, the communicative efforts of animals, to only name a few. In an effort to let no stone go unturned, introductory linguistics textbooks such as that by Fromkin et al. (2013), now in its ninth edition, try to squeeze this daunting variety into one semester. The problem I see with this approach is that it is overly ambitious, unrealistic, and in the end, defeats its original purpose of inclusiveness, leaving students with a feeling that they have been overexposed and not having a good handle on even the most basic of areas.

One area that frequently gets overlooked in the grand endeavor of an introductory course is perhaps one of the most basic to our enterprise, and that is the human capacity to acquire, create, and understand language in the first place. This, in the opinion of the author, is perhaps one of the biggest oversights among many of the current introductory textbooks on the market. A case in point is the text by Azevedo (2008), now in its 3rd edition, which specializes in Spanish linguistics. Although the book is quite comprehensive in terms of topics specifically related to Spanish such as variation in all its possible forms, what lacks is a section in any of the chapters on the nature and power of language and how it is that we acquire it.

One cannot help but wonder whether approaching linguistics from this new perspective might even help change the general common misconception among the general populace, including the college-educated, about the nature of what linguists do. Most of us have stopped counting the number of times when people immediately ask after learning that we are linguists just how many languages we speak. It is not the fault of the person who asks, of course. In fact, it is symptomatic of the general tendency to take for granted the importance of this fundamental capacity that we all have as humans to use language, and ironically, even among introductory linguistic textbook writers. What's even more ironic is the fact that we use our basic capacity for language to create these textbooks, write articles, learn other languages, get our degrees, and so on, and so this is an area that this author feels is high time to bring back up to the top.

The reasons for this approach are many. Aside from the important fact that L1 acquisition is the author's area of expertise, if one stops to think about it, our human capacity to learn, understand, and produce language is also the most basic. Without our capacity for language, there would not be any need to explain the rest because they would not exist, no dialects, no language change over time, no anything! Teaching linguistics in this manner is also an opportunity to make students think abstractly and critically, outside the box of their language. The author often tells students at the outset of his courses to expect to leave their language at the door, that we are going to try to approach the different component areas of language as if we have never been exposed to any language before. The purpose of doing this is to

give students an appreciation for the language-learning task and, in the process, to also impress on them how language works in general.

Finally, many are the advantages to presenting the fundamental structural components to language from the perspective of L1 acquisition. In the first place, our language learning capacity serves as a centralizing theme around which the different structural components can be organized. In this way, components can first be shown to exist as individual systems with their own rules, and at some later stage of development, as systems which function in relation to each other. This, in turn, implies both the complexity of language and how it works in general. The following section of this paper proceeds to explain in greater detail how this approach has worked in the author's introductory linguistics classroom.

## II. DISCUSSION

At the beginning of this paper it was mentioned that one of the first things the author asks students to do in order to get them to think abstractly is to attempt to leave the knowledge they already have of their L1(s) at the door. One of the reasons for doing this is to put the student in the position of the child in an effort to reinforce the individual complexity of each of the component systems of language. At first, students have to be reminded repeatedly to think in terms of only one particular system, and this always starts out as a challenge because, as we will see later in this paper, the component systems normally work together, but eventually, after a few examples, students do finally understand what this means. A real example of this challenge from the author's classroom is the student's initial tendency to think of phones in terms of letters of the alphabet as opposed to sounds. Another example is the idea that words themselves are the smallest units of meaning for no other reason than these are the components that they are used to dealing with when they think about language, if they ever do. When I ask these same students to approach these systems as an infant would, they begin to see more clearly that letters of the alphabet are no longer relevant because a child does not know what these are. At this point, students can then truly begin to focus on sounds and not letters.

### A. *Individual Systems*

This section makes some suggestions as to how examples from L1 acquisition can facilitate the explanation of each of the individual structural components of language: (1) phonetics; (2) phonology; (3) morphology; and (4) syntax.

#### *1. Phonetics and Phonology*

Introductory linguistics textbooks commonly present the difference between phonetics and phonology as that between (1) a simple inventory of sounds and their articulation (phonetics) and (2) a more complex system with rules (phonology). What the author of this paper has found is that by presenting each of these areas with concrete examples from L1 acquisition, the differences between them become clearer and much easier for the student to remember.

Research in the area of L1 acquisition has concluded that a healthy child has the capacity of learning any language(s) to which he or she has interactive exposure. The process of learning language begins at birth, the first step being categorization of the totality of individual sounds in a particular language. This first juncture is critical because no other, more advanced language learning (i.e., at the phonological, morphological, or syntactic level) can take place until the child can recognize the particular sounds of the target language and how these are combined at these other levels.

Mastery at the phonetic stage of language acquisition includes both receptive and productive skills, however, the latter, of course, takes much longer to master as it must also align with both mental and physical development of the child. After all, certain sounds, although they are understood by infants early on, just cannot be produced because they are dependent on the development of the teeth or additional control of the muscles in the tongue or jaw. For example, research has found that cross-linguistically, liquids are typically difficult to articulate, and therefore some of the last, sounds to be produced by children (e.g., multiple vibrant /r/ in Spanish or the retroflex /r/ in English). It is this initial phase of identification, recognition, and eventual production of the sounds of a language that we can safely tell our students is phonetics.

In contrast, phonology, although related to phonetics in the sense that it too has to do with sounds, is a distinct component from phonetics because it goes beyond the mere identification, recognition, and ability to articulate isolated sounds. It is instead, the second important step in the mastery of the sound system of a particular language to the point where a child can identify how sounds interact together as part of a larger system. After all, the sounds of one's language(s) are not combined in a haphazard fashion, and a child notices that certain similar sounds do not appear randomly (free variation) but rather do appear predictably in the environment of certain other sounds (complementary distribution). One can also introduce to students by means of phonology the notion that language bridges sound with meaning at a much lower level than words, namely, with the mere difference of one sound (minimal pairs). After all, young children know very early on that the difference of only one sound between two words is what gives them different meanings (phonemes) as in the example of *fussy* versus *fuzzy*.

#### *2. Morphology*

After exposing students to both phonetics and phonology, it is common for current textbooks to proceed with the subsequent higher structural level of language, namely, morphology. Morphology is usually defined as that component of language responsible for the structure of words and the assembly of word forms from individual units of meaning. Examples from L1 acquisition can again be employed to explain how morphology works as well. For example, Table 1

illustrates the order in which 14 basic grammatical morphemes in English were acquired by three young children (i.e., Adam, Eve, and Sarah) according to Brown (1973)[1]:

TABLE I.
ACQUISITION OF BASIC MORPHEMES IN ENGLISH ACCORDING TO BROWN (1973)

| English morpheme | Example | Age (in months) |
|---|---|---|
| 1. -ing | Mommy driving | 19-28 |
| 2. in | Ball in cup | 27-30 |
| 3. on | Doggie on sofa | 27-33 |
| 4. Plural -s | Kitties eat my ice cream Forms: /s/, /z/ and /iz/ Cats, Dogs, Classes, Wishes | 27-33 |
| 5. Irregular past | Came, Fell, Broke, Sat, Went | 25-46 |
| 6. Possessive -'s | Mommy's balloon broke. Forms: /s/, /s/ and /iz/ as in regular plural | 26-40 |
| 7. Uncontractible copula | He is. (in response to "Who's sick?") | 28-46 |
| 8. Articles | I see a kitty. | 28-46 |
| 9. Regular past –ed | Mommy pulled the wagon. Forms: /d/, /t/, /Id/ Pulled, Walked, Glided | 26-48 |
| 10. Regular 3rd pers. present | Kathy hits. Forms: /s/, /z/, and /iz/ | 28-50 |
| 11. Irregular 3rd pers. present | Does, Has | 28-50 |
| 12. Uncontractible auxiliary | He is. (in response to "Who's wearing your hat?") | 29-48 |
| 13. Contractible copula | Man's big. | 29-49 |
| 14. Contractible auxiliary | Daddy's eating | 30-50 |

As Table 1 suggests, Brown's 14 grammatical morphemes can be used to illustrate to students the difference between lexical and grammatical morphemes. It is the author's experience in the classroom that students typically have fewer problems understanding lexical morphemes, most likely because of the real-world referents or concepts that usually correspond to their meaning, especially in the case of free morphemes such as *cow*. Because students are already used to thinking of words as minimal units of meaning, it is barely a stretch for them to get them to thinking in terms of lexical morphemes. By contrast, grammatical morphemes do not have referents in the world as do their lexical counterparts. Instead, they have purely grammatical meaning as exemplified by such grammatical morphemes as the present participle suffix *-ing* and the regular past tense suffix *-ed*. As compared to the lexical variety, these have more abstract or *grammatical* meaning. Brown's morphemes are useful, real-life examples of the different types of grammatical morphemes, including both those which appear in bound form (like *-ed* or *-ing*) as well as those which appear as free-standing words (like *in* or *on*), and their usage.

Another advantage to using Brown ́s morphemes is that, being real examples of children ́s earliest speech production, they show the usage of morphemes in isolation from others so that students can focus on the particular morpheme. Such is the case of first morpheme acquired *-ing* and its corresponding example from Brown's data *Mommy driving*. Early such *telescopic* examples can draw students' attention to the morpheme being discussed without the clutter or interference of additional morphemes. It has been the author's experience that after a single read-through of Brown's list, students understand more clearly the essence of grammatical morphemes, both free and bound varieties.

*3. Syntax*

Immediately following the presentation of the first three structural levels of phonetics, phonology, and morphology, textbooks then commonly proceed to the next higher, and incidentally, final level of language structure, this being syntax. As such, syntax is usually defined as that component of language that has to do with the structure of phrases and sentences. Put another way, syntax deals with how words are combined in particular sequences and how they relate together in the sentence. In terms of studies of the acquisition of syntax by children, despite the expected disagreement of such particulars as whether a child possesses solely lexical categories from the start and eventually develops functional categories later, as in Radford (1990), or whether a child's syntax is fully present, as in Hyams (1993), all L1 acquisitionists would agree as to some of the basic stages that all children pass through, regardless of the particular language to which they are exposed (Ryan, 2012; Brown, 1973). For example, it has been found universally that within a short window of two years, most children progress from the ability to produce utterances containing one word, to those of two-words, and subsequently to those of three words or more (O'Grady, 1997). This sequence aligns with the generativist claim that the combination of words happens in a successive binary fashion, aptly termed Merge (Chomsky,

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[1]For those teaching introductory linguistics courses of languages other than English, some careful digging will yield similar studies for other languages such as González (1978) for Spanish or Pierce (1992) for French.

1995). This correlation between the Merge operation in syntax and successive expansion of children's utterances from one to two to three or more words is no mere coincidence and may aid in the explanation of one of the most basic tenets of contemporary generative syntax.

Another observation of the burgeoning syntax of children is a child's early recognition of the target language's word order and the purported application of this knowledge for additional learning. Linguistic typologists classify word order in languages by the relative positions assumed by S(ubject), V(erb) and O(bject) to each other in a simple declarative sentence, resulting in six theoretically possible word orders among the world's languages: (1) SVO; (2) SOV; (3) VOS; (4) VSO; (5) OSV; and (6) OVS, although the first two are the most common, accounting for approximately 75% of the world's known languages, whereas the last two account for less than 2% of these same languages (Greenberg, 1966). Just as was seen in the section of this paper on phonetics where it was suggested that children must before anything else first learn to identify the entirety of sounds of the language they are learning, so too they must identify the basic word order structure of their language and how this translates into meaning so that meanings associated with the particular order of words may provide for additional learning as well. This additional learning that has been proposed based on existing syntactic knowledge is a process which has been termed in the field as bootstrapping, and may occur on either semantic grounds as suggested by Pinker (1987) or syntactic grounds according to Hirsh-Pasek, K. & Golinkov, R. (1999) and Naigles (1990, 1996).

One final example of how a child's acquisition of language can help explain syntax is that of the marking of agreement on the verb in accordance with the head of the subject noun phrase. Take the following examples (1) a. and b.:

    (1) a. *The toy <u>is</u> green.*
       b. *The wings of the toy <u>are</u> green.*

If syntax were a question of simple word order and not the result of the interplay of individual phrasal hierarchies, the difference in verb selection in (1) a. and b. would not matter. For example, in a system of simple word order whereby a word immediately preceding the verb determines the verb form, not only (1) a. but (1) b. would also require a single verb form, namely, "is." However, syntax is more hierarchical in nature, and the difference between the verb forms in (1) a. and b. is not determined simply by the word preceding the verb, but rather the head of the noun phrase that precedes the verb.

Although teaching fully the syntactic differences between (1) a. and b. would require an introductory class dedicated entirely to syntax, the simplified version for an introductory linguistics class might consist of limiting the explanation to the difference in structure between the Subject NPs in (1) a. and b. which might be represented by Figures 1 and 2, respectively:
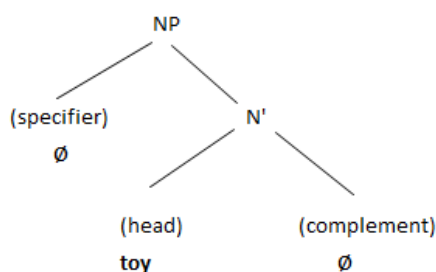


Fig. 1: Syntactic representation of the NP *toy*
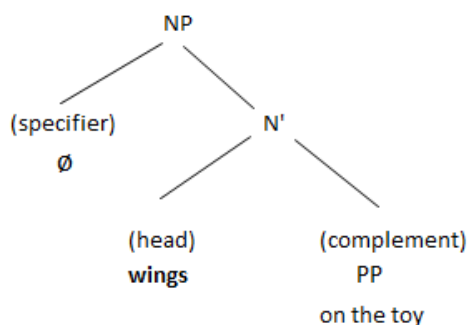


Fig. 2: Syntactic representation of the NP *wings on the toy*

As illustrated in Figure 1, the head of the noun phrase, in this case *toy* is singular, hence the singular form of the verb *be*, or *is,* is required in the sentence. On the other hand, in Figure 2 the head of the noun phrase *wings* is plural, therefore, the plural form of *be*, or *are,* is required. The advantage of this example can also serve as entree to the explanation of X-

Bar Theory and the combination of specifier, head, and complement as the basic components of all phrases, another important assertion of contemporary generative syntax (Chomsky, 1995).

Having illustrated how examples and observations from the field of L1 acquisition can help explain some of the more basic concepts surrounding the individual structural component systems or levels of language, the following section of this paper will now demonstrate how L1 acquisition may also be applied to explain interaction between these same systems or levels.

*B. Interrelated Systems*

When it comes to relating the structural systems or levels of language among each other most textbooks indicate the method of presentation of this material from smaller to larger units (sounds to sentences) without mentioning, or even suggesting, that this order happens to be the way in which children acquire these systems. After all, children don't just start producing sentences, but pass through the following particular sequence (give or take 3-6 months for individual differences) which coincidentally corresponds to the order in which textbooks present these topics (in parentheses): (1) by around six months infants are able to recognize and start producing many of the sounds of their target language (which if we were to associate this with one of the systems, it would essentially correspond to phonetics); (2) by around twelve months infants are able to combine certain sounds into meaningful sequences recognizable to a speaker of the target language (corresponding more or less to a textbook's definition of phonology); (3) by around eighteen months infants begin to pretty accurately form words from smaller components (morphology); and (4) between eighteen months and two years infants begin stringing two or more words together in strings of meaningful sequences (syntax).

Rather than attributing to mere chance this uncanny resemblance between the presentation of smaller to larger units and a child's path of acquisition, the author has found that by integrating the two into one explanation actually helps both facilitate and reinforce both areas. To illustrate the power of this approach, the example of the sequence of acquisition of word final sibilants (e.g., [s], [z], and [ɨ z] in English is employed for each of the structural components along the path of first language acquisition.

*1st stage (Phonetics)*

At first, all children are continuously exposed to adult English language input and begin to identify all the possible sounds of the language. Children begin to classify [s] and [z] as English sounds and include these as part of their overall inventory. Knowing that these are English sounds, however, does not mean that infants are able to recognize them according to context, in other words, what they are used for in the language.

*2nd stage (From Phonetics to Phonology)*

Having now associated [s] and [z] as sounds in English, an infant can quickly progress from the initial stage of mere identification of sounds (phonetics) to recognizing that these appear in predictable, and more importantly, meaningful contexts. At this point one may explain to students that infants begin to see the use of sounds as part of an overall system with rules that determine which sounds are used when combined with other particular sounds. For example, children learning English begin to notice that: (1) the unvoiced sibilant [s] appears after a voiceless consonant as in the sequence *cat* + [s], (2) the voiced sibilant [z] appears after a voiced consonant or vowel as in the sequence *dog* + [z] or *see* + [z], or (3) the voiced combination [ɨ z] appears after only certain voiceless consonants as in *witch* + [ɨ z].

Consequently, this real-life application of the difference between just plain phonetics and a more robust and complex system of phonology makes for a natural transition to the discussion of the concept of complementary distribution of allophones, which can in turn be contrasted with the notion of free variation. Moreover, this particular illustration with regard to the choice of word final sibilant which is dependent on the preceding sound is a natural segue into an explanation of how the process of assimilation works, and although this case is of the regressive variety, the discussion can be easily expanded to explain the progressive type as well.

At this point, one can also explain to students that the acquisition of the sound "system" involves more than just rules regulating which sounds occur with other sounds but that certain sounds when substituted for each other can also determine the meaning of a word. For example, the two sounds /s/ and /z/ in English when substituted for each other may change the meaning of the words as in the following examples:

(2) a. *fuss* [s] versus *fuzz* [z]

    b. *bus* [s] versus *buzz* [z]

In other words, through these examples it may be explained to students that phonology is also a system that provides for the discriminating ability of some sounds, which in this case are called phonemes, as in /s/ and /z/ in English. At this point the concepts of minimal pairs may be introduced as exemplified by (2) a. and b.

*3rd stage (Integration of Phonology and Morphology)*

As infants begin to make sense of the sounds in the language they are learning (phonology), they also begin to recognize that certain strings of sounds together may also have a unique meaning. Such strings may represent concepts in the real world or they may be even smaller units, oftentimes a single sound that in turn may be pieced together with those strings that correspond to a concept in order to modify the meaning of the concept in a particular way. This other system of assembling parts of words is called morphology and it entails how the individual units of meaning described earlier come together to form words.

It is along these lines that one can further explain to students that morphology is the juncture where sound meets meaning. Returning to our familiar example of word final sibilants, infants learning English begin to notice that the

sounds [s] and [z] are typically used as markers at the end of words to pluralize most singular nouns, according to the phonological rules of regressive assimilation mentioned previously (e.g., *cat* + [s]; *dog* + [z]; and *bee* + [z]) as well as other special environments (e.g., *witch* + [ɨ z]). Shortly thereafter, as suggested by Brown (1973) young children learning English also start noticing that these same sounds [s] and [z] are also used by adults as word-final markers of genitive case (e.g., *Pat* + [s]; *John* + [z]). Again, the phonological rules of regressive assimilation that applied when adjoining pluralizers to singular nouns can now also be applied when applying the genitive morpheme.

**4th stage (Integration of Phonology, Morphology, and Syntax)**

One final example of how the different structural systems interact in terms of the acquisition of word final sibilants is in the phenomenon of the contracted copula, that is *'s*, in both simple and progressive form. As seen previously, the form of the verb is determined by the head of the noun phrase preceding the verb, such that (1) with the head *toy* took a singular verb form *is* and (2) with the head *wings* took a plural verb form *are*. A further rule that children must also learn when it comes to the English copula is that the singular form *is* may either appear in full form or contract with the preceding noun phrase as in (3) a. and b., in both simple present and progressive forms, respectively.

(3) a. *The toy's green.*

    b. *The toy's turning green.*

In both (3) a. and b., morphological and syntactic operations have taken place to yield agreement between the singular subject and the verb. The contraction of the copula incorporates the level of phonology into the equation whereby assimilation of the regressive type is applied to the word final sibilant just as we have seen that it does for pluralization, formation of the genitive, and third person present tense singular forms. In both (3) a. and b., [z] has been applied because the diphthong [oi] in *toy* is voiced. If the word were *cat,* however, [s] would have been the allophone selected.

### III. CONCLUSIONS

As seen in the preceding sections, certain themes surrounding the structural components or levels of language as they are acquired by children can be used to illustrate how these components function individually as well as in an integrated fashion in the adult target language. The author would argue that presenting the components in such a way has the desirable effect of anchoring students throughout otherwise unconnected units and does so with an underlying theme. Another benefit to this approach is that it introduces the area of first language acquisition in an indirect way rather than trying to find a place for it in the syllabus to be covered as a separate unit. As mentioned at the beginning of this paper, the variety of interesting topics that already compete for coverage in an introductory linguistics course significantly reduce the possibilities of showcasing the acquisition topics suggested throughout the paper. Another advantage to such an approach is that it provides for some flexibility in terms of how much detail within each of the structural components may be presented. For example, although it is the author's personal choice not to include the coverage of phonetic or phonemic transcription when teaching these components in his introductory classroom, the approach itself does not preclude the ability to do that.

Finally, presenting the basic structural components of language through the concepts of language acquisition is a vehicle to demonstrate how language works as a whole. Most introductory linguistics textbooks relegate the concept of UG to part of an overall discussion about the different definitions of the word grammar. The author would argue that the concept becomes not only easier to explain but more meaningful as well when approached in terms of first language acquisition because as students proceed through each of the different levels they are more naturally impressed with the notion of preprogramming of humans for language.

In closing, the author would have to admit that this approach is not for everyone. After all, students of linguistics come in all shapes, sizes, and agendas. Some students are language majors and are used to studying grammar and might find such a course too basic, others who take the course as an elective, however, might find such organization of a class ideal. The idea behind the structure of a class as proposed here is to appeal to a broader audience of students whose purpose of taking introductory linguistics is not to master the International Phonetic Alphabet or become experts in dividing words into their morphological parts. Its goal is much broader and that is to provide a basic understanding and appreciation for the nature and power of human language.

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# The Traveller Forum: An Advice-seeking Site Contributing to the Construction of Parental Social Actors and to On-line Parental Bond Creations[*]

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*Abstract*—This paper studies how parental social actors and co-parental relationships are interactively constructed in traveller forums, analysing a corpus obtained from the London for Kids Trip Advisor forum, and carrying out a qualitative study of the interactants' uses of kids in their choice of transitivity patterns. Starting from a Critical Discourse Analytical methodological framework and from corpus-driven research, I address the question of how participants are endowed with authority and legitimation in parenting matters while engaged in this advice-seeking site. The results point at the emergence of inter-subjective role creations of parenting social actors, of instances of co-parental intrusion or complicity, whose legitimation and investment with authority often falls back on cultural and in general stereotypical presuppositions. The study is of interest for the tourist industry in general. Offering rich, authentic and often unsolicited customer feedback, forums are recognised to provide a cost-effective method to assess the quality of tourist services and consequently improve travellers' real demands. Through this research, the tourist industry may become aware of how parents construct and project themselves discursively as consumers of touristic services, and adapt these findings to their marketing interests..

*Index Terms*—critical discourse analysis, corpus study, traveller forum, inter-subjective discursive identity creation, social actor, collaborative web

## I. Introduction

This article studies the discursive behaviour of participants in traveller forums. Among the rich variety of cyber-genres, also known as internet, digital, virtual, electronic or web-based genres (see e.g., Shepherd & Watters, 1998, 2004; Varga, 2011; Yus, 2001), the forum stands out for its important possibilities to intervene in an emergent collaborative web culture (Bruns, 2008): In the context of tourism, traveller forums offer particularly rich characteristics, supplying personal travel information, evaluations, analysis of customer preferences, an important variety of authentic and often unsolicited information (Bing et al., 2007), which promotional touristic genres in their marketing processes can importantly benefit from. The study of how parents through their interactive behaviour in forums construct a parental social actor for themselves and the other participating parents, offers the tourist industry an authentic characterization of the parents' identification both as a parent and as a touristic consumer that other promotional genres within the tourism industry can rely on for a more effective marketing activity.

### A. The Traveller Forum and Its Participation Framework

The forum can be referred to as a task-oriented community (Porter, 2004), a site for interaction where the participants' communicative behaviour is not only geared towards an exchange of information, values and beliefs, but which does also conform to a transactional objective. There is an attempt to obtain – in any case complete – information that will eventually satisfy specific requests.

In the context of tourism, this participation framework often translates into travellers seeking advice on travel-related topics, which are addressed to a hypothetically expert audience, whose voluntary engagement in this web genre favours a dialectics of contrast, discussion and sometimes even contestation. As stated by Calvi (2010), we are in front of an informal genre, where "the tourist turns into an expert" (p. 23) while exchanging opinions and making evaluations. Anonymousness, the virtual location of the event, in fact the asynchronous nature of this computer mediated discourse behaviour, favours an interplay of support and sociability, endowing the threads with a sense of coherence and continuity (see e.g. Fayard & De Sanctis, 2005; Herring, 2004, 2010; Yus, 2001; Santini, 2007; Shepherd, Watters & Kennedy, 2004; Blanchard, 2004 for a detailed characterization). Yus (2001) would accordingly make reference to this

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employing the concept of social glue, a characteristic that can be mapped onto that of discursive cohesion, to grasp the underlying conceptual bond between textual and social elements, tied together through criteria of shared and co-dependent meaningfulness, which participants create and maintain. Participants in forums also share a similar power status, which turns the genre into an important source of data. Being commercially unbiased, these data can be used by the tourism agents to know the real demands of tourists (Suau-Jiménez, 2014). Tourism web genres, which partake of the greatest hypertext so far, the World Wide Web, can be seen as multidimensional phenomena, where roles are easily exchanged as may easily overlap. Koskensalo (2012) talks about concepts such as prosumer, where the roles of producer and consumer blend, or that of produser, where the participant in the touristic discourse practice is producer and user at the same time. In traveller forums, parents engage both as consumers of touristic services but also as parents. While interacting in the forum, they address another hypothetically more expert tourist in travelling matters but also seek out the complicity or simply the voice of other people projecting themselves as parents.

*B.  Aim of This Study*

As Thurlow and Jaworski (2011) observe, tourism is fundamentally semiotic in nature, and an intensely social business. It is interesting to highlight through this study how this touristic discourse practice shapes and projects parental social actors, as well as co-parental bonds.

The point of departure of the present study is to analyse the discursive construction of a social actor "parent" encoded through the use of the lemma kids according to specific choices made of transitivity patterns (Halliday, 1985) in the traveller forum (specifically, Trip Advisor). The paper attempts to disclose and produce an awareness of the parental social actors that are interactively constructed in this discourse practice. Taking into consideration tourism's powerful role in reshaping cultural practices and establishing ideologies of difference (Favero, 2007), the study may contribute to unveiling forms of projection of cultural presuppositions of parental legitimation or authorisation. The study seeks to reveal how participants are endowed with authority and legitimation in parenting matters.

The discursive creation of social actors is essential to our understanding of social interaction of all types, and calls forth concepts such as linguistic realization and emergence of personal agency, as well as that of inter-subjective discursive identity creation. As Al Zidjaly (2009: 178) points out, agency is "an interactive achievement" which can be referred to as "the socioculturally mediated capacity to act" or, as Van Leeuwen (2007) would phrase it, as how participants engage conversationally, legitimizing and/or endowing with authority their interactant's agentive role, thereby continually updating the projection of specific social actors in discourse behaviour.

Interactants engage in communicative behaviour, "deconstructing the participants into the social roles they undertake" (Al Zidjaly, 2009, p. 177) in accomplishing a task. This understanding of agency as a co-constructed and continually negotiated category requires an understanding of the discursive (re-)creation of identity in terms of an inter-subjective activity. A dynamic approach to the concept of identity itself, which is understood as enclosing a meaning potential (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997), which undergoes transformation in an interactive and reflexive social reality, where self-representation and projection is exposed to and contested by the self-representation and projection of the interactants. While projecting a specific social actor in one's communicative practice, the speaker does also partake of several role identities that he/she may consciously or inadvertedly embrace in the unfolding of the discourse behaviour. This viewpoint that draws on the principles underlying Interactional Sociolinguistics (e.g., Goffman, 1981), contributes to an understanding of a dynamic identity creation, with cultural frameworks and interpretative repertoires available to the participant, which will allow the interactant to align with, contest or resist specific stances of identity creation (see e.g., Hall, 1996; Wetherell & Potter, 1988; Brubaker & Cooper, 2000).

Dichotomizations of alignment, mostly drawn from the field of Social Psychology, contribute to an understanding of this dynamic approach to the discursive (re-)creation of social actors, where the interactant is understood to grasp different senses of the self, embracing invariably traits of a collective vs. personal identity, assimilating or differentiating him/herself from a role projection or excluding/including the self from a role representation. This interactive achievement has led linguists (e.g., Van Leeuwen, 1996) to conceive of a taxonomy of socio-semiotic categories in the creation of social actors and a corresponding proposal of linguistically encoded categories, which can be traced in the ensuing discourse practice, through the particular choices of lexical entries, syntactic patterns and attribution of semantic and pragmatic value.

It is important to note, as Heller (2003) would observe, that new information and service-based industries have led to the commodification of language and identity (see also Coupland (2007) for further discussion on language and identity being used as strategic styling resources). This is particularly the case of the tourist industry. Representations of identities, goods, places, abstract ideas, coveted aims, are integral to it. "Symbols, images, signs, phrases and narratives provide the ideas that fuel the commodification and consumption of tourist sites" (Hallett & Kaplan-Weinger, 2010, p. 114).

This commodification practice, which the new media in general and specific formats in particular within the context of computer-mediated communication have largely encouraged and strengthened, endows tourism with a powerful role in reshaping cultural practices, establishing ideologies of difference, and perpetrating unequal relations of power, as Favero (2007) interestingly highlights.

## II. METHODOLOGY

As mentioned before, I start from the assumption that the interactants who engage in the discursive activity of the traveller forum, besides embracing more or less expert versus lay social roles in touristic matters, do project and interactively negotiate and update parental social actor roles for themselves. At the same time they do also project a role-relationship, a continually negotiated parental bond between the intervening social actors. My research interest lies primarily in identifying the actual shape that the specific linguistic choices will unveil as regards this twofold role representation. I do, however, also question how far and in what ways the discourse practice renders examples of encoding of an identity "child" through the interactive construction of parental social actors and bonds.

*A.  Research Framework*

For the present study I have relied on corpus-driven research as well as on the methodological framework of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). Within this broad interdisciplinary research framework I have used Van Leeuwen's (1996, 2007) Social Actor theory and applied Halliday's (1985) transitivity system.

As to corpus-driven research, it provides the analyst both with a large-scale systematization of choices of patterns, and with an interesting tool for highlighting variation. Corpus methodologies prove interesting approaches when it comes to describing linguistic forms in context, their common collocates, as well as their distribution and variation patterns, (see e.g., McEnery & Wilson, 1996; Baker, 2006; Stubbs, 2001; Partington, 2003). Baker (2006) adds an important observation when alluding to the potential of corpus studies to "uncover how language is employed, often in quite subtle ways, to reveal underlying discourses" (p. 13). This capacity for unravelling other underlying discourses is what Critical Discourse Analysis benefits from, as it draws on corpus methodologies. This field of research, as Fairclough (e.g. 1999) observes, aims to provide a framework for systematically linking properties of texts to features of their social and cultural circumstances. "Particular discursive events…are described in terms of the potentially innovative ways in which they draw upon the orders of discourse which condition them." (Fairclough, 1999, pp. 79-80). At the very heart of CDA lies an interest in uncovering ideological assumptions, hypothetical forms of bias, all of which start from a problematization of the discourse practice under study, a concept made salient by Foucault (1994). From the perspective of CDA, the very notion of identity is endowed with this problematization, where instances of imposed, recovered or conquered identity creations may be highlighted. This approach substitutes an essentialist view of identity for a dynamic category (see Grad & Mart ń-Rojo, 2008, p. 23). Van Leeuwen's (1996) research in the field of CDA into the discursive creation of social actors shows that these socio-semantic representations are not conventionally tied to specific realizations. Rather, specific categories for the classification of social actors proved to be liable to the paralleled with specific choices at the level of syntax and lexis. His study allows us to consider specific lexico-grammatical patterns of choice potentially being mapped onto their correlating attribution of socio-semantic meaning.

Halliday's (1985) transitivity system proved to be an essential cornerstone to turn to, inasmuch as the components of participants, process and circumstances are integrated in the clause understood as a semantic representation of experience. This ideational meaning conceives of a framework that allows for the specific semantic projections of participant roles. From a critical discourse analytical perspective, Van Leeuwen's (1996) socio-semantic categorization for representational choices can well be mapped onto Halliday's grammatical categorization, where specific lexico-grammatical clause constructions can be paralleled with the identification of specific social actors, (re-) created and continuously updated in the discursive behaviour in forums.

*B.  Material and Procedure*

For the present study I relied on a section of the corpus of our research team's database, the scope of which has been delimited according to criteria of corpus representativeness and validity. Of course, criteria of size and balance have also been attended to (see e.g., Atkins, Clear & Ostler, 1992; Biber, 1995). This led me to a total of 189 complete threads retrieved from the travel forum Trip Advisor, more specifically from The Trip Advisor's forum London for Kids (http://www.tripadvisor.co.uk/SearchForums?q=London+for+kids) that is known to engage parents seeking for advice when travelling with their children. Every thread, variable in length, represents a complete interactive communicative event, inasmuch as it is framed by a marked initiation, when a participant joins the forum seeking to satisfy some request, and is terminated once all other prospective participants joining voluntarily to respond no longer engage in the interactive activity. These would yield a total amount of 136.256 words.

To prove my research objective, I carried out a qualitative analysis. A concordancing tool (AntConc3.2.) was used to trace systematic choices that could account for linguistic encodings of how parents negotiate and do interactively update their parental role. This was done considering parental role creations with respect to their children and in terms of co-parental bonding between the intervening participants in the forum.

I needed the concordancing tool to identify occurrences of clauses with kids in subject position, which would allow me to identify through the choice of the transitivity patterns at issue, the discursive projections the parents make as to the participant roles for their children. To guarantee homogeneity of the corpus, it was important to restrict our samples to the encodings of the participant role of children to the form kids, as other word choices such as children, teens, boys, girls or their singular counterparts could have yielded different results. The decision of restricting this study to the form kids (the collective role representation) and hence exclude other forms for the representation of the social actor "child", as would typically be its singular form kid or the forms children or child, strictly obeys to reasons of scope of the present paper.

## III. ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Following our analysis, the most outstanding choice of representational process proved to be that of mental processes of affection, the parents projecting their children (kids, my kids, our kids) as Sensers. Some examples:

Kids absolutely **loved** Covent Garden
My kids **love** the London Aquarium
My kids **loved** it [Disneyland]
Our kids **enjoyed** [the Tower of London]
Both of our kids **enjoyed** Windsor
The kids **like** castles
Kids really **seemed to be having fun**
The kids **like** to see it [Madame Tussaud's]

Encoded in the verbs *love, enjoy, like*, the parents' clause construction places their children as agents of the expression of their own feelings and emotions. The use of past tense reinforces the fact of the feelings at issue having actually taken place and being recorded, there being proof of the enjoyment. Intensifiers, on the other hand (really, absolutely), do as well enhance the retrievable nature of the emotion. This unveils a strongly manifest parental presence: while placing their children as grammatical agents of these process representations, the parents do also legitimize themselves as omniscient knowers of their childrens' emotional experiences. It is interesting to note that the objects of these mental processes of affection are mostly names of so-called touristic icons, or also typically labelled "must-see" places such as Disneyland, London Aquarium, the Kew Garden, Covent Garden, Windsor, The Tower of London. The parental association as co-knower of the kids' emotional preferences seems to be restricted by the object of the affection, but it is also noteworthy that this bond excludes as well other mental processes such as cognition or perception, which are inexistent in the corpus.

A considerable amount of the mental affection processes enacted by the parents, with *kids* as grammatical agents, are framed by the use of the modal verbs *might, would* and *will*. *Might* being the most representative one (importantly outnumbering the uses with *may)*, alludes to a parent who positions him/herself at a certain emotional distance from his/her children's perceptive role as Sensers, and hence also preferences in matter of tastes, tentatively referring to the children's objects of affection. These are here no longer names of touristic icons but names of other touristic places, noun or verb phrases which refer to specific activities. Some examples:

Kids **might also enjoy** a river cruise…
Kids **might also enjoy** a day walking the city walls
Kids **might like** a toy routemaster bus
Kids **might like** the ghost walks…
Kids **might like** to see that too [bike tricks]

It is interesting to observe, while considering the attitude markers through modality, that there is a very low number of uses with *can,* or *could*. As opposed to the scarce four examples found in our forum corpus, the choice with these modal verbs would be the most represented one in the corpus of touristic websites (see Dolón, 2012), endowing the kids with the agentive role of somebody with possibilities of choice.

Kids **can catch** a glimpse
Kids **can enjoy** some attractions
Kids **can sit** (outside) with you
Kids **could see** the active volcano

This infrequent, scarce choice (no matter the clause representation at issue) may convey the parental recreation, shared by the other parent participants to the forum, of a social actor *kids* that is devoid of any power of decision or choice.

While the first mentioned examples of mental processes of affection without modal pre-modification made often reference to recorded experiences in the past, projected hence as 'proved', the uses with *will* represent counterpart processes, looking instead into the future in its non-specific scope of embracing meanings of hypothesizing and promising. Some examples:

Kids **will simply LOVE** the bus and tube system
If your kids **will enjoy** the underground tour
Your kids **will have a ball** – mine loved using the underground
Your kids **will like** it
The kids **will love** gifts from Hamley's
Kids **will love** Disneyland
Kids **will love** the sleeper [train]

This prospective representation endowed with a sense of promise and truth value seems to convey the same associative function where the parent closes in on the child in his/her role as Senser, the modal verb *will* reinforcing the parents' authority to ascertain his/her child's affectionate perceptions. It is interesting to point out that these processes are constructed along generic representations of the agentive role *kids,* in all cases used without determiner, as opposed

to the counterpart examples of parents reporting a past, consumed mental experience, projecting a specification of *kids*, identified with the article or possessive adjective: *the kids, my kids, our kids, both of our kids.*

As opposed to the uses with *might* and *will*, the first set projecting touristic activities encoded in noun phrases or other clauses, the latter highlighting singled out nominal concepts standing for elements of appeal (e.g.: gifts, the sleeper train, Disneyland), the uses with *would* turn out to reveal choices of more specific nature. Some examples:

Your kids **would love** the sharks

The kids **would love** the lights

The kids **would like** to be near a beach

This conditional meaning draws on a parental role representation that is tentative in its counseling function coinciding with explicit reference to the other parents and to non-stereotypical choices.

It is also interesting to note that the most abundant clause representation recreating mental processes of affection, does mainly rely on the verbs *love, like* and *enjoy*, while verbs of volition are only scarcely being used. In fact, only three examples could be traced:

My **kids** very much want to visit an awesome castle

6 adults and 2 **kids** wanna take in London for a day

(if) the **kids** want punting, consider Cambridge

This again reinforces the idea of the parents' insistence on portraying a representational discourse identity of their kids in forums in terms of Sensers.

Examples of clauses of mental affectionate perception with *kids* (with or without pre-modification) in grammatical position of agent are on average four times more frequent than those where the parent places him/herself as the subject of a clause of mental cognitive perception, framing its subsequent subordinate clause with *kids* being again the agent of a mental process of affectionate perception. Some examples:

**I think** your kids will be interested in 2-3 hour tour

**I think** the kids will be free

**I think** my kids will find that stuff very cool

**I'm not sure** if my kids will like the Tower of London

**I think** kids would like those

**I think** that most kids would like it

This subset, in spite of its low frequency in occurrences, represents an explicit grammatical encoding of emotional detachment on the part of the parent, hedging the children's affectionate choices through epistemic verbs. It is also in these uses that the kids are referred to not generically but singled out through determiners that range from defining article, quantifications, to possessive adjectives in most cases.

While it is true that the vast majority of examples of representative choices rely on mental processes of affectionate perception, examples of material, behavioural and verbal processes could also be identified. Some examples:

**Material processes:**
Kids **eat** breakfast for free.
and kids **eat** for free.
Kids **have breakfast** included.
The kids **had fish and chips**.

**Behavioural processes:**
The kids **get too tired.**
Kids over 11 are likely to **get bored silly** by Legoland
Kids **give up** after 3-4 hours (to make the castle too).
So kids **sleep** [with overnight flights]

**Mental processes:**
My adult kids **have heard** bad things about safety in this area. (perception)
My kids **have seen** the travelling exhibition of King Tut's (perception)
If your kids **have watched** Hunchback of Notre Dame (perception)
(you) will have kids **have your thought** about Disneyland Paris? (cognition)

**Verbal processes:**
My kids **have been asking** to go to a show.

Material processes situate kids as engaged actors involved in their own doings. Interestingly enough, most examples are related to eating, which alludes to a low degree of parental intrusion on the kids' activity arena, this being furthermore restricted to matters of food consumption. More instances can be found of behavioural processes drawing on stereotypical 'unmarked' travelling behavior. Verbal processes constitute rare occurrences with only one example being traced. This contributes to the discursive creation of a parental social actor in traveler forums as depriving his/her child from authority in terms of having a saying, a voice that is being listened to. As Van Leeuwen (2007, p. 94) points out referring to Halliday (1985), personal authority legitimation takes the form of a verbal process clause, very often recreated in issues related to parental or teacher authority.

The large body of corpus samples representing processes of affection, with kids *loving, liking, enjoying*, contrasts with but a few examples of *kids* being the agents of mental processes of perception (watch, see, hear) and just a single case of cognition (have your thought). Parents seem to feel entitled to interact in travel forums enacting their children's agentive role principally in their social role as Sensers, and minimally projecting them in their cognitive role as Thinkers.

A different section of samples comprises forms of relational process types. This representational choice may establish relationships of sameness, when two identities are equaled, define an entity in terms of location, time and manner (circumstantial process) or indicate ownership (Halliday, 1985). Van Leeuwen (1996, p. 54) hints at the underlying potential of relational processes for the legitimation of social actors and their practices in discursive behaviour. Hence, they constitute an important element of analysis. All the samples of the corpus were found to recreate patterns of sameness. On the one hand, identification was represented alongside issues of age. Some examples:

Your kids **are** not of the age [stay in rooms by themselves]

My kids **were** younger

The kids **are** older now

The kids **were** very young

These are important, inasmuch as their use complies with the generic nature of the traveller forum, initially framed as child-oriented where it makes perfect sense to exchange information whose content will very much depend on the variable of age.

Another series is made up of evaluative adjectives or evaluative comments. Some of these highlight the childrens' tastes and preferences. Some examples:

Kids **are** huge fans of…

My kids **are** very picky

If your kids **are** into the movie

Your kids **are** not into museums

The kids **were** lukewarm about the idea of…

The semantic characteristics that are made salient range from acceptance, refusal to neutrality, avoiding lexical entries that would recreate strong emotional involvement on the part of the parent or over-specification. Yet a third group implies a stronger intrusion on the part of the parent, whose projection of relational clauses conceives of the identification of the kids with adjectives or nouns of evaluative nature, invoking issues of endurance, traveller know-how and so-called proper behaviour. Some examples:

My kids **were** complete troopers

My kids **are** good travelers

The kids **are** actually pretty good [not cranky]

Your kids **are** good in crowds

Remember the kids sometimes **are** cranky

These uses draw on presuppositions of moral standing, where a child deserving the label of good traveller has to comply with underlying traditional values of not complaining and following the pace and rhythm 'imposed' by their parents. This type of legitimation may have a 'naturalizing effect' (Van Leeuwen, 2007, p. 99) leading to an unquestioned acceptance of truth values traditionally associated with it.

Legitimation of social practices may be realized through purpose constructions, containing an activity, a purpose link and the purpose itself." (Van Leeuwen, 2007, pp. 100-103). Some examples:

Visit Louvre **for your kids to** find out where is Mona Lisa

(A ball is a cheap way) **for kids to** flock to other **kids**

(…old ruins) **for the kids to** run around in

(…great views and room) **for the kids to** wander

They've a playhouse **for kids to** spend some jolly good time

While our samples do not seem to rely on elements of moralization, it is worth looking into their use inasmuch as they are examples of instrumental rationalization, and as such "…are constructed in discourse in order to explain why social practices exist, and why they take the forms they do." (Van Leeuwen, 2011, p. 101). Interestingly enough, the activity that is highlighted in our examples takes the shape of material process representation. This invokes traditionally accepted values that stereotype healthy child behaviour as related to physical activity (wander, run around), their natural appeal to be with other kids (kids flock to other kids), a natural interest in playing (spend some jolly good time), and a need for experimentation along an impulse to satisfy their curiosity (find out where Mona Lisa is).

In our corpus, with *kids* in subject position, parents have proved to introduce their children into the forum dynamics in terms of *the kids* (definite article), zero modifier (kids) or possessive adjective (my, our kids). These being the most common choices, which do either project a generic label for kids or a sense of belonging with respect to the parents, there are other uses which identify kids relying on defining relative clauses, which have an interesting selection and grouping effect. Some examples:

Kids **who are** too young to stay out late,

Kids **who can** of course get involved themselves,

Kids **who don't spend** too much time in cathedrals,
Kids **who enjoy** a train ride more than flights,
Kids **who like** Harry Potter,

Through this choice, the parent alludes to the other parents' shared set of presuppositions, which hold for grouping their children under a label that would comprise a set of preferences in tastes or natural inclinations, which will eventually guarantee that the appropriate target group of children is being addressed while giving advice about what to do with his/her kids. In spite of their low occurrence, these examples reveal an interesting example of parental bonding in the forum, based on a sense of complicity around shared presupposed knowledge.

So far, parental bonding in the interactive engagement in our traveller forums proved to rely primarily on representational clause structures where the social actor *kids* stands in agentive position. These choices do importantly outnumber those where *kids* is put forward in a beneficiary participant function onto whom the process is projected. While these do barely represent 18% of the corpus, they are important to take into consideration, as they allow for revelation of what the parents in their interactive behaviour conceive of elements to affect and have an effect on their children. The most frequent pattern recreates a clause representation where *kids* is the direct object of a parental social actor encoded in a material process. This is furthermore exclusively expressed through the verb choices of *bringing* and *taking*. Some examples:

I'm **bringing** my three kids to London
I **brought** my kids to London
I also want to **take** my kids to watch Harry Potter
I **have taken** kids of all ages into London

Four further examples recreate patterns of *kids* in circumstantial position, to whom the touristic service in terms of a realizable activity or enjoyable touristic place is addressed:

(Chessington World of Adventures) **is more focused** at kids
(Blenheim Palace) **aimed specifically** at kids
Interactive displays that are **geared** towards kids
The place is very much **geared** towards kids

A specific set of uses is worth highlighting inasmuch as the participant parent explicitly interacts with other parents relying on a syntactic structure of appeal, encouraging or urging the other parents to carry out certain actions getting their children involved. These are imperative structures with direct appeal to an implicit you-subject:

**have a look** at the kids section in TimeOut London
**bring the kids,** they'll love the experience
**give at least a day** for the kids to work through some of the jet lag
[at British Museum] **be sure to get** the kids audio visual trail
**let your kids feed** the ducks in St James Park
**take the kids punting** at Cherwell Boathouse

These uses are of great interest, as they express a high degree of intrusion onto the other peers' parenting arena, the semantic representation of experience being assumed as legitimate in this type of parental bonding. As the examples show, in addition to the most frequent choice, which translates in terms of making the kids access a pleasurable experience (e.g. bring, see to take, get to look, get our kids, take the kids…), there are also uses that invoke authority, the parent at issue requesting permissiveness on the part of his/her peer interactant (let your kids…). Recreating the same intentionality, two uses, with kids in agentive grammatical position, also exemplify a strong co-parental intrusion, imposing courses of action to be taken with respect to the raising of their kids:

Kids **should get out** and travel and experience…
Kids **need** breaks from museums

## IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The qualitative analysis of our corpus has provided us with interesting insights. Not only specifically about how the participants' engagement in the traveller forum reveals an interactively negotiated (re-) creation of a parenting role that starts on the one hand from the parent-child relationship and on the other hand from the parent-parent bonding. We have also managed to access the ways in which this participation framework in the context of the tourist industry sheds light on the nature of the forum as an advice-seeking site.

Only 18% of the uses were found with kids being the beneficiary participant role projected by the parents' contributions, as opposed to 82% with kids representing the agent of the process. These few occurrences with kids in beneficiary position do mostly recreate a role representation of the parents as actors involved in material processes, where the process translates in terms of taking and bringing the children to one place or other. This can be fundamentally referred to as an instrumental role that the parent projects with respect to the children. The other subset within this 18% samples, is mostly made up of process type representations which mean a strong co-parenting intrusion on the part of a parent into the other parents' arena of parental responsibilities. We are talking here of imperative structures highlighted before, where one parent explicitly encourages or even urges the other parent to carry out certain actions (e.g.: bring the kids, let the kids, take the kids). However strong this intrusion may be conceived of, it does not

draw on moralizing precepts, the co-parental intrusion being rather based on discrete tips where complicity can be presupposed.

On the other hand, 82% of the uses do start from kids in subject position, the most outstanding representational process being that of mental affection. These uses (kids enjoy, kids like,…) while recreating a social actor role for the child as agent of his/her own perception of feelings and emotions, do nonetheless convey a strong parental presence inasmuch as the parent legitimizes him/herself for talking on behalf of their children in matters that concern their offspring's feelings. While it is true that a few examples with kids being projected as Sensers is framed by the parents in subject position in the participant role of cognitive perceivers (I think the kids…, I believe the kids…) this emotional detachment on the part of the parent is only apparent, since these uses conform to a mere fifth part of the samples identified.

It is noteworthy at this stage to highlight the total lack of other mental processes with kids in subject position. While the children's projection as Sensers is the most frequent one, the parents while participating in the forum do not endow their children in their representational choices as agents of their own cognitions or perceptions, making them devoid of this agentive trait. The parents put forward an agentive role for their children when it comes to liking or enjoying touristic services, but not when it comes to cognitively evaluating these.

Another interesting observation makes reference to the few examples of kids represented by their parents as Doers in material processes or as Sayers in verbal processes. If we add to this that the few material processes mentioned revolve all around eating matters, we can conclude that the parents project a social role of their children as non-engaged in their own doings.

Relational processes, on the other hand, do again point to specific co-parental bond creations inasmuch as they allow the projection of evaluative expressions (the kids are…). Aside from the examples found in the corpus where relational processes simply obeyed the exchange of practical information (questions of age), we found important examples of co-parenting intrusion. These were typically found to recreate issues of children endurance, traveller know-how, the children's tastes and preferences. They were also found to draw on presuppositions of moral standing, and fall back on the compliance with underlying traditional values of what counts as being a good traveller. These uses have a naturalizing effect, where participating parents are led to start from a truth-value traditionally and culturally assigned to them.

Despite this moral standing that might be highlighted, none of the representational choices could be said to have a moralizing effect or purpose in the interactive behaviour. Even in the purpose constructions, which were found to project an activity advisable for the kids to be carried out, these invoke traditionally accepted values that call forth stereotypical healthy child behaviour (the children's inclination to play with other kids, to satisfy their curiosity, to develop a natural interest in playing).

To further summarise our findings, we can say that parents project, while engaged in the forum's interactive activity, a parental bond with their children that turns these into agents of their feelings and emotions as the most outstanding social role (that is Sensers, as opposed to Thinkers, Doers, Speakers or Perceivers). On the other hand, they feel entitled to speak on behalf of their children's emotions, something which does as well deprive them from any agentive status.

In addition to these, co-parenting representations could also be highlighted, where the participants intrude on their parent counterpart's arena, intervening in a more or less direct way in the parenting tasks. This was found to be especially articulated through allusion to other parents' shared set of presuppositions: Drawing on traditionally accepted evaluations for what counts or not as being a good travelling behaviour for kids, such as keeping up with the parents' pace, not complaining and others mentioned before. Another way of articulating this co-parenting was accounting for allusions to presuppositions related to natural child behaviour, invoking character traits that are culturally and stereotypically related to "normal" child behaviour, as is the child's natural appeal to physical activity, to the need for experimenting, to play with other kids or to satisfy their curiosity. The strongest forms of intrusion having been traced are the direct appeals to the other parents to carry out certain activities with their respective kids, using imperative structures. This discursive behaviour was also found to rely on stereotypical actions (let your kids decide, leave the kids with grandparents). What is interesting about these representational choices is that they mark instances of complicity rather than representing any patronising behaviour.

These findings are also interesting when we consider these representations across different touristic genres, where the projection of parental and co-parental social actors in the discursive behaviour is based on different constructions. This is the case, for example, of the study of webpages, where the discourse practice was found to recreate a social actor parent that differs importantly from this genre (see Dolón, 2012).

It would be of great interest to continue studying these representations in travel brochures, travel guides, guidebooks, travelogues, and other touristic genres to unveil forms of discursive creation of parental roles and bonds. Given the fact that these often rely, as shown in this study, on cultural presuppositions, stereotypes or discursive creations of roles and forms of authority and legitimation, they may well deserve revisiting to consider, if it is the case, alternative emancipatory forms of discursive behaviour.

These types of study can have important implications for the tourist industry. This is especially the case when we look into promotional touristic genres that have a highly persuasive component in the discourse practice, such as hospitality websites (hotels, restaurants, etc.) or touristic guides. As was proved before (see Dolón, 2012) official tourist

websites, for example, project a social actor parent with importantly biased stereotypical presuppositions that do frequently not coincide and often clash with the social actors parents construct themselves in forums. Thus, the tourist industry should be aware of how parents construct and project themselves linguistically through the traveller forums and integrate these discursive practices into their own promotional discourse cross-generically, especially in those genres being addressed to family tourism, in order to adapt them to their marketing interests.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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# The Clash of Gendered Referents in Mary Wollstonecraft's *A Vindication of the Rights of Men*

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*Abstract*—**Whenever critics talk about Mary Wollstonecraft's commitment to feminism, they very often turn to her *A vindication of the rights of woman* for illustration. Her *A vindication of the rights of men* is rarely referred to in this regard, though it constitutes the conceptual basis of her later reflection on gender power relationships. Taking its bearings from Mikhail Bakhtin's (1999) dialogic theory of discourse and the sociological theorization of space developed by Jurgen Habermas (2010) in his *The structural transformation of the public Sphere*, this paper argues that *A vindication of the rights of men*, much more than its sequel *A vindication of the rights of woman* is the one discursive space wherein Wollstonecraft clashes with the best male brains of her time (Burke, Rousseau, etc). The clashes concerned include, though not entirely confined to British constitutional history, the bourgeois family, aesthetics, and the impact of civilization on the shaping of the new society heralded by the French Revolution.**

*Index Terms*—**Wollstonecraft, Burke, dialogism, French Revolution, feminism, Rights of Men**

## I. INTRODUCTION

The French Revolution (1789-1799) and the debate it generated about the rights of man among liberal circles and radicals such as: Joseph Price, Joseph Johnson, Thomas Paine, and William Godwin prepared for the re-emergence of the feminist voice and presence in the public sphere at the turn of the eighteenth century. A century earlier, the Glorious Revolution had allowed for the development of similar feminist concerns in Britain. If two British women authors have to be chosen as representatives of the redeployment of emancipation discourse against the exclusion of females from the public sphere during these two critical periods, Mary Astell and her namesake Mary Wollstonecraft will certainly come to mind. Just as Astell had appropriated the prevalent libertarian discourse of the Glorious Revolution in defence of women's emancipation in works like *Some reflections upon marriage*, Wollstonecraft in *A vindication of the rights of men* borrowed similar conceptual bases from the rhetoric developed around the French Revolution to dislodge the separation of the private from the public sphere in the bourgeois patriarchal order. This parallel will not be continued here, for Wollstonecraft's work alone is sufficient for arguing the point that the circulation of emancipation discourse in revolutionary times is often appropriated by committed female authors for abrogating the empire of man over woman by widening male thinkers' claims for man's liberation to include that of woman. The widening of claims across gender lines often takes the shape of what Bakhtin calls a "clash over referents" such as gendered spaces, aesthetics, history, and the patriarchal family. To date, Wollstonecraft's feminist commitments have been discussed in relation to her *A vindication of the rights of woman*, overlooking the crucial place that her *A vindications of the rights of men* holds in her discussion of human rights across the gender lines. It is particularly in this work that on can see at work how the writer appropriates the prevalent, contemporary, male discourses about aesthetics, civilization, the family, and history in order to abrogate the major presumptions underlying the exclusion of women from the nascent political kingdom. Through both hidden and overt polemics, Wollstonecraft subverts the gendered discourse of her male contemporaries speaking in defense of gender-inclusive human rights and freedoms.

## II. DISCUSSION

For a proper discussion of Wollstonecraft's feminist outlook, it would be more convenient to consider the principles or conceptual bases from which she tried to dismantle female sensibility as an ideology of femininity. This engagement is best revealed in *A vindication of the rights of men*, published in the form of serialized letters in Joseph Johnson's *Analytical review* in the last months of 1790 before being published anonymously in December of the same year. It was written in prompt response to Edmund Burke's *Reflections on the revolution in France* that appeared on 1 November 1790. Wollstonecraft's immediate rejoinder to Burke's essay was followed up by Paine's *The rights of man* (1791) and Godwin's *Political justice* (1793). The publication of these essays, sometimes in several reprints, and their wide

circulation reveal the climate of heated debate triggered by the French Revolution among political circles with various political affiliations concerned with the nature and the directions that the revolution then going on across the Channel could take. Most of the debate turned around whether or not the French Revolution was similar to the Glorious Revolution. Some radical thinkers saw the former as a historical completion of the latter, whilst some liberals and conservatives denounced this as mere political confusion. The polemics that arose between Dr Price and Burke is representative of the debate about the French Revolution.

A dissenter, Dr. Price, under whose tutorship Wollstonecraft came to place herself, regarded the French Revolution as part and parcel of a providential history or plan for the completion of the thwarted human emancipation project set off by Glorious Revolution in 1689. In his various interventions in favour of the French Revolution, Price legitimized suppression of priesthood and hereditary political power, and the placement of the civil authority under the rule of reason. For him, that rule of reason on which the Glorious Revolution was originally founded was turned into mere custom and traditionalism in the hands of post-revolutionary political establishment in Britain. The French Revolution was nothing else than a rehabilitation of reason as a principle of government. Holding a strikingly different view about the history of these two revolutions, Burke dismissed in harsh terms Price for mixing genres, and the French revolutionaries for the abstract principles on which they had based their theory of revolution. The denunciation was carried out in the name of the British Constitution and prescriptive rights, both of them fashioned by a long historical development culminating in the moderate political settlement of the Glorious Revolution. For Burke, Price's providential history smacks of a leveling tendency that makes him kith and kin with both those French preaching aberrant "abstractions" about liberty, equality and freedom, and the ancestral Roundheads who had beheaded Charles I during the English Civil War in the 1640s. There was no comparison whatever to be made between the political and social situation in Britain and the one prevailing in France in the last decade of the eighteenth century, because the two countries were at significantly different stages of their historical development. The abuses of rank and status of the Old Regime the French were rebelling against had already been righted peacefully a century earlier in Britain through the imposition of a system of rights and duties. Through an astute "misreading" of British history, Burke elevates the English Monarchy and the Anglican Church, whose status quo Price wanted to undermine, into national symbols of Englishness. The belonging to the English nation, Burke suggests, is largely determined by the degree of reverence shown to these symbols, hence the implication that radicals like Price do not deserve to belong to that nation because of their affiliation with the French revolutionaries.

Given the prevalence of the separate spheres at the century's end in France and Britain, it is remarkable that Wollstonecraft dared at all to intervene publicly in the Price vs. Burke argument taking sides against the latter in defence of political rationalism and rational morality that Burke sought to undermine by his critique of the French Revolution. As can be expected, her strong commitment to these principles did not fail to relegate her to the margins of the nation. Homi K. Bhabha (1990) defines nationalism as "an idea whose cultural compulsion lies in the impossible unity of the nation" (p.1). He adds that the "location" of national culture is neither unified nor unitary in relation to itself, nor must it be seen simply as "other" in relation to what is outside or beyond it" (p.4). What Bhabha underlines is that "othering" happens simultaneously inside and outside the national boundaries with the imagining of the national community as a masculine character and the other inside and outside as feminine. Nationalism "engenders" more than it dislodges gender, and that largely explains that women were deeply divided as to the position they must observe towards the French Revolution. While some of them like Mary Wollstonecraft, Catherine Macaulay Graham, and H. M. Williams transgressed gender boundaries in voicing their own opinion in favour of human emancipation, others like Laeticia Matilda Hawkins sought to consolidate the political establishment. Hawkins's admonishment to Williams who wrote letters from France in defence of the Revolution are quite illustrative of the point we want to make:

But the points of 'A King or No King A Nobility or no Nobility?' [a title of one of her letters] are not those, my dear madam, which I mean to discuss with you. I would rather convince you that they are points neither you nor I can discuss with propriety or success; that there is but one side a female can take in politics, without injuring the feminine character. (Quoted in Jones, p.117)

Obviously, for Hawkins, politics is beyond women's ken, and it would be pretentious and injurious for her femininity to enter the public sphere of politics. Interwoven in this discourse is the traditional division between the good and the bad sort of femininity.

As already pointed out, Wollstonecraft did not only intrude into the public sphere of political activity but dared to argue with one of the most distinguishable British statesmen of the time. Her feminism is a militant feminism in the sense that she did not write for an academic audience as some feminists are prone to do, but for the public at large to fashion their opinion as to the importance of the rights of men that Burke tried to stifle in the name of the political establishment. So what are the major arguments that she leveled against the conservative Burke, and in what style she made them? In addressing her *A vindication of the rights of men* directly to Burke, Wollstonecraft disregarded one of the most important foundations of the ideology of femininity in the eighteenth century, which is modesty. Written in the epistolary mode, the book gives the impression that Wollstonecraft is a rebelling daughter who has decided to speak the truth to a conservative father of the nation who stands as an obstacle to the advance of the rights of men. Diane Long Hoeveler (1998) sees Wollstonecraft as the one woman essayist who, by her *A vindication of the rights of woman* (1792) laid down the aesthetic theory for the writing of women's gothic fiction such as the one produced by Anne Radcliff and

the Brontёs. Though one could agree with Hoeveler as to the influence that Wollstonecraft might have exerted on the writing of women's gothic fiction, the source of influence cannot be circumscribed solely to *A vindication of the rights of woman* as Hoeveler has done in her analysis. It includes *A vindication of the rights of men*. Indeed, it is in this latter work that the principles of Gothic feminism were at first formulated to be later refined and revised in its sequel *A vindication of the rights of woman*, all in accordance to the historical evolution of politics in France and England. If gothic feminism, as Hoeveler claims, is marked by a struggle between aggressive heroines and tyrannical fathers and decadent aristocratic and priestly figures, who are symbolically wounded and humanized before readmitted as friendly companions to women, it is in A vindication of the rights of man that such psychological dramatization has to be sought.

Wollstonecraft's personal drama played up against the background of the controversial debate over the French Revolution in *A vindication of the rights of men* resembles in many respects the dramas developed in gothic fictions by Anne Radcliff's *The mysteries of Udolpho* and Charlotte Bronte's *Jane Eyre*. The verbal thrusts that Wollstonecraft directs at Burke the surrogate father in the domestic sphere (home and country) announces both the two gun shots that the gothic villain, Valencourt, receives in the Radcliff's fiction, and the blinding and amputation that Rochester underwent in Charlotte Brontё 's *Jane Eyre*. Moreover, just as in gothic fiction, the heroine-author Wollstonecraft while involved in a symbolic character assassination of the bad fatherly figure Burke, makes Richard Price appear as the wished-for feminized, civilized or tamed father that she herself had not had in her real life. Just as gothic heroines of Radcliff and the Brontё s, Wollstonecraft proceeds to the purging of the bourgeois ethos and morality of aristocratic vices. However, in Wollstonecraft's essay, the heroine-author does not behave as a victim, the other side that Hoeveler identifies as another characteristic of the gothic heroine. Of the latter, Hoeveler (1998)writes that "by presenting herself as an innocent and suffering victim, by masquerading as the beleaguered heroine, the gothic feminist actually positions herself for the assault, shielded, of course, from the charge or even the impression that she is the aggressor" (p.14). It is rather of the assault on Burke that we read in Wollstonecraft's *A vindication of the rights of men*. Her personal drama, in which indeed she appears as a victim, transpires only as an implicit background that the reader has to fetch from auto/biographical information outside her "gothic" essay. On the other hand, as already suggested above, one can see at work a wished-for construction of a bourgeois family type at whose head is the feminized, civilized Richard Price. Metaphorically, the latter has put an end to the gendered economic disfranchisement by leaving an intellectual legacy to his adopted daughter (Wollstonecraft), thus metaphorically erasing the primogeniture law and patrimonialism (inheritance through the male) and patrinearity (naming practices).If Burke is chastened, it is because his attack against Price in defence of a dying aristocratic system has turned into character assassination of a wished-for civilized bourgeois father and a reshaped bourgeois family shorn off the excesses of the aristocratic order.

The ideal of 'masculinity' or rather 'manliness' is blatantly assumed by Wollstonecraft in the plural form of the noun "men" in the title of her book.  In her first argument, she tells this father of the nation (Burke) that "she has not learned to twist her periods" (Wollstonecraft, 1999, p.5), nor to indulge in innuendoes in expressing her argument, putting herself outside the boundaries of traditional womanhood for whom such outspokenness was synonymous with impudence. No sooner had she made this concession than Wollstonecraft launched her attacks on Burke by mustering such hurtful epithets as "vain," "doubtful integrity," "self-interest," "false wit," and "lively imagination" against his character. The major militant irony in her preliminary remarks is that Burke in his critique of the philosophical rationalism and rational morality on the grounds of which the French Revolution was launched did not "separate the public from the private" (p.5). His total disregard of self-government in the public sphere, Wollstonecraft tells Burke, paradoxically, makes his discourse sound as the discourse that he had already attributed to women in diverse writings of his. The lack of sincerity, irrelevance, and sentimentality are of some of its hallmarks. The idea is that Burke has involved himself in a gender switch with full knowledge, hence the liberty of tone that Wollstonecraft has taken with him in her assumption of manly attitudes in her discourse. This implied message in the medium of this discourse of gender permutations traverses the whole of the epistolary essay, investing Wollstonecraft with the authority to speak in the public sphere of politics.

Wollstonecraft's public authority expresses itself in the way she re-writes British constitutional history to deconstruct the hereditary rights that Burke elevates into rules of conduct at both the domestic and public spheres in total contempt of the abstract or natural rights of men based on reason. The major thread of her argument is that this constitutional history was driven not by the quest for freedom, as Burke tells us, but by the quest for hereditary property and hereditary honours pertaining to it. Wollstonecraft starts her history with a paraphrased reminder from John Locke's *Two Treatises of Government* to the effect that "the birthright of man […] is such a degree of liberty, civil or religious, as is compatible with the liberty of every other individual with whom he is united in a social compact, and the continued existence of that compact" (1996, p.7). She follows up by saying that contrary to Burke's affirmation as to its realization in Britain, this idea of freedom still remains an ideal to be sought for since it  had not  yet taken shape in the various governments known to man until then. Following in the footsteps of Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1989) who considers property as the bane of freedom, she in her turn claims that "the demon of property has ever been at hand to encroach on the sacred rights of men, and to fence round with awful pomp laws that war with justice" (p.7). For Wollstonecraft, this claim was true as far as one can go back in the history of civilization. The outrageous tone in which Wollstonecraft makes this claim seems to indicate the extent to which women were always regarded as property to be

fenced off in the manner of landed property. In this sense, Wollstonecraft announces what Frederick Engels would demonstrate later in the nineteenth century in his study of the origin of the family.

As if attempting to lay bare the textuality of Burke's constitutional history and dispel the aura of sanctity with which he surrounds some of the British institutions by invoking custom as practical reason against abstract reason, Wollstonecraft asks the following rhetorical question: "Will Mr. Burke be at the trouble to inform us, how far we go back to discover the rights of men, since the light of reason is such a fallacious guide that none but fools trust to its cold investigation" (p.9)? Following this, she takes the example of British constitutional history to illustrate the distortion to which Burke submits it in name of customs. For Wollstonecraft, these customs do not deserve at all to be objects of reverence or principles of conduct as understanding or reason, because at their basis is a history of compromises and political deals between the British Royalty, the Barons, and the Commons for the preservation of power and property at the expense of justice for the overtaxed people. Developed in the ages of ignorance, constitutional documents like Magna Charta are nothing more than naked power disguised as right sometimes in favour of the King, and at some other times in favour of Parliament and the Clergy. In defending customs, instead of abstract reason, Burke shows himself as a "champion of property [and] the adorer of the golden image which power has set up" (pp.11-12).

In his *Discourse on Inequality*, Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1999) writes that "The true founder of civil society was the first man, who, having enclosed a piece of land, thought of saying, 'This is mine, and came across people simple enough to believe him" (p.53).  Arguably, the portrayal that Wollstonecraft draws of Burke puts him in the category of these simpler-minded people. Even more so, he champions property and in the manner of the Jews of the *Exodus,* he renounces to the faith in freedom by becoming the worshipper of the golden cow. In the same book Rousseau follows up the quote above with the following words that describe the posture that Wollstonecraft adopted in her *A vindication of the rights of men*: "How many crimes, wars, murders and how much misery and horror the human race might have been spared if someone had pulled up the stakes or filled in the ditch, and cried out to his fellows: 'Beware of listening to this charlatan" (p.53). In its emphasis on crime, murders, wars, the text of Wollstonecraft's British history seems to have largely been shaped by Rousseau's view about the importance that inherited property assumed in human relationship in civil society. Her hard line against this kind of property sounds as if a manly "someone" at last in Britain had pulled up the stakes and cried out to his fellows: "Beware of listening to this Charlatan [Burke]." Rousseau's negative view of inherited property seems also to offer a philosophical foundation for Wollstonecraft's denunciation of the enclosures of the common lands near the end of *A vindication of the rights of men*, enclosures, which in her view, caused so much misery for a large proportion of British people.

The feminism of Wollstonecraft also appears in her pulling up the stakes from the public sphere of political activity and engaging a debate on whether property rights supersedes other rights  such the preservation of life,  protection by law and so on. In this polemical debate with Burke, Wollstonecraft strongly distinguished between inherited property and the acquired type of property. While the former is identified as being at the source of all the corruptions that undermine civil society by its encouragement of vices like luxury, idleness and softness, the latter is valued positively since it is the result of physical and intellectual exertion. Wollstonecraft is incensed that Burke belittles the acquired material property of the bourgeois class and the acquired intellectual property of such men as Dr Price, who even in France would have been elevated to the status of gentlemen, while he makes such a big case of the honours that inherited property confers on the nobility and the ecclesiastical orders. In short, by re-writing the constitutional history of Britain in the manner of Rousseau's Discourse of inequality, Wollstonecraft does not solely seek to undermine Burke's disavowal of the Enlightenment ideals of progress, perfectibility of men's rational capacities and the enlargement of freedom and human emancipation on which the French Revolution was launched. Apart from Rousseau, two philosophical sources are heavily drawn on in this evaluation of property: Locke and Gibbon. Whilst Wollstonecraft aligns herself with Locke in her claim that it is physical and intellectual work that confers value to property, she evokes Edward Gibbon's of *History of the decline and fall of the Roman Empire* in her emphasis on the moral decadence of the British nation or empire brought out by inherited property.

To use Bonnie S. Anderson and Judith P. Zinsser's (1988) paraphrase of Virginia Woolf's essay title *A room of one's own*, Wollstonecraft also writes a history of her own at the same as she re-writes British constitutional history. In interweaving her own personal history with her account of British constitutional history, Wollstonecraft prefigures twentieth century's radical feminists' slogan that the personal is political and the political is personal. One would argue that if Wollstonecraft is particularly sharp on inherited property and privileges, it is because she herself deeply suffered from the feudal law of primogeniture that made the eldest son the sole inheritor of the father's estate, thus excluding senior daughters and junior brothers from inheritance. This short life story can help explain the intersection of the personal with the political, or rather the slippage from communal history text to familial or private history. Wollstonecraft was born on the 27th of April 1759 in Spitalfields outside of London to a "dissipated and unthrifty" father who wasted his fortune by heavy drinking. According to Cracium Adriana (2002), still in her infancy, Wollstonecraft was deeply hurt by the favours piled on her junior brother Ned who as the eldest son was looked on as the sole heir to a dwindling family fortune out of which her two sisters and her were excluded on the basis of their sex. The feudal law of primogeniture was the gendered law that threw her on the road at the age of 19 in search for a means of livelihood to support herself and her dying mother. She moved all the way to Ireland, Portugal as a paid companion. When she came back home**,** she established a school that did not achieve remarkable success. In the course of this

eventful and hectic life she came across Richard Price, a dissenting minister and liberal intellectual and fellow of the Royal Society who advocated political and economic reform. Price not only nurtured her idealism but he also catered for the lack of a good parental or fatherly figure and in a way bequeathed her an intellectual legacy that she invested with a good return by working for Johnson's *Analytical review*.

As if in echo of her family and personal history, Wollstonecraft expostulates as follows: "Who can recount the unnatural crimes which the *laudable interesting* desire of perpetuating a name has produced" (p.21)? After which she lists the misery of younger children sacrificed on the altar of the eldest children, and exiled, or "confined in convents, that they might not encroach on what was called, with shameful falsehood, the family estate.(Ibid.)" The perpetuation of property or family estates as a block, considered some political economists, as the basis for the start of capitalism, becomes an ideological site for contesting Burke's natural morality, by which he affirms that morality is but "inbred exalted instinct" in which reason plays no significant role. Wollstonecraft shows that with such morality, parental love becomes an artificial affection and self-love since the concern is to perpetuate a name, the son's liberty is stifled by fear of the father's curse and replaced by dubious homage to the father for his transference of property, and marriage turns into what Daniel Defoe calls "legal prostitution" (p.21). Natural morality is opposed to rational morality, wherein reason and understanding, concepts borrowed from John Locke, are the sole principles of conduct in a truly liberal society.

For Wollstonecraft, "the character of a master, a husband, and a father, forms the citizen imperceptibly, by producing a sober manliness of thought, and orderly behaviour, but from the lax morals and depraved affections of the libertine, what results"(p.22)? Arbitrary power in the patriarchal system is denounced as a moral violation of that God-given faculty through which manliness (men and women) can elevate itself above the brutish state of animals, and cultivate those noble virtues as citizens concerned with the affairs of both the earthly and celestial city. Contrary to the natural morality founded more on the observation of decorum and the respect of the sanctity of "antiquity," rational morality is liable to improvement and perfection as each individual and generation exerts its reason for self-government and the just government of the city. Taking natural morality as a contesting site over inherited property and the vices it generates, Wollstonecraft tells Burke that "property should be fluctuating […] and equally divided among the children of the family. (p.23)" And if his major concern is to safeguard it, he has to learn that "the only security of property that nature authorizes and reason sanctions is, the right a man has to enjoy the acquisition which his talents and industry have acquired; and to bequeath them to whom he chooses" (p.23). Wollstonecraft also castigates that middle class category of people "aping the manners of the great," instead of promoting the ethic of work and the proprietary consciousness peculiar to their own class. The critique is double-pronged since it is meant to hit both Burke and her father who betrayed their own class.

Wollstonecraft's feminist critique of the family is similar to her critique of the British civil society as a whole. As she describes it, it is not as perfect as Burke makes it look like, because the same hereditary property and privileges undermine it from within. The monarchy cannot be really called Constitutional since in his refutation of Dr. Price Burke tells us that "the succession of the King of Great Britain [does] not depend on the choice of the people" (p.19). This is another way of saying that power is the sole inherited property of the King. This power, fallaciously disguised as a hereditary right, corrupts courtly life and the social fabric. Representational democracy became a sham as elections were rigged, political merit was demeaned, nepotism was encouraged and true faith or religion was sold out by the clergy, in the name of hereditary rights and honorary privileges. This picture that Wollstonecraft gives of the Britain of her time in response to Burke's idealization of the British Constitution does not differ much from the one drawn by French Enlightenment philosophers of the French Old Regime of the Three States. The implication is that Britain needed the same radical economic and political reforms undertaken in France in spite of Burke's claim that Britain was past the age of revolution and reformation. Notwithstanding the "horselaugh" that Wollstonecraft imagines to hear from Burke in uttering this claim, she develops the idea that the new political rationalism guiding the discussion of the new French Assembly is much better than the antiquarianism of the British political system based on "exalted instinct" instead of reason.

As noted earlier, the form or style of Wollstonecraft's essay constitutes the major feminist message. Unless the ideology of form is attended to, the way our author "ungenders" or dislodges gender will be missed. As one reads through the essay, one can notice that the author reproaches Burke his Gothicism, or medievalism, which is part and parcel of the antiquarian movement that rose as a response to the Industrial Revolution. As a result of this Industrial Revolution, there arose nostalgia for the medieval or gothic period out of which Burke creates a usable sacred past to weather out the political disturbance caused by the French Revolution. It has to be observed that Burke is also the author *A philosophical enquiry into the origins of the sublime and the beautiful* meant as a "theory of passions." In this theory, he places under two broad categories, passions related to self-preservation and those related to society, the latter being subdivided into the passions belonging to the society of sex and those of society in general. Burke's theory of passions is underlined by a well-marked gender politics since he tells us that while the passions of self-preservation are most male passions those belonging to the society of sex are female. The former are associated with pain and danger whereas the latter are linked to love and procreation. In terms of aesthetics, the sublime and the beautiful are properties of represented objects and ideas transmitted by the five senses through various artistic modes. So, "what is fitted in any sort to excite the ideas of pain and danger, that is to say, whatever is in any sort terrible, or is conversant about terrible

objects, or operates in a manner analogous to terror, is a source of the sublime; that is, it is productive of the strongest emotion which the mind is capable of feeling" (p.13). The properties that excite the feeling of greatness or sublime are vastness, infinity, obscurity, darkness, privation, interrupted succession or non-uniformity, magnificence, each of them attached to one of the senses. On the contrary, the beautiful is a "social quality" that emanates from objects, which excites the pleasure of love by properties such as smallness or littleness, smoothness, sweetness, sentimentality, light, and so on. If beauty is defined as a "social quality" it is because it has no link neither with physical fitness, perfection, proportion, nor with qualities of the mind like courage and fortitude.

The sublime and the beautiful, Burke argues, can be linked to virtues, but these virtues are gender marked as soft and heroic. The soft virtues are feminine and the heroic ones are masculine. It is this gendered, binary aesthetics that Wollstonecraft overturns in her *A vindication of the rights of men*. Among other reproaches, she takes Burke to task for giving up to that the sentimental language that he has himself assigned to women in his description of the British political and religious establishment. He grows tragically tearful over the deposed Queen Mary Antoinette just because her person was mobbing women belonging to the vulgar. Burke does not know that the injustice that the Queen shares with them a refined vulgarity. In short instead of appreciating the sublime in the historical text written by the French Revolution and welcoming the reform of abuses promised by that Revolution as the majority of his contemporary fellow intellectuals and politicians like Gibbon and Price did, Burke abandoned himself to the sentimental and beautiful for the simple pleasure of appearing an exception to the rule. Wollstonecraft wonders whether Burke would not have done the contrary, had the majority of British people not taken a positive view of the French Revolution.

To the beautiful feminine properties of Burke's discourse in *Reflections on the revolution in France*, Wollstonecraft opposes the sublime counter-discourse of her *A vindication of the rights of men*. The sublime feelings are elicited by a strong commitment to confronting courageously the danger of political innovation and not escaping the pain that political change can bring out. For Wollstonecraft, the Revolution in France puts on stage ideas like justice, equality and fraternity whose properties inspire similar sublime feelings and reasoning as those that Burke describes in his *A philosophical enquiry into the origin of our ideas of the sublime and beautiful*. By engaging Burke on the grounds of his own aesthetic theory, Wollstonecraft does not solely puts into relief his own intertextual and intratextual inconsistencies but also puts him to shame by subtly comparing him to those beautiful scribbling women of her time who adulterated the political rationalism of essay writing by giving free rein to the play of imagination characteristic of fanciful romances. Burke emerges out of her text as a quixotic pathetic "hero," who enamored of feudal gothic antiquities, became unable to follow the march of historical progress that the Revolution in France foreshadowed.

### III. CONCLUSION

Wollstonecraft's very aggressive and self-righteous prose pushes Burke to Gothic self-destruction by exposing his excessively aristocratic inconsistencies like his dueling with Dr. Price just for obtaining "satisfaction." Wollstonecraft pays him back in his coin in order to rehabilitate a new political and economic system defended by her mentor (Price), a system based not on aristocratic blood privileges but on bourgeois merits. So, contrary to what happens in Gothic fiction, the Gothic heroine Wollstonecraft does not seek the rehabilitation of a mother victimized by the aristocratic patriarchal system, but that of a fantasized civilized father unjustly suspected about his patriotism by a rear-guard conservative (Burke) who has come to the rescue of a residual ideology that makes Britain look like the France of the Old Regime. For the rescue of the good mother from oblivion, the heroine posing as a victim, and other such formal characteristics that Hoeveler identifies as characteristic of Gothic feminism, one has to look for them in Wollstonecraft's *A vindication of the rights of woman*.

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# The Study on Constructing a Curriculum Model of Hotel English for Undergraduate Hospitality Management in Taiwan

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*Abstract*—To meet the development of the international tourism market, international tourist hotels have gradually replaced tourist hotels in Taiwan. Owing to the industrial trend, foreign language proficiency, which is essentially communicative skill training required for undergraduate students/learners and industrial practitioners, has been significantly emphasized and noticed among educational institutions and hospitality industries. This study namely aimed at constructing a English curriculum model for hospitality field which infused from English for Specific Purposes. The modified Delphi technique was adopted to determine the relevant course contents of ESP curriculum model for hospitality derived from the consensus of both educators and practitioners. The results revealed that two dimensions of ESP curriculum model for hospitality field constructed as well as nine courses contained in this study respectively. Also, it appears that Taiwan's hospitality educators and practitioners should assist students/learners to strengthen English proficiency.

*Index Terms*—hospitality education, English for Specific Purposes (ESP), curriculum design

## I. INTRODUCTION

Recently, Taiwan has moved into a position of advancing in the travel and tourism industry. The number of foreign visitors has been increasing annually since 1992. With rapid progress in the tourism industry, international tourist hotels have gradually replaced tourist hotels in Taiwan due to meeting the transformation of internationalization of tourism market. Blue and Harun (2003) also indicated that in order to meet the rising demand of international travel, the hospitality industries need the staff in the front-line who are capable of communicating with the clients from different verbal countries. Likewise, Taiwan will get insight of an increasing demand for the cultivation of professionals specializing in hospitality for which the educational sector should be responsible.

Accordingly, with the trend of globalization and the future of hospitality higher education is in its ability to educate adults(Powers, 1993), mastering foreign language skills ought to be cultivated for hospitality and tourism students before employment. Lin and Chang (2003) indicated that foreign languages dimension was perceived as the foremost and very important course by respondents in the study. It reflects the fact that Taiwan is receiving most of their international travelers from worldwide. However, English for hospitality and tourism is viewed as an area of business English(Cho, 2005) proficiency has been a basis of being acquired and used in workplaces and schooling institutions; has become a key benchmark for national competitiveness as well(Cheng, Chiu, & Lin, 2010).

To reinforce its national competitive edge and accelerate its progress with professionalization and internationalization, specifying an approach to enhance foreign language proficiency for students and professionals in the field of hospitality has become a major issue among the academic institutes and industrial sectors. Lin, Wu and Huang (2013) also stated that with the growing needs of using English to communicate fluently with foreign hotel clients, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has become a major subject for students in Taiwan. Meanwhile, the curriculum design and implementation of a comprehensive and multidimensional ESP program for hospitality in Taiwan is now seen as urgent (Cheng, Chiu, & Lin, 2010). Of implications, Taiwan has made a great deal of effort to improve its English education as well as to enhance English proficiency among nations in order to develop and broaden the perspective of globalization. In light of the above statement, this study aims at integrating the dimensions and criterions taught in hotel English via related literature reviews and consensus of interviewees and experts; furthermore, it is to construct the ESP curriculum model for hotel English to meet the demands of hospitality industry as well. It is anticipated that the results of this study will provide as the reference for the development of hospitality education.

## II.  Literature Review

### A.  English for Specific Purposes

English for specific purposes is a curriculum design for professional purposes. It namely aims at developing and cultivating learners/students with the level of English proficiency required in the workplace, which will guide them to express and comprehend English at a specialized level (Yang, 2010). Bracaj (2014) also stated that it is important to recognize what requirements the certain learners are willing to learn English because most of them have different purposes to employ the skills of English rather than applying it in their daily life. Currently, owing to globalization and demands in the foreign language markets, ESP has become an important subject in institutions of higher learning. With the development of internationalization for hospitality industry, Wang and Horng (2004) proposed that hotels for international tourists are to provide highly professional services whose key factor for success lies in addressing human needs. Meanwhile, Chen and Chen (2006) indicated that adapting professional materials to the needs of learners will help to increase their learning motivation and interest. Meanwhile, learners recognize clearly that they learn the language not only for their interest but also improve their ability to be hired easily in the future workplace (Bracaj, 2014). Thus, there has been the necessary need to deliver and offer information on how an ESP curriculum design can be constructed which integrates theory and industry practice that will guide students and allow them to apply and demonstrate their communication, interaction skills and social abilities via English usage in a "real" workplace.

### B.  Types of ESP

In Bracaj's study (2014), there are three types of English for Specific Purposes:
1. Cultural-educational,
2. Personal and individual,
3. Academic/occupational

This study focused on learning English for occupational purpose, which represent that learners require utilizing English in their work or their professional field. The courses they take part in due to what kind of demands they have.

### C. The Implications of ESP in Hospitality Industry

Horng (2003) presented the viewpoints for the development of hospitality education in Taiwan: 1) Curriculum planning to address industrial needs and changes, the curriculum should address practical challenges and keep up with the times to strike a balance between academic requirements and industrial needs so as to cultivate professionals to the expectations of the industry concerned. 2) Diversification of standardized core courses professional courses: In order to be vertically consistent and internationally connected, the curriculum for hospitality should contain general and professional courses according to the resources and characteristics of each school.3) Curriculum and professional integration: Hospitality professionals should possess both general and professional abilities. Wang and Horng (2004) proposed that hotels for international tourists are to provide highly professional services whose key factor for success lies in addressing human needs. According to above the articulations, English can be taken as the professional and training skill trained for undergraduate hospitality management. Additionally, English implies that the linkage basis of communication and insight of cultural diversity to expand internationalization around the world as well.

With the rapid demand for English professional in Taiwan, universities or colleges ought to pay more efforts to assist students/learners raise the level of foreign language proficiency. In the field of hospitality, it ought to be focused on foreign language education to develop and cultivate students/ learners with the high level of English proficiency required to communicate professionally to achieve the fulfillment of job accountabilities in workplaces within home and abroad. Therefore, an appropriate ESP curriculum design aims at constructing the superior course contents which students/learners can be trained to foster an autonomous learning style in pursuit of a lifelong goal in career development. The English curriculum for hospitality not only focuses on teaching objectives and learning outcomes of students/learners, also emphasizes on the key to enhance students' and learners' levels of English proficiency. Based on the viewpoints, the instructors can direct their effort to the most urgent needs students will have as professionals in industrial sectors (Cheng &Chang, 1995).

Recently, English courses offered by departments of hospitality have been various in Taiwan. However, courses in English for hospitality have transformed into being oriented to the needs of education and industry; established as part of the English curriculum by most university. Huang (2008) emphasized that with more attention given to tourism and hospitality in the general environment, English for hospitality will be seen as a priority course by many schools. Accordingly, as the country endeavors to increase its investments in tourism and hospitality, most local educational institutions are striving to open relevant courses in line with this national development. In addition, ESP has been urgent for university to construct specific courses to serve hospitality market demands and to facilitate the innovative construction of specialized English utilized in hospitality industry since EGP has been lack of meeting industrial demands. Consequently, how to integrate and induct practical business operations with English courses is a challenge for educational institutions and service industries.

## III.  Research Methodology

To explore and construct a proper ESP curriculum design for hotel English, this study was conducted via a qualitative research approach utilizing modified Delphi technique with experts (e.g. faculty members with experiences of industrial sectors in hospitality and practitioners/managers in hotel industry) to integrate the dimensions and course content through determining consensus. Also, this study applied and adopted the dimensions and course content partially related hospitality English proposed by Huang (2008). The flowchart of research process and ESP curriculum model for hospitality are shown as Figure 1.

TABLE 1:
RESEARCH PROCESS
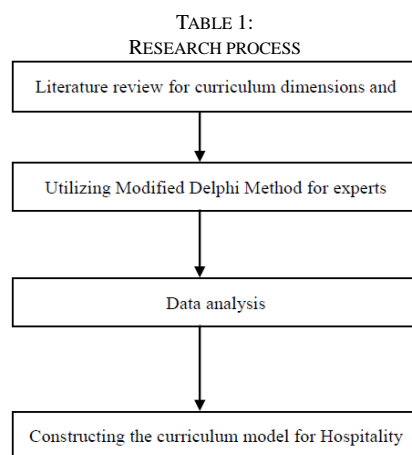


*A. Research Design*

This study applied modified Delphi technique to integrate consensus and issues of ESP curriculum design and course contents for hotel English among a broad group of hospitality educators and industry professionals as panel experts. The Delphi technique is commonly used to gather and acquire the opinions of a group of experts in order to facilitate decision-making (Broomfield & Humphris, 2001).In an effort to determine the ESP in hospitality, this study was based on the viewpoints proposed by Huang(2008) and adopted the two proper dimensions related hospitality English as basis of literature reviews infusing to construct the curriculum design and course contents of hotel English(see Table 2). Accordingly, this study used a five-point Likert scale with 5= *important most, 4=important more, 3=average, 2=important less, and 1= important least*. The survey requesting demographic information of panel expert included gender, age, years of employment, industry experience, and possession of a hospitality degree. Meanwhile, the statistical analysis and figures were referred in terms of mean and standard deviation. Arithmetic mean can be explained as the most appropriate measurement for the central tendency of interval variables and ratio variables. Standard deviation is on behalf of the dispersion of each variable from the mean in a group. Namely, a lower standard deviation implies that the data gets closer to the mean as well. According to above statement, the items with $M < 3.5$ and $SD \geqq 1.0$ ought to be eliminated from the dimensions. Besides, expert consensus towards ESP curriculum design and course contents for hospitality were evaluated based on the least Quartile deviation (QD). The consistency of consensus level(see Table 1) in this study were applied from the viewpoints proposed by Holden and Wedman (1993).

TABLE 2:
CONSISTENCY OF LEVELS

| Levels | High | Medium | Low |
|--------|------|--------|-----|
| Q.D | Q.D $\leqq$ 0.60 | 0.60<Q.D.<1.00 | Q.D. $\geqq$ 1.00 |

TABLE 3:
ESP CURRICULUM MODEL FOR HOSPITALITY

| Dimensions | Contents |
|------------|----------|
| **English for Hotel Services** | (1) Reception counter services: check-in registration, introduction to facilities, luggage service, check-out, cashier and accounting, tour package introductions, lost-and-found services<br>(2) Hotel telephone service: room reservations, transfers, taking messages, telephone manners<br>(3) Room service: Room administration, complaint response, meal service<br>(4) Other hotel services |
| **English for Food and Beverage Services** | (1) Reception counter services<br>(2) Food ordering services<br>(3) Meal services<br>(4) Complaint responses<br>(5) Bill payment and see-off services<br>(6) Introducing menus<br>(7) Introducing utensils and recipes<br>(8) Other food and beverage services |

Source: Huang(2008)

*B.   Panel Selection*

Linstone and Turoff (1975) indicated that a 5 to 10 person panel as the best number in order to effectively achieve the research goals. Brooks (1979) proposed a maximum number of 15 specialists with two to four rounds of questionnaire surveys. Moreover, Ludwig (1997) suggested that an expert panel ought to consist of uniform groups, such as being from the same discipline, and that it should be made up of only 10 to 20 persons. In accordance to the basis, the researchers had determined that only 15 hospitality educators and industry professionals as the experts for the panel were to be used in the current study.

*C.   Reliability and Validity*

Reliability of the instrument was determined by measuring the internal consistency of the instrument using a procedure developed by Cronbach (1951). Alpha-coefficients for the constructs ranging from .774 to .925 were all well above the .70 standard of reliability as suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). Accordingly, a reliability analysis of the constructs was conducted and based upon 15 responses with returned usable surveys in this study.   Therefore, the reliability for the instrument as a whole was.913and the internal consistency of the survey instrument was acceptable and reliable. It is shown in Table 3.

In order to construct the validity, the researchers acquired one industry professional and another one educator to critique the survey to determine the validity of the courses before the survey instrument was finalized. Also, it was integrated by means of literature reviews. Furthermore, the result was used to develop the final version of the survey and to assure the instrument's content validity.

TABLE 4:
RELIABILITY OF ESP CURRICULUM MODEL FOR HOSPITALITY

| Dimension | Cronbach's Alpha(α) |
|---|---|
| English for Hotel Services | .902 |
| English for Food and Beverage Services | .889 |
| Total | .913 |

IV.   RESULTS

*A.   Panel Profile*

A total of 15 usable answer sheets were returned, 10 were from practitioners (66.7%) and 5 were from educators (33.3%). Of the returned answer survey. The responding educators have or had industry experience, and the responding practitioners earned hospitality-related degrees. Consequently, 15 cases were used in this study.

The profile of expert panel is shown in Table 4. As can be seen, female and male distributions were 60.0% and 40.0%respectively. Nevertheless, approximately 46.7% of respondents were younger than 36years of age. 53.3% of the respondents had more than seven years of employment. Of responding practitioners, Front Office, Room Division, and Personnel all accounted for 20.0%. Housekeeping represented 10.0%, and Food and Beverage represented30.0%.

TABLE 5:
EXPERT PANEL PROFILE (N=15)

| Characteristic | Educators | | Practitioners | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| **Gender** | | | | | | |
| Female | 3 | 60.0 | 6 | 60.0 | 9 | 60.0 |
| Male | 2 | 40.0 | 4 | 40.0 | 6 | 40.0 |
| **Age** | | | | | | |
| Under 36 years old | 2 | 40.0 | 5 | 50.0 | 7 | 46.7 |
| Over 37 years old | 3 | 60.0 | 5 | 50.0 | 8 | 53.3 |
| **Years of Employment** | | | | | | |
| Under 7 years | 2 | 40.0 | 3 | 30.0 | 5 | 33.3 |
| More than 7 years | 3 | 60.0 | 7 | 70.0 | 10 | 66.7 |
| **Functional Area** | | | | | | |
| Front Office | --- | --- | 2 | 20.0 | 2 | 20.0 |
| Housekeeping | --- | --- | 1 | 10.0 | 1 | 10.0 |
| Room Division | --- | --- | 2 | 20.0 | 2 | 20.0 |
| Food &Beverage | --- | --- | 3 | 30.0 | 3 | 30.0 |
| Personnel | --- | --- | 2 | 20.0 | 2 | 20.0 |

*B.   Modified Delphi Ratings*

In this study, 15 hospitality educators and industrial professionals were assigned two rounds of modified Delphi questionnaire surveys. Table 5 presented the mean rating results from the modified Delphi surveys of ESP course dimensions for hospitality. As can be seen, the finding illustrated that "English for Hotel Services"   and "English for Food and Beverage Services" two underlying course dimensions and 12 course contents of ESP curriculum model for

hospitality inducted in this study(see Table 2 and Table 5). Furthermore, the mean ratings of the two ESP dimensions for hospitality are weighted at more than 3.5.It reveals that the two fields are considered as basic requirements of ESP curriculum design of hotel business operation for undergraduate hospitality management students. Yet, it indicates the *very important* perception for hospitality educators and industrial professionals as well.

TABLE 6:
COURSE DIMENSION AND OUTLINE MEAN AND WEIGHT RANK

| Dimension | Mean | Weight Rank |
|---|---|---|
| English for Hotel Services | 4.627 | 1 |
| English for Food and Beverage Services | 4.489 | 2 |

*C. Rounds of Modified Delphi Technique on ESP Curriculum Design for Hospitality*

In the first round of modified Delphi technique( see Table 6), the two dimensions of ESP curriculum model and underlying 12 course contents were analyzed in this study. As the statistical analysis, "Room service" and "Other hotel services", in "English for Hotel Services" dimension, whose figures of mean score (M) and standard deviation (S.D) were rating for lower standard even Quartile deviation (Q.D) resulted in the consistency.

On the other hand, "Meal services", "Bill payment and see-off service", "Introducing utensils and recipes", and "Other food and beverage service", in "English for Food and Beverage Services" dimension, whose figures of mean score (M) were rating for lower standard even Quartile deviation (Q.D) and standard deviation (S.D) resulted in the consistency. Apparently, it appealed that the two courses were not reaching to the levels of consensus of panel experts. Moreover, the course contents of lower standard ought to be conducted and evaluated in the second round of modified Delphi survey since it did not reach to 70% the level of coefficient of judgment value. Consequently, the rest of course contents within "English for Hotel Services" and "English for Food and Beverage Services" two dimensions were properly consistent in this study.

TABLE 7:
THE FIRST ROUND OF MODIFIED DELPHI TECHNIQUE

| Dimension | Course | Mo | M | S.D | Q.D | Consistency |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **English for Hotel Services** | Reception counter services | 5 | 4.80 | .414 | 0 | *Yes* |
| | Hotel telephone service | 5 | 4.53 | .516 | 0.5 | *Yes* |
| | Room service | 3 | 3.47 | .834 | 0.5 | *No* |
| | Other hotel services | 3 | 3.47 | .516 | 0.5 | *No* |
| **English for Food and Beverage Services** | Reception counter services | 5 | 4.87 | .352 | 0 | *Yes* |
| | Food ordering services | 5 | 4.73 | .458 | 0.5 | *Yes* |
| | Meal services | 4 | 3.33 | .816 | 0.5 | *No* |
| | Complaint responses | 4 | 4.40 | .507 | 0.5 | *Yes* |
| | Bill payment and see-off services | 3 | 2.73 | .704 | 0.5 | *No* |
| | Introducing menus | 5 | 4.80 | .414 | 0 | *Yes* |
| | Introducing utensils and recipes | 3 | 3.47 | .516 | 0.5 | *No* |
| | Other food and beverage services | 3 | 3.40 | .828 | 0.5 | *No* |

Note: The courses marked with grey area mean no consistency.

As show in Table 7, it presented the results of the second round of modified Delphi survey by the consensus of panel experts. Of analysis computed, even more than 70% courses reached to the levels of consistency within the two dimensions of ESP curriculum model for hospitality. Still, "Other hotel services", "Introducing utensils and recipes" and "Other food and beverage services" respectively were not at the level of standard in the two dimensions of ESP for hospitality since these course contents may be seldom practiced and utilized in industrial sectors by the viewpoints of panel experts. Therefore, underlying three course contents inducted into "English for Hotel Services" dimension; yet six course contents were categorized in "English for Food and Beverage Services" dimension. Finally, these course contents established in ESP curriculum model for hospitality field, which were integrated via perspective and consensus of hospitality educators and industrial practitioners, may be the basis of construction for specific English training for undergraduate students/learners. Also, it implied that the ESP curriculum design for hospitality can be infused and implemented within educational institutions and industrial practices.

TABLE 8:
THE SECOND ROUND OF MODIFIED DELPHI TECHNIQUE

| Dimension | Course | Mo | M | S.D | Q.D | Consistency |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| English for Hotel Services | Reception counter services | 5 | 4.80 | .414 | 0 | Yes |
| | Hotel telephone service | 5 | 4.47 | .640 | 0.5 | Yes |
| | Room service | 5 | 4.53 | .516 | 0.5 | Yes |
| | Other hotel services | 3 | 3.47 | .516 | 0.5 | No |
| English for Food And Beverage Services | Reception counter services | 5 | 4.87 | .352 | 0 | Yes |
| | Food ordering services | 5 | 4.73 | .458 | 0.5 | Yes |
| | Meal services | 5 | 4.80 | .414 | 0 | Yes |
| | Complaint responses | 4 | 4.40 | .507 | 0.5 | Yes |
| | Bill payment and see-off services | 5 | 4.60 | .643 | 0.5 | Yes |
| | Introducing menus | 5 | 4.80 | .414 | 0 | Yes |
| | Introducing utensils and recipes | 3 | 2.93 | .594 | 0 | No |
| | Other food and beverage services | 4 | 3.13 | .060 | 0.5 | No |

Note: The courses marked with grey area mean no consistency.

## V. CONCLUSIONS

This study aimed at constructing an ESP curriculum model for undergraduate hospitality management in Taiwan. As the development of Taiwan's hotel industry is moving toward internationalization, the high degree of cultural and ethnic diversity is increasingly present in the workforce. As a result, the development of ESP curriculum design and model for hospitality field must have a view of globalization.

Foreign language education infusing into undergraduate hospitality management was born out of the needs of industry. This has led to the rapid growth and has been one of key successes to internationalization and globalization of hospitality higher education in Taiwan. It has implied that ESP curriculum design and specification course contents for hospitality have been taken as the critical issue considered most within academic institutions and hospitality industries as well. To sum up, hospitality English is a professional skill from the perspective of human resources development. Therefore, ESP curriculum model and course contents, for students/learners of undergraduate hospitality management, can be applicable and determined as a key entry-level to industrial sectors; it can be taken as the referent basis of career development for the perspectives within academic institution and hospitality industry.

An effective hospitality English program should integrate theory with practice through interdisciplinary, learner-centered learning as well as encourages students to assume responsibility for their own learning and interacting with customers and practitioners. Nevertheless, ESP curriculum model for hospitality should foster a spirit of collaboration and teamwork and a self-reflective attitude among educational institutions and industrial sectors. More important, the ESP curriculum development should include industry representatives in its annual curriculum review for content relevancy and inclusion of industry trends. The appropriate defining and application of competencies in collaboration with experienced professionals from the field and the integration of content has been a program's strength.

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# The Discourse Marker *wa* in Standard Arabic—A Syntactic and Semantic Analysis

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*Abstract*—Discourse markers are items (such as *and, so, anyway, but, on the other hand, however*) that link spans of discourse and signal various semantic and pragmatic relations. Thus, they play an important role in the cohesiveness, organization and interpretation of discourse.[1] Arabic has a number of devices which play a pivotal role in the cohesion and coherence of written and spoken discourse such as *wa, aw, lakin, am, fa, thuma, bal, la*, etc. The present paper is limited in scope. It is an attempt to establish the constituency and identify the functions of the Arabic discourse connective device *wa* using resources of syntax, semantics and pragmatics. Such resources include descriptive and analytical diagnostic tools of constituency tests, structural ambiguity and semantic roles.

*Index Terms*—discourse, thematic roles, constituency tests, multi-functionality

## I. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

- As a discourse marker, *wa* is crucial for achieving cohesion through connecting the components of discourse.
- It shows the logical and sequential relationships between utterances.
- It is an important indicator of the language user's pragmatic competence.
- It has numerous context-dependent functions.
- It has implications for Applied Linguistics in the area of language teaching, methodology and translation.

## II. FRAMEWORK OF ANALYSIS

The present work employs standard syntactic tests of constituency and thematic roles to distinguish the constructions in which *wa* occurs. Discourse analysis is also employed as a framework for the analysis. The analysis is couched within the pragmatic framework of discourse analysis proposed by Fraser (1999), Feng (2010), Hatch (1992), Johnstone (2002) and Brown and Yule (1983). Fraser, for instance, proposes a binary model of discourse marker analysis in which discourse markers are classified into two groups:

A. Propositional used to relate sentence propositions. This group of markers includes:
1. Contrastive such as 'conversely', 'contrary to', 'on the other hand', 'yet', etc.
2. Collateral such as 'and', 'moreover', 'in addition to', etc.
3. Inferential such as 'thus', 'so', 'therefore', 'consequently', etc.
B. Non-propositional used to organize discourse. This group of markers includes:
1. Topic changing markers such as 'by the way', 'incidentally', 'this reminds me of'
2. Activity markers such as 'to illustrate', 'to clarify', 'to explain', etc.
3. Structure markers such as 'first', 'second', 'to begin', etc.
Feng (2010) gave a somewhat similar categorization of discourse markers:
A. Additive:  'and', 'also', 'in addition', 'furthermore', 'besides', 'similarly', 'likewise', 'for instance';
B. Adversative: 'but', 'yet', 'however', 'instead', 'on the other hand', 'nevertheless', 'at any rate', etc.
C. Causal: 'so', 'consequently', 'it follows', 'for', 'because', 'under the circumstances', etc.
D. Continuatives: 'now', 'of course', 'well', 'anyway', 'surely', 'after all', etc.
Brown and Yule (1983) defined discourse analysis as "the analysis of language in use", while Hatch (1992, p.1) defined it as the study of language communication, spoken and written. For Schiffrin (1994), it is the study of "utterances". For Johnstone (2002), discourse analysis answers many different kinds of questions about language, about participants in the conversation, and about society and culture at large.

## III. RELATED LITERATURE

According to Schiffrin (1987, p. 65 cited in Farhan & Fannoush, 2005, p. 2), the difficulty of investigating discourse markers lies in three factors:
A. Their multi-functionality,

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[1] The role of discourse markers in text cohesion and coherence has been stressed in various analyses such as (Schiffrin, 1987; Blakemore, 1996; Fraser, 1999; Fareh and Hadman, 1999 and Bilimey and Monka, 2000, cited in Hamza, pp. 232-233).

B. Their optionality, and

C. Their syntactic diversity.

Al Kohlani (2010) examined the function of discourse markers[2] in Arabic newspaper opinion articles and classified them functionally at sentence and paragraph levels.  At sentence boundaries, they are classified as:  additive, contrastive, explanatory, inferential, sequential, alternative, exceptive, background, subjective and interactive. At paragraph boundaries, discourse markers express three main functions:  continuity, refocus, and change of topic.

Hamza (2006) examined the use of the *wa* in sourat Al Shams (The Sun Chapter) of the Holy Quran and correctly identified its functions in the Quranic text in this chapter. The primary function is an oath to draw attention and focus on the proposition and to add extra force to the assertion being made. The second pragmatic function is additive or collateral in Fraser's sense.

*Multi-Functionality*

The multi-functional nature of the conjunctive marker *and* in English has been pointed out and illustrated by a number of researchers (Halliday & Hasan (1976), Baker (1992), Fareh (1998), & Schiffrin (2003)).  The conjunctive *and* which connects sentences, clauses and phrases can express additive, temporal, causal and adversative relations:

A. I called him and we went out.    Temporal Function

B. I met John and Bill                    Additive Function

C. John is happy and Bill is sad.     Adversative Function

In (A) *and* can be replaced by *after that* which reveals a time sequence between the two events, and in (C) it can be replaced by *but* or *however* which reveals a contrast between the two state of affairs.[3]

Hence, in addition to its role in the organization and cohesion of text in English, it also expresses more than one logical relation and function.  These two functions - as a cohesive device and as a functional discourse operator - should be clearly distinguished.

## IV.  DESCRIPTION ARABIC *WA* و

Like English, Arabic has an expression wa which, in addition to its role in text cohesion, expresses different functions described below:

*A.  Introductory Wa*

This form frequently appears at sentence- and paragraph- initial position. It serves a general introductory function for beginning a topic.  In studies of Arabic grammar and rhetoric, this version of *wa* و is termed *waw* واو الإستئناف , an initiator or a mere filler as it has no propositional content.

و وُلد نجيب محفوظ في حي الجمالية وهو أحد الأحياء الشعبية في القاهرة ويقع بجانب مسجد الحسين بالأزهر. و

1. Wa wilida Najeeb Mahfouth fi hai aljamaliyya wa hwa ahad igahiya'a alshabiyya fil qahira wa yaqau bijanib masjid Alhusain bilazzhar wa

كان والده موظفاً حكومياً ثم عمل في التجارة بعد ذلك[4].

2. Kana waliduhu muwwathafan hukumiyyan thumma amila filtijara bada thalika

"Najeeb Mahfouth was born in Aljamaliyya neighborhood; it is one of the poorer neighborhoods in Cairo located near Al Husain mosque in Al Azhar.  His father worked for the government; then in trade."

*B.  It Can Be a Conjunction of Two or More Entities, Events or Propositions*

اشترى علي بيتا ومتجرا

3. Ishtara Aly baytan wa matjaran

"He bought a house and a store."

زارنا محمد وعلي

4. Zarana Muhamadun wa Alyun

"Muhammad and Aly visited us."

استمع لمعلمك، وحاول الفهم ، وناقشه في الأمر الصعب

5. istami' limualimmika wa hawil alfahm wa naqishhu filamr als'ab

"Listen to your teacher, try to understand (what he says) and discuss the difficult points with him."

This conjunction is a recursive process, that is to say iterative in the sense that there is no upper limit to the number of times it can apply. More than two entities, modifiers or events can be conjoined by *wa*:

عمر وخالد وفاطمه وسعيد

6. Omar wa Khalid wa Fatima wa Saeed

"Omar, Khalid, Fatima and Saeed"

ازرق واحمر واسود واصفر

---

[2] Different terms have been used for discourse markers:  linking adverbials Biber et al. (2002, p. 237), conjunctive adjuncts or conjunctive expressions (Halliday & Hasan, 1976), discourse particles or discourse markers (DM) (Schiffrin, 1986, cited in Müller, 2005, p.5). Cue phrases and clue words are also used.

[3] It might be good to keep in mind that the same function can also be expressed by more than one marker.

[4] 21 – 27 منكرات في أدوات الربط والوصل في اللغة العربية محمود عبد الله جفال الحديد (2004).

7. Azraq wa ahmar, wa aswad, wa asfar
"blue, red, black and yellow"

لعب واكل وشرب وقفز ووقع

8. Laiba wa akala wa shariba wa qafaza a waqaa
"He played, ate, drank, jumped and fell down."

هذا وهذه وذالك وتلك وهؤلاء

9. Hatha wa hathihi a thalika wa tilka a haula
"this (masculine), this (feminine), that (close to speaker, that (farther from speaker) and those."
Note that, unlike English, the conjoiner must be repeated with each new expansion of the structure.

*C. Adjunct Marker*

It can introduce a unit of discourse functioning as an adjunct to modify an event.

جاء رامي وهو راكبا فرسه

10. Ja'a Rami wa huwa rakiban farasahu
"Rami arrived riding his horse."

*D. Oath Marker*

It can mark an oath signaling the speaker's attitude towards the truth condition of the proposition.

والله

11. Wallahi
"(I swear) by God."

*E. Path*

It can mark a path[5] semantic or thematic role as in the following sentence:

مشيت والنهر من الجامعة الى الكهف

12. mashytu wa lnahra min aljamiati ila alkahfi
"I walked along the river from the university to the cave".

The phrase *wa lnahra* is the path; it denotes the interim points between the source – the starting point of the motion *aljamiati* and the goal *alkahfi* – the resting point of the motion. The path role is associated with verbs of motion and indicated by *wa* in the example above.[6]

*F. Companionship and Association*

It can mark Companionship and an Association semantic role as in:

مشيت ومحمدا

13. a. mashaytu wa Muhamadan
"I took a walk with Muhammad."

سرت والوادي

14. Sirtu wa lwadiya[7]
"I walked along the valley."

خرجنا وغياب الشمس

15. kharjna wa giyaba alshamsi
"We went out at sunset."

Kreidler (1998, p. 76) adopted the term Associate instead of Companionship and gives the following example where *Ann* is the Associate:

Tom is with Ann.

In summary, *wa* has several different functions in Arabic discourse: as a coordinating conjunction, as a text organizer marking sentence boundaries, as a preface to sentential or lexical adjuncts, as an expression of an affirmative oath and as an expression of Path and Associate thematic role. Some of these points will be justified using syntactic constituency tests in the following section.

## V. ANALYSIS AND ARGUMENTATION

*A. Initiation*

Here *wa* is frequently used, always sentence-initially, and its function is to textually relate sentences to each other. It is a cohesive device or a text-building device (Halliday & Hasan, 1976) widely used by writers and speakers and expected by hearers to establish ties between sentences and to indicate continuity of discourse. However, this functional item makes no semantic or syntactic predictions about the internal structure of the following sentence it is prefaced to.[8]

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[5] On path thematic role, see (Kreidler 1998, p. 118).
[6] Other indicators of the path thematic role include ibra 'via', min khilal 'through', an tariq 'by way of' and bimuhathat 'along'.
[7] This example is taken from عبد الرؤوف زهدي و سامي أبو زيد (2011, p. 227)
[8] For a similar statement in connection with the English pragmatic marker "please", see Stubbs (1983).

In fact, the sentence would be propositionally complete without *wa*. This does not, however, mean that it is superfluous or redundant and therefore dispersible because it does signal some aspect of meaning, such as slight topic shifting or slight refocusing of discourse.

*B. Conjunction*

The standard syntactic tests of questions, substitution, and dependency show that *wa* functions as a conjunction.[9]

**1. Questions**

Evidence that *wa* conjoins two noun phrase constituents comes from questioning. Consider the noun phrases in:

اشترى علي بيتا كبيرا ومتجرا صغيرا

16. ishtara Alyun baytan kabiran wa matjaran sagiran.

"Aly bought a big house and a small store."

ماذا اشترى علي

17. maatha ishtra Alyun?

"What did Aly buy?"

مات الطالب والمدرس

18. maata altalibu wa lmuddarrisu

"The student and the teacher both died."

من مات

19. man maata?

"Who died?"

In each case, *wa* links two noun phrases which have the same function and behave together as a unit.

**2. Substitution by a phonologically null pronoun**

Each member noun phrase in the conjunction can be substituted for by a null pronoun licensed by a proximal demonstrative:

اشترى هذا وهذا

20. ishtra hatha wa hatha

"He bought this (one) and this (one)."

اشتراهم

21. ishtarahuma

"He bought them."

Or, alternately, one accusative pronoun suffixed to the predicate may replace the entire set resulting in a morphologically complex segment as in (21).

**3. Dependency**

A dependency relation exists between the categories in the conjoined set and *wa*. The asterisk indicates an ungrammatical sentence. Sentence (22) fails because the second noun phrase of the conjunction is omitted. Sentence (23) also fails because the first noun phrase of the conjunction is omitted.

اشترى علي بيتا كبيرا و

22. *Ishtara Aly baytan kabiran wa

اشترى علي و متجرا صغيرا

23. *Ishtara Aly wa matjaran sagiran.

**4. Government and Case assignment[10]**

The verb governs the whole set in the conjunction and assigns accusative Case to it. Both noun phrases, the one preceding *wa* and the one following it, carry accusative Case and both fulfill the same grammatical and semantic functions. This indicates that *wa* marks conjunction as in:

كتب علي مقالة ورسالة

24. kataba Alyun maqalatan wa risalatan

"Aly wrote an article and a letter."

**5. Passivization**

The whole set in (24) above can undergo passivization behaving as a unit in a topic position of focus (25), but its members cannot be disjointed to achieve similar focus (26 and 27):

كتبت مقالة ورسالة من قبل علي

25. kutibat maqalatu wa risalatu min qibal Aly

"An article and a letter were written by Aly."

كتبت مقالة من قبل علي ورسالة

26. *Kutibat maqalatu min qibal Aly wa risalatu.

"*An article was written by Aly and a letter."

كتبت رسالة من قبل علي و مقالة

27. *Kutibat risalatun min qibal Aly wa maqalatun.

---

[9] For some of these tests, see Radford (1988, p. 90).

[10] On government and Case assignment, see Chomsky (1981, 1986b) and subsequent work.

"*A letter was written by Aly and an article."
Their separation through repositioning will alter the meaning drastically and produces a different construction:

كتبت مقالة من قبل علي، ورسالة، أيظا

28. Kutibat maqalatu min qibal Aly, wa risalatu, [VP], aythan
"An article was written by Aly, and a letter, [VP], also."

In these forms, verb phrase deletion has applied, the collateral or additive discourse operator is normally added and a comma before *wa* 'and' is inserted.

The conclusion from these tests is that this instance of *wa* is a discourse marker of conjunction. The noun phrase arguments thus conjoined have the same syntactic and semantic functions. They form constituents and therefore cannot be separated without changing the meaning and the construction.

*C. Wa Signaling Path Semantic Role*

This form of *wa* is typically associated with predicates of motion and transition. Such predicates express the movement of some entity from one place to another. *wa* merely acts as a link between the predicate and its path semantic role:

مشى المسافر والصحراء الى القرية

29. masha lmusafiru wa lsahara ila qaratihi
"The traveler walked along the desert to his village."

سرنا وشاطئ البحر الى الكوخ

30. Sirna wa shati'a albahri ila alkoukhi
"We walked alongside the sea coast to the cottage."

Verbs such as *masha "walked", sara "went", thahaba "left", ja'a* "came" express motion, going and coming from one place to another. The distance between the starting point of the motion and the final destination is known as the Path. *Wa* is a linking or relational marker meaning along side.

*D. Association*

It should be noted that the standard term adopted in Arabic grammar for Path is Association which simply means that there is an association in space between the theme semantic role (the goer or traveler) and the desert or the sea coast. The association is only spacial, alongsidedness, and is limited to adjacency only. It is not a mutual semantic association in terms of motion; the verbal predicate of transition is not a shared constituent as the desert does not travel nor does the sea coast possess voluntary will and motion. Thus, the conjunction interpretation of equally sharing the activity is excluded. The motion of leaving, coming, crossing, entering and climbing entails some geographical landmark along which the movement is carried out at a specified time (though the time frame does not have to be mentioned but it is always understood as a component of the proposition).

The term 'Association' is intended in a very general sense to include, as will be discussed below, special/location (31), temporal (32), thematic relations (33-34) and associate (35):

سيرك والشاطئ مفيد

31. sayruka wa lshatia mufidun            **(Spacial/location)**
"Your taking a walk along the coast is useful."

رجع والدي من السفر وطلوع الفجر

32. raja walidi min alsafari wa tulua alfajri        **(Temporal:  Locating an event in time)**
"May father came back from the trip at daybreak."

جلس الطالب والكتاب

33. Jalasa altalibu wa lkitaba              **(Theme)**
"The student sat in the company of the book."

كل طالب وطريقته في الدراسة              **(Theme)**

34. kulu talibin wa tariqatahu fil dirasati
"Each student has his own way of studying."

ذهب حسن وعليا

35. thahaba Hasanun wa Alyan              **(Associate)**
"Hasan left in Aly's company."

It should also be noted that the noun phrase following *wa* is invariably marked with the morpheme suffix –a or with its variant –an. The grammarians of Arabic have taken this morphological marker to be an accusative Case. However, this form seems to be a fossilized default marker characteristic of a set of categories for which there is no obvious Case assigner such as the absolute and some other adjuncts. In the above examples *masha* and *sara* are intransitive which cannot assign accusative Case.

The theme reading can be obtained by adding a resultative clause as in:

جلس الطالب والكتاب فوجده خير جليس

36. Jalasa altalibu wa lkitaba fawajadahu khayara jaleesin

"The student sat with his book (as if it were his company) and he found it to be the best companion."[11]

## 1. Associate and Actor:  Minimal Pair

ذهب حسن وعلي الى السوق

37. thahab Hasanun wa Ala'un ila alsouqi **Conjunction of two Actors**

"Both Hasan and Ala went to the market."

ذهب حسن وعليا الى السوق

38. thahab Hasanun wa Alyan ila alsouqi  **Actor and Associate**

"Hasan accompanied by Aly went to the market."

The two examples can be differentiated on the basis of their Case and semantic relations. In (37) *wa* signals a conjunction of two Actors *Hasan* and *Aly*; both function grammatically as the subject and bear the nominative Case. The two Actors are active participants in the event and its course and planning.

In (38), however, *wa* fulfills an entirely different role. Note that the Case on the NP *Hasan*, the NP preceding *wa* is nominative while the Case of *Aly*, the NP following *wa*, is a default fossil coterminous with the accusative form. The principal participant in the communicative act in terms of initiation, direction, purpose and execution is *Hasan*, the Actor.  The Actor instigates and determines the course of the process from the beginning and actively controls what is happening – the event.  On the other hand, the NP *Aly* has a different semantic property.  It is the Associate signalled by *wa* 'with', not the instigator.  It is present throughout the communicative act but does not control it, nor is it involved in its intentionality.

## 2. Testing the Two Structures

The following example shows that the Actor and Instigator imply intent; it is modifiable by adverbs such as purposely, intentionally, deliberately and other adverbials:

ذهب حسن و عليا الى السوق مسرعا

39. thahab Hasanun wa Alyan ila alsouqi musri'an

"Hasan accompanied by Aly went to the market in a hurry."

قتل حسن وعليا الرجل عمدا

40. qatal Hasanun wa Alyan alrajula 9amdan

"Hasan accompanied by Aly killed the man deliberately."

The adverb refers to the activity performed by the Actor, the controller of the event, not to the Associate. This shows *Hasan*, as an Actor, has intentional control over the situation and that he is primarily and exclusively involved in instigating and committing the murder. It is not entirely clear from sentence interpretation if the Associate is an accomplice in the crime in some way. We know he has no willful control and happened to be in motion at the same time in the wrong company. The adverb test indicates that he has no input or contribution to the act. Being a companion at the time of the criminal event, however, might implicate him though.

## 3. Inclusion of a Timeframe

The distinction between the two markers can also be made on the basis of including a timeframe:[12]

جاء حسن وعلي قبله

41. Ja'a Hasanun wa Alyun qablahu

رأيت حسنا وعليا قبله  (unacceptable)

42. *Ra'aytu Hasana wa Alyan qablahu

(41) is a conjunction where consecutive ordering is acceptable.  In other words, it is understood as communicating that the state of affairs, expressed by the predicate *ja'a* and described in the conjuncts, occurred in a temporal sequence. (42) is an Associate structure where consecutive ordering is unacceptable as it is in conflict with the notion of togetherness in time.  Therefore, the sentence accepts a conjunction interpretation only which does not necessarily imply concomitance and temporal ordering of the state of affairs.

Similarly, the following *wa* can only express a conjunction since the timeframe is open, as indicated by *qabl* or *ba9da,* whereas the Associative *wa* expresses a single event at the same point in time.

جاء حسن وعلي قبله او بعده

43. ja'a Hasanun wa Alyun qablahu aw ba9dahu

"Hasan and Aly both but Aly came either before or after Hasan."

## 4. Symmetrical and Reciprocal Predicates

In some cases, the predicate gives information about the type of structure.[13]  For example, *tashajara "quarrel"*, *takhasama "argued", takataba "corresponded", tasabaqa "competed", and "taqatal" "fought"*  are reciprocal predicates which signal mutual sharing, reciprocity and symmetry, as in the following conjunction in which two Agents are conjoined and assigned nominative Case:

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[11] An alternate translation can be "The student, in the company of his book, found it to be the best companion."  Or "The student, accompanied by his book, found it to be the best companion."

[12] These sentences are  taken from عبد الرؤوف زهدي و سامي ابو زيد (2011, p. 228)

[13] Baker (1992) points out that not only conjunctions but verbs can also express semantic relations. For example, *follow* and *precede* express temporal relations, as in:  A snowstorm followed the battle.  The sentence can be expressed as:  They fought the battle.  After that, it snowed.
 Also verbs like *cause* and *lead to* express causal relations.

تقاتل حسن وعلي

44. taqatal Hasanun wa Alyun.

"Hasan and Aly fought with each other."

In the above example, we are informed by the predicate that the conjuncts, the two referring expressions, are in a converse relationship. *Hasan* fought with *Aly*, and *Aly* with *Hasan*. The relationship can also be expressed by two separate sentences:

قاتل حسن عليا

45. Qaatal Hasanun Alyan

"Hasan fought with Aly."

قاتل علي حسنا

46. Qaatal Alyun Hasanan

"Aly fought with Hasan"

The action is reciprocal and symmetrical.

Such predicates can also express an Associative meaning as in (47). Note this time the two NPs are assigned different Cases, the one preceding *wa* is nominative but the one following it is accusative:

تقاتل حسن وعليا

47. taqatal Hasanun wa Alyan.

"Hasan had a fight with Aly."

Here, the primary active Agent is *Hasan* as it holds the predicational relation with the verb. *Hasan* is the Associate, not the participant, because it is not predicated of the verb in spite of the reciprocal meaning of the predicate. If *Hasan* fought with *Aly*, it is not necessarily true that *Aly* fought with *Hasan*; the two referring expressions are in a reciprocal relationship, not symmetrical.

**5. Ambiguity**

Further evidence for the distinction comes from structural ambiguity:

قابلت حسنا وعليا

48. Qabaltu Hasana wa Alyan.

"I met Hasan and Aly."

Under the conjunction interpretation, the two individuals were met either separately or concurrently, and the focus of the meeting is on both since they equally function as Theme. Under the Associative interpretation, both of them were there together at the same meeting at the same time; the focus of the meeting is *Hasan* while *Aly* is a peripheral companion.

The conjunction structure is also open to another interpretation where *Hasan* and *Aly* had a fight with some else, perhaps with the manager, for example, as the structure can be the result of prepositional phrase ellipsis:

تقاتل حسن وعلي مع المدير

49. taqatal Hasanun wa Alyun ma'a almodeer.

"Hasan and Aly had a fight with the manager."

## VI. CONCLUSION

This paper offered a detailed description of the discourse marker *wa* in Arabic, its multi-functionality and classification into: Initiator of discourse, conjunction, marker of temporal and manner adjuncts and marker of Associative and Path semantic roles. Diagnostics for constituency structure were used to distinguish the structures with which each marker is in construction, and to establish the semantic functions. A valid distinction is made between Associative, Path and temporal categories on the basis of their syntactic behavior and semantic import. These categories are lumped together in Arabic grammatical treaties under the heading Associative object. This is an important area for further investigation to advance our understanding of the issues.

While some of these markers have been the subject of extensive research in English, the Arabic ones have received less attention from a semantic – pragmatic perspective. This paper is intended to be a basis for further investigation into the nature of discourse and pragmatic markers of Arabic. It is important to highlight the systematic investigation of discourse markers in both languages, Arabic and English, in a contrastive manner and reveal its implication for foreign language teaching and translation. Future research is needed to address the issue and shed some light on its consequences for language education.

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# The Effect of an Integrative Skills Program on Developing Jordanian University Students' Achievement in English

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*Abstract*—This study aimed at investigating the effect of an integrative program, the effect of gender and the interaction between gender and the program on developing Jordanian university students' achievement in English .The participants of the study were 122 university students. The study adopted a quasi-experimental design. The data were collected using an achievement test which was validated and its interscorer reliability was ensured. ANCOVA was used to analyze the students' full degrees while MANCOVA was used to analyze their sub degrees of the test. The results revealed a significant difference between the adjusted mean scores of students' achievement in the posttest and a significant difference between the adjusted means for the students' achievement in the parts of the posttest. The results showed no significant difference between the adjusted mean scores of students due to gender and the interaction between gender and the teaching method. They also showed a significant difference between the means of the students' achievement in structures due to the interaction between the teaching method and gender in favor of the male while there was no statistically significant effect in vocabulary and reading comprehension.

*Index Terms*—integration, whole language approach, Jordan

## I. INTRODUCTION

The idea of integrative skills has been widely emphasized and proved to be successful in developing the students' ability to use two or more of the four skills within real contexts and in a communicative framework (Finocchiaro and Bonomo, 1973; Hersan, 1998; Hobson and Schuman, 1990; Omaggio, 2001). Similarly, Omaggio (2001) highlights the importance of integrative skills for attaining higher levels of proficiency and addressing the goals of language study that have been articulated in the standards for foreign language learning.

Other researchers use the term Whole Language (WL) and clarify the significance of applying the whole language in their classes. Brown and Mothie (1984) explain how the students in their study became highly motivated. Weaver(1990) add that students developed positive attitude towards learning and viewed themselves as competent and responsible. Harp and Brewer (1991) emphasize the importance of WL in the language experience approach because it treats skills instruction in a meaningful context and aims at helping students be actively involved in learning that extends beyond the classroom to real communication. Lim and Watson (1993) emphasize the role of integrative programs in developing the students' cognitive and academic achievement and their abilities to be risk takers in expressing themselves regardless of the linguistic demands and the possibility of making errors.

It is evident that the four language skills are rarely used in segregation in everyday life. The researchers, therefore, aim to integrate them in a proposed instructional program in order to develop the students' abilities to interact socially, communicate efficiently, and produce successfully correct language structures in various situations.

**Problem of the Study**

Brown (1994) suggests that learning a second language may be difficult, especially for adults who already have a strong foundation in their own native language. English is a key language taught in the Jordanian EFL context. Yet, the researchers noticed that Jordanian university students' suffer from weakness in their communicative competence during their experience in the Jordanian educational context; the students lacked the ability to communicate easily in English. This may be due to the minimal exposure to English in general and to integrative activities in particular. In light of the findings of the reviewed literature, the researchers aim to implement a program of integrative skills to investigate its effect on developing the students' achievement. To the researchers' best knowledge, the effect of an integrative skills program on developing Jordanian University students' achievement has never been researched.

**Purpose**

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of an integrative skills program on developing Jordanian University students' achievement.

**Questions**

The authors seek answers to the following questions:

1. Are there statistically significant differences in students' achievement in English (vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension) ($\alpha= 0.05$) due to the instructional program?

2. Are there statistically significant differences in students' achievement in English (vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension) ($\alpha= 0.05$) due to gender?

3. Are there statistically significant differences in students' achievement in English (vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension) ($\alpha= 0.05$) due to the interaction between gender and the instructional program)?

**Significance of the study**

The findings are potentially significant for the students since they are expected to develop their achievement in English. The other instructors might also benefit from the findings of this study by reflecting on their methods of teaching by helping their students use the target language.

## II. Previous Literature

Jacobs (1991) believes that the basis of integration is based on the student- centered process and making students shoulder their own responsibilities for teaching themselves. Freeman and Freeman (1992) emphasize the importance of integrative skills and criticize the traditional L2 approaches by indicating that they have a tendency to make language learning difficult for L2 learners because it is hard to understand individual parts isolated from the whole context. Other researchers use the term Integrative Approach (IA) to refer to the integration of language which encourages the teacher and the learner to look at language not in segments but as a whole.

Rigg (1991) states that the WLA views language as "a means for the creation and communication of meaning" (p. 523-4). He emphasizes that WLA emphasizes the importance of written and oral languages which are considered simultaneously acquired. He adds that WLA stresses the importance of taking into consideration the speaker, the recipient, the tool of communication, the reason for communicating, the purposes of the speakers, the social relationship between them, the situation and pragmatic, semiotic and cultural aspects of language. Likewise, Lake (2001) emphasizes the importance of integrated curriculum since it helps students apply skills, foster retrieval of information, leads to a more integrated knowledge base, encourages depth and breadth in learning, promotes positive attitudes in students and provides more time for curriculum exploration.

In their study about the differences between traditional teaching and WL teaching, Wixon, Peter and Potter (1996) state that WL is learner- centered and literature based, they add that skills are taught in a rich context in WL. They stress that teachers are empowered to emphasize writing, verbal interaction, parent involvement, self-esteem, flexible grouping and a variety of strategies in WL. Furthermore, Larsen-Freeman (2000) confirms that "Whole Language educators see errors as part of learning and they encourage students to experiment with reading and writing to promote both their enjoyment and ownership" (p.143).

Supporters of WLA urge teachers to create friendly classroom conditions in order to help learners experiment with the language. With regards to the same issue, Graham and Harris (1994) urge WL teachers to strive to create supportive, pleasant and nonthreatening classroom conditions. Furthermore, Smith (1983) clarifies the importance of this setting in helping students build on their own prior knowledge and operate on their own developing "hypotheses" about how oral and written language operate. Similarly, Newman (1985) signifies the importance of this atmosphere in helping learners discover rules through meaningful usage and real life experiences, explore though variety of self-selected material and apply divergent thinking, experimenting and rereading for more information. Goodman, Goodman and Hood (1986) add that the friendly atmosphere helps students "see relationships among ideas and concepts as they plan and experience a theme-based inquiry" (P. 31). Furthermore, Lipson (1993) emphasizes that informal natural conditions in WLA help students realize that language and meaning are inseparable, he adds that such conditions help students collaborate, invent, discover and learn authentic texts in contextualized language.

In a study about the effectiveness of WLA on improving the language skills of selected community college students, Crawford (1993) reports that students in the WL group scored significantly higher on reading and writing tests. In another study about the effect of whole language instruction on developing black students' reading and writing at a historically black college, Long (1996) reports that the experimental group scored higher on grammar and reading final exams as compared to the control group, the experimental group also passed English 112 and History 130 at a higher rate than the control group. Class attendance and attitude of the experimental group was better as compared to that of the control group.

In his study of the effectiveness of using the WLA with the help of the computer in improving the learners' writing ability in a foreign language at Holy Family University, Dawid (2004) reports that WLA improves students' ability to express themselves and take greater risks in using the language. In his study of the effectiveness of a proposed EFL integrative program based on the WLA on the basic stage students' achievement in English, Shatnawi (2005) reports differences in favor of the experimental group. The findings also indicated significant differences in favor of female students and a ranking interaction between the method of teaching and the gender. In another study about the effects an integrative approach on improving word recognition and reading comprehension among intermediate L2 readers, Askildson (2008) supports the significant efficacy of the integrative approach in reading rate, comprehension, vocabulary and grammatical knowledge.

### III. METHOD AND PROCEDURES

This research is essentially quantitative. The sample of the study consisted of 122 students studying English Communication Skills (102) at Philadelphia University in the first semester of the academic year 2011/ 2012 and those students were chosen purposefully. The researchers chose the students in the courses which one of them taught in order to apply the program of the integrative skills, the first group (N= 62) was the control group (male and female students). The second group (N= 60) was the experimental group (male and female students). The experimental group was instructed using the integrative skills program. The control group, on the other hand, was taught using the material in Intermediate New Headway Plus following the teacher's guidelines to teach the skills. The participants were informed about the experiment in the sense that it was a study about an integrative skills program.

The distribution of the sample according to the variables of gender and teaching method is presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE PARTICIPANTS DUE TO INDEPENDENT VARIABLES (GENDER AND TEACHING METHOD)

| Teaching Method | Gender | | | | Total | |
| | Male | | Female | | | |
| | # | % | # | % | # | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Traditional | 34 | 27.9 | 28 | 23.0 | 62 | 50.8 |
| Integrative | 35 | 28.7 | 25 | 20.5 | 60 | 49.2 |
| Total | 69 | 56.6 | 53 | 43.5 | 122 | 100.0 |

A content analysis research tool was conducted to find out the percentages of integrative skills in the first six chapters in Intermediate New Headway Plus. The criteria of analysis in this research included the extent of incorporating the four skills in the units and activities under study. The unit of analysis in this study was the activity and the categories of analysis were the integrative skills in the Students' book.

An analysis of the activities under study was conducted by one of the researchers in light of the categories of the analysis in order to establish the reliability of the content analysis of integrative skills. Regarding the intra-rater reliability, a repetition of the analysis three weeks later was attempted using the same unit and categories of analysis and the percentage coefficient of the whole analysis of the integrative skills was 98 %, which is considered very high. The other researcher with another analyst familiar with content analysis conducted the content analysis on all of the activities under study using the same categories and unit of analysis. The inter-rater reliability coefficient (agreement percentage) for the integrative skills was calculated and the three coefficients were (98.8 %, 97 %   and 98 %) which are considered very high.

The researchers constructed an achievement test and administered it to the students in order to examine the equivalence between the experimental and the control groups. Then, they administered it as a posttest to examine the effect of implementing the program on the students' achievement. The focus of the questions was vocabulary items, structures and reading comprehension.  A jury of experts judged the content validity of the achievement test which consisted of ten reading comprehension items, twenty vocabulary items and twenty structural items. The jury had a few suggestions and recommendations which were taken by the researchers and modified accordingly.

Difficulty and discrimination coefficients were calculated for each individual part of the test: reading comprehension, vocabulary and structures. The items of the reading comprehension were related to each other with correlations ranging between .50 and .71 and they were related with the whole achievement test with correlations ranging between .45 and .65.  The items of vocabulary were related to each other with correlations ranging between .42 and .82 and they were related with the whole achievement test with correlations ranging between .40 and .82.  The items of structure were related to each other with correlations ranging between .46 and .83 and they were related with the whole achievement test with correlations ranging between .40 and .96.

To establish the internal consistency, the test was applied on a pilot group of 30 male and female students studying English Communication skills (102) who were excluded from the study sample using test/ retest method. The value of stability index for the achievement test was computed using KR 20 and the value of the retest reliability was computed using Pearson Correlation, as shown in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2:
STABILITY INDEX AND INTERNAL CONSISTENCY COEFFICIENTS FOR THE ACHIEVEMENT TEST

| Pearson Correlation | Reading Comprehension | Vocabulary | Structure |
|---|---|---|---|
| Vocabulary | 0.37 | | |
| Structure | 0.35 | 0.36 | |
| Achievement | 0.56 | 0.81 | 0.77 |
| Achievement and its Dimensions | KR 20 | Stability Index | N of Items |
| Reading Comprehension | 0.78 | 0.90 | 10 |
| Vocabulary | 0.90 | 0.85 | 20 |
| Structure | 0.85 | 0.87 | 20 |
| Over Whole | 0.93 | 0.86 | 50 |

Table 2 shows that the value of stability index ranged between .78 and .85. The value of the retest reliability was .86 and it ranged between .85 and .90. The table shows that the domains of the achievement test are related with the achievement test with values ranging between .56 and. 81. The values of interconnections range between for the domains range between .35 and .37.

The researchers developed a grading system for assessing the students' achievement test as a whole. The test was divided into three parts, each focusing on a particular linguistic aspect. These parts included: reading comprehension, vocabulary and structures. As for the reading comprehension part, it included 10 major questions worth 10 points. For the vocabulary part, 20 questions were asked with 1 point allocated to each. Finally, the students had to choose the most appropriate grammatical choice in the structures part; henceforth, 20 points were allocated for this part of the test. The reason behind the researchers' choice of questions was basically to measure the different linguistic elements before and after the instructional program.

Having analyzed the integration of the skills in Intermediate New Headway Plus, the researchers developed a program which aims at providing students with integrated skills in order to make them use the four skills of the language simultaneously and purposefully. The instructional material used in the present study was based on the activities in Intermediate New Headway Plus along with the researchers' designed material used to complement any shortage in the textbook in order to cover all of the four skills of the language. Once the material was compiled and modified at some point to suit the objectives of the instructional program, it was incorporated among the other skills and activities.

The instructional program was carried out by one of the researchers during the first semester of the academic year 2011/ 2012 for the experimental group and lasted for four months. Likewise, the control group was taught by the same researcher using the material in Intermediate New Headway Plus during the same semester.

To answer the questions of the study, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to analyze the students' whole achievement in English while a multiple analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was used to analyze the students' sub degrees on the dimensions of the achievement test.

To conduct the study, a systematic content analysis for the integrative skills in New Intermediate Headway Plus textbook was carried out by the use of frequencies and percentages and repeated three weeks later by one of the researchers. The other researcher along with another analyst conducted separate content analyses on all of the activities of the Students' Textbooks using the same unit and categories of analysis. Validity and reliability of the instruments were established. The achievement test was rewritten by the researchers and distributed to the sample of the study. The instructional program was constructed in which the activities were redesigned in light of the findings of the content analysis and according to the integrative method. The integrative skills program was applied by one of the researchers in the experimental group for four months while the controlled group was taught the textbook conventionally by the same researcher. The achievement test was reapplied as post tests in order to investigate the effect of the integrative skills program on developing the students' achievement in English

## IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

To answer the research questions, which seek to identify whether or not there are any statistical differences in Jordanian students' achievement in English due to the teaching method, the gender of the students or the interaction between the teaching method and the gender of the students, means and standard deviations of the pre and posttest scores were investigated, as shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3:
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE PRE AND POSTTEST SCORES DUE TO THE TEACHING METHOD,
GENDER OR THE INTERACTION BETWEEN THEM

| Teaching Method | Gender | Achievement (Covariate) | | Achievement | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Mean | Std. Dev. | Mean | Std. Dev. | Adj. Mean | Std. Error |
| Conventional | Male | 31.294 | 4.83 | 36.735 | 4.09 | 37.153 | 0.73 |
| | Female | 31.786 | 4.83 | 38.964 | 6.96 | 39.178 | 0.81 |
| | Total | 31.516 | 4.80 | 37.742 | 5.64 | 38.166 | 0.55 |
| Integrative | Male | 31.400 | 6.92 | 46.577 | 4.31 | 46.951 | 0.72 |
| | Female | 35.520 | 5.91 | 47.628 | 3.48 | 46.297 | 0.88 |
| | Total | 33.117 | 6.79 | 47.015 | 3.99 | 46.624 | 0.56 |
| Total | Male | 31.348 | 5.94 | 41.728 | 6.48 | 42.052 | 0.52 |
| | Female | 33.547 | 5.64 | 43.051 | 7.06 | 42.738 | 0.59 |

Table 3 indicates an observed difference between the means of the students' achievement in the posttest due to the teaching method and gender. To examine whether or not these differences between the mean scores of the aforementioned groups were significant, two-way interaction ANCOVA was used for the scores of the students' achievement in the posttest, based on IVs, as shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4:
ANCOVA FOR THE STUDENTS' MEAN SCORES OF THE ACHIEVEMENT POSTTEST DUE TO THE TEACHING METHOD,
GENDER OR THE INTERACTION BETWEEN THEM

| Source | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | Partial $\eta^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Achievement (Covariate) | 662.411 | 1 | 662.411 | 36.521 | 0.000 | 23.79% |
| Teaching Method | 2081.201 | 1 | 2081.201 | 114.743 | 0.000 | 49.51% |
| Gender | 13.524 | 1 | 13.524 | 0.746 | 0.390 | 0.63% |
| Teaching Method * Gender | 52.357 | 1 | 52.357 | 2.887 | 0.092 | 2.41% |
| Error | 2122.143 | 117 | 18.138 | | | |
| Total | 5498.929 | 121 | | | | |

Table 4 shows that there was a statistically significant difference at $\alpha= 0.05$ between the adjusted mean scores of students' achievement in the posttest due to the teaching method in favor of the students in the experimental group who were taught using the integrative method. This table shows that the size of effect for the teaching method was 49.51% which means that the teaching method is correlated with the students' achievement in the posttest in a rational correlation according to Abu-Hatab and Cohen citation. (Al-Sharbeenee, 1995, P. 80-81).

The same table also shows that there was no statistically significant difference at ($\alpha= 0.05$) between the adjusted mean scores of students' achievement in the posttest due to gender or the interaction between gender and the teaching method. In addition, the means and standard deviations for students' achievement in Reading Comprehension, Vocabulary and structures in the pre and posttests were calculated based on IVs along with the adjusted means and the standard errors for students' achievement in the parts of the pretest, as presented in Table 5 below.

TABLE 5:
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR THE SCORES ON THE PARTS OF THE PRE AND POSTTESTS
AS A RESULT OF THE TEACHING METHOD AND GENDER

| Dimension | Teaching Method | Gender | Pretest | | Posttest | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Mean | Std. Dev. | Mean | Std. Dev. | Adj. Mean | Std. Error |
| Reading Comprehension | Conventional | Male | 5.853 | 1.48 | 6.735 | 1.73 | 6.875 | 0.23 |
| | | Female | 6.357 | 1.47 | 7.429 | 1.73 | 7.356 | 0.26 |
| | | Total | 6.081 | 1.49 | 7.048 | 1.75 | 7.116 | 0.17 |
| | Integrative | Male | 5.714 | 1.66 | 9.217 | 1.27 | 9.392 | 0.23 |
| | | Female | 6.880 | 1.17 | 9.336 | 0.84 | 8.982 | 0.28 |
| | | Total | 6.200 | 1.57 | 9.267 | 1.11 | 9.187 | 0.18 |
| | Total | Male | 5.783 | 1.56 | 7.994 | 1.96 | 8.134 | 0.16 |
| | | Female | 6.604 | 1.35 | 8.328 | 1.67 | 8.169 | 0.19 |
| Vocabulary | Conventional | Male | 11.765 | 3.61 | 15.559 | 2.90 | 15.801 | 0.49 |
| | | Female | 12.536 | 2.73 | 15.821 | 4.17 | 15.878 | 0.54 |
| | | Total | 12.113 | 3.24 | 15.677 | 3.51 | 15.840 | 0.36 |
| | Integrative | Male | 12.343 | 3.95 | 18.314 | 3.05 | 18.343 | 0.48 |
| | | Female | 13.840 | 3.87 | 19.180 | 1.22 | 18.746 | 0.58 |
| | | Total | 12.967 | 3.95 | 18.675 | 2.48 | 18.545 | 0.37 |
| | Total | Male | 12.058 | 3.77 | 16.957 | 3.27 | 17.072 | 0.34 |
| | | Female | 13.151 | 3.35 | 17.406 | 3.55 | 17.312 | 0.40 |
| Structure | Conventional | Male | 13.676 | 2.80 | 14.441 | 2.48 | 14.500 | 0.33 |
| | | Female | 12.893 | 2.17 | 15.714 | 2.76 | 15.897 | 0.37 |
| | | Total | 13.323 | 2.55 | 15.016 | 2.66 | 15.199 | 0.24 |
| | Integrative | Male | 13.343 | 3.77 | 19.046 | 1.83 | 19.257 | 0.33 |
| | | Female | 14.800 | 3.03 | 19.112 | 1.84 | 18.531 | 0.40 |
| | | Total | 13.950 | 3.53 | 19.073 | 1.82 | 18.894 | 0.25 |
| | Total | Male | 13.507 | 3.31 | 16.777 | 3.17 | 16.879 | 0.23 |
| | | Female | 13.792 | 2.76 | 17.317 | 2.91 | 17.214 | 0.27 |

Table 5 shows the presence of a statistical difference in the means of the students' scores on the parts of the posttest due to the teaching method and gender. To determine the most appropriate analysis of covariance to use in order to detect any statistical differences in the scores of the parts in the achievement test, the correlation that exists among the scores of the part of the posttest was first calculated, after which the Barlett's Test of Sphersity was used to find if there were statistical significant correlation based on IVs, as shown in Table 6 below.

TABLE 6:
CORRELATION AMONG THE SCORES OF THE PARTS ON THE POSTTEST AND THE RESULTS ACCORDING TO THE BARLETT'S TEST

| Correlation | Reading Comprehension | Vocabulary |
|---|---|---|
| Vocabulary | 0.10 | |
| Structure | 0.10 | 0.37 |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | | |
| Likelihood Ratio | 0.000 | |
| χ2 | 77.903 | |
| df | 5 | |
| Sig. | 0.000 | |

It is evident from Table 6 that there exists statistical correlation at α= 0.05 among the scores of the sub-parts of the posttest due to both of the IVs , and as such, MANCOVA is used; the results are presented in Table 7 below.

TABLE 7:
MANCOVA RESULTS FOR THE SCORES IN THE SUB-PARTS OF THE POSTTEST AS A RESULT OF THE TEACHING METHOD AND GENDER

| Effect | MANOVA test | Value | F | Hypothesis df | Error df | Sig. | Partial η2 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Reading Comprehension (Covariate) | Wilks' Lambda | 0.84 | 7.07 | 3 | 113 | 0.000 | 15.80% |
| Vocabulary (Covariate) | Wilks' Lambda | 0.79 | 10.03 | 3 | 113 | 0.000 | 21.02% |
| Structure (Covariate) | Wilks' Lambda | 0.81 | 8.73 | 3 | 113 | 0.000 | 18.81% |
| Teaching Method | Hotelling's Trace | 1.42 | 53.47 | 3 | 113 | 0.000 | 58.67% |
| Gender | Hotelling's Trace | 0.01 | 0.28 | 3 | 113 | 0.842 | 0.73% |
| Teaching Method * Gender | Wilks' Lambda | 0.89 | 4.53 | 3 | 113 | 0.005 | 10.73% |

Table 7 shows that there was a statistically significant effect at α = 0.05 of the two variables (the teaching method and gender) on the mean scores of students' achievement in the parts of the posttest altogether. To find out on which part those significant differences were found due to the method of teaching and the interaction, ANCOVA was used for every part of the post achievement test separately based on IVs, :as shown in Table 8 below.

TABLE 8:
RESULTS OF TWO – WAY ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE BETWEEN MEAN SCORES OF THE PARTS OF
ACHIEVEMENT TEST CONCERNING GENDER AND THE TEACHING METHOD

| Dependent Variable | Source | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | Partial η2 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Reading Comprehension | Reading Comprehension (Covariate) | 28.697 | 1 | 28.697 | 16.031 | 0.000 | 12.23% |
| | Vocabulary (Covariate) | 2.383 | 1 | 2.383 | 1.331 | 0.251 | 1.14% |
| | Structure (Covariate) | 0.177 | 1 | 0.177 | 0.099 | 0.754 | 0.09% |
| | Teaching Method | 124.631 | 1 | 124.631 | 69.621 | 0.000 | 37.71% |
| | Gender | 0.032 | 1 | 0.032 | 0.018 | 0.893 | 0.02% |
| | Teaching Method * Gender | 5.731 | 1 | 5.731 | 3.201 | 0.076 | 2.71% |
| | Error | 205.865 | 115 | 1.790 | | | |
| | Total | 409.031 | 121 | | | | |
| Vocabulary | Reading Comprehension (Covariate) | 2.899 | 1 | 2.899 | 0.372 | 0.543 | 0.32% |
| | Vocabulary (Covariate) | 197.004 | 1 | 197.004 | 25.290 | 0.000 | 18.03% |
| | Structure (Covariate) | 1.417 | 1 | 1.417 | 0.182 | 0.671 | 0.16% |
| | Teaching Method | 212.552 | 1 | 212.552 | 27.286 | 0.000 | 19.18% |
| | Gender | 1.544 | 1 | 1.544 | 0.198 | 0.657 | 0.17% |
| | Teaching Method * Gender | 0.769 | 1 | 0.769 | 0.099 | 0.754 | 0.09% |
| | Error | 895.819 | 115 | 7.790 | | | |
| | Total | 1386.445 | 121 | | | | |
| Structure | Reading Comprehension (Covariate) | 14.927 | 1 | 14.927 | 4.107 | 0.045 | 3.45% |
| | Vocabulary (Covariate) | 0.072 | 1 | 0.072 | 0.020 | 0.888 | 0.02% |
| | Structure (Covariate) | 88.541 | 1 | 88.541 | 24.364 | 0.000 | 17.48% |
| | Teaching Method | 396.571 | 1 | 396.571 | 109.126 | 0.000 | 48.69% |
| | Gender | 3.023 | 1 | 3.023 | 0.832 | 0.364 | 0.72% |
| | Teaching Method * Gender | 32.564 | 1 | 32.564 | 8.961 | 0.003 | 7.23% |
| | Error | 417.919 | 115 | 3.634 | | | |
| | Total | 1129.384 | 121 | | | | |

Table 8 shows that there was a statistically significant effect at α = 0.05 between the adjusted means for the students' achievement in the parts of the posttest due to the proposed teaching method in favor of the students who were taught in the integrative method compared with the students who were taught using the conventional method. The size of effect was 37.71%, for reading comprehension, 19.18% for vocabulary and 48.69% for structures which shows a high correlation between the teaching method and the parts of the achievement test. Table 8 also shows that there was a statistically significant effect at α = 0.05 between the means of the students' achievement in structures in the posttest due to the interaction between the teaching method and gender. In order to illustrate the effect of the interaction between gender and the teaching method, Figure 1was presented.
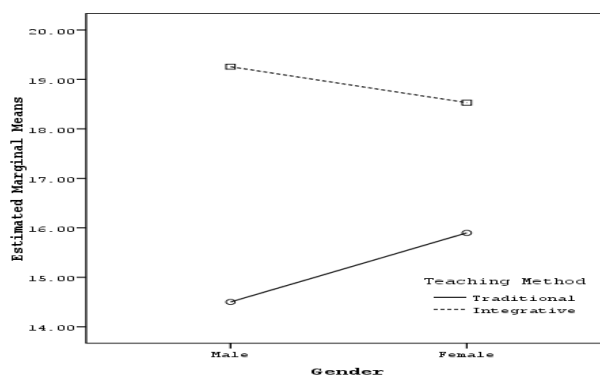


Figure 1: Line Graph of the Interaction between Gender and the Teaching Method and its Effect on the Posttest

Figure 1 shows that male students have made more progress than female students in the experimental group while female students have made more progress than male students in the control group.

## V. CONCLUSIONS

It was clear from the findings of the study that there was a statistically significant difference at α = 0.05 between the adjusted mean scores of students' achievement in the posttest due to the teaching method in favor of the students in the experimental group who were taught using the integrative method. The size of effect for the teaching method was 49.51% which means that the teaching method is related to the students' achievement in the posttest in a rational correlation. The results of the study also showed that there was a statistically significant effect at α = 0.05 between the adjusted means for the students achievement in the parts of the posttest (reading comprehension, vocabulary and structures) due to the proposed teaching method in favor of the students in the experimental group. The size of effect

was 37.71%, for Reading comprehension, 19.18% for vocabulary and 48.69% for structures which shows a rational correlation between the teaching method and the parts of the achievement test. As can be concluded from these numbers, there was a significant difference between the mean scores in favor of the experimental group due to the effect of teaching students according to the proposed teaching program.

It is clear by the scores of the experimental group that the instructional program did have a positive impact on the students' achievement. Utilizing the Whole Language Approach and the integrative method might contribute a lot to improving the quality of students' language abilities and providing them with more and better opportunities to practice language skills during English lessons in the classroom. The classes in the experimental group were students- centered and students were more motivated in practicing the four language skills simultaneously. Thus, the development of the linguistic abilities is logically justified and expected. This result is supported by the findings of other researchers (e.g. Askildson, 2008; Crawford, 1993; Dawid, 2004; Long, 1996) whose results provided evidence in favor of the students who were taught according to the integrative program.

Concerning reading comprehension, the findings of the study revealed that there was progress in the experimental group students' performance in the reading skill which could be attributed to the big amount of reading students in the experimental group practiced during the experiment. Moreover, reading is the base of the teaching and learning process in the proposed program. The afore-mentioned finding is in line with the findings of other researchers (e.g. Askildson, 2008; Long, 1996;) who indicated that using the Whole Language approach and the integrative method does improve students' reading in quality and quantity. Concerning vocabulary, the findings of the study revealed that there was progress in the experimental group students' performance in vocabulary which could be attributed to the integrative teaching in which language and meaning are inseparable. The afore-mentioned finding is in line with the findings of other researchers (e.g Askildson, 2008) who indicate that WLA develops students' achievement in vocabulary. Concerning structures, the findings of the study revealed that there was progress in the experimental group students' performance in grammar which could be attributed to the whole language teaching in which grammar is contextualized and developed with all skills. The afore-mentioned finding is in line with the findings of other researchers (e.g. Askildson, 2008; Long, 1996) who indicate that WLA develops students' achievement in grammar.

Furthermore, this result agrees with the theoretical assumptions cited in the background of the study. Many researchers (e.g Dawid, 2004; Lim and Watson, 1993) emphasize the effectiveness of the Whole Language approach and the integrative method in developing students' language abilities in general. They point out that the integration between language arts helps students attain higher levels of proficiency and develop the students' cognitive achievement and their abilities to be risk takers in expressing themselves regardless of the linguistic demands and the possibility of making errors.

It was clear from the findings of the study that there was no statistically significant difference at $\alpha = 0.05$ between the adjusted mean scores of students' overall achievement in the posttest due to gender and the interaction between gender and teaching method, whereas there was a statistically significant effect at $\alpha = 0.05$ between the means of the students' achievement in the parts of the post test. The results showed that there was a statistically significant effect at $\alpha = 0.05$ between the means of the students' achievement in structures in the posttest due to the interaction between teaching method and gender. This result is different from the findings of some other studies such as Shatnawi (2005) whose results indicated significant differences in favor of female students and a ranking interaction between the method of teaching and the gender.

There was no statistically significant effect at $\alpha = 0.05$ between the means of the students' achievement in reading comprehension and vocabulary in the posttest that can be attributed to gender. The researcher thinks that there were no statistical differences because male and female students who participated in the experiment were similar in their age and they had the same educational, social and economic background and all of them were taught in the integrative method without any discrimination between males and females which might have developed the males' linguistic abilities in the reading comprehension and vocabulary to the extent that they performed as proficient as females in the two previously mentioned parts.

Nevertheless, male students were superior and better than their female counterparts in structures only. This result is different from the findings of some other studies such as Shatnawi (2005) whose results indicated a significant difference in favor of the females in the experimental group. The disagreement between the last study and the current study could be attributed to the fact that there were certain grammatical questions that stimulated the logical intelligence, which males are usually superior in according to Gardner (1983), which helped students understand syntax, analyze the semantics of the language and solve the problems correctly and thus males performed better than females. For example, the third and fourth questions in structures lacked the clear clues of the tense and thus students who answered those questions correctly had to analyze the context and find out that it expressed past actions that have present results in order to choose the present perfect tense rather than the past simple one. In the fifth question, students had to analyze the context that lacked a clear cue word in order to differentiate between the use of temporary, permanent and finished actions in order to choose the right tense. In the ninth question, students had to differentiate between actions in active and passive voices taking into consideration the right tense and use in the context in order to answer the question correctly. Thus, the researcher thinks that the superiority and higher level of language abilities of male students in structures during the experiment is a natural and logical outcome.

In conclusion, within the limitations of this study, it appears that Integrating listening, speaking, reading and writing develops students' whole achievement in English as well as students' achievement in vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension.

**Recommendations**

Based on the findings of this study, researchers are recommended to analyze the extent of integration in syllabuses of English communication skills taught in different language centers.

**Pedagogical Implications**

Jordanian universities are recommended to design training courses and workshops for EFL teachers on the strategies of teaching integrative English skills. Local Textbook writers are recommended to design more integrative activities that provide students with opportunities to use the four skills meaningfully in every exercise. EFL teachers are recommended to recognize the importance of WLA which calls for student-centered learning environment, to provide students with more activities that stimulate students' ability to use the four skills integratively, to vary their methods of teaching to individualize learning and help students develop their linguistic abilities and to incorporate integrated activities in assessment practices in order to develop the students' academic linguistic achievement in English.

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# Memes of Translation Revisited: From Translating Poetry to *'Poeming'* Translation

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*Abstract*—**Despite different approaches, mainstream translation theorists and practitioners have always grappled with some notion of formal cultural and linguistic equivalence to translate literary works. Taking up the question of whether a faithful translation should maintain cultural heterogeneity and linguistic differences, the primary intent of this paper is to destabilize "safe" conceptions associated with literary translation and deconstruct the "comfortable fallacy" of conventional iron-clad rules such as equivalence and faithfulness. More specifically, the paper calls for a move from the mainstream cultural and linguistic discourse in translation studies towards an innovative translation model that goes beyond the limits of language and breaks cultural barriers. On the basis of this approach, the translator is a cultural and linguistic broker able to distinguish between the cultural and linguistic conditions of meaning and meaning itself—the one who 'poems' translation, re-creates or accommodates the ST and prefers beauty to faithfulness. This discussion is substantiated by examples of poems by Omani poets translated from Arabic into English and French by the present author.**

*Index Terms*—**poetry translation, faithfulness, equivalence, beauty, 'poeming', trans-creation**

## I. INTRODUCTION

No one with an interest in literary translation can fail to notice that the current status of literary translation appears to be one of great confusion and tension, with multiple parties seeking consensus about the types of paradigms and methods to be used. Pessimistic statements on the translatability of poetry in particular are much more common than affirmative ones, as the American poet Robert Frost remarked when he stated that "Poetry is what gets lost in translation" (Schub, 2003, p. 81).

In this regard, opponents of literary translation argue that translations of literary works "[are] meddling with inspiration" (Showerman, 1916, p. 100), that they are "as tasteless as a stewed strawberry" and are, as the French critic Gilles Ménage declared, "like women, *either* beautiful *or* faithful, but not both at the same time" (1990, p. 231) .

There are several reasons for such a pessimistic view. One of the reasons for the difficulty—even impossibility—of achieving a faithful or perfect translation of poems is the cultural-social component that the translator has to face, since the meaning, the content, and the form of a poem depend a great deal on the source and target culture. Putting forward a parallel assertion, Walter Benjamin contends that "no poem is intended for the reader, no picture for the beholder, and accordingly no original for a translation" (1992, p. 72).

Another argument against poetry translation is that the translator is likely to find himself under constant pressure owing to the conflict between form and meaning, which often results in a considerable loss of either the meaning or the stylistic qualities of the original. In addition to the cultural, social, and stylistic difficulties the translator may face in translating poetry, there are also pragmatic problems and losses of allusions, images, and references hidden in the author's special choice of words. As Yves Bonnefoy expresses it, the difficulty of translating a poem lies in the retention of "the spiritual statement" or the poem's "secret life" (Older, 1994, p. 29).

Nevertheless, dismissing such a pessimistic posture, yet recognizing the difficulty of the task, this study argues that poetry is what is gained in translation and that it is worth focusing on models of a more positive nature. To this effect, this paper begins with the exploration and development of two prevalent theoretical positions on the translation of poetry. One is a mainstream and conventional approach based on the principle of "equivalence," which strives to "foreignize" and adapt to the original poem in order to meet the cultural expectations of its stylistic forms and which eventually results in a faithful carbon copy of the original source language text. The other translation paradigm is a strategy which, while de-emphasizing the source text, focuses more on the target-reader and recreates a new target language hologram where the author-translator's role is not only to be faithful to the source text but also to "domesticate," reinvent and recreate the target text, and suggest "something beyond its literal sense" (Eco, 2004, p. 7). It is this second paradigm that the present study advocates.

Finally, and in contrast to some critics' argument that poetry loses in translation, the present paper aims to show that, although some of the original aspects of poems cannot be transposed, they can be recreated and re-painted and that "new arrangements may be even more luminous than the original" (Kopp, 1998, p. 162).

## II. TRANSLATING POETRY: POEMS AS FAITHFUL WOMEN

In accordance with the traditional approach, a considerable number of translation theorists and scholars emphasize that poetry translation is complex, not only because a poem is rich in linguistic, cultural, social, and aesthetic value, but also because translators engage in "an intense reaction to linguistic, psychological, anthropological and cultural phenomena (Schulte, 1987, p. 2).

One of the most pivotal principles of the conventional approach to literary translation has been the question of "equivalence," fidelity, or "faithfulness" to the source text. In this respect, a good translation is seen as an attempt to stay as close to the original text as possible in content, language, and rhyme. According to this translation paradigm, the translator offers a literal translation of a given poem and 'foreignizes' the target language text, i.e., sticks to "the text, the whole text, and nothing but the text," keeping the source language values and making them salient in the target language. Accordingly, the target language readers will feel that the translator is 'visible' and they can tell "they are reading a translation" (Munday, 2001, p. 147).

Furthermore, discussing poetry translation from this conventional standpoint, Willis Barnstone asserts that the purpose of literal translation is to transfer the meaning of words as faithfully as possible rather than to "reinvent the formal qualities of the message [or] to 'recreate' dramatically the signifier itself" (1993, p. 229). In this sense, the translation of poems consists in a faithful reproduction, word for word, of the original poem, rendering the meaning of the source text, without adding to or subtracting from it. Hence, the translator is called upon to 'foreignize' and conform to the grammatical and idiomatic conventions of the source text.

*A. Application*

This part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of three modern Omani poems composed during the years 1970-1990 and translated into English and French by the present author, treating a range of 'glocal' issues, from personal to universal, such as love, memory, and nature. It starts with a literal translation of the original poems and then shifts to a domestic re-creation of the target language text. The three poems selected for translation into English and French are from the works of three contemporary Omani poets, namely Said Al-Saklawi, Hilal Al-Amri, and Badr Al-Shibani. The three poets reflect on the theme of love and memory, lamenting the loss of a poetic vision and dreaming of a better position in the kingdom of love and beauty.

In my translation of the three poems, I have adhered to the conventional premises and I have tried to remain as close and faithful as possible to the source text in order to give readers an insight into the original poems. Based on this translation strategy, the literal (word-for-word) rendering of the three original poems is faithful to the meaning of the original form, to its content and stylistic features. However, such a translation has given little attention to sound and rhythm and has not been able, in my view, to create an aesthetic effect since some lines in the three poems are too long and lack rhythm and rhyme.

*B. Target Texts (English): Translating Poetry*

**Confused Tears**
Said Al-Saklawi
In the shades of aspirations, in his childhood's tenderness I slept
For he is my prime of youth and he is aspiration for my heart
I know not where he has gone, I know not where it's going to end
My tears are falling down from my eyes like water, blame not my tears,
I'm weeping for his love
Blame me not my friend, blame me not, blame me not
Where is my life, my love, and my flourishing stars?
Where is my dawn's harp, where is the whispering of breeze?
Where are my flowers, my spring, and my shining sun?
My love went astray, my heart lost its way in the dark seas
Will evening gatherings be back again?
Will my branches get green or will they remain branchless?
Will the sun clothe my morning or will it be dressed in darkness?
Will the star enlighten my nights and will life sing for me again?
**Love is Sleeping in Your Eyes**
Hilal Al-Amri
And I can see and love the sea in your eyes
For the waves in your eyes are tales
That tell, preserve history, and count times
Your trembling eyes look like the sea
And your eye-lashes are like waves that travel in the world of dreams
Barren of any destiny
Your glances wash my sadness as a bare wave washes thousands of beaches
The sea has slept in your eyes for so long
And the night has told records of love

And the waves of love came on a boat
Searching for your eyes to sail on them
Searching for your eye-lashes to protect them
So that love can sleep in your eyes
So that grief is thrown into the deep sea
**Your Love is Greater**
Badr Al-Shibani
I can feel your love is getting greater and greater, when the sky is cloudy and rainy
And I write beautiful, beautiful poems to paint your love in every book
And I fill my field with perfumes, with perfumes, for the fields flourish with your perfumes
And I can feel my heart can break all boundaries, if the breeze commiserates and forewarns,
For my heart can see you with an eye that says you are the most beautiful sight
And that you are permissible, permissible wine, and that existence gets drunk whenever it comes to you
And it is from your love that spring remains spring
And it is with your smiles that the morning can shine, can turn into a soft light,
into a pearl.

*C. Target Texts (French): Translating Poetry*

**Des Larmes Confuses**
Said Al-Saklawi
A l'ombre de ses ambitions, dans la tendresse de son enfance, j'ai dormi
Car il est ma jeunesse et l'aspiration de mon coeur
Je ne sais pas ōu il est allé, je ne sais pas ōu est-ce que ça va finir
Mes larmes tombent de mes yeux comme de l'eau, il ne faut pas m'en vouloir,
Je pleurs son amour
Ne m'en veux pas mon ami, ne m'en veux pas mon ami,
Où sont ma vie, mon amour, et mes étoiles florissantes?
Où est l'aube de ma harpe, ou est le murmure de la brise?
Où sont mes fleurs, mon printemps et mon soleil rayonnant?
Mon amour s'est perdu, mon coeur a perdu son chemin dans les mers obscures
Est-ce que les soir ées reviendront de nouveau?
Est-ce que mes branches seront colori ées de vert ou seront sans feuilles?
Est-ce que mes matins seront v êtus de soleil ou vont plonger dans le noir?
Est-ce que les étoiles vont éclairer mes nuits et la vie chantera pour moi encore une fois?
**L 'amour Dort dans tes Yeux**
Hilal Al-Amri
Je peux voir et aimer la mer dans tes yeux
Car les vagues dans tes yeux sont des histoires
Qui racontent, prot ègent l'histoire et comptent le temps
Tes yeux troublants ressemblent á la mer
Et tes cils ressemblent á des vagues qui voyagent dans le monde des r êves
Sans destin
Tes clins d'oeuil nettoient ma tristesse comme une vague nue nettoie les plages
La mer a longtemps dormi dans tes yeux
Et la nuit a pu pr éserver des histoires d'amour
Et les vagues d'amour ont navigu é
Chercher tes yeux pour y voyager
Chercher tes cils pour les prot éger
Afin que l'amour puisse dormir dans tes yeux
Afin que la tristesse soit jet ée dans des mers profondes.
**Ton Amour est Plus Grand**
Badr Al-Shibani
Je peux sentir que ton amour devient de plus en plus grand quand le ciel devient nuageux et pluvieux
Et j' écris de beaux po èmes, de beaux po èmes afin de peindre ton amour dans tous les livres
Et je rempli mes champs de parfums, de parfums, car les champs prosp èrent avec ton parfum
Et je sens que mon coeur peut briser tous les obstacles, quand la brise compatit et m'avertit
Car mon coeur te voit avec un oeil qui dit que tu es la plus belle
Et que tu es du vin, oui, du vin b énit, et que l'existence devient vre quand elle te rencontre
Et que c'est avec ton amour que le printemps demeure printemps
Et qu'avec tes sourires que les matins brillent, qu'ils deviennent une  lumiere douce, une perle.
(*My translation*)

### III.  *'Poeming'* Translation: From Faithful Women to Creative Infidels

Since the translation of the three Omani poems is intended mainly for a readership that can neither read nor appreciate them in their original language (i.e., Arabic), it logically follows that the translation paradigm chosen in this paper must be first and foremost conditioned by the needs of the receptor of the target language. Hence, the future translation paradigm adopted in this paper steps beyond conventional principles and procedures and is more than a mere literal translation involving a great deal of recreation and interpretation. According to this approach, the translator's special role is by no means a passive and mechanical one, but rather that of an artist, a re-creator, and an actor.

Several scholars share this view and consider literary translation to be a creative process. Gui, for instance, believes that "translation is not merely a transformation of an original text into a literal equivalent, but must successfully convey the overall meaning of the original" (1995, p. 135).

In a similar vein, Jackson declares that literary translation is not imitation or a carbon copy of the original, but rather a counterpart or equivalent for expressions used in the source language. In his article entitled "From Translation to Imitation," Jackson argues much the same point. He holds that a translator must consider that "what he writes is similar, but not the very same, and the similarity, moreover, should not be like that of a painting or statue to the person represented, but rather like that of a son to a father, […] as the bees make honey, not keeping the flowers but turning them into a sweetness of our own, blending many different flavors into one, which shall be unlike them all, and better" (Jackson, 2003, p, 15).

Similarly, Walter Benjamin argues against literal translation, which is a faithfulness or fidelity in the translation of an artistic work. In *The Task of the Translator*, he emphasizes that it is important to recreate the mode of significance of the source text and that "real translation is transparent, it does not cover the original, does not block its light, but allows the pure language to shine upon the original" (1992, p. 123).

Others, like Lambert, also maintain that literary translation is literary interpretation and that it is "the fruit of a substantial creative effort by the translator, who is the key agent in the subjective activity and social practice of translation" (1988, p. 133). This meshes with Vermeer's *Skopos* translation theory, which also favors the principle of openness, i.e., an open relationship between the source text and the translated one (1989). Vermeer assumes that the communicative value of the source text is more important than faithfulness to the source text, and that the translator of a poem should therefore be allowed a great deal of freedom as long as he adheres to the essential meaning of the original poem.

In view of the future translation paradigm adopted by the present study, more emphasis is placed on the principle of re-creation, interpretation, and domestication of the source text in my translation of the three Omani poems into English and French. My goal as a translator here has been to reproduce a text that is a translation of the original and is, at the same time, a poem in its own right within the target language. In other words, I was influenced by my personal tastes and preferences in addition to adhering to formal translation criteria when creating a counterpart for the original poems.

It is my view that, despite some sort of stylistic and semantic loss in translating the three Omani poems, all these renderings have succeeded to some extent in capturing the original style, images, and wording. All these variations, moreover, have compensated for the loss of rhythm and rhyme, have introduced an equivalent for the consonant sounds, and have added structural devices such as parallelism in order to reproduce an equivalent aesthetic effect.

*A.  Target Texts (English): 'Poeming' Translation*

**Tears at a Loss**
Said Al-Saklawi
Under the shade of ambition, in his childhood's tenderness I slept
For he was my youthful prime and model for my heart
I know not where he's gone, I know not where it will end
My tears flow down like water
Blame not my tears, I'm weeping for his love
Blame me not, my friend, blame me not
Where my life, my love, my flourishing stars?
Where my dawn's harp and the whispering breeze?
Where my flowers, my spring, my shining sun?
My love strayed far, my heart quite lost in the darkest seas
Will the gatherings of evening come back again?
Will my branches grow green or stay without shoots?
Will the sun clothe my morning or dress it in dark?
Will the stars light up my nights and life sing for me once more?
**Love Can Sleep in Your Eyes**
Hilal Al-Amri
And I can see and love the sea in your eyes
For the waves in your eyes are tales
That tell, keep history, and count times

Your trembling eyes look like the sea
Your eye-lashes are waves that traverse the world of dreams
Barren of destiny
Your glances wash my sadness as a bare wave washes beaches
The sea has slept in your eyes for so long
And the night holds records of love
And the waves of love came on a boat
Searching for your eyes to sail on them
Searching for your eye-lashes to protect them
So that love can sleep in your eyes
So that grief can be thrown into the depths of the sea.

**Shall I Describe Thy Love?**
Badr Bin Ali Al-Shibani
I can feel your love is growing always, whenever the sky is cloudy and rainy
And I write beautiful poems to paint it in my books
And I fill my field with perfumes, yes, with perfumes, for the fields flourish with your fragrance
And I feel my heart break the bounds when the breeze commiserates and forewarns,
For my heart sees you with an eye that says you're the loveliest
That you are permissible, yes, permissible wine, and that life gets drunk whenever it meets you
And it's with your love that spring remains spring
And it's with your smiles that morning can shine, can become a soft light,
Can become a pearl.

B.  *Target Texts (French): 'Poeming' Translation*

**Des Larmes à Mi-Chemin**
Said Al-Saklawi
Je m'endormais à l'ombre, dans la tendresse de son enfance
Car il est pour moi la jeunesse et tout ce que le coeur désire
Je ne sais où il a disparu, je ne sais où il va en finir
Mes larmes coulèrent comme des gouttes d'eau, ne m'en veux pas,
Je pleurs l'amertume de son amour
Ne m'en veux pas, mon cher, ne m'en veux pas
Où sont partis mon amour et mes étoiles rayonnantes?
Où sont l'aube de ma harpe et le bruissement de la brise?
Où sont mes fleurs, mon printemps et ma jeunesse?
Mon amour, mon coeur ont perdu le chemin dans les mers profondes
Les soirées, les retrouvailles, reviennent-elles un jour?
Mes branches, seront-elles de nouveau vêtues de joie ou ne verront-elles plus le jour?
Mes jours, seront-ils vêtus de soleil ou plongeront-ils dans le noir?
Mes nuits, seront-elles éclairées d'étoiles et la vie chantera-t-elle pour moi de nouveau?

**L'Amour S'en Dort Dans Tes Yeux**
Hilal Al-Amri
Je perçois et j'adore la mer à travers tes yeux
Car les vagues deviennent des contes dans tes yeux
Des fées qui racontent l'histoire du temps
Tes yeux frémissants ressemblent à la mer
Tes cils sont des vagues qui traversent le monde des rêves
Dénudés de toutes destinations
Et tes regards me purifient de mon chagrin comme les vagues vierges nettoient la plage
La mer a longtemps rêvé dans le royaume de tes yeux
Et la nuit a longtemps raconté des fées d'amour
Et les vagues d'amour ont pris la mer
A la recherche de tes yeux pour y voyager
A la recherche de tes cils pour les protéger
Afin que l'amour puisse dormir dans tes yeux
Afin que le chagrin se dissolve dans les mers les plus profondes.

**Dois-je Décrire ton Amour?**
Badr Al-Shibani
A chaque fois que le ciel est nuageux et pluvieux, je sens que ton amour devient plus puissant
Ainsi, je compose de beaux poèmes pour peindre ton amour dans toutes les oeuvres d'art
Et je couvre mes champs de parfum car les champs ne se parfument que de ton parfum

Et à chaque fois que la brise, d'un air compatissant, me fait signe, je sens que mon coeur se débarrasse de tous les obstacles

Car mon coeur te voit d'un oeil qui déclare que tu es la plus ravissante

Et que tu es du vin, oui, du vin bénit, et que la vie s'enivre en te rendant visite

Et que c'est seulement grâce à ton amour que le printemps garde son printemps

Et que c'est seulement grâce à tes sourires que le soleil rayonne, et se transforme en une lumière douce, en une perle.

## IV. CONCLUSION

The present study has attempted to disclose two prevalent approaches to the translation of three Omani poems, with a special emphasis on a paradigm that advances the claim that language and stylistic features are not everything in a poem, that a poem should focus more on aesthetic effects and has to be appreciated in the first place.

Touching upon dominant translation theories, the study has presented what I consider a more efficient translation strategy, which discourages the tendency towards over-faithfulness, equivalence, and fidelity to the original poem and moves beyond the words set on the page, recreates the poem's aesthetic aspects, and domesticates the source language text by changing the source language values and making them readable for the target language audience.

Yet, giving myself much freedom and license to naturalize the three Omani poems does not mean that the authors and source texts have been ignored in the translation process, nor does it insinuate that a poem is open to endless renderings.

This study has also argued against the belief that "the clumsiest literal translation is a thousand times more useful than the prettiest paraphrase" (Nabokov, 1999, p. 12). Also, an attempt has been made to show that, in case of discrepancy between the meaning of a poem and the demands of its readers, a legitimate interpretation is needed and more emphasis should be put on the tenet of 'poeming' and re-creation. In brief, this study has striven to demonstrate that no translation of a poem is ever "the same as" or "equivalent to" the original poem itself. As James Holmes puts it:

'Equivalence', like sameness, is asking too much ... What the translator strives for is ... not over-all sameness or equivalence... Rather it consists in finding what I should prefer to call 'counterparts' or 'matchings' ... fulfilling functions in the language of the translation and the culture of its reader (Holmes, 2005).

## APPENDIX. A SOURCE TEXTS: ARABIC

**1) الدموع الحائرة**
تحت أظلال الأماني نمت في عطف صباه
فهو للصب حياة, وهو للقلب مناه
لست أدري أين ولى ... لست أدري منتهاه
ان دمعي من عيوني في انحدار كالمياه
لا تلمني في بكائي, فأنا أبكي هواه
لا تلمني يا صديقي لا تلمني , لا تلمني
أين دنياي وحبي ونجومي الزاهرات؟
أين قيثارة بدري ... أين همس النسمات؟
أين زهري, وربيعي, وشموسي المشرقات؟
ضاع حبي, تاه قلبي, في بحور مظلمات
أتراها من جديد ستعود الأمسيات
هل ستخضر غصوني أو ستبقى ذاويات؟
هل ستكسو الشمس صبحي أو سيكسى ظلمات؟
هل ينير النجم ليلي وتغنيني الحياة؟
**سعيد الصقلاوي**
**2) ينام العشق بعينيك**
الموج بعينيك روايات
تحكي التاريخ وتحفظه وتعد الأزمان
تشبه عينيك البحر برعشتها
ورموشك كالأمواج تسافر في دنيا الأحلام
بلا عنوان
نظراتك تغسل أحزاني كالموج الحافي
يغسل آلاف الشطآن
نام البحر بعينيك طويلا
وتلا الليل دواوين العشق
جاءت أمواج الحب بزورقها
تبحث عن عينيك لتبحر فيها
تبحث عن أهدابك تحرسها
لينام العشق بعينيك
ولتلقى الأحزان بعمق البحر

**هلال العامري**
**3) حبك أكبر**

| | |
|---|---|
| اذا ما تغيم السماء وتمطر | أحس بحبك أكبر أكبر |
| فأكتب شعرا جميلا جميلا | لأرسم حبك في كل دفتر |
| وأملأ حقلي عطورا عطورا | لأن الحقول بعطرك تزهر |
| اذا ما يرق النسيم ويخطر | أحس فؤادي الى الخلد يعبر |
| لأن فؤادي يراك بعين | تقول بأنك أجمل منظر |
| وأنك خمر ... حلال حلال | يسير الوجود اليه فيسكر |
| ومنك الربيع يصير ربيعا | لتغدو الحقول أرق وأنظر |
| ومنك الصباح يشع ابتساما | ليصبح نورا لطيفا وجوهر |

**بدر الشيباني**

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# Teaching Communication Strategies in an EFL Class of Tertiary Level

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*Abstract*—This article deals with the effects of teaching communication strategies (CSs) on the types of communication strategies used by the students and level of speech comprehensibility. This research is largely experimental involving 23 students. The research isntruments include vocabulary test to identify students' unknown objects, treatment, and observation. Descriptive qualitative analysis was used to analyze the linguistic features, and repeated measure t-test was used to analyze the level of speech comprehensibility. The results reveal that (1) in terms of frequency, there are increases in 4 types CSs, decreases in 7 types of CSs, and a consistancy in one type of CS, (2) there is a significant increase in the level of speech comprehensibility. Therefore, it can be concluded that teaching communication strategies prommote students' communication skills.

*Index Terms*—comunication strategy, comprehesibility, foreignizing, time-stalling

## I. INTRODUCTION

In Indonesian context of English Language Teaching (ELT), the goal of teaching English is to develop the students' communicative competence, that is, having substantial ability to communicate in variety of communicative situations. However, there is an indication that students' oral production is unsatisfactory (see e.g. Cahyono & Widiati, 2008; Setiyadi, 2009; and Rachmawaty & Hermagustiana, 2010). Therefore, there seems to be in need to include the teaching of communication strategies in the classroom context.

For the sake of pedagogical reasons, this artcile views that communication strategy teaching deserves a place in the classroom on the basis of several reasons. First, communication strategy training may promote learners' awareness to use their linguistic resources to minimize communication problems. Second, strategic competence is a part of learner's communicative competence. Third, communication strategy training bridges the gap between classroom and real-life communication. Finally, communication strategy training contributes to the students' security, self-confidence, and motivation to communicate.

This article, therefore, examines the effects of teaching communication strategies on the realization of communication strategies both qualitatively (the features of each type of communication strategies used by the students, and quantitatively (frequency of the strategies used and level of speech comprehensibility).

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Communication strategies are generally defined as the ways in which a speaker attempts to solve communication problems to reach particular communicative goals (e.g. Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Dörnyei, 1995; Faucette, 2001; Tarone, 2005; Lam, 2006; Maleki, 2007; Aliakbari & Allvar, 2009). When attempting to communicate a message to listeners, a speaker may have to struggle to find appropriate expressions and grammatical constructions to compensate for gaps between what he/she intends to express and the available linguistic resources.

The study of communication strategies (CSs) can be traced through the work of Selinker (1972) on interlanguage, which introduces the notion of communication strategies, on the basis of which Veradi (1973) and Tarone (1977) produce systematic analysis of communication strategies. Since then, there has been a growing increase in the number of studies dealing with communication strategies. However, different researchers see communication strategies from different points of view, which can be observed in terms of the perspective of CSs, the taxonomy of CSs, the variables affecting CSs, the use of CSs in L1 and L2, and the strategy training of CSs.

First, communication strategy is defined in two main theoretical perspectives – interactional and psycholinguistic. Interactionalist scholars (e.g. Veradi, 1993; Tarone, 1977) focus on interactional view – the joint negotiation of meaning between interactants. Communication strategies are seen as attempts to bridge the gap between the linguistic knowledge of the speaker and the linguistic knowledge of the interlocutor. Meanwhile, psycholinguistic researchers (e.g. Faerch and Kasper, 1983; Bialystok, 1990; Poulisse, 1990; and Kellerman, 1991) are interested in the cognitive process in relation to the use of CSs. They discuss communication strategies in psycholinguistic terms. Communication strategies are seen as psychological problem-solving framework and are treated as mental phenomena which underlay actual language behavior (Ellis, 1985). Therefore, communication strategies are used to solve their communication problems.

Second, in terms of the taxonomy of communication strategies, it is also traced that there are two main classifications of communication strategies, i.e. product-based and process-based classifications. The former follows the traditional conceptualization of communication strategies (e.g. Tarone, 1977; Tarone and Yule, 1989; Faerch and Kasper, 1983, Littlewood, 1989; Bialystok, 1990; and Chen, 1990) that produces the taxonomy of communication strategies based on linguistic products. The latter produces the taxonomy of communication strategies based on psycholinguistic phenomena, the proponents of which include among others Poulisse and Schills (1989), Kellerman (1991), and Littlemore (2003). This approach follows the assumption that identifying cognitive process underlying the choice of a strategy is essential. Therefore, the two frameworks above produced different approach in producing the typology of communication strategies.

Third, previous studies on communication strategies revealed that the use of communication strategies is influenced by several factors, i.e. learner's target language proficiency and situation of use. In the case of the former, it appears that students' linguistic proficiency may, to some degree, influence his/her choice of communication strategies (e.g. Tarone, 1977; Bialystok, 1983b; Ting and Lau, 2008; Aliakbari, 2009). In the case of the latter, learner's communication strategies were affected by the situation of use. For example, Ellis (1985) suggests that learners may use fewer strategies in a classroom environment than in a natural one, particularly if the pedagogical focus is on correct L2 rules rather than in fluent communication. A previous study conducted by Piranian (1979) found that American university students learning Russian relied more on avoidance, whereas learners with natural exposure used paraphrase. The findings seem to suggest that different situations might, to a certain degree, affect the learner's choice of particular communication strategies (see e.g. Rababah, 2002, 2005).

Fourth, previous studies concerning the use of communication strategies in L1 and L2 indicate that there is no correlation between strategy use and L1 background. The use of communication strategies is evident in L1 and L2. In other words, there is no difference between the use of communication strategies in L1 and L2 communication strategy use (e.g. Tarone, 1977; Tarone and Yule, 1989; Kellerman, 1991; and Lukmana, 1996).

The fifth area of focus in the study of communication strategies, which will be the focus of the present study, is communication strategy teaching. It is evident that responses to the teaching have been varied. Many scholars of communication strategies (e.g. Kellerman, 1991; Bialystok, 1990; Poulisse, 1990) believe that cognitive process is unaffected by instruction; therefore, communication strategies are not teachable. However, other scholars who focus on the language expressions used in identifying the types of communication strategies (e.g. Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Dörnyei, 1995; Galagher Bret, 2001; Rositer, 2003a; Nakatani, 2005; Lam, 2006; Ya-ni, 2007; Tiwaporn, 2009; and Maleki, 2007, 2010) advocate the necessity to teach the linguistic expressions for effective L2 communication. In other words, communication strategy training deserves a place in language classroom contexts.

## A. Typology of Communication Strategies

There are two main approaches of classifying communication strategies i.e. product-based classification and "process-based classification. Product-based has resulted the typology based on surface structural differences in the utterances and claimed that under such differences there are possibilities to express thoughts. In the light of the interactional approach, for example, Tarone (1977) reveals that there are strategies that can be used to overcome linguistic knowledge differences between second language learner and native speaker. There are 5 main categories: avoidance, paraphrase, conscious transfer, appeal for assistance, and mime.

Faerch and Kasper view communication strategies as a model of speech production that consists of planning phase (where the plan is developed), and execution phase (where the plan is executed). If a learner faces the communication problems so that the plan cannot be executed, he/she takes either avoids the problems which leads to a change of the communicative goal and reduction strategies, or faces the problems and develops an alternative plan which leads to achievement strategies.

Process-based classification proposes alternative taxonomy of communication strategies which is based on the assumption that identifying cognitive processes that underlie the choice of the strategy is essential, as well as, taking into account the factors involved in such selection. Kellerman (1991) claims that some of the strategies demonstrate the same underlying cognitive processes and should therefore not be classified as different strategies even if they are not generalized over task, language, and learner. He further criticized on the definition of the strategies, that are sometimes too vague, and the choice of some criteria, e.g. 'the construction of a new word' as a definition of 'word coinage' excludes all the words created by the learner but that already exist in the language.

The typology of communication strategies based on underlying processes involved in the production of the strategies make them psychologically plausible. Bialystok (1990) has expressed the importance of strategies differing in a psychologically correct way. The theory proposed is based on the distinction between 'analysis' (an attempt to convey the structure of the intended concept by making explicit the relational defining feature – the speaker modifies the content of the message by using his knowledge about concept) and 'control' (the manipulation of form of expression through attention to different sources of information) which is firmly grounded in cognitive psychology. The Nijmegen Project, includes Kellerman and Poulisse, uses a binary system based on conceptual and linguistic strategies. Conceptual strategies are either analytic or holistic. However, there are also cases where analytic and holistic are combined. Linguistic strategies involves morphological creativity and strategy of transfer

A number of researchers on communication strategies have made some typologies of communication strategies. Different researchers have made attempts to group communication strategies in meaningful categories.

*B. Communication Strategies Used in the Present Study*

The typology provided by the proponents of communication strategies are grouped according to certain criteria: (1) the learner's choice as to whether to reduce or to achieve the goal; (2) to consult different source of information L1 or L2; and (3) to use the conceptual or linguistic knowledge. Therefore, it can be inferred that different researchers have used different typologies for classifying communication strategies. Some researchers used the same label of typology and some others use different names but refer to the same concepts/of communication strategies. Rababah (2002) confirmed that the terminology used to describe strategic behavior varies great deal, but the corresponding part of most existing strategies show many similarities. For example, compensatory strategy of Faerch and Kasper (1983) are convergent with the major strategies proposed by Tarone (1977); approximation, coinage, literal translation, paraphrase, avoidance, and appeal for help. Therefore, Bialystok remarks:

The varieties of taxonomy proposed in the literature differ primarily in the terminology and overall categorizing principle rather than in the substance of the specific strategies. If we ignore, then, differences in the structure of the taxonomies by abolishing the various overall categories, then a core group of specific strategies that appear consistently across the taxonomies clearly emerges. Differences in the definitions and illustration for these core strategies across the various studies are trivial. (Bialystok: 1990: p. 61)

Based on the typology of communication strategies proposed by the researchers above, there are basically only two main categories of communication strategies: reduction strategies and achievement strategies. The former is adopted by the learner who attempts to do away with a problem. They involve the learners giving up part of his/her original communicative goal and achievement strategies. The latter is taken by the learner when he/she decides to keep the original communicative goal but compensate for insufficient means, or makes the effort to retrieve the required items. However, after analyzing the two main strategies, the present study categorizes communication strategies into 12 strategies namely approximation, circumlocution, exemplification, comparison, word coinage, borrowing/code switching, foreignizing, repetition, non-verbal, avoidance, time-stalling device, and appeal for assistance.

## III. METHOD

This research is largely experimental involving 23 students who are taking Intermediate Speaking class. One-group-pretest-and-posttest design was used and it was conducted through 3 steps. First, the students were tested to label photos of daily objects. Then, the students were asked to describe unknown object in order to elicit communication strategies. Second, the students were taught to be aware and to be able to use the twelve targeted communication strategies. Third, the students were tested to label photos of daily objects, then, they were asked to describe unknown objects in order to elicit communication strategies after the treatment. The realization of communication strategies were analyzed in terms of linguistic features, the frequency of occurrence, and level of speech comprehensibility.

The teaching of communication strategies was largely presented in 3 stages, i.e. orientation, exposition and practice. In orientation, the students were introduced with the types of communication strategies. The students were also taught how to use communication strategies to solve communication problems. In exposition, the students were exposed with dialogue of listening materials and they were asked to listen to the dialogue. After listening, the students were asked to identify particular communication strategies the speakers used in the dialogue. The students were also exposed with linguistic resources required for the success of using communication strategies like vocabulary aspects (i.e. material, shape, color, size, texture, parts, clothing, taste, synonym, antonym) and grammar aspects (i.e. tenses, passive voice). In practice, every student was given photos of unknown objects to be described in front of the class. Meanwhile, the audiences were asked to evaluate his/her performace in terms of the level of speech comprehensibility by scoring whcih ranged from 1 to 10.

## IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This section attempts to answer the first issue raised in the first research problem, i.e. the effects of teaching communication strategies on the the types of communication strategies used by the learners. The answers of the question are based on two perspectives, i.e. features and frequency of communication strategy used.

*A. Features of Communication Strategies*

**Approximation** serves as one of the communication strategies whereby the speaker uses a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the speaker knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item. Before teaching, approximation was characterized by 2 types of features, i.e. expectancy and hyponymy relation. After teaching, this strategy was characterized by 3 types of features, i.e. expectancy, hyponymy, and synonymy relations. In the case of expectancy relation, the student produces "This object is used in children's head to arrange their hair." The student approximates the word "hair band" with location it is normally place, i.e. "head" and and its function, i.e. "to arrange thier hair". While hyponymy relation is made by producing utterance like "It is the tool to dig the soil" when describing "shovel". The shovel is the type of tool. Example of synonymy

relation is "It is a sweeper ...to clean the rubbish from the floor". The student approximates "plam-rib broom" with "sweeper

**Circumlocution** is saying in many words what may be said in few words. More specifically, circumlocution is defined as a change in preverbal message involving more than single chunk. Realizing that the speaker encounters communication problem with the interlocutor, he/she circumlocutes the words by describing the properties of the object or action instead of using appropriate target language item or structure. There are 7 features of circumlocution used by the students, i.e. material, locational. elaboration, color, shape, function, and size.

Material type of circumlocution was characterized by linguistic features such as *it is made of/from/by...., it is from...., it is the mixture of..., you need cement, sand.* Locational was characterized by linguistic features such as *it is found in front of..., it is found in..., it is located in..., we put it in....*, etc. Elaboration was characterized by linguistic features such as *conditional relation* (if + subject +verb, subject+ verb*), cause and effect relation* (because + Subject + verb, subject + verb), and *sequential relation* (before/after + Subject + verb, subject + verb). Color was characterized by linguistic features such as *it is yellow/green/white/red..., and the color is ..., it will be red/green..., it has many colors like blue, yellow..., and the color can be ...*etc. Shape was characterized by linguistic features such as *the shape of this object is..., ...and the shape is like..., it is square/triangle...., it has many shapes like...* Functional was characterized by linguistic features such as *...it is used to/for/by..., the function of this object is for..., you use this object for..., you can use it for...* And lastly, **s***ize* was characterized by linguistic features such as *...the size is ...., it is big/small/large..., the height is ...., and it measures about ...., it has many sizes such as...., the weight is*

**Exemplification** is defined as illustrating the unknown object by giving an example. The speaker gives examples such as stories, people, occasions, and novels that reflected the meaning of the concept (Chen, 1990). The most common feature of exemplification is by using the phrases such as *for examples*, *for instances*, *examples include*, etc.

**Comparison** is the act of examining, judging to what extent person or things are similar or not similar. This strategy is characterized by feature, i.e. analogy, synonymy and negative comparison i.e. contrast and opposition, antonymy. Examples of comparison the students used for performing the communication tasks are *This is the same as rectangulars, It will be cleaner than before, It makes the room more beautiful.*

**Word coinage** means the speaker invents a new word to maintain the flow of communication. The speaker creates new word or phrase by applying L2 morphological rules to an L2 word hoping that he/she will be able to express the desired meaning (Faerch & Kasper, 1984; Kellerman, 1991). Examples of features of word coinage the students used for performing the communication tasks are *half-triangle* for *easel*, *main body* for *tree trunk*, *bodiless* for *shapeless*

**Code-switching** is identified by the speaker's use of native language when speaking in an L2 (see e.g. Faerch & Kasper, 1984; Littlewood, 1989; Bialystok, 1990). Code-switching strategies might be the commonest communication phenomena found in non-native language learners who have the same native language background. When the speaker encountered communication problem, he/she resorted to *borrowing/code-switching* certain word or phrases in L1. Tarone (1977) used the term as "language mix strategy", Littelwood (1989) used "switch to the native language". The speaker resorted to the native language because he/she realized that the listeners had the same native language with the speaker. Cook (1996) confirms that the profile of the proficient L2 user includes the *code-switching mode* of language. It is not something that is peculiar or unusual. If the bilingual knows that the listener shares the same languages, code-switching is likely to take place for all the reasons given above. Paramashivam (2009) also confirms that the learners' first language functions as a strategy for communication but also how it can enhance second language learning by way of helping learners expand their second language repertoire and increase their automatization of second language item.

Based on the results of analysis, the students' frequent use of L1 were categorized into word such as '*zikir*' [praying], '*memutar*' [turn around], '*lengan*' [sleeve], and expressions such as '*Aduh!*'[Ouch!], '*Apa ya*?'[What is it?]*", 'Apa sih?'* [What is that], *'Apa*?' [What?]". However, in terms of using proper names like *Ramayana* [Hindu epic], *Rumah Gadang* [Padangese traditional big house], and *Siger*, [Lampungese wedding crown] the speaker probably had no way of using target language because the terminologies were only found in native language culture. For examples, *siger* is found in Lampung province referring to Lampungese traditional crown worn on the head of a groom, *rumah gadang* is found only in West Sumatra referring to West Sumatra's traditional big house occupied by more than one family, and *Ramayana* is found in Indonesia that refers to great Hindu epic from which many themes of Indonesian literature and public life are drawn.

However, after teaching, the students' use of code-switching was still found, although the prevalence was not as many as there were before teaching. However, the students' use of L1 occurred only in the level of word but not in expression such as *"Ramayana", "rumah gadang", "siger", "muncrat"* [spray]. The decrease in the number of code-switching after eaching seems to indicate that the teaching of communication strategy gave positive effect on the students' realization of communication strategies because they relied more on TL-based strategies such as circumlocution, approximation, comparison to deliver messages to the listeners. In other words, after the teaching the students were more confident to use TL-strategies rather than L1-based strategies.

**Foreignizing** is defined as the speaker's use of a non-L2 form but adapt it to make it appear like a L2 form (see e.g. Faerch & Kasper, 1984; Bialystok, 1990; Faucette, 2001). Before teaching, it was identified that there was only one linguistic feature of foreignizing. The newly invented word "*to bor*" was used by the student to refer "to drill" the soil or "to make a hole". The use of "*to bor*" may be influenced by the word in Indonesia "*mengebor tanah*" which means

"to make a hole of the soil". Foreignizing was probably common phenomena found in the second language learners who performed communication tasks as they had inadequate linguistic resources. However, no linguistic feature of foreignizing was found after the students had learned how to use commuication strategies. Therefore, iit can be inferred that teaching communication strategy gave positive effect on the students' realization of communication strategies in the way that it can reduce the students' misconception of the target language rules.

**Repetition** is defined as the speaker's passing on the old information by repeating what he/she had said in the previous turns. In the present study, *repetition* is used because the speaker takes time of what will be said next. *Repetition* occurs in word level and expression level. The speaker's use of *repetition* was classified into word level and expression level. Examples of the words level were " to open", "the bottle", "rice" , to dig", "to open the screw", "our mother", "circle" "a place", "you usually…", "in paper", "small thing", "when we…", "this place", "to lie", "dining room", "to describe", "dig the soil", "in the pan", "it's name", whereas the examples of expression level such as in "we use it", "it is used", "it is useful to take the water", "we always used for…", "it is used to..".

Based on the data found after the teaching, the use of *repetition* was still in found in two levels word level and expression level. Examples of word level were "additional lock", "rib", whereas expression level were "it is made of….", "it is used to…". The students made less frequent repetition after training than did before training. In other words, the teaching of communication strategy gave positive effect in the way that it can reduce the students' use of repetition. The finding is in line with research conducted by Dӧrnyei (1995) who found that communication strategy training has direct impact on the students' speech rate.

**Non-verbal** serves as one of the communication strategy used by learners. The use of non-linguistic means in place of a lexical item (Littlewood, 1989; Bialystok, 1990; Faucette, 2001). This strategy is characterized by featuresn such as mime, gestures, facial expression, etc. *Non-verbal* as one of the strategies used was found not only from the linguistic data in transcription but also from observation.

The students did many things possible to make his/her speech comprehensible by using non-linguistic strategies. Other features of non-verbal are (1) showing where the *hair band* was worn, (2) showing how to use *abacus*, (3) showing the shape of *pliers* by drawing an 'X' letter, (4) showing the action of digging to describe *shovel*, (5) showing the irregular shape of *can opener*, (6) showing the act of taking the cake using *cake tweezers*, (7) showing the act of bunching the hair to describe *hair pin*, (8) showing the shape of right three angle to describe easel, and (9) showing the irregular shape of *barbed wire* by drawing. The prevalence of non-verbal strategies before and after training is equal. The finding seems to indicate that non-verbal strategies are still well liked by the students because these strategies are helpful to support delivering messages to the listeners. Dӧrnyei (1995) supports that some people can communicate effecttively in an L2 with only 100 words by using their hands, they imitate the sound or movement of things.

**Avoidance** is identified as the speaker simply does not talk about the concept for which the target language item or structure is not known (Tarone, 1977; Bialystok, 1990; Faucette, 2001). The transcript of the interview might support the reasons for the students to employ avoidance. By comparing the data before and after teaching, it was found that (1) the linguistic feature of avoidance before and after teaching is similar, (2) the main reason for the students to use avoidance is their lack of target language resources.

**Time-stalling device** is used when the speaker realizes that he/she encounters communication problem with interlocutor. *Time-stalling device* is identified when the speaker begins to talk about a concept but cannot continue and stop in the mid-utterance (Faerch & Kasper, 1984; Faucette, 2001). This strategy is characterized by a silence or filler in the mid utterance. The finding seemed to imply that the students were more fluent in arranging the sentences for describing the objects after being trained in the posttest than in the pretest. The transcript of the interview might support the reasons for the students to employ time-stalling device. The findings seem to indicate that students' speech rate increases after learning how to used cmmunication strategies. The finding confirms Dörnyei's (1995) result of research that communication strategy training has direct impact on the students' speech rate.

**Appeal for Assistance** is used in order to maintain the flow of communication, the speaker appeals for assistance (see e.g. Tarone, 1977; Faerch & Kasper, 1984; Bialystok, 1990). This strategy is characterized by the use of expression signaling direct appeal such as "What is this?", "Do you know how to say this in English?" etc. A question was used as a clue of appeal for assistance to the interlocutors. The students used appeal for assistance strategies not only in the target language like "What is it?", "What?", "Can you imagine that?" but also in the native language like "Apa sih? [What is it?], "Apa ya?" [What is it?].

TABLE 3:
THE FEATURES OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES THE STUDENTS PRODUCED

| No. | Types of Communication Strategy | Features |
|-----|--------------------------------|----------|
| 1. | Approximation | hyponimy relation, synonimy relation, and expectancy relation |
| 2. | Circumlocution | material, locational, elaboration (*conditional relation, cause and effect relation, sequential relation*) color, shape, functional, size |
| 3. | Examplification | Expression like for example, *for instance, example includes* |
| 4. | Comparison | analogy, synonymy and negative comparison i.e. contrast and opposition, antonymy |
| 5. | Word Coinage | Word creation like *box of drug* for *medicine box, to on the lamp* for *socket, half-triangle* for *easel, main body* for *tree trunk, bodiless* for *shapeless* |
| 6. | Code-switching | Word level like *zikir* (praying), *memutar* (turn around), *lengan* (sleeve), expression level like *Apa sih* (what is it?), *Aduh, apa ya?* (Ouch, what is it?), and proper noun like *rumah gadang* (Padangese traditional big house), *Ramayana* (Hindu Epic) |
| 7. | Foreignizing | Verbial phrase like *to bor* for *to drill* |
| 8. | Repetition | Word level like *to open, the bottle, to dig*, etc., and expression level like *it is made of..., it is used to..., it is used to take water...* |
| 9. | Non-verbal | mime, gestures, facial expression |
| 10. | Avoidance | Avoid the topic and altering to other topic |
| 11. | Time-stalling Device | a silence, filler |
| 12. | Appeal for Assistance | the use of expression signaling direct appeal, i.e. asking question to the audience "*Do you know what it is?* |

*B. Frequency of Communication Strategies*

This subsection presents the data concerning the communiction strategies used by the students. The report reveals the commonest type of communication strategy and the less common type of communication strategy used by the stsudents.

Before teaching, it can be reported that approximation occurred 5 times, circumlocution 97 times, exemplification 4 times, comparison 8 times, word coinage 3 times, code-switching 16 times, foreignizing once, repetition 32 times, non-verbal 19 times, avoidance 41 times, time-stalling device18 times, and appeal for assistance 29 times.

After teaching, it was found that approximation occurred 13 times, circumlocution 290 times, exemplification 5 times, comparison 7 times, word coinage 3 times, code-switching 4 times, no foreignizing occurred, repetition 9 times, non-verbal 20 times, avoidance 15 times, time-stalling device 12 times, and appeal for assistance 17 times. In other words, there are increases in 4 types of communication strategies such as approximation, circumlocution, exemplification, and non-verbal. The only communication strategy constantly occurring was word coinages, and there are decreases in 7 types of communication strategies such as comparison, code-switching, foreignizing, repetition, avoidance, time-stalling device, and appeal for assistance.

The results can probably be explained by considering the following aspects. Firstly, based on the result it seems to indicate that after participating in the oral communication strategy teaching, learners made a significant increase in various types of communication strategies such as approximation, circumlocution, exemplification, and non-verbal. The data seem to indicate that strategy training gives positive effects in the way that it makes the students capitalize the target linguistic resources (TL-based strategies) to deliver the message to the listeners in the class.

Secondly, the results of the analysis show that there was a decrease in the frequency of the communication strategies such as code-switching, repetition, avoidance, time-stalling device, and appeal for assistance. The facts seem to indicate that the strategies training gives positive effects it the way that the teaching can increase the students' fluency of expressing their ideas using the target linguistic resources. In other words, after the students had participated in communication strategy teaching, they were more confident to perform their communication tasks in front of the class. The students were more skillful to use the communication strategies to deliver the opinion to the listeners in the lass. As has been confirmed, fluency is the one of the aspects influencing the speaking skills (Harris, 1974; Heaton, 1988). The table 4 below shows the frequency of each type of communication strategy used by the students.

TABLE 4:
FREQUENCY OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES USED BY THE STUDENTS

| No. | Types of Communication Strategy | Frequency of Occurrence before Teaching | Frequency of Occurrence after Teaching | Mark |
|-----|--------------------------------|------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------|------|
| 1. | Approximation | 5 | 13 | increase |
| 2. | Circumlocution | 97 | 290 | increase |
| 3. | Exemplification | 4 | 5 | increase |
| 4. | Comparison | 8 | 7 | decrease |
| 5. | word coinage | 3 | 3 | constant |
| 6. | Cod-switching | 16 | 4 | decrease |
| 7. | Foreignizing | 1 | 0 | decrease |
| 8. | Repetition | 32 | 9 | decrease |
| 9. | Non-verbal | 19 | 20 | increase |
| 10. | Avoidance | 41 | 15 | decrease |
| 11. | Time-stalling device | 18.4 | 12.6 | decrease |
| 12. | appeal for assistance | 29 | 17 | decrease |

Based on the table above, it can be inferred that the most frequent communication strategies used by the students was circumlocution while the least communication strategies used was word coinage. The finding seems to be in line with the study conducted by Bialystok (1990). Bialystok compared some of the communication strategies in terms of the effectiveness and found that the listeners understand word coinage much better than approximation, circumlocution, or language switch, though in terms of sheer frequency, word coinage was very rare, the commonest strategy being circumlocution. Circumlocution is especially useful to solve gaps of communication in order to keep the flow of conversation. In addition, circumlocution functions as facilitative role of compensatory strategies as a tool to cope with problematic vocabulary (Campillo, 2008).

*C. Level of Comprehensibility*

Before teaching, the data showed that the average score of the level of comprehensibility before teaching was 5.1 and there were 5 students (22%) whose score reached above 6.0, and 6 students (26%) reached above 5.0, and 12 students (52%) reached above 4.0. After teaching, the results indicated that the average score of the level of comprehensibility was 69.75 and there was only 1 student (4.3%) whose score reached 82, and 12 students (52%) reached above 70, and 10 students (43%) whose score reached 60. From the data, it could be inferred that there was only one student who got the highest score of 82 and 10 students who got the score between 60 and 70.

By comparing the data before and after teaching, the results reveal that, interestingly, all students made significant progress in the level of speech comprehensibility. The students' average score of the level of speech comprehensibility before teaching was 5.1 while after teaching was 6.9. The increase seems to suggest that the students made the tendency of improvement by 1.8 point of the mean.

The increase of the level of speech comprehensibility seemed to indicate that the students were more successful in finding ways of linguistic adjustment such as being more aware of using more vocabularies that were still in the world of the listener and employing less complex syntax (e.g. using simple present tense, simple past tense, present continuous tense) for describing the objects. This is in line with Hatch (1979) who pointed out that there were three characteristics of the linguistic aspects that appeared to promote comprehension: (a) slower rate and clearer articulation, which helps acquirers to identify word boundaries more easily, and allows more processing time, (b) more use of high frequency vocabulary, less slang, fewer idioms, (c) syntactic simplification, shorter sentences.

In addition, since the students focused on how to make the speech comprehensible, they seemed to focus on how to make the message delivered and understandable. They did whatever they could do by using both linguistic and paralinguistic aspects to make the message across the listener. On the part of the listeners, they make use of, one of them, semantic link between one word with other words to get the idea of what was delivered by the speaker. Krashen (1995) argues that optimal input focuses of the acquirer on the message and not on the form.

The quantitative analysis relating to the hypothesis indicated that the students' level of speech comprehensibility increased after the students had participated in the communication strategy training. The finding can probably be explained that the strategy training the students participated enables them to practice producing the language output more comprehensibly as they get feedback not only from other students but also from the teacher. Hedge (2002) supports that learner needs practice in producing comprehensible output using all the language resources they have already acquired. Getting feedback from the teacher and from other students in the class enables learners to test hypotheses and refine their developing knowledge of the language system. It has also been claimed that being pushed to produce output obliges learners to cope with their lack of language knowledge by struggling to make themselves understood, by speaking slowly for example, by repeating or clarifying their ideas through rephrasing.

The t-test results presented in table 5 showed that there was a difference in the students' level of speech comprehensibility before and after being taught. The next question would be "Is the difference of 18.47 between the mean of pretest and that of the posttest a significant progress?" The result of Matched t-test as presented in the following table provided the answer.

Table 5 showed that the value of t-ratio was 13.975 while the critical value for t-table was 2.074. This indicates that the value of 13.975 exceeds 2.074. Therefore, the researcher is confident to conclude that the treatment did have effect on the students' level of speech comprehensibility. Students' score differed significantly from pretest to posttest. Therefore, we can eventually accept the hypothesis that there was a significant improvement of the students' level of speech comprehensibility following the treatment through teaching of communication strategies.

TABLE 5:
MATCHED T-TEST GAINS OF THE LEVEL OF SPEECH COMPREHENSIBILITY

| Group | N | Mean | t-ratio | t-table | df | P |
|-------|---|------|---------|---------|----|----|
| Pretest | 23 | 5.126 | 13.975 | 2.074 | 22 | 0.05 |
| Posttest | 23 | 6.973 | | | | |

*D. The Overall Effects of Teaching Communication Strategy*

Based on the qualitative and quantitative analysis, the teaching of communication strategy conducted in the present study gives notable effects on varieties of aspects. The strategy training affects on the increase number of linguistic

features in several type of communication strategies such as approximation, circumlocution, exemplification, and non-verbal.

By contrast, the qualitative analysis of the present study also indicates that there were decreases in the number of code switching, foreignizing, repetition, avoidance, time-stalling device, and appeal for assistance. The decrease in the use of such strategies might indicate positive effects in several points: (1) the decrease in the use of code switching might indicate that students rely more on the target language than native language resources for expressing ideas, (2) the students used less foreignizing might indicate that they were more able to use target language vocabulary and structure, (3) the students used less repetition seems to indicate that the students were more fluent to speak in target language, (4) less use of avoidance might indicate that the students were more able to get the meaning across to other students as they had sufficient target linguistic resource, (5) less use of time-stalling device might indicate that the students' speech rate increase after the training, (6) less use of appeal for assistance might indicate that the students were become more autonomous (see e.g. Wei, 2008) in the way that the students are able to use communication strageies to overcome communication problems with minimum assistance from others.

The statistical analysis indicates that strategy training seems to give significant effect on the number of circumlocutions used by the students and the level of speech comprehensibility. The students' total use of circumlocution was 97 before the teaching and increased to 290 after the teaching. After analyzing, it was found that t-ratio was 10.03192 while t-table was 2.074. Since t-ratio is higher than t-table, it can be conluded that strategy training gave significant effect on the number of circumlocution. It seems to indicate that after being trained, the students were able to find more alternative ways to deliver message to other students.

In terms of the students' speech comprehensibility, it was found that the level of speech comprehensibility before the teaching was 5.126 and after the teaching was 6.673. The statistical calculation indicates that t-ratio was 13.975 while t-table was 2.074. Since t-observe was higher than t-table, it indicates that strategy training gave significant effect on the students' level of speech comprehensibility. In other words, after the training the students' speech was more comprehensible. The listeners were more easily to understand the speaker's speech.

Finally, the finding of the present study seems to confirm that language is best learned and taught through interaction; hence, teaching communication strategies is the recommended fulcrum by which strategic competence can be developed (see e.g. Faerch and Kasper, 1984; Tarone and Yule, 1989, and Maleki, 2007).

## V. Conclusion

Based on the findings, it can be conluded that students encountered communication problems as the results of their target linguistic inadequacy. In order to overcome the problems, the students resort to several types of communication strategies. The findings of the present study show that students' use of communication strategies is not a sign of communication failure, conversely, communication strategies surfaced as they realize that they have problems of expressing their intended meaning and they need to solve the problems. The more communication strategies the students have, the more opportunities they have to solve communication problems. Therefore, explicit instruction on the use of communiction strategies is necessary to help the students communicate their message when target linguistic resources is inadequate.

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# A Comparison of Reading Levels of High School and Freshmen University Students in Jordan

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*Abstract*—This study aimed to analyze the readability, appropriateness and difficulty level of the reading texts in *Action Pack 11* (*hereafter AP11*) which is taught for grade 11, *Action Pack 12* (hereafter *AP 12*) that is taught for grade 12 at the schools of The Jordanian Ministry of Education and *New Headway Plus Pre-intermediate* (hereafter *NHWP*) that is taught for an introductory English language course in the Jordanian Universities. The sample of the study involved 274 eleventh grade students, 300 twelfth grade students, and 310 freshmen students who were studying CL 099 at Yarmouk University in the academic year 2011/2012. The study employed Flesch Grade Level and Flesch Kincaid Reading Ease formulas to identify the readability level of each textbook. Furthermore, a sixth- word deletion cloze test version of a representative text from each textbook was used to identify the match between the textbooks and the students. The findings of the study revealed that the secondary school textbooks are on average about three grade levels higher in reading difficulty than the textbook of the university level. Furthermore, the cloze test results showed that the majority of the students studying each textbook were at their frustration reading levels.

*Index Terms*—readability, reading difficulty, transition to postsecondary reading

## I. BACKGROUND

It is essential that the difficulty of the textbook is appropriate for the reading abilities of the students for whom the books are intended. When matching readers to texts, there are two main intuitions. First, texts can be ordered according to the difficulty each presents for a reader. Second, readers can be assessed according to the success each will have with any particular text. Assessing the difficulty of the text and the level of the reader are necessary so that the right book can be matched to the right reade. Renaissance learning (2011) points out that matching reading materials to students is a four-step process which involves 1) estimating text readability, 2) measuring students' level of reading achievement, 3) determining the appropriate reading range, and 4) continuously monitoring comprehension and adjusting book levels and genres. However, the persistent question is what the best match between the students' level of reading and the level of readability should be.

Texts that are difficult to read usually have high readability levels; those that are easy to read have low readability levels. According to Harrison (1980), readability is the way in which we measure the relative level of difficulty of the reading material. Because many students experience difficulty with reading the textbook, readability formulas, cloze tests, and other means are utilized to determine whether or not the textbook is appropriate for a particular grade level. Crawly and Mountain (1995: P22) believe that "the readability level should be the determining factor in choosing a particular book".

There are a variety of different methods and approaches that can be used for assessing the readability levels of reading materials. The most common approach in assessing readability is the use of readability formulas. These formulas provide educators with an estimate of the difficulty of books and other texts. Most readability formulas incorporate two components semantic difficulty and syntactic difficulty. Examples of these readability formulas are Flesch Reading Ease Formula, Flesch-Kincaid Formula, SMOG Formula, Dale- Chall Formula, Spache Formula, Forcase Formula, Fry Formula, and RIX Formula.

Flesch Reading Ease and the Flesch- Kincaid formulas are appropriate for all reading levels and are available in Microsoft Word which makes them especially easy to use for whole documents. The Flesch Reading Ease score is a numerical value between 0 and 100. The higher the Flesch Reading Ease score, the greater the number of people who can comprehend the document easily. Flesch-Kincaid, on the other hand, converts the Flesch Reading Ease score into a grade-level score. This formula also relies on sentence length and word difficulty to calculate a readability level. An interesting alternative to traditional readability formulas is the cloze procedure. In cloze tests a passage is prepared by removing every nth word (usually every fifth word) and subjects of known reading age are asked to supply the missing items. The percentage of words correctly entered is the cloze score. The lower the score, the more difficult the text is. The cloze test estimates how well each student functions when they interact with the text.

During the transition from secondary to postsecondary education, students deal with many changes like the new level of education requirements. Although secondary school students may be able to successfully study their school course content, they may not be prepared to deal with the difficulty of the texts they encounter in the postsecondary stage. The alignment between the reading demands of the secondary school and those of the postsecondary education may

facilitate the transition for many students. Therefore, educators should strive to achieve alignment between the teaching demands of the school and those of the university.

Venezia, Krist, and Antonio (2003) provided an evaluation of the conditions that characterize the transition from high school to college. They stated that,

[h]igh school assessments often stress different knowledge and skills than do college entrance and placement requirements. Similarly, the coursework between high school and college is not connected; students graduate from high schools under one set of standards and, three months later, they are required to meet a whole new set of standards in college. Current data systems are not equipped to address students' needs across systems, and no one is held accountable for issues related to student transition from high school to college. (p.1)

Chall (1983) presents a detailed understanding of the distinction between teaching reading in different academic stages. He believes that high school students need to learn to read for multiple viewpoints, which include critical reading for comprehension of various ideas presented in the text. At this level of reading, basic facts and ideas are presented, then additional facts and ideas from opposing or corresponding views are also given. The high school reader must connect various facts and ideas to gain complete understanding of the text. College students, on the other hand, should read to construct and reconstruct ideas, including comprehension through analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating information presented by the author. This stage of reading development forces the reader to master selective reading skills. When readers have broad general knowledge of the text, they read quickly, analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating as they speed through the text.

The secondary school provides the last opportunity for most students to obtain guidance in reading proficiency. Macklin (1978) indicates that reading instruction at the secondary level might be perceived as helping the reader to acquire information and develop specific techniques needed for handling the reading materials in each discipline. Roe, Stoodt and Burns (1978) report that secondary level textbooks in various areas tend to have high readability levels in relation to the reading abilities of the students who are expected to read them. They add that evidence indicates that a wide variety of difficulty exists within single texts and that many texts do not have a gradation of difficulty from the beginning to the end.

The teaching of English as a Foreign Language in Jordan aims at developing different language skills. As a natural learning environment is unavailable for Jordanian readers, the major source for students to acquire reading is through classroom instruction of the assigned EFL textbooks. A large number of freshman university students in Jordan complain about the difficulty of the reading component in EFL courses. In spite of the educational and financial support, there is an observable weakness on the part of students in the reading comprehension skills. On the other hand, Jordanian universities have a series of compulsory courses which all aim to improve the students' ability in the four main skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking. One of these courses is the English course LC 099 which is the first introductory EFL course students study at the university. Moreover, many English language instructors in the Jordanian universities complain that many of their students are poor readers. In spite of all the changes that are taking place in the Jordanian educational system, there is an observable weakness in reading comprehension skills on the part of the students. This deficiency in reading comprehension may be attributed to many factors among which is the reading material and how reading is presented in the textbooks at high school and university.

## II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

### *Studies Related to Transition to Postsecondary Reading*

Many studies were conducted on the students' transition to postsecondary endeavors. Specifically, some studies were conducted on how high school prepares students to read in the postsecondary endeavors. ACT (2006) tested the reading comprehension skills of approximately 1.2 million high school students, who graduated in 2005 across the United States to investigate the preparedness of the tested students to the college level reading demands. The results of the test indicated that only 51% of the high school graduates were ready for college-level reading.

Two years later, Williamson (2008) examined whether 11th- and 12th-grade students' exposure to high school texts sufficiently prepares them for textual material they might encounter in their postsecondary endeavors. He used the Lexile Framework for Reading to determine text readability measures. The study investigated 175 textbooks at the high school grades, 100 textbooks of university textbooks, 50 textbooks representing community college textbooks, reading materials from the U.S. Army Web site, 1,400 examples of occupational reading material, and various materials representing different aspects of citizenship. The study demonstrated that high school material reflected a substantially higher text demand from students in the postsecondary lives.

In a try to compare the extent to which high school prepares students for university reading level, Wilkins, Hartman, Howland, and Sharma (2010) used the Lexile Framework for Reading to determine the proportion of grade 11 Texas public school students who indicate the ability to read and comprehend 74 textbooks used in entry-level English courses at the University of Texas. The results of the study showed that about half of public school students in grade 11 in Texas were prepared to read at the University of Texas system.

Sidek (2011) examined how well the Malaysian EFL secondary reading curriculum prepares students for tertiary reading in English. The findings indicated that the curriculum only partially prepares secondary school students for tertiary reading in EFL.

To conclude, the several aspects of this transition were studied in the reading field. These aspects mainly included the effect of university introductory EFL courses, high- school students' preparedness for college level reading demands, reading skills taught at high school and those expected of incoming students by instructors of common first year college courses, and the proportion of high school students who can read and comprehend entry-level English courses. These studies came out with an endless list of findings.

***Second: Studies Related to Matching Books to Students***

Educators have long been engaged in ongoing research to find reading materials at an appropriate level of difficulty for their students. This part reports some studies which were concerned in the idea of matching textbook readability to students' reading ability.

Harris- Sharples (1983) investigated the relationship between the difficulty levels of social studies, science, and reading textbooks used in 4th, 5th, and 8th grade classrooms, and the reading skills of the students who used them. The study used the Dale-Chall formula to assess the readability of the textbooks. Moreover, 162 students were tested with cloze passages to gather judgments of difficulty. The study found that the readability levels of the reading textbooks were found to be lower than those of content subjects; they were below students' grade placements.

Using the Nelson-Denny Reading Test and the Fry readability Formula, Reed (1987) compared the average reading ability of freshmen students enrolled at an open door community college with the readability levels of eight content area textbooks used in courses at the college. The findings indicated that the readability levels of the eight textbooks were above the mean readability score of the students tested.

In the same year, Sellars (1987) examined the appropriateness of the textbooks used in tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grade social studies, science, and literature classes from four different public high schools in Florida. The study also compared the difficulty of textbooks in each content area. An exact word scored cloze test was administered to determine the difficulty of the textbooks. The results indicated that 92% of the tested students were at the frustration reading level, which means that only 8 percent of the subjects were able to profit from attempting to read these textbooks.

Browne (1996) investigated the readability level of 12 Japanese university-level EFL reading textbooks. The reading difficulty of the textbooks was analyzed via four readability formulas (Flesch Reading Ease, Flesch Kincaid Scale Grade, Coleman-Lian Grade Level, and Bormuth Reading Ease). The study found that college reading textbooks produced by Japanese publishers seemed to vary tremendously in level, with most texts far above the reading ability of the Japanese college students. Moreover, High school reading texts appeared to be even more difficult in terms of readability than the college texts. It was also found that none of the reading materials produced in Japan gave any direct indication about the level of the material.

In the Jordanian situation, Masri (2006) investigated the readability level of the tenth grade EFL textbook (*Jordan Opportunities*) in reference to the reading abilities of the 10th grade students in Jordan. The researcher used a 250 word long fifth word deletion cloze test to assess the readability of the textbook. The results of the study showed that the readability level of *Jordan Opportunities* was in the frustration level, which means that the students were not able to understand the passages even with the help of the teacher.

In the same year, Ulusoy (2006) investigated the match between the Ankara's middle class science and social studies textbooks and the students' reading levels. 275-300 word long 6th word deletion versions of cloze-test passages were prepared. Cloze test results showed that half of the students were reading materials at their instructional levels, and these students needed help to understand the passages.

More recently, Abdulla and Hashim (2007) examined the readability statistics of 12 Malaysian short stories and seven short stories written by English native speakers. The analyzed short stories had been recommended as texts for the English literature syllabus in the Malaysian secondary school curriculum. The study used three readability statistics (Flesch Reading Ease, Flesch Grade level, and Gunning Fog Index) for analyzing the stories. The analysis revealed that both the Malaysian stories and the stories written by native speakers fall within the range of U.S. grade 6.6-8.5.

Most recently, Tabatabaei and Bagheri (2013) examined the readability indixes of reading passages of English textbooks taught at Iranian high schools. The study also examined the students' prior knowledge-interest levels to see to what extent students were interested or had background knowledge regarding reading passages in their English textbooks. The results showed that the students almost had a low level of interest and background knowledge regarding reading passages in their English textbooks. The findings also showed an insignificant relationship between students' interest level and readability indixes of the passages.

Studies in this specific field mainly compared the textbook readability with the average reading ability of the students. For identifying students' reading ability, the studies used cloze tests, comprehension tests, and Nelson-Denny Reading test. On the other hand, the studies used many instruments for identifying textbook readability. These instruments included Dall-Chall, Lorge, Bormuth Reading Ease, Flesch, Flesch Kincaid, Fr, Grah, Gunning, Coleman-Lian Grade Level, and Raygor. The studies concluded many findings. In most cases, the readability levels of the textbooks were far above the mean reading ability scores of the students. Some studies showed that university professors and school teachers do not take into consideration the readability levels of textbooks, and that they should consider using readability sources when they make decisions concerning textbook adaptations. Furthermore, research studies related to textbook difficulty and matching textbooks to students indicated that most of the analyzed textbooks were far too

difficult for the level of the students. Furthermore, the readability formulas, the cloze test, and checklists can be used to determine the match between students and books. Moreover, the reading difficulties of students making the transition to postsecondary education complicate their ability to be successful in their academic progress. One of the most commonly cited reasons behind these difficulties is poorly written reading textbooks.

### Statement of the Problem

In Jordan, many university students, after studying English for twelve years at school, suffer real problems because of the new demands placed on them. To ascertain whether there is a textual gap or not it requires that the content of textbooks prescribed for students be analyzed. This means that a percentage of university students is somehow unable to conform to the situation at the university. Hussein (2012) maintains that Jordanian first year students lack many "reading comprehension skills". For instance, he complains that, they lack the ability to answer questions that demand the possession of skills involving deep thinking. He adds that little attention is given to skills which belong to inferential and critical levels. The deficiency in the students' reading can be attributed to different factors including the preparation of the students at school and the gap between the school and the university textbooks. To ascertain whether the gap is purely a performance gap or whether there is also a textual gap requires that both students' performance and textual difficulty be studied.

### Objective of the Study

This study aimed at finding out how the secondary school EFL curriculum in Jordan prepares students for university level reading skills. In other words, the study aimed to analyze the appropriateness and the difficulty level of the reading content in Action Pack 11 (*hereafter AP11*) which is taught for grade 11, *Action Pack 12 (*hereafter *AP 12*) that is taught for grade 12 at the schools of The Jordanian Ministry of Education and New Headway Plus Pre-intermediate (hereafter *NHWP*) that is taught for an introductory English language course at Yarmouk University (LC 099). The study also aimed to compare the readability level of reading material in the Jordanian high school EFL textbooks to that of the introductory EFL course textbooks in the Jordanian Universities.

The following research questions were to be answered through this study:

1. How does the readability of the reading passages of the Jordanian high schools compare with that of the university introductory EFL courses in Jordan?

2. How does the match between *NHWP* readability and the reading performance of LC 099 students compare with the match between the readability of *AP 11* and the reading performance of Grade 11 students, and the readability of *AP 12* and grade 12 students' reading performance?

### III. METHOD

#### A. Participants

The researcher followed the cluster sampling technique where three clusters were identified (11th grade students, 12th grade students, and CL 099 students). Sections were purposefully assigned from each cluster. The first group was 274 eleventh grade students (148 females and 126 males). Four sections in four public female schools and four sections in four public male schools were chosen purposefully.

The second group was 300 twelfth grade (163 females and 137 males). Four sections in four public female schools and four sections in four public male schools were chosen purposefully. Table 1 below shows the distribution of the 11th and 12th grade students samples.

TABLE 1:
THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE 11TH AND 12TH GRADE STUDENT PARTICIPANTS.

| Level | Gender | Scientific | Literary | IT | Heath Management | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 11th Grade | Male | 31 | 33 | 35 | 27 | 126 |
| | Female | 37 | 33 | 41 | 37 | 148 |
| 12th Grade | Male | 33 | 36 | 37 | 31 | 137 |
| | Female | 37 | 41 | 43 | 42 | 163 |

The third group was 310 freshmen students who were studying CL 099 at Yarmouk University Language Center during the first semester of the academic year 2011/2012 (183 females and 127 males). Six sections at Yarmouk University language centre were purposefully assigned for the purpose of this study.

#### B. Instruments of the Study

The following instruments were used in the study to collect the data:

##### A). Readability Statistics

To determine the difficulty levels of the reading texts in AP 11, AP12, and *NHWP* the researcher used Microsoft© Word 2007 to calculate the readability statistics of the reading texts. According to Microsoft© Word 2007 help guide, the Flesch reading Ease Readability Score can be interpreted according to the range in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2:
FLESCH READING EASE SCORE MAPPING TABLE

| Score Range | Readability Level |
| --- | --- |
| 00-29 | Very difficult |
| 30-49 | Difficult |
| 50-59 | Fairly difficult |
| 60-69 | Standard |
| 70-79 | Fairly easy |
| 80-89 | Easy |
| 90-100 | Very easy |

Flesch Kincaid Grade rates texts on school grade level. For example, a score of 8.0 means that an eighth grader can understand the document. Microsoft© Word 2007 also provides additional counts and averages.

Additional statistics provided by the program include three count figures and three averages. Although the count data by itself does not give much information about the difficulty of a passage, these counts (number of words, paragraphs, and sentences) are most likely given because they provide the raw data necessary to calculate the averages and readability indexes. The three averages (sentences/ paragraph, words/ sentence, and character/ word) offer another way of comparing the relative reading difficulty of different texts, with higher number indicating higher difficulty.

All texts in the three textbooks were typed on Microsoft© Word 2007 then they were analyzed and average statistics of Flesch Reading Ease and Flesch- Kincaid Grade Level were calculated. Then the results were tabulated and comparisons between the three textbooks were made in light of the readability statistics.

### Choice of the textbooks for analysis

For a number of reasons, the reading content in grade 11, grade 12, and LC 099 were chosen as the levels of textbooks to analyze. Grade 11 and 12 make the secondary stage in the Jordanian educational system. On the other hand, LC 099 is the first EFL course that the majority of the university freshmen study if compared to other courses. The period including the secondary stage and university first year represents the transition from school to university. The researcher was interested in this stage when he planned his research as this stage is a crucial one in the students' academic life and it has not been studied earlier as shown by the literature review. Therefore, it is hoped that this study presents an insightful reading into some aspects of this stage by investigating the appropriateness and the difficulty level of the reading content in the textbooks under study.

### B). The Cloze Test

To determine the match between the reading content of the textbooks and the students' reading levels, 275- 324 word long passages were selected from *AP 11, AP 12*, and *NHWP* to create cloze test passages (Appendix B). The first and the last sentences of the passages were left intact, and beginning with the second sentence, every sixth word was deleted. If the sixth word was a proper noun, it was skipped and the next word was deleted. In addition to being unseen by the students, the cloze passages were chosen on the basis of the difficulty of the texts. The text which had its difficulty level as the closest to the average difficulty level of the textbook was chosen. That's why there was some variation in the number of deletions in each cloze passage.

### Reliability of the Cloze Test

To establish reliability, the cloze test passages were applied on one classroom from each level using the test-retest method. The reliability and the stability of the cloze tests were calculated by using Kurder- Richardson 20. The internal consistency scores ranged between 0.78 and 0.91 whereas the stability scores ranged between 0.84 and 0.92. These scores are considered high in terms of establishing test reliability.

### Difficulty and Discrimination of the Cloze Test

Difficulty and discrimination coefficients were calculated for each cloze test. The difficulty coefficients for the *Action Pack 11 cloze* test ranged between 0.29 and 0.72 while the discrimination coefficients ranged between 0.42 and 0.80. The difficulty coefficients for the *Action Pack 12* cloze test ranged between 0.28 and 0.54 while the discrimination coefficients ranged between 0.44 and 0.82. The difficulty coefficient for the *New Headway Plus Pre-intermediate* cloze test ranged between 0.25 and 0.51 while the discrimination coefficients ranged between 0.40 and 0.81.

### C. Data Analysis

Analyzing the data obtained in the second part question required comparisons of the averages of the readability statistics of the three textbooks. The readability statistics of the three textbooks were tabulated and compared. The analysis of the data of the second question required comparisons of the means and percentages from cloze test scores on the three different textbooks. The percentages, frequencies, and means of the correct responses were calculated. Only the exact answers were scored for the cloze tests (not synonyms).

## IV. RESULTS

### First: Results related to the first research question:

To determine the difficulty of the reading content, readability statistics for the reading passages in the three textbooks were calculated using the readability tools available on Microsoft© Word 2007. Table 3 presents the results of the readability analysis of the reading passages in *AP 11, AP12,* and *NHWP*.

TABLE 3:
READABILITY STATISTICS FOR AP11, AP12, AND NHWP

| | Action Pack 11 | Action Pack 12 | NHWP |
|---|---|---|---|
| Counts | | | |
| Words | 270 | 260.8 | 320.2 |
| Characters | 1301 | 1216 | 1428.5 |
| Paragraphs | 5 | 4 | 7.5 |
| Sentences | 14.9 | 13.5 | 27.9 |
| Averages | | | |
| Sentences/Paragraph | 3.5 | 3.6 | 4.7 |
| Words/Sentence | 18 | 18.9 | 12.0 |
| Characters/word | 4.5 | 4.4 | 4.3 |
| Readability Indexes | | | |
| Passive sentences | 19% | 8% | 7% |
| Flesch Reading Ease | 60.8 | 58.6 | 75.0 |
| Flesch Kincaid Grade | 9.2 | 9.5 | 5.76 |

Table 3 is ordered from left to right in order of the expected difficulty. That is, it is assumed that *AP11* should be easier than *AP12*, and *AP12* should be easier than *NHWP*. Surprisingly, a comparison of the three textbooks shows that the secondary school textbooks (*AP11* and *AP12*) are, on average, about three grade levels higher in reading difficulty than the textbook of the university level (*NHWP*). The Flesch Kincaid Grade Level statistics rate *AP11* and *AP12* in the ninth grade reading level with *AP12* being more difficult whereas *NHWP* is rated in the fifth grade level. On the other hand, the Flesch Reading Ease Formula rates the three textbooks in the following order, *AP11*: Standard, *AP12*: fairly difficult, and *NHWP*: fairly easy.

The count figures show that *NHWP* had the longest passages of the three textbooks, on average, and *AP11* had longer passages than *AP12*. The average statistics show that *NHWP* had the longest paragraphs, *AP12* had the longest sentences, and *AP11* had the longest words. Furthermore, the readability statistics show that *AP11* had the largest percentage of passive sentences.

It is worth pointing out that readability scores for the texts also varied tremendously within each textbook, and that neither of the textbooks followed a systematic pattern in presenting the passages in the textbooks according to their difficulty. Flesch Grade Level score for the reading texts in *AP11* varied among the textbook. The estimated grades for the reading passages ranged from 4.9 (Grade Four) to 10.9 (Grade ten). The presentation of these passages does not follow a certain pattern as it begins almost with the most difficult passage and ends with below-the-level passage.

Similarly, *Action Pack 12* did not follow a certain pattern in presenting the reading passages in the textbook according to their difficulty level. Table 3 shows the Flesch Grade Scores for all texts of *AP11* as they appeared in the textbook. Flesch Grade Level scores for the reading texts in *AP12* varied among the textbook. The estimated grades for the reading passages ranged from 5.8 (Grade Five) to 10.5 (Grade ten). The presentation of these passages does not follow a certain pattern as it begins almost with the most difficult passage (10.2, 11.4, and 12.6) and ends with passages that are around the average difficulty level of the passages.

Although it seems more systematic in presenting the passages according to their difficulty, *NHWP* is not an exception from the two textbooks. Flesch Grade Level scores for the reading texts in *NHWP* varied in the textbook. The estimated grades for the reading passages ranged from 8.8 (Grade eight) to 3.8 (Grade ten). The presentation of the reading passages was more systematic in light of their difficulty level as they began with relatively easy passages and in the middle of the textbook, they appeared more difficult, and at the end of the textbook they inclined to easier readability levels.

***Second: Results related to the first research question.***

The second question investigated the appropriateness of the reading material in *AP11*, *AP12*, and *NHWP* to the students' reading levels. This part involves the results of the students in a representative cloze test from each textbook.

As the researcher was obliged to use a representative text from each textbook, he used the passage which had its readability level closest to the average readability level of all the passages in each textbook. This created a difference in the number of the deletions in each test version. In order to make equivalent comparisons between the students' results in the three test versions, the researcher resorted to comparing the percentages of the students' results in each level.

The researcher calculated the frequencies of students' scores for categorizing them in the three tests (*AP11, AP12, and NHWP)* in three categories: Independent, Instructional, and Frustration. In addition to calculating the percentages for these three levels in light of the textbooks under study. The adjusted residual was also calculated to determine if there is a relation between the textbook and students levels (Independent, Instructional, and Frustration) using Chi Square Test for Independence. Table 4 presents the frequencies and percentages of cloze test scores in the three textbooks at the independent, instructional, and frustration levels.

TABLE 4:
DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS AT THE INDEPENDENT, INSTRUCTIONAL, AND FRUSTRATION LEVELS AND RESULTS OF X2 TEST OF INDEPENDENCE REGARDING TEXTBOOK

| Text-Book | Statistic | Decision | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Frustration | Instructional | Independent | |
| AP11 | Count | 204 | 39 | 31 | 274 |
| | % within Text Book | 74.5 | 14.2 | 11.3 | 100.0 |
| | Adjusted Residual | -1.39 | -0.76 | 3.36 | |
| AP12 | Count | 240 | 45 | 15 | 300 |
| | % within Text Book | 80.0 | 15.0 | 5.0 | 100.0 |
| | Adjusted Residual | 1.34 | -0.36 | -1.68 | |
| NHWP | Count | 240 | 54 | 16 | 310 |
| | % within Text Book | 77.4 | 17.4 | 5.2 | 100.0 |
| | Adjusted Residual | 0.02 | 1.09 | -1.58 | |
| Total | Count | 68.4 | 138 | 62 | 884 |
| | % within Text Book | 77.4 | 15.6 | 7.0 | 100.0 |
| $\chi2$ | N of Valid Cases | | Df | Sig. | |
| 12.099 | 884 | | 4 | 0.017 | |

Table 4 shows that there is a significant relation between the textbooks under study and students' reading levels. This is clearly noticed on the percentage of students' scores in the independent level in *AP11* which is way higher than in the other textbooks. In addition to showing the relation between students' reading levels and the textbooks, Table 4 represents the results of the cloze test scores at each instructional level for the students studying the three textbooks. Cloze test scores revealed that the highest numbers of students were at their frustration levels (*AP11*: 74.5%, *AP12*: 80%, and *NHWP*: 77.4%). However, 11.3% of *AP11* students, 5% of *AP12* students, and 5.2% of *NHWP* students could read the text at their independent level which means that they do not even need the help of their teachers to read the text. Based on Table 4, it can be concluded that 14.2% of AP11 students, 15% of *AP12* students, and 17.4 of *NHWP* students were at their instructional level, meaning that they needed their teachers' help to read and understand the texts.

## V. DISCUSSION

The discussion of the results is presented in two dimensions; first: the readability level of the reading passages in the three textbooks under study, second, the reading levels of the students.
### *Readability levels*
The two readability indices used in this study indicated that the average reading level of the secondary stage reading texts used in this study is about the same as reading materials which typically would be used by native speakers in the ninth grade. Surprisingly, and contrary to the expected difficulty of the reading passages in the three textbooks, a comparison between the three textbooks shows that the secondary school textbooks (*AP11* and *AP12*) are, on average, about three grade levels higher in reading difficulty than the textbook of the university level (*NHWP*) whose difficulty is about the same as reading materials which typically would be used by native speakers in the fifth or sixth grades.

The Flesch Kincaid Grade Level Readability Formula rates *AP11* and *AP12* in the ninth grade reading level with *AP12* being more difficult whereas *NHWP* is rated between the fifth and sixth grade levels. On the other hand, the Flesch Reading Ease Formula rates the three textbooks in the following order, *AP11*: Standard, *AP12*: fairly difficult, and *NHWP*: fairly easy. This result contradicts with the normal expectations that the university reading level is more difficult than that of the secondary school. Chall (1983) points out that when students progress from high school to college, they meet more difficult reading demands. Similar to the results of this study are those of Browne (1996) which indicated that high school reading texts appeared to be more difficult in terms of readability than the college texts. The findings of the current study agreed with Williamson (2008) whose study showed that high school reading material reflected a substantially higher text demand than the texts in the postsecondary life.

It is worth pointing out that readability scores for the texts also varied tremendously within each textbook, and that neither of the textbooks followed a systematic pattern in presenting the passages in the textbooks according to their difficulty. Furthermore, the length of texts seems to be another factor that is not given an appropriate attention in the three textbooks. The pattern of the passage length for the reading comprehension in the textbooks is highly irregular. Only very few passages in each textbook are at the same length. Therefore, within the Jordanian EFL secondary reading context, the gap between the length of the passages used at the secondary school level and the length of the reading texts that the students are expected to read at the university level should be reconsidered in order to help preparing secondary students for reading in English at the university level. Although it is supposed that the reading texts within a textbook should have a pattern of difficulty and length, some scholars indicated that this is not the case with all reading materials. For example Roe, Stoodt, and Burns (1978) reported that evidence indicates that a wide range of variety of difficulty exists with single texts and that many texts do not have a gradation of difficulty from the beginning to the end.

In spite of the importance of readability which entails ordering the reading texts according to their difficulty, it is likely that readability issues have not been taken into consideration when the three textbooks were written or adapted. The readability results mostly show that the reading content in the three textbooks did not follow any pattern according

to readability statistics. Crawly and Mountain (1995, p.22) indicate that "the readability level should be a determining factor in choosing a particular book".

### Students' reading levels

The results in this part show that there is a significant relation between the textbooks under study and students' reading levels. This is clearly noticed on the percentage of students' scores in the independent level in *AP11* which is way higher than in the other textbooks. The cloze test scores revealed that the majority of the students were at their frustration levels (*AP11*: 74.5%, *AP12*: 80%, and *NHWP*: 77.4%). However, the results of the cloze tests indicate that the percentage of the students who could read the reading texts in the three textbooks (students who scored higher than 40%) was 25.5% for *AP11*, 20% for *AP12*, and 22.6% for *NHWP*.

The readability statistics (Flesch Reading Ease and Flesch Kincaid Grade level) rated the three textbooks under the grade levels of the students who study each of the textbooks. These statistics were mainly used in this study for the purpose of comparing the readability levels of these textbooks. For more profound results, cloze tests were used to relate the readability of the textbooks to the reading levels of the students who are using them. In spite of the low readability levels of the three textbooks shown by the readability indices, the cloze test scores indicated that the three textbooks are very difficult for the students who study them and that very little percentage of the students may profit from the reading passages in the textbooks.

The results of this study confirm the findings of some earlier studies (Harris-Sharples, 1983; Reed, 1987) which found that the studied textbooks had higher readability levels than students' average achieved reading score. The results also agreed with Sellars (1987) whose study showed that 92% of the high school tested students were all at the frustration reading level and only 8% of the subjects were able to profit from attempting to read the textbooks. The study also agreed with Reed (1988) where the high school textbooks were too difficult for the levels of the students, more difficult even than the college texts in terms of readability. Locally, the study agreed with the results of the study of Masri (2006) which also found that most students were unable to read "Jordan Opportunities" even with the help of the teacher. The findings of the current study disagreed with Ulusoy (2006) where cloze test results showed that half of the students were reading at their instructional level. However, it is worth pointing out that unlike most of the previous studies, Ulusoy's study was conducted on Turkish first language materials and students.

Most of the previous studies indicate that there are several textbooks in use which are written at a readability level above that of the grade for which they are intended. This study has shown that a large percentage of its student sample is unable to effectively read the reading passages in the assigned textbooks. These results strongly suggest that when selecting a textbook, not only the readability level of the textbook should be considered, but also the reading ability of the students for whom the textbook is selected.

## VI. CONCLUSION

A comparison between the readability statistics of the three textbooks shows that the secondary school textbooks are more difficult, in terms of readability of the reading passages, than the university level textbook. This result contradicts with the normal expectations that the university reading level is more difficult than that of the secondary school. Furthermore, the readability statistics show that neither of the textbooks followed a systematic pattern in presenting the passages in the textbooks according to their difficulty. The presentation of the reading passages begins almost with the most difficult passage and ends with below-the-level passage. As the readability results mostly show that the reading content in the three textbooks did not follow any pattern according to readability statistics. On the other hand, the cloze test scores revealed that the majority of the students were at their frustration levels. In spite of the low readability levels of the three textbooks shown by the readability indices, the cloze test scores indicated that the three textbooks are very difficult for the students who study them and that very little percentage of the students may profit from the reading passages in the textbooks. These results strongly suggest that when selecting a textbook, not only the readability level of the textbook should be considered, but also the reading ability of the students for whom the textbook is selected. The results also show that it is likely that readability issues have not been taken into consideration when the three textbooks were written or adapted. The researcher recommends that procedures of testing the readability and the suitability of the reading material to the students should be used to investigate the difficulty and gradation of the textbooks in addition to their appropriateness to the levels of the learners.

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# Exploring University Teachers' Understanding of Learner Autonomy

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*Abstract*—**Learner autonomy (LA) has received a lot of attention in ELT research. This paper explores learner autonomy in theory and practice from the teachers' points of view. The authors first review the literature on learner autonomy and explore the relationship between learner autonomy and teachers' beliefs. After that, they report on a qualitative study that set to examine teachers' perspectives on learner autonomy. The study aimed at investigating the teachers' views with regards to their definition of learner autonomy and the sources of their ideas. Based on the findings of the study, the teachers defined LA from different perspectives, reflecting their diverse experiences and perceptions about the concept. Some of the definitions are influenced by the teachers' classroom experience while others are based on the literature. The teachers also varied in the sources of their definitions, ranging from pre- or in-service teacher training to classroom practices. This study brings new insights to the literature on LA where it sheds light into teachers' definitions of LA and the sources of these definitions, an area that has not been explored much in the literature.**

*Index Terms*—**learner autonomy, definition of learner autonomy, teacher beliefs, curriculum, teaching methodology**

## I. INTRODUCTION

Learner autonomy has received broad international attention both amongst scholars and practitioners. It is seen as a way to empower students and make them responsible for their own learning. Since Holec's pioneering work of 1981, there have been many attempts to define the term and determine what it entails. Definitions differ depending on the writer and the context where the term is used. LA is generally defined as the ability to take charge of one's own learning. The emergence of this concept has been part of a wide range of ideas in education that have promoted more learner centered instruction, where learners are given more choices and are allowed to make their own decisions. In spite of the abundance of theoretical definitions from various scholars, little attention has been paid to exploring the teachers' perspective.

Much of the research on LA has focused on the learners. Researchers have tried to identify the traits that characterize autonomous learners (see for example, Little, 1990). We would like to argue that it is equally important to explore the teacher dimension of LA, given the impact teachers' beliefs can have on the learning process. The extent of teachers' support for LA is based on their own learning and understanding. As Edelhoff (1984, p. 189) cited in Dam (2008, p. 26), has put it: …teachers will hardly be prepared or able to administer autonomous learning processes in their students if their own learning is not geared to the same principles". Understanding teachers' beliefs is crucial in the development of LA and in the effective integration of LA in teaching. Research on teacher beliefs shows that the beliefs that teachers hold about certain educational concepts, approaches and methodologies influence their practices (see for example, Clark and Peterson (1986); Isenberg (1990); Hedge and Cassidy (2009)). Teachers do not simply hold to a consistent set of beliefs about LA underpinned by a single coherent conception of language learning. There is a host of personal and professional factors that shape teachers' conceptions. It is therefore important to shed light into these conceptions and the underlying principles. Such research will help promote reflection and constructive dialogue among teachers about the principles surrounding this concept.

This study brings new insights to the literature on LA. There are many studies that have looked into teachers' views on LA with regards to students' abilities and what they can and cannot do. There are also many studies that have investigated the factors that support or hinder the development of LA in a certain educational setting. However, there is not much research; in fact, we could not find any that investigates teachers' definitions of LA and even less on the sources of these definitions. Previous research has referred to the classic definitions of LA in interpreting teachers' views and practices. Therefore, we believe that our paper will bring new insights into research on LA. Understanding what LA means to teachers and the principles that underpin their views is crucial for an effective integration of LA into the language curriculum. Such research will also help bridge the gap between the theoretical definition of LA and the teachers' understanding of the concept.

In the following sections, the concept of learner autonomy and the relationship between teachers' beliefs and learner autonomy are presented. This is followed by the description of the study, the data analysis, the findings, the discussion and the conclusion.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Learner Autonomy

Learner autonomy has been a key concept in education for over 30 years. Holec's (1981, p. 3) pioneering work and his classic definition of learner autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning… to have, and to hold, the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning" is still widely cited. According to Holec, learners are able to manage different aspects of their learning, such as determining the objectives, defining the content, selecting methods and techniques to be used, monitoring the procedure of acquisition and evaluating what has been acquired.

Following Holec's classic definition, many terms have been used to define the nature of this responsibility. Terms such as 'ability' (Benson, 2006), 'capacity' (Little, 1991), 'take responsibility', and 'take control' have been used. The term 'autonomy' has been used to refer to at least five different modes of learning (see Benson and Voller, 1997, p. 2):

- for situations in which learners study entirely on their own;
- for a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning;
- for an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education;
- for the exercise of learners' responsibility for their own learning;
- for the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning.

There have also been other attempts to explain the concept and what it entails (Benson, 2007; Benson and Voller, 1997; Ho and Crookall, 1995; Little, 1990; Schmenk, 2005). Little (1990), for example, has tried to demystify some of the ambiguities that became prevalent over the years. For example, he argues that learner autonomy is not a teaching method or a single learner behaviour that can be easily described. He adds that autonomy cannot be equated to self-learning. He defines learner autonomy as "essentially a matter of the learner's psychological relation to the process and content of learning - a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action" (Little, 1991, p. 4). Nunan (1997) and Thanasoulas (2000) contend that autonomy is not an absolute trait as it can take different forms depending on various factors, such as age, learning experience, learning goals and perceptions about learning. These misconceptions continue to exist despite the large amount of research on the subject.

Other researchers have stressed the role of the cultural and ideological context where learning and teaching take place in the development of LA (e.g. Dam, 1995; Palfreyman, 2003; Smith, 2003). It is believed that there are certain factors that can affect the degree of autonomy one could have. These factors include societal expectations, personal perceptions, etc. According to Dam (1995), learners will not become autonomous learners unless they have the willingness to take responsibility. Benson and Winnie (1998) report on a study that investigated learners' views about LA. They analyzed learners' beliefs from four perspectives, socio-cultural, technical, psychological, and political perspectives (see also Benson, 1997). The technical views are concerned with the physical setting in the learning environment, while the socio-cultural conceptions are related to the social interactions and relationships that are inherent in the society. The psychological perspectives refer to the intellectual readiness that learners possess. The presence or absence of these views can support or hinder the development of LA. Benson and Winnie (1998, p. 57) conclude that:

… learning behaviors are conditioned by overarching conceptions of the object and process of learning … If learners broadly adopt the view that languages consist of things to be learned and approach the task of learning as the accumulation of those things, they are less likely to respond positively to autonomy. If they adopt the view that language is an unfamiliar environment with which they must come to terms and approach the task of learning as one of exposure, understanding and personal adaptation, they are more likely to respond positively to autonomy.

Learner autonomy has now become an important part of language education. It is seen as a way of empowering students to take responsibility for their own learning inside and outside the classroom environment. Language programmes either integrate autonomy training into other skill courses or in a separate course. Several principles for integrating learner autonomy into the curriculum have been proposed (Cotterall, 2000; Little, 2001; Little, 2007; Little, 2009). These include:

- Learner involvement – in setting goals, learning activities, etc.
- Learner reflection – on learning process and achievement
- Target language use – communicative and meaningful language use
- Strategy training.

In this paper, we argue that for an effective integration of LA into the language curriculum, teachers' views must be taken into consideration. Palfreyman (2003) notes the gap between the theoretical definition of LA and the teachers' understanding of the concept. Teachers' views about LA are shaped by the different ways of conceptualizing LA. Teachers' beliefs about LA are equally important. They do not only dictate how teachers perceive of LA but they also shape the teachers' practices. The present study has attempted to shed light into the teachers' conceptions about the concept of LA and sources where these are drawn.

*B. Teachers' Beliefs about Learner Autonomy*

Despite attempts towards consideration of the role, perceptions and practices of both learners and teachers with regard to the concept of autonomy (Lamb, 2008), there is still little research addressing the concept of learner autonomy from the perspective of the English language teacher.

A current survey of the literature on teachers' perspectives on learner autonomy yielded only a handful of studies (Chan, 2003; Balçıkanlı, 2010; Al Asmari, 2013; Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012a and 2012b). Chan (2003) conducted a large scale mixed-method study which investigated 41 English teachers' perspectives of their roles and responsibilities about leaner autonomy and their assessment of their learners' ability to undertake decisions about learning in an institute in Hong Kong. The study concluded that the teachers thought themselves to be responsible for the methodological decisions (setting objectives and designing assessments) and less responsible about both the students' engagement in activities and their progress in learning English out of class.

Balçıkanlı (2010) conducted a study to explore 112 student teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy in a Turkish university using a survey. Additionally, a total of 20 interviews were conducted to assess these student teachers' overall attitudes towards learner autonomy. The findings suggest that the teachers had positive attitudes towards learner autonomy. However, although the student teachers agreed to the involvement of their learners in most of the areas of teaching and learning, most expressed reservations about involving their students in the decision-making process regarding the time and place of the course and the textbooks.

Al Asmari (2013) investigated 60 EFL teachers' notions, practices and prospects of learner autonomy in a language centre at a Saudi university using a questionnaire. It was found out that the teachers held low assessment of the learners' ability towards learner autonomy. With regards to strategies to promote learner autonomy, the teachers favored the strategies of teaching communicative skills, organizing group discussions, and adopting a learner-centered approach. The teachers further viewed continuous professional development, reflection on the teaching-learning process and learner learning as steps to improve the current situation on learner autonomy.

Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012a) explored 61 teachers' beliefs and practices of learner autonomy in one language centre at a university in Oman using a questionnaire. The findings suggest that in theory the teachers held favorable views about the importance of learner autonomy to second language learning. In practice, however, the teachers were less confident about their learners' possession of autonomy. Further, though the teachers were positive about the desirability of promoting learner autonomy, they were less positive about the feasibility of inculcating learner autonomy in the students. The researchers identified learner factors (e.g., inadequate levels of motivation), teacher factors (e.g., low expectations towards learners) and institutional factors (e.g., curriculum overload) as possible hindrances against promoting learner autonomy in the English classrooms in the setting. The present study is part of an earlier larger study reported in Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012a and 2012b), and reports on findings from the interviews that were conducted as part of the earlier study.

The current study aims to explore experienced ELT teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy. Researching the notion of teacher belief is not problem-free. In contrast to teacher knowledge in the area of teacher cognition, research on teachers' beliefs received very little attention (Borg, 2006). In educational research, Pajares' (1992) work is the only review available of teachers' beliefs. Recognizing that the construct is "diffuse and ungainly, too difficult to operationalize, [and] too context free" (p. 316), Pajares (1992) suggests that researchers utilize 'beliefs about' as one way to provide conceptual clarity. Some researchers (e.g. Verloop et al, 2001), however, see no need for differentiating knowledge from beliefs because according to them "in the mind of the teacher, components of knowledge, beliefs, conceptions and intuitions are inextricably intertwined" (p. 446). There is also no consensus on the meaning of beliefs (Borg, 2001), and some scholars prefer to use an all-encompassing term such as teacher cognition (Borg, 2003), and BAK or beliefs, assumptions and knowledge (Woods, 1996).

Given the centrality of beliefs in teachers' professional life as potentially affecting beliefs about and practice in teaching, a point well-established in mainstream and language education cognition research (Borg, 2001, 2006; Pajares, 1992), this study works on a conceptualization of teacher belief about learner autonomy which is grounded in the following parameters: teacher concepts of learner autonomy, and the origins of these concepts.

## III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study aimed to address two research questions:
1. How do teachers define learner autonomy?
2. What are the sources of the teachers' definitions?

*A. Participants*

This study took place at the Language Centre (LC) at Sultan Qaboos University (SQU) in Oman. The sample was drawn from a population of more than 200 teachers of over 30 nationalities who teach English to around 3500 Omani students preparing for undergraduate study at the University. This study aimed at investigating the teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy.

The sample was drawn from a larger study that investigated the teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy (for more information about the study see Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012a and 2012b). In that study, the participants were given a

questionnaire about the concept of learner autonomy and were asked if they would be interested to participate in follow up, individual interviews. The purpose of the interviews was to further explore the teachers' answers to the questionnaire questions and to elicit specific examples from teachers about their responses to some of the issues in the study. Out of the 61 teachers who answered the questionnaire, 42 teachers volunteered to do a follow up interview. However, given time constraints, the researchers were only able to interview 20 teachers. The interviews lasted an average of 30 minutes each. The 20 teachers were chosen using criteria from two specific responses to the questionnaire questions, namely (a) teachers' beliefs about how autonomous their students were and (b) teachers' years of experience in ELT. There were more than 20 teachers who met these criteria. Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012a, p. 285) describe how the interviewees were selected:

Interviewees were chosen using stratified random sampling (see Bryman 2008). In a stratified sample the criteria for selection are represented in the same proportions as they are in the larger group the sample comes from. This makes the sample more representative of the larger group. Thus, for example, in the larger sample of teachers in the study, 30 teachers (just under 50 per cent) had four years' or less experience in ELT; in the sample of 20 interviewees, there were ten teachers (50 per cent) with this range of experience.

*B. Instrument*

Semi-structured interviews were chosen for the purpose of allowing an element of flexibility. The researchers developed a common framework for the interviews but it was then adapted to suit each interviewee and their responses to the questionnaire. The interviews used the teachers' individual responses to the questionnaire as prompts for the interviews. The interviewees were 18 female teachers and 2 male teachers with different years of experience. Seven were native speakers and thirteen non-native speakers of English. The researchers did not control for the gender or native-speaker aspects because these were not deemed important in the original study.

The interviews were conducted over a period of one month. Ten interviews were conducted face to face in Oman and the other ten by phone from the UK. All interviews were conducted in English and were audio recorded with permission from the interviewees. The fact that some of the interviews were conducted face to face while others on the phone had probably affected the nature of the interaction that took place, the former allowing for opportunities to use stimulus material or body language for explanation and clarification or making the interviews less formal (Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012b). Still, because the interviews were based on participants' responses to the original questionnaire, the abstractness of the discussion was reduced by focusing participants' attention to their concrete responses (Kvale, 1996). The researchers in the original study followed the institutional ethical procedures at the University of Leeds in conducting the interviews. The participants were given information about the study and were asked if they were interested in it. Confidentiality was ensured throughout the study. The researchers used codes to refer to the interviewees in order to protect the interviewee's identity. Additionally, the results were reported back to the participants through professional development workshops and publications.

*C. Data Analysis*

The analysis of the interview data of the Language Centre teachers was carried out on NVivo 9. This is Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) with facilities to aid in the analysis of qualitative data. Different techniques were employed on the data. The analysis was done in reference to the research questions (Janesick, 1994, p. 210), and the overall approach to analysis was inductive in the sense that the extant theoretical literature on learner autonomy did not inform the analysis at this early stage. This was facilitated by the data analyst not being involved in the data collection in the earlier studies (See Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012a, 2012b) in the sense that the analysis was grounded into the data of the interviews rather than being directed by and emerged from the findings of the first study. This gave the analyst a different frame of mind from that which has guided the earlier study.

The whole process, described below in full detail, went through three major phases. First, data was analyzed using NVivo 9. Secondly, the procedures and the direction of the analysis, as well as the meanings emergent of the data were discussed and refined. Thirdly, the researchers wrote holistic analytical constructions of the emergent insights obtained from the data based on the posed research questions. Only in the final stages was the theoretical framework (Holliday, 2002) of learner autonomy allowed to shed light on the emergent analysis.

The analysis in the initial stage involved coding the data under different nodes (i.e. meaning containers) that were simple and descriptive. This process of coding was the lengthiest of the processes, which culminated in writing around 200 nodes on all interview data. The researchers went over the data numerous times in order to establish meanings. Afterwards, the individual nodes were organized into tree nodes, based on the overarching meaningful category they belonged to. For example, meanings about teachers' learning experiences were coded under 'language learning', and those relating to the education of these teachers' children coded under 'parenting'. Both of these categories were coded under 'Sources', and so forth. At that stage, the data under each node were read once again, and their relevance to the tree nodes was further assessed through constant comparison (Miles and Huberman, 1994). This was facilitated by Strauss's and Corbin's axial coding (1990), studying contextual and meaningful clues, to provide more refined cross-tabulations. This process led to some nodes being transferred to different categories or further nodes refined to conform to the meanings of the tree nodes. This pertained to the points made below about whether some meanings needed to be coded under one category or another, for example 'professional development or 'initial teacher education'. With the

consensus reached about the meanings of these two concepts, codes were placed accordingly. These categories were then organized according to the research questions of the study.

The credibility of the data analysis was assured through multiple discussions of the coding and categorization of the data. Issues relating to the meanings of the categories were agreed upon. For example, differences between 'professional development' and 'initial teacher education' were discussed. It was decided for example that for this research the meaning of 'initial teacher education' signifies first qualifications earned to obtain a job as an English language teacher. The concept of 'professional development' was made more precise using 'in-service professional development' which indicates more subsequent and on the job training or education which the teacher has received (e.g., attending a workshop, a conference session, doing another degree such as an MA or a PhD degree). Further, following Lincoln and Guba (1985), an audit trail process was achieved throughout the process of analysis through the researcher recording insights on the process and meanings of the emerging data.

## IV. RESULTS

The results are organized by the research questions, with the aim to provide thicker and more in-depth insights about the issues addressed in the earlier studies (Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012a and 2012b).

*A. Teachers' Understanding of Learner Autonomy*

The analysis which was based on the earlier studies (Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012a and 2012b) relating to the conceptions of LA focused on the broad and metacognitive aspects, and presented a majority view (Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012a). In this study, in addition to the metacognitive ones more fine-tuned nuances of definitions are present such as definitions focused on pragmatic issues and dualist conceptions.

Pragmatic conceptions are these which are focused on issues which directly deal with the teachers' day-to-day teaching matters related to curriculum, materials, teaching methodology, or learning strategies. One teacher combines all:

Q: How would you define an autonomous learner?

A: That the learner would feel empowered to decide on the objectives after a certain amount of education, because learners at different ages would be less informed about objectives and how to achieve them.  And once they're educated, once they're enlightened, … then they have every freedom, ability to input into objectives, into assessment forms, into methodology, material, whatever, that they were completely involved in it. (EN)

On the broad dimension of LA definitions, the teachers focused on defining learner autonomy from a metacognitive angle. These definitions are not about learning per se, but relate to conceptions that are *about* learning, strategies that regulate this learning. This orientation reminds one with the definitions which abound in the earlier literature on learner autonomy. Conceptions about 'independence', 'freedom', 'voice', 'decision', 'choice', 'control', 'charge', and 'responsibility' have dominated the definitions of this kind (See Little, 1991). One example is the following:

I equate it with the idea that the student should have choice or that a learner, a learner should have choice and some kind of control over their own learning, that, something like that (AG)

Learner autonomy to me means giving independence to students, to learners (AM)

But basically [LA] is just trying to help students take charge of their own learning, as much as possible. (JA)

Therefore, in the above quotes notions of 'taking charge', 'independence', 'control' and 'choice' resonate with metacognitive ideas, which are reminiscent of strategies used to regulate and self-direct learning.

The dualist conception of LA by the teachers proved to be especially interesting. This dualist conception indicates a very complex network of thinking on the part of these very experienced EFL teachers in combining concepts that depict the versatile facets of the concept of learner autonomy in a few words. Whilst the teachers defined LA using the classic combinations of autonomy and control/instruction or freedom or guidance as in the earlier pragmatic and metacognitive definitions, there are definitions which combined some unusual characteristics of learner autonomy. For example, learner autonomy is seen to encompass both content and process, process and the result, and responsibility and right. One teacher emphasizes that teachers in class can oversee both content and the process for planning the content:

Well not all teachers realise that actually teachers can exert autonomy in content even, classroom teaching content. In the event that teachers actually cannot have control over, well their preferred topic or preferred content, subject content that they want to teach specifically or get them to talk about. They could actually have control over process.  So this way we would actually invite the conversation so that learners can bring their scheme ... out of the class and they will actually participate in constructing knowledge. (MS)

Another teacher differentiates between autonomy as process in the opportunities that are being created for/by the learner to develop their English, and autonomy as product, in the attribute which the successful learner ends having:

When it comes to my profession, autonomy, when it comes to ESL, when it comes to language learning, is when you have two ways communication, you have to train a person to be an autonomous learner, that means do the same you can as a learner of English of a more advanced level, and also to provide an opportunity for learning, so it's the process and the result, that's the way I see that in the ESL context. (GM)

A third teacher stresses that an autonomous learner is not only responsible for assuming responsibility of their own learning and its pace, but also possesses the right to be given this opportunity and to be made aware of its potential and benefit to language learning or learning in general for that matter:

learner autonomy means that the learner has full responsibility and right to choose what to learn how to learn and when to learn, and to be able to assess (GB).

In sum, because of their broad quantitative nature, the earlier studies (Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012a and 2012b) offered one monolithic definition which "involved learners in having the freedom and/or ability to make choices and decisions" (Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012a, p. 286). This study, by contrast, as was clearly highlighted above, provided the teachers' understandings of learner autonomy, with its rich and versatile facets.

*B. Sources of the Teachers' Views of Learner Autonomy*

The data suggest that the origins of the teachers' cognitions regarding learner autonomy, LA, came from three major sources: language teaching, language learning, and professional development, and a combination of all of these.

**1. Language teaching**

When the teachers talked about the sources of their cognitions of learner autonomy with regard to teaching, they talked about their formal as well as their experiential (related to classroom experience) components. The formal component focused on training through first degrees (also MA level, and PhD level) in teacher training institutions. Below we show a narrative from a teacher talking about an MA program 35 years ago where she/he points out that though the clothing of LA is new, its core meaning has been in ESL for quite a while:

I have a Masters in education, intercultural education with an ESL specialty, and that was in 1975 and 1976. And we were, I think the terminology is a bit different but a lot of the ideas are the same. So we were studying teaching methodology such as the open classroom, I don't know if you've ever heard of that.

I've heard of it.

A Montessori School methodology where students work independently in the classroom with the guidance of the teacher, doing their own projects and pursuing their own interests. So, some of the ideas that I think I've had exposure to in the 1990s, maybe since the 1990s when the paradigm shift, I really feel like, in higher education, the paradigm shift from the teacher centred classroom to the learner centred classroom was occurring. But some of those ideas are, of course, not new … (BV)

The experiential component, this appearing to far less extent compared to training, is related to the teachers' classroom teaching experience through observation of their students, and through promotion of autonomy amongst their students, as one teacher demonstrates:

I guess it [the source of my views on LA] comes out of experience through teaching and personal experience myself. I think one of the things I try to promote with students and try to demonstrate as an example to them is lifelong learning, and I strongly believe that we need to be lifelong learners, and that being a lifelong learner can help you in so many ways as an individual, and in terms of your career, in terms of personal goals you want to meet and so on. So, again, from seeing those students that are more successful, and for understanding why I may be successful in learning some subjects versus others, I think that having that autonomy is an important part of that equation. (DS)

Upon reflecting on her students in her classroom, the teacher in the above extract demonstrates the relationship between autonomy and success in learning a foreign language, and particularly sees that successful students are autonomous learners.

**2. Language learning**

The data in this category relate to two dimensions of language learning: the teachers' experiences as language learners, and their experiences as parents (parenting). These experiences ranged from reflecting on purpose for learning English which was not for instrumental purposes, reflecting on the pace and learning techniques used, reflecting on the opportunities outside the class, i.e. activities engaged in outside the language classroom (e.g., watching t.v, reading books, etc.), strangely but reflecting on their schooling experiences which were strict structured and teacher oriented, engaging in a learning situation to reflect on their learning, so that they are on equal planes with the learners, and taking charge of school societies outside the classroom. When describing their experiences as language learners, these teachers talked about the versatile facets which LA showed them. This runs contrary to the apprenticeship of observation which states that the potential teachers make note of teachers' actions, strategies and skills during their schooling years to accumulate knowledge about ELT.

It is very interesting to note that the polarized school structure as strict, on the one hand, and as lenient, on the other, had an influence on these teachers' thinking regarding LA, as this quote shows:

Q: Now how have you come to develop these views about autonomy, is it because of that book that you read about the school?

A: I'm sure that that was the start, Summerhill, and then myself being, going to parochial schools with very, very strict structure (TGL)

Coming from a teacher-centred system, another teacher described the influence of schooling experience as follows:

Q: How did you form these views about learner autonomy, and was it, for example, based on your teacher training, or maybe based on your experience, or other factors?

A: Like I told you, if I, I just yesterday, with trying to think about the topic, and I was thinking of my experience as, as a learner, as a student.  Like I told you, I am from very teacher oriented system, and I can't say that I got much training in learning how to learn things.  That's why, right now, again, I read a lot about this topic, and I try to use some things in my classroom on an, on every day basis, for example, I like very much mind mapping. I think it's a very, very useful skill for students, for different purposes, whether it's for writing, for planning their writing, or for reading, the ability to see the structure of the text, and to be able to transfer the information from one mode to another, or for planning things, or for presentations, or whatever.  That's why I try to use elements of it in different, in different aspects (GB).

On the parenting issue as one source of the teachers' cognitions on learner autonomy, the teachers talked about how they were involved in the education of their kids in issues related to type of schools and type of courses. Here is one example:

[For my kid] it didn't matter what the teacher said or what I said or what anything, or the grade he got, he could take, in high, secondary school he could take Advanced Placement History from Dr *Wilkerson* and get an A and he would, because of the system he was, he must take Art or Music or some Fine Arts, he would fail.  How can you fail Art ...? Well it was boring (TGL).

Another teacher approached the influence of parenting from an entirely different perspective, one which is different from the earlier quote:

Q: Yes, and you said your own experience as a learner, or as a language learner, had an influence on how you feel about autonomy.  Could you tell me a little bit more about that?

A: Yes, because the thing is, well, I mean I've always thought of myself as an independent person, and I think it always to me, the birth order makes the role, because I'm the oldest of my brothers and sisters, and because of that I've always, like, I mean the family, my parents have always depended on me to take care of my brothers and sisters, so I grew up with like responsibilities, I mean, I'm supposed to help them out, like sometimes help them, feed them, take care of them, stay with them, babysitting, so that had an influence on me as a learner, and I've always been interested in learning language, I mean English as a language, it has nothing to do with wanting a job, I never really thought of myself becoming an English teacher.  It was always that I was interested in English, and I think because of the birth [order] (NK).

Whilst the above two extracts are common in revealing the influence of parenting on the teachers' views on learner autonomy, they illustrate two approaches in conceptualizing the role of parents. The first teacher was reflecting about his son schooling experience as a father, and the second came from a teacher who was reflecting on the responsibility given to her by her parents to take care of her brothers/sisters.  This made this teacher relate her autonomy as a foreign language learner to her parents' method of rearing her.

**3. In-service professional development**

In the area of professional development as a source for the teachers' cognitions on learner autonomy, the data suggest that the teachers have their ideas about learner autonomy from attending conferences and workshops, readings in the literature that define learner autonomy or report on its implementation in different learning contexts. References to the literature included the following:

• Holec's definition of LA
• David Little's work and then also the English language portfolio
• Ellis and Sinclair's Learning to Learn, the actual course book

One example extract is the following:

As I said before I would really like to follow Holec's definition which I have adapted actually, learner autonomy to me is the capacity to take control over learning which would come in the form of different levels, different forms according to the uniqueness, the individuality of learners.  It's an attribute, it's a mode of learning and teaching and teaching material should foster autonomy. Because the other side of the coin is teacher autonomy where teachers cannot have control over content, teachers need to focus on the process of teaching so that you can foster actually autonomy in the classrooms. (MS)

Another teacher explains how at his first teaching assignment in Oman, he has been reading about LA from an early book on this theme at the time:

Q: Has there been anything in your teacher training, teacher development where autonomy has been a particular focus and that may have shaped your views?

A: Training not so much but development in the sense of attending conferences, listening to speakers, reading different articles.  I remember way back when I first came to Oman actually picking up Ellis and Sinclair's Learning to Learn, the actual course book (AG)

A third teacher is this teacher who has learned a great deal about learner autonomy, and still does, from both the Master's degree she did, and from the doctoral research that she is currently doing:

Q: How have you come to develop these views? Was it for example through your teacher training? Or from experience in the classroom?  Or something else?

A: When I answered this questionnaire it was actually based on my teacher experience, when I was doing masters we just basically touched on the topic and now that I have started the PhD I'm focusing more. And actually after answering

the questionnaire I focused more on learner autonomy and started reading and it made me realise actually my beliefs are in par with the other's ideas in the field, so it got me really interested. (MS)

A fourth teacher has gathered information on learner autonomy from a collaborative project on self-assessment with a colleague of her. She explains as follows

Q: Now how have you come to develop these views about learner autonomy? Did you, for example, did you in teacher training or experience?

A: Sure. Actually in 2007 a colleague and I were doing a presentation on using self assessment in the classroom and we drew upon the David Little's work and then also the English language portfolio that was used there. And so for the writing class that I had and the speaking listening class that she had we were trying to see if we could use self assessment with the students as a means of alternative assessment ... (MY)

Despite these clear-cut categorizations of the influences, in some instances, it was difficult for the teachers to attribute these influences to one source. This is understandable since the teachers interviewed were very experienced EFL teachers, as was explained earlier, and have accumulated experience and understanding from a wide range of sources. However, there were a few teachers who identified a combination of sources that were responsible for their understanding of LA. The following teacher has developed her views as a learner and then subsequently as a teacher:

Q: Now, how did you develop these views about learning autonomy? Was it, for example, through training that you had when you were doing your degrees, or your experience?

A: Definitely, when I was a language learner I was aware that it will not be enough to stop learning something in the classroom, I'll have to take back some things home and continue ... So I think I became aware as a student and, when I started teaching, I could see a significant difference between responsible students who've completed tasks given, who did more learning on their own and were more motivated and took responsibility, do better. So I saw that autonomy made a difference to performance. (AS)

Another teacher combined formal training, teaching and experience in learning French:

Q: How do you think you've come to develop the views that you hold today about learner autonomy?

A: I wouldn't say my training but until you're teaching yourself or learning yourself, then you really do understand, because, first of all, as a language learner, my first Degree is in Languages, so I learned two foreign languages to a high level and on reflecting. And in one of those languages in particular, I was autonomous, to a certain degree, ... I don't know what it's like today, but Secondary School wouldn't really have encouraged autonomy in foreign language learning, we didn't have any language labs, or computers, and there was no internet or anything, ... but I did a lot of extensive reading, say, in French, it helped by a sister who lived in a French speaking country and who would bring me material, ... And that was about myself, and that's why I hold such strong views and such positive views about autonomy. (CN)

Here is how a third teacher linked several different influential sources (i.e. schooling experience, initial training, professional development) for her ideas on learner autonomy:

Q: Have there been particular influences in your life, in your education, in your professional work, which have influenced how you feel today about learner autonomy?

A: I think with me, maybe I've been lucky starting from school I've been involved in so many societies apart from classroom activities, and I took charge of some societies. And then when I went to university, we were doing, I did Languages basically, and we were taught by different people from different backgrounds and mostly from the West, and you're just exposed to different schools and different experiences. I think this has contributed to shape my experience. Plus I've done my MA in Australia and you tend to look critically at what could work for your context and what could work for your students when you come back for a classroom and how you can make use of whatever available resources you've got. And it doesn't stop, actually that's why it's like, it's connected more with professional development, you look at things, you see how they could fit into your context, so it's, basically it's something that is constant with me, constantly going on. (JA)

## V. DISCUSSION

This qualitative study has investigated learner autonomy from the perspectives of EFL practitioners. The study specifically explores the teachers' understanding of learner autonomy and the sources of their understanding.

There are certain points that can be drawn in the discussion that are pertinent to the findings of the study. First, a group of teachers defined what the concept of learner autonomy meant to them by relating it to their daily practices including teaching methodology and assessment and materials' development. A few also defined LA in relation to what is most common in the literature of learner autonomy with regard to control, capacity and freedom. A third group defined autonomy emphasizing its seemingly contrasting qualities such as process and product, process and content, and right and duty. These various conceptions of learner autonomy can be related to the teachers' varied and long experiences.

Though some of these issues have been dealt with in Borg and Al Busaidi (2012a, 2012b), the distinctiveness of this study is in the deeper analysis and interpretation of the teachers' understanding. For example, LA conceptions can be related to the sources of the teachers' ideas on learner autonomy. A group of teachers formed their ideas on LA from teacher education/training programmes and their classroom practice (i.e. the pragmatic definitions). Another group of

teachers talked about their experiences in language learning as sources of their concepts of LA. There are two points of interest with regard to the sources of these ideas. The first point is that the teachers not only referred to their language learning experiences as learners of L2 themselves, but also as parents in relation to their children's learning experiences. The second point is that contrary to the apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975), these teachers never referred to the sources of their ideas on LA as stemming from watching and observing their teachers' teaching practices in the English classroom. One reason which may explain this absence of connection is the wide teaching experience that these teachers have accumulated. A third group of teachers said that they knew the information about LA from their in-service development programmes such as reading for research and attending conferences and doing presentations. Professional development opportunities seem to have long lasting impact on teachers.

The findings of the study support those of previous studies about the high regard teachers hold for the development of LA. The study has also indicated that teachers from different backgrounds vary in their understanding of LA. The teachers' understanding is influenced by personal, educational and pragmatic factors. There are many ways to further promote LA among students and teachers. Understanding the perceptions that students and teachers have about this important concept is a crucial step towards the development of leaner autonomy.

## VI. CONCLUSION

The present study sought to explore the teachers' perceptions about learner autonomy. It specifically examined the teachers' definitions of LA and the origins of their views. The study revealed the complexity of teachers' cognitions in describing LA. It showed that teachers hold different views about LA. These views are governed by factors such as the teachers' backgrounds, education, and experience. Future research can focus on the effect teachers' views might have on their classroom practices.

There are still many unsettled issues, such as the learner and teacher roles, the nature of materials required, the type of teacher preparation needed, and the best ways to assess students' attainment of such a trait. We hope that our study has shed some light into some of these aspects of LA that remain under-studied from the teachers' perspectives.

In conclusion, we believe that in order for teachers to promote LA they themselves should have a degree of autonomy in managing their courses. Non-autonomous teachers should also be provided with training on how to be autonomous. Teacher education programs need to provide opportunities and training for their student teachers on how to promote LA in their teaching.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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# A Fantasy Subverting the Woman's Image as "The Angel in the House"

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*Abstract*—In *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland,* Lewis Carroll creates a subversive fantasy of females seeking autonomy and independence by means of the fantastic mode. The female characters in the underground include the Duchess, the Cook, the Queen of Red Hearts and Alice. They all display clear features which are atypical of the popular ideal woman image of the Victorian society---"the angel in the house", like obedience, self-sacrifice, passiveness and gentleness. On the contrary, those adult females show madness and violence in their separate roles, while Alice the little girl displays autonomy, independence and aggression in her fantasy quest. By subverting the ideal woman image, Carroll gives expression to the repressed feelings of the woman in his society.

*Index Terms*—*Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*, the angel in the house, Alice, gender role

## I. INTRODUCTION

"The Angel in the House" is the popular Victorian image of the ideal wife/woman. The phrase comes from the title of an immensely popular poem by Coventry Patmore, in which he holds his angel-wife up as a model for all women. Though the poem did not receive much attention when first published in 1854, it became increasingly popular through the rest of the nineteenth century and continued to be influential in the twentieth century. The word "angel" becomes a synonym for woman. The popularity of this poem and the phrase play a very great role in shaping perceptions of woman's nature as the opposite of man's nature and essentially passive. She was expected to be devoted and submissive to her husband. The angel was passive, meek, charming, graceful, gentle, self-sacrificing, pious, and above all---pure. What is more important, she should possess a majestic childishness, and has a preference for a life restricted to the confines of home. Woman is idealized as man's subordinate or victim, entirely dependent on man. Though this ideal primarily expressed the values of the middle classes, Queen Victoria's devotion to her husband Prince Albert and to a domestic life encouraged the ideal to spread throughout nineteenth century society.

John Ruskin shared the same idea about woman in his essay "of Queen's Gardens". He agrees that the innate feminine nature is separate and distinct from the masculine.

The woman's power is for rule, not for battle---and her intellect is not for invention or creation, but for sweet ordering, arrangement, and decision. She sees the qualities of things, their claims, and their places. Her great function is Praise: she enters into no contest, but infallibly adjudges the crown of contest. By her office and place, she is protected from all danger and temptation. (Ruskin, 1920, P.120)

Ruskin reiterates the idea that a woman's place is at home. As an angel, she should be kept untainted by the public life, the world of affairs which belong to man. The woman's duty is to create a world of peace where the man can take refuge from the harsh outside world and the children can be well taken care of. Her main role is to "provide a place of renewal for men, after their rigorous activities in the harsh, competitive public sphere" (Gorham, 1982, p.4).

Among the four main stereotypes of women in Victorian society: "the angel, the demon, the old maid, and the fallen woman" (Auerbach, 1982, P.63), no doubt the angel is the most dominant image. In realistic literature of the Victorian period, a portrait of submissive and domesticated angel was widely promoted and accepted, yet Lewis Carroll creates the subversive fantasy of females seeking autonomy and independence by means of the fantastic mode. Fantasy proves a very useful tool to subvert the dominant social values and conventions. The writers of fantasy enjoy much more freedom of breaking the social conventions than the writers of realistic fiction, for they are not concerned about social sanctions as fantasy does not hold the story or characterization accountable to reality. Under their pen, powerful father-figures become weak and incompetent; while the angel-like mothers are bestowed with great power, yet they display no ideal, angel-like features in their behavior. The traditional gender roles are reversed, and the sexual difference is blurred or dissolved. Even the little girl, a miniature angel in the house is portrayed differently in a fantasy. As Knoepflmacher points out, fantasy allows writers to "portray little girls who were allowed to express hostility without the curbs on female rebelliousness that had been placed earlier in children's literature" (Knoepflmacher, 1983, P. 14).

## II. DISCUSSION

In *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland,* the female characters are outnumbered by the male. There are only four female

in the underground world--- the Duchess, the cook, the Queen of Hearts and Alice herself. They all show some madness in their separate roles. The Duchess is a mother figure who abuses her baby; the Cook is a representative of the working-class women, who is very bad-tempered, silent but angry, violent. The Queen of Hearts takes on a dual role as a mother and wife in private life and a ruler in public life, who is furious to execute everybody and whose tyranny is greatly feared.

*A.  The Adult Females*

The Duchess is a mother figure, yet she is rather brutal in treating her child, which is a complete reversal of the ideal mother figure as "a perfect lady, an angel in the house, contentedly submissive to men, but strong in her inner purity and religiosity, queen in her own realm of the House"(Showalter, 1977, p.14). When Alice enters the Duchess's house, she finds her sitting in the middle of the kitchen with a baby in her arms. With the pepper in the air, the noises from the cook and the baby's howling, the Duchess becomes very tense and loses her temper. Noticing the Cheshire-Cat, Alice approaches the Duchess and asks her why it is that the cat grins. The irritated Duchess responds that if Alice doesn't know that all Cheshire-Cats have grins, then she doesn't know much. The Duchess also bursts out a very scornful and insulting word to Alice: "Pig!" (Carroll, 1993, p.62) Alice warns the cook to be careful with her cooking appliances lest the baby get hurt, but the Duchess tells her to mind her own business and says violently: "Chop off her head!" The verbal threat intends to silence the innocent child Alice and ask no questions with the adults when they are busy. The Duchess also sings a lullaby to the baby in an effort to quiet it and make it stop crying: "Speak roughly to your little boy, /and beat him when he sneezes: /He only does it to annoy, /Because he knows it teases…" (Carroll, 1993, p.64) Meanwhile, she gives the baby a violent shake, and finally tosses the baby violently up and down to frighten it into silence and submission. To the Duchess, if the baby dares to challenge the parents' authority by teasing and howling, he surely deserves to be beaten. It is quite apparent that the Duchess is far from being content with her role as a mother; she rather resents her role as a mother, eager to abandon her role and her baby. So when she fails to quiet the baby, she throws it away to Alice. The baby is a burden to her, and she cannot wait to escape from it to enjoy herself. As a matter of fact, the hysterical Duchess turns to be very pleasant when she is free from the household duty and babysitting. When Alice encounters her again in the croquet ground, she is very happy: "You can't think how glad I am to see you again, you dear old thing!" (Carroll, 1993, p.89) Strangely enough, the Duchess never asks Alice anything about what has become of her baby. It seems that she has completely forgotten and deserted her role as a mother. Yet it is the same Duchess who claims to Alice that "tis love, 'tis love, that makes the world go round."(Carroll, 1993, p.90) When we consider she is a mother devoid of love, this is a more biting irony. The Duchess reminds readers of many tense mothers who are completely different when they are away from their children. Though she is portrayed as ugly, mad, grotesque and abusive, she is not "intended as a condemnation of women as mothers. Rather, in some part, she is Carroll's kindred spirit" (Honing, 1998, p.31). Carroll expresses his sympathy for her reaction to the burden of motherhood.

The Cook serves as a servant for the Duchess. She is a representative of the working-class women. Most of the working-class women had to work in the factories or the upper-class family to make some money to provide for their poor family. As a rule, they were poorly treated: overworked and underpaid, yet they did not dare to complain for fear of losing their job. The Cook in Carroll's fantasy does not talk much; however, she manages to find some expression of her repression. She puts too much pepper deliberately in her soup, annoying her mistress, and causing her to sneeze. Apparently the Cook is not happy with the Duchess who has come to the kitchen to disturb her work. She is getting more and more furious while working, so she begins "throwing everything within her reach at the Duchess and the baby---the fine-irons came first; then followed a shower of saucepans, plates, and dishes" (Carroll, 1993, p.63). A real cook shall never do anything like this to her mistress, but in a fantastic world, her actions go unpunished. Later on in the trial scene, the Cook appears as a witness to testify, carrying the pepper-box with her. The pepper-box becomes her mark and symbol, signifying her hot-temper, as a way to tell the others to leave her alone. When asked by the King to give her evidence, she merely says one word: "Shan't" (Carroll, 1993, p.113). Her indifferent and provocative attitude annoys the King and shocks the whole jury. The Cook's refusal to obey her mistress and answer the King clearly shows her courage to defy the authority, and it is an attempt on the part of the lower class to disrupt the oppression/repression binary state in the social structure.

The Queen of Hearts is the most powerful female figure in Wonderland. She is equally mad just like the Duchess. She treats her people in the same way that the Duchess treats her baby. When Alice finally manages to enter the beautiful garden she has been longing to enter, she finds it full of disorder, madness and rage. After Alice enters the garden, she finds the gardeners busily painting the white roses red just because the Queen wants it that way. When Alice refuses to satisfy the Queen's demands to know who the cards are, the Queen flies into a rage and threatens to chop off her head. The Queen demands absolute authority, and if someone dares to challenge her, she would be furious and issue a verbal threat of execution. Her mere presence is greatly feared by her subjects. She violently orders the soldiers to execute the three gardeners who paint roses; in the Croquet-ground, she never stops quarrelling with the players and deals with their conflicts merely by shouting "off with his head". Under her tyranny, the King becomes infantile and weak. His masculinity and dominance are gone, and he is terrified by his wife. When the King is angry with the Cheshire Cat, he does not know what to do with it and calls the Queen for help. He knows the Queen would frighten away the impolite thing. Sure enough, the Queen just throws her order to chop off his head, which brings about terrible consequence. As the Cheshire Cat has no body but a smile, her order is impossible to be executed, which shows her

absolute power is challenged again. The Queen just bursts out in great madness, saying that if something wasn't done about it in less than no time, she'd have everybody executed. As a wife and ruler, the Queen of Hearts sways "between a sovereign's public power and a woman's private influence" (Geer, 2003, p. 9). Later in the trial scene, the Queen becomes an observer while the King presides at the trial and interrogates the suspect and the witnesses. Still, the Queen intervenes constantly by shrieking out her threatening order, which results in great chaos in the court. When the King asks the jury to consider the verdict, the Queen demands "Sentence first, verdict afterwards" (Carroll, 1993, p.121) And when Alice criticizes the Queen's judgment and refuses to obey her order, the Queen shouts at her loudly and angrily "Off with her head!" in an attempt to make her surrender. The Queen does not bring about peace or order in her garden. Quite on the contrary, she embodies threat, power and madness.

*B.  Alice the Little Girl*

In the family novels of the nineteenth century, the little girls are widely portrayed and idealized as obedient, caring, diligent, eager to please and devoted to the family. They are the little angels in the house. As Gardener remarks, "There was a tendency in Victorian England, reflected in the literature of the time, to idealize the beauty and virginal purity of little girls." (Gardner, 2000, p. xix) Deborah Gorham also asserts that while "both male and female children were of importance in idealization of family life…, daughters had a special significance…[as they] could offer the family a particular sort of tenderness and spirituality." (Gorham, 1982, p.5) Gorham goes on to say that

Much more successfully than her mother, a young girl could represent the quintessential angel in the house. Unlike an adult woman, a girl could be perceived as a wholly unambiguous model of feminine dependence, child-like simplicity and sexual purity. (Gorham, 1982, p.7)

However, in *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*, Lewis Carroll depicts a little girl who enjoys great physical power. Alice is definitely not a girl of "modesty and obedience" (Honing, 1998, p.84), features which make her an ideal Victorian girl. In this tale, Alice follows a talking White Rabbit, down a well, through a pool of tears, and into a garden where she encounters a Mad Hatter's tea party, a game of croquet played with living things, and a trial of the Knave of Hearts. Alice is a child entering a world of adults ranging from the neurotic White Rabbit, to the officious Duchess and crazy Queen of Hearts. These mad, absurd creatures attempt to order Alice about, but Alice manages to answer them back. Throughout the adventure, sometimes she is frustrated, helpless, and puzzled about her identity, yet she manages to control her body and finally return back to the reality in triumph. She insists on independence and refuses to be dominated by the creatures, thus showing herself as a little girl of great wit, courage, assertion and strong-will. She is adventurous, even aggressive as a male hero, the very opposite of the ideal girl.

As a girl of seven years old, Alice is physically strong and powerful. She is not afraid to fall down the rabbit hole. When she sees the rabbit, driven by bursting curiosity, she follows him and falls into the Wonderland. In spite of the long fall, she remains unscathed: "Well!' thought Alice to herself. 'After such a fall as this, I shall think nothing of tumbling down-stairs! How brave they'll all think me at home!'(Carroll, 1993, P.18) Here Alice displays her unusual bravery. Alice's power is mostly displayed in her control of her body size.

Alice goes through a series of bodily changes in Wonderland. Interesting enough, almost all the changes are linked with drinking and eating. Food is very closely connected with the everyday life of the children, and children's strong interest in food also makes them pay special attention to it. After all, food is crucial in the process of children's growing up, and children may find it hard to resist. When Alice comes to the Rabbit's house, she happens to see a bottle near the looking-glass, and intuitively thinks that something curious is sure to happen if she drinks it. The drink enlarges her to a preposterous degree and as a result, she is trapped in the small house, unable to move. Then the falling pebbles that turn into cakes attract her attention and she immediately eats them which reduces her again and makes her smaller than a puppy. Her frequent changes of body size puzzles her, leading to her great anxiety about who she really and whether she is still the same person she was when she woke up in the morning. Alice expresses her doubts about her identity: "...I wonder if I've changed in the night? Let me think: was I the same when I got up this morning? I almost think I can remember feeling a little different. But if I'm not the same, the next question is, Who in the world am I? Ah, *that's* the great trouble!" (Carroll, 1993, P.26) She wonders whether she has been changed for Mabel, which would be unfortunate since Mabel is not very smart in her lessons and Alice would have to live in her"poky little house, and have next to no toys to play with"(Carroll, 1993, P.27). She decides that, if indeed she is Mabel, she will refuse to come back up the rabbit hole.

Her frustrating feeling of loss is best shown in her encounter with the Caterpillar. When the sleepily smoking Caterpillar sitting on a mushroom asks Alice with an impertinent tone: "Who are you", Alice feels more puzzled than ever. She attempts to explain: "I--I hardly know, Sir, just at present-at least I know who I was when I got up this morning, but I think I have changed several times since then" (Carroll, 1993, P.49). Unsatisfied, the Caterpillar utters a curt order to ask Alice to explain herself, which is beyond Alice: "I can't explain myself, I'm afraid, Sir...because I'm not myself, you see." And of course, the Caterpillar can not see that precisely because he has no previous version of Alice to compare the present one to. Considering the fact that constant metamorphosis is the very nature of the caterpillar, the unlucky Alice stumbles upon the one creature in the world who simply cannot offer empathy for her countless changes in size and shape, since bodily transformation is a norm for the caterpillars. The Caterpillar objects to her saying that changing many shapes in one day is confusing. Alice tries to drive home her point to the caterpillar: certainly once he's changed into a chrysalis and butterfly, then he will feel a "little bit queer." However, he insists that it

won't. Exasperated, Alice states: "Well, perhaps your feelings may be different, ...all I know is, it would feel very queer to me". The Caterpillar manages to belittle even this qualified claim: "You! Who are you?" (Carroll, 1993, P.49) This leads Alice to nowhere since it is the very question that puzzles her. Alice endures more ridicule from the creature before it asks her what size she wants to be to which Alice responds that she isn't particular as to size; the only problem is, "one doesn't like changing so often, you know" to which the Caterpillar curtly replies, "I don't know." (Carroll, 1993, P.54)

It is quite clear that the body becomes a tool for Alice to make sense of the crazy world. Alice is quite obsessed with the size of her body and she constantly shows dissatisfaction for not having the right size. Alice's bodily transformations can be interpreted as a realization of the child's dream to get rid of the control from the adults. We all know children like to imagine themselves different than they really are. Sometimes they dream of becoming tiny enough so that they can evade the control from the authoritative figures, either parents or teachers; sometimes they yearn to become so huge that the adults can no nothing about them for their enormous size and power. In the beginning of her arbitrary body changes after drinking or eating things, Alice is much confused about her identity. However, she gradually comes to realize being big is better than being small. When she is in White Rabbit's house, Alice is tired of being so little and therefore ordered about by the rabbit as a maid. She looks around in hope of finding something to make her grow. After she drinks a potion, she gets very huge indeed and the little house can hardly hold her. She has to lie down to make herself comfortable. In spite of the inconvenience, she enjoys the delight of being tall and big, for it gives her power to fight. As a matter of fact, she nearly destroys the White Rabbit's house. When the Rabbit comes near the window, Alice stretches her hand out of the window to prevent it from entering the house, which causes great panic among the animals. When the Rabbit sends his servant Bill to go down the chimney, Alice kicks him up the chimney like a sky-rocket and hurts him. When the Rabbit suggests burning down the house, Alice poses a verbal threat: "If you do, I'll set Dinah at you."(Carroll, 1993, p.45) When they attack her with little pebbles, Alice shouts at them loudly to make them stop. Here Alice becomes the powerful one and completely relies on her own to resolve conflicts with the adults. Due to the large size of her body, she has overcome her former fears about them, adopts the adult language and behavior to fight with them. Her physical growth "is apparently symbolic of her personality growth, her growth in confidence, assertiveness, and courage" (Honing, 1998, p.84). When Alice learns to control her body at will, she gets more aggressive and powerful. The empowered Alice can boldly challenge the adult values, even when the adult comes from the royal family ---the Queen herself.

Alice is a polite, cultured little girl of Victorian society. Still, she shows her independence and vast difference from the image of a "girl angel". She is clever, self-reliant and she refuses to be anyone's fool. She may be frustrated and confused in her quest adventure, but she recovers very soon, showing an extraordinary resilience. She dares to confront those who try to dominate her, showing an unusual assertiveness. Under difficult circumstances, she emerges as a victor, leader and protector for those weaker creatures. In the poor of tears, Alice leads the group of animals to swim to the shore; in the Caucus-race, she acts as the prize-giver to the competitors; in the Rabbit's house, she defends herself against the attacks of the rabbit and its friends, kicking lizard Bill up the chimney; when the pigeon accuses of her as a serpent, she insists that she is a little girl; in her encounter with the Caterpillar, she takes her leave after finding the creature unpleasant; in the Duchess's kitchen, she tries to stop the Duchess from abusing the baby and then nurses it after it is abandoned; in the mad-tea party, she sits at the tea table in spite of the party's claim "No room, No room"(Carroll, 1993, p.70) and protests angrily when they make rude remarks; in the Queen's garden, Alice refuses to answer the Queen's demands and protects the gardeners from being beheaded; in the queen's croquet ground, even the domineering Queen herself seeks help from Alice for her advice about beheading the Cheshire Cat who has no body but a head; in the climactic trial scene, Alice takes away the pencil from a juryman for the squeaking noise annoys her and upsets the whole jury by tipping over the jury-box. With the growth of her body, Alice is getting more confident and takes a more masterful control of her situations. She interrupts the King, defies the Queen, and rises to the protection of the accused Knave. She declares angrily to the Queen that they are nothing but a pack of cards, and when the cards come flying at her, Alice "gave a little scream, half of fright, half of anger, and tried to beat them off, and found herself lying on the bank, with her head in the lap of her sister, who was gently brushing away some dead leaves that had fluttered down from the trees on to her face" (Carroll, 1993, p.121). In her dream, Alice is fighting back the cards by beating them off her. Her display of boldness and aggression mark her different from those meek, gentle and obedient heroines typical of the Victorian ideal female.

### III. CONCLUSION

In Lewis Carroll's fantasy, the power relations between genders are reversed and subverted. Sadly, this is only a dream. Alice's rebellion and aggressiveness can only exist in a dream journey. When she comes back to the reality with her normal size, she becomes the docile Victorian little angel girl again, obeying her sister's order to run in to her tea that is denied in the Mad Tea-Party. Nina Auerbach discusses the idea of "size" in this story by relating it to the notion of Victorian girls being restrained from growing up: "Cast in the role of emotional and spiritual catalysts, it is not surprising that girls function as protagonists of Victorian Literature are rarely allowed to develop."(Auerbach, 1973) Kincaid also agrees that Alice is restrained from growing up, and just like the Victorian typical girl, she is forever imprisoned in her childhood (Kincaid, 1992, p.278). Carroll does give many hints at this social fact for the little girls in

the fantasy. Although Alice enjoys great bodily power, her achievements are subverted repeatedly in the text and she also can never leave behind her femininity. For instance, n the last chapter entitled "Alice's Evidence", Alice and the Wonderland creatures all gather in the courtroom to determine who has stolen the tarts. Alice now feels her body growing suddenly, and her alarming physical presence becomes a threat, as the Dormouse says she has no right to grow there. When she is summoned to give evidence, Alice "jumps up in such a hurry that she tripped over the jury-box with the edge of her skirt, upsetting all the jurymen on to the heads of the crowd below and there they lay sprawling about" (Carroll, 1993, p.115). However, in spite of the fact that Alice has great physical power, her potency is quickly reduced when she attempts to reorganize them: "Oh, I beg your pardon!" she exclaimed in a tone of great dismay, and began picking them up again as quietly as she could"(Carroll, 1993, p.115 ). The large Alice now takes the role of a caretaker or preserver of order, which is a traditional image assigned to the woman. In another word, she is not completely free from the restrains of gender role.

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# Teachers' Perceptions about the Use of Mother Tongue in Saudi EFL University Classrooms: A Gender-line Investigation

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*Abstract*—This paper attempts to investigate the awareness about the use of the mother tongue (MT) in the Saudi EFL university classrooms. The use of MT can be a cause of encouraging or de-motivating source in the discourse of Saudi EFL Preparatory Year Program (PYP) classrooms. This phenomenon is investigated from the teachers' viewpoint in the present study. Focusing on the perceptual nature of the study, a survey was conducted to assess the significance of MT use amongst male and female teachers in EFL classes within the context of Saudi PYP. The participants consisted of 100 EFL teachers [males & females] drawn from PYP Taif University English Language Centre (TUELC). A 22-item Likert-scale questionnaire was developed to elicit their perceptions of various academic uses of MT in an EFL context of Saudi universities. The findings of the present study reflect that EFL teachers within the context of Saudi PYP represented by the cohort of this study bears quite positive perceptions towards the use of MT. It is also concluded that they believe that teaching/learning a foreign language is easier if teaching is not merely limited to the target language (TL). Moreover, the results of the present study reflected that the cohort of both groups approved the significance of different functions of MT in the Saudi EFL university classrooms. However, male and female EFL teachers' perceptions about the use of MT were not on the same-line.

*Index Terms*—mother tongue, EFL teaching, EFL male and female teachers, Saudi context, and PYP

## I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, applied linguists, speech experts, and discourse analysts working in the area of education have dramatically expanded the scope of their research to address critical areas of classroom discourse in language learning and acquisition. Learning a foreign/second language differs from learning other academic subjects. Brown (1995, p. 31) theorized that learning another language requires such a devotion on the part of learners that "your whole person is affected as you struggle to reach beyond the confines of your first language and into a new language, a new culture, a new way of thinking, feeling, and acting". Furthermore, the learners who are involved in learning a new language also vary in terms of factors like attitudes, motivation, learning style, age, gender, aptitude (Grosjean & Soares, 1984). The same point has also been emphasized by Wenden (1991, p. 32) who stated that "the notion of learner–centred instruction in foreign and second languages grew out of the recognition that language learners are diverse in their reasons for learning another language, their approach to learning, and their abilities". A growing mass of research investigated the significance of learning English as a second/foreign language to better understand the learners' classroom discourse patterns that are instrumental in achieving effective and efficient teaching/learning practices in the classrooms. The issue of MT in Foreign Language Teaching (FLT) had not been a crux of scientific studies in non-English speaking countries, but recent use of MT has attracted a considerable amount of attention of the researchers. Fundamentally, the tradition of language alternation became known with the ban on the use of the learners' first language (L1) in FLT, and it was introduced by the Direct Method at the end of the nineteenth century (Cook, 2001). Although some uses of MT are acceptable for communicative language teaching methodology, there is still a debate over these accepted uses. For example, some of the linguists argue that the open view towards the use of MT may lead to an overuse and inadvisable use of it by teachers (Ellis, 1985). However, supporters of the exclusive use of the TL are losing ground and most researchers now argue in favour of a more tolerant approach towards MT (Eastman, 1995). In the context of Saudi Arabia, insufficient attention is paid to investigate the awareness of using MT in Saudi EFL university classrooms, namely in PYPs. Therefore, there is an emerging need to develop more understanding of this phenomenon in the context under study. The present study is an attempt to find out the perceptions of Saudi university EFL teachers [males and females] towards the use of MT along gender lines.

## II. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following points define the objectives of the study:

i. To examine the perceptions of Saudi university EFL teachers [males & females] towards the use of MT in the context of Saudi PYP classrooms.

ii. To find out the significance of MT as a method from the angle of male and female teachers' perceptions in PYP EFL classrooms of Saudi universities.

iii. To investigate the utility of different functions of MT in the context of PYP EFL classrooms of Saudi universities.

## III. Delimitations of the Study

This study is delimited to explore and analyze the perceptions of EFL teachers about the use of MT in the context of Saudi PYP EFL classrooms. For this purpose, the researchers attempted to develop a questionnaire in a suitable form to decipher the EFL teachers' awareness about the use of MT in Saudi universities.

## IV. Literature Review

There are a number of attitudes, approaches and methods which advocate for or against the use of MT in the EFL and ESL classrooms. For example, researchers who belong to Grammar Translation Method (GTM) schools believe that a little use of MT plays a positive role in foreign language learning (Brumfit, 1984). Coder (1981, p. 198) provides a justification from a different viewpoint and claims that "second language learners not only already possess a language system which is potentially available as a factor in the acquisition of a second language, but equally important they already know something of what a language is for, what its communicative functions and potentials are." From a bilingual perspective, cultural anthropologist Heath (1986, p. 186) asserts that to reject a child's language in the school is to reject the child. In addition, (Macswan, 1999) points out that instruction plays an important role in second language learning and that it adds to L2 learning in crucial respects. Contrary to the ideas that two languages confuse people, there is evidence that well-developed bilingualism actually enhances one's "cognitive flexibility" Grosjean (1982). Skutnabb-Kangas (2000, p. 185) stresses the significance of learning a foreign language and claims that bilingualism has positive effects on children's linguistic and educational development. When children continue to develop their abilities in two or more languages throughout their primary school years, they gain a deeper understanding of language as how to use it effectively.

Speaking culturally, Heller (1992, p. 118) provides a different justification for the use of L1 in these words, "if you are an ESL teacher and/or you teach minority children through the medium of a dominant language, at the cost of their mother tongue, you are participating in linguistic genocide". Moreover, UNESCO (1953) explicitly supports that a mismatch between home language and school language is the major cause of poor academic achievement of minority children. The findings of that report stated: It is axiomatic that the best medium for teaching a child is his mother tongue. Psychologically, MT is the system of meaningful signs that his mind works automatically for expression and understanding. Sociologically, it is a means of identification among the members of the community to which he belongs. Educationally, he/she learns more quickly through MT than through an unfamiliar linguistic medium. Also, it has been argued that when the official code marginalizes particular culture and class group, there is a danger of alienating the student, either from the home community or from the education. Skutnabb-Kangas similarly (2000) advocates literacy model for minority children in India, in which literacy is first introduced in the child's mother tongue; once the basic literacy skills are attained, the curriculum transfers to a formal language of education. In EFL contexts, Nunan and Lamb (1996) contend that EFL teachers working with monolingual students at lower levels of English proficiency find the prohibition of MT to be practically impossible. Dornnyei (1998, p. 349) find that MT is used by L2 learners as a communication strategy to compensate for deficiencies in the TL. Disciullo (1986) conducted a study with EFL students and their teachers in a Spanish context to investigate their attitude toward using MT in the foreign language classroom. His results indicated that Spanish should be used in the EFL classroom.

In the Saudi context, the elite private sector of education usually relies on the English medium system, while in the public sector the medium of instruction is Arabic. The reasons for this dichotomy may be due to socio-linguistic and ethnic norms in the Saudi tribal society. Moreover, English medium schools teach English in the context of second language learning (e.g. where English is spoken in and outside the classrooms), while the public education English is widely used as a compulsory subject in KSA. Accordingly, when the students enroll in the universities with this background, it is expected that they rely heavily on MT due to their lack of high English proficiency. Consequently, PYP EFL classes are mixed ability classes. Several studies have argued that English Language Teaching (ELT) in the Arab world has not produced the desired results (Rababah, 2003; Sahu, 1999; Zughoul, 1986). Abed (2003) has mentioned that despite spending around 6% of their Gross Domestic Production (GDP), the Arab nations of the Middle East and North Africa are still far behind in achieving effective ELT. Much research has suggested that Arab students of English are unable to achieve desired proficiency in TL, even after formally studying English for many years (Abbad, 1998). Similarly, other studies reported that Arab students' English proficiency level is much below the proficiency level of the students from other parts of the world (Sahu, 1999). In such situations, Baker & Jones (1998) suggests that students regularly make covert use of their languages to accomplish learning tasks set in classrooms, often mixing and sharing terms from each other's language, and schools merely need to embrace what is already happening naturally. On the basis of the review of the above mentioned studies, it is clear that two streams of consciousness (i.e. English medium schools and Arabic medium schools) are in the process of creation. In this study, therefore, EFL university teachers' perceptions about the use of MT in the interactional patterns of Saudi PYP EFL classrooms are investigated.

## V. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions are investigated in order to find out the different use(s) of MT in Saudi PYP EFL classrooms.

Q.1. What are the EFL teachers' perceptions of the use of MT in the classroom in the Saudi PYP?

Q.2. How do EFL teachers [males and females] identify gender-based differences towards the behavioral intentions of MT in the Saudi universities EFL classrooms?

Q.3. How do EFL teachers [males and females] reflect gender-based differences towards the reasons that enhance the use of MT in the Saudi universities EFL classrooms?

## VI. HYPOTHESES

This study has the following hypotheses:

*H1.* There are statistically gender-based differences in the perceptions of EFL teachers [males and females] towards the perceived effectiveness of MT in Saudi universities EFL classrooms.

*H2.* There are statistically gender-based differences in the perceptions of EFL teachers [males and females] towards the behavioral intentions of MT in Saudi universities EFL classrooms.

*H3.* There are statistically gender-based differences in the perceptions of Saudi universities PYP EFL teachers [males and females] towards the reasons that enhance the use of MT in Saudi universities EFL classrooms.

## VII. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

*A. Design*

The design of this study is quantitative in nature in which a 5-point Likert-scale ranging as strongly disagree, disagree, uncertain, agree, strongly agree was developed based on the previous studies as a measuring instrument. The questionnaires were distributed among the participants to elicit their perceptions about the use of MT and its significance in English language teaching/learning process in the context of Saudi PYP EFL classrooms.

*B. Instrumentation*

The researchers consulted several studies that were conducted to elicit participants' perceptions towards various dynamics of English language teaching/learning through using questionnaires (e.g. Dehbozorgi, 2012; Soku, 2011; GOKCE, 2008; Karahan; 2007). The final instrument had 22 items divided into the following three sub-categories: i. PYP EFL teachers' [males and females] perceptions towards the perceived usefulness of MT (6 items), ii. perceptions of PYP EFL teachers [males and females] towards behavioral intentions of MT (6 items), and iii. perceptions of PYP EFL teachers [males and females] towards reasons that enhance the use of MT in the Saudi PYP EFL classrooms (10 items). The researchers managed to get 110 filled in questionnaires out of 120, and some of the incomplete questionnaires were discarded. Ninety four questionnaires were completed in all forms in which 51 were received from PYP EFL male teachers and 44 were received from PYP EFL female teachers from the staff of TUELC for the academic year 2013-2014.

*C. Statistical Analysis*

The researchers used the descriptive statistics, namely the means, medians, standard deviations and percentages for the analysis of the questionnaire. Independent samples T-test was also applied to identify any statistically significant differences in the perceptions of the male and female respondents of TUELC. The data generated through the questionnaires was manually entered, coded and analyzed using SPSS program aiming to answer the research questions and to test its hypotheses.

*D. Validity and Reliability*

The initial version of the questionnaire, which had 30 items, was given to three senior faculty members from TUELC to determine the face validity of the instrument. They were requested to suggest any appropriate changes to improve the quality of the instrument. Their comments were considered, and 6 items were deleted and other recommended changes were also incorporated before it was piloted to determine its reliability. The questionnaire was administered to 20 PYP EFL teachers of TUELC. Their responses were coded and the reliability coefficient test was run for the instrument as a whole and for its three parts separately using SPSS version 10.0. The Cronbach Alpha value remained .8838 for the instrument as a whole, which is a highly acceptable consistency of reliability.

## VIII. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The present study data was statistically analyzed to generate the descriptive statistics and to identify any significant differences among respondents in their perceptions along gender lines. Results are presented and discussed thematically as follows: Attitudes towards the perceived effectiveness of MT, behavioral intentions towards the use of MT in Saudi PYP EFL classrooms, and perceptions about the use of different reasons for MT.

*A. Attitudes towards Perceived Effectiveness of MT*

TABLE 1:
PYP TEACHERS' [MALES & FEMALES] ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF MT IN SAUDI PYP EFL CLASSROOMS

| | Questionnaire Items | Group | n | M | SD | T | df | p value | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Mother tongue helps develop interaction in Saudi PYP EFL classrooms. | females | 44 | 3.4773 | 1.21020 | -2.302- | 93 | .000 | $p < 0.05$ |
| | | males | 51 | 3.9608 | .82367 | -2.240- | 74.064 | | |
| 2 | MT is a straight and instant method for teaching purposes. | females | 44 | 3.7273 | 1.14858 | -1.080- | 93 | .023 | $p < 0.05$ |
| | | males | 51 | 3.9608 | .95835 | -1.066- | 84.081 | | |
| 3 | MT is an easy and normal technique to understand technical information. | females | 44 | 3.4773 | 1.04522 | -.295- | 93 | .282 | $p > 0.05$ |
| | | males | 51 | 3.5490 | 1.28552 | -.300- | 92.696 | | |
| 4 | MT helps accomplish teaching tasks more successfully. | females | 44 | 3.5227 | 1.28477 | -.718- | 93 | .002 | $p < 0.05$ |
| | | males | 51 | 3.6863 | .92715 | -.701- | 76.959 | | |
| 5 | MT increases the potential to understand language materials in the target language. | females | 44 | 3.3182 | 1.25333 | -1.062- | 93 | .083 | $p > 0.05$ |
| | | males | 51 | 3.5686 | 1.04412 | -1.048- | 84.008 | | |
| 6 | MT elevates effectiveness of communicative process in Saudi PYP EFL classrooms. | females | 44 | 3.4545 | 1.45402 | -.735- | 93 | .012 | $p < 0.05$ |
| | | males | 51 | 3.6471 | 1.09222 | -.720- | 78.963 | | |

The data analysis presented in Table 1 relates to the attitudes towards the perceived usefulness of MT along gender lines. Male and female cohort of the study showed significant differences in 5 items out of 6 items provided in the first section of the questionnaire. Both groups assigned the highest value to item 2 that elicited their responses towards their inclination to use MT 'as a straight and instant method' in Saudi PYP EFL classrooms, and female faculty members also ranked it at the highest level. Further, low standard deviation (i.e. 1.14858) (henceforth SD) reflects that female respondents were not divided about its significance. Saudi PYP EFL classrooms interactants' tendency to use MT may be attributed to their perceptions of MT as a way to help develop interaction with Saudi EFL classroom learners. This result goes in line with Gulzar's (2010), but in a whole different context (i.e. Pakistan). Cook (1989) also authenticates this finding and claims that switching between TL and MT may facilitate language development as a mechanism for providing language samples and may also be utilized as a teaching method for teaching second languages.

Moreover, the present study data revealed interesting findings as exhibited by the higher values assigned to items 1, 2, 4, and 6, by male respondents, and higher values were also assigned to items 2, 4, 3, and 1 by female respondents respectively. Besides, the data indicate that students wanted to use MT to learn TL because it would help them in their academic as well as professional life in KSA. Both male and female respondents reported that item 1 'mother tongue helps develop interaction in Saudi EFL classrooms' to accomplish different teaching tasks more effectively in Saudi EFL university classrooms. The respondents' views are similar to those reported by Faltis (1989) when he claimed that a strategy used by second language learners has been to employ the alternation of two languages as a bridge between the two languages they are learning. Crystal (1987, p. 14) best explained such a situation as "switching commonly occurs when an individual wishes to express solidarity with a particular social group. Rapport is established between a speaker and a listener when the listener responds with a similar switch". Moreover, both groups assigned the highest ranking to the second item 'MT is a straight and instant method for teaching purposes' and it is the only item in this section of the questionnaire that gained the same significance from both sample groups. On the other hand, item six 'MT elevates effectiveness of communicative process in Saudi EFL classrooms' was ranked fifth by female respondents. Item five 'MT increases the potential to understand language materials in the target language' was ranked fourth by female respondents. Conversely, item five was placed fifth, and item six is ranked as a third significant item by male respondents. Here data reflect the dichotomy between male and female respondents about the significance of items 5 and 6. The findings of the present research confirm that the use of MT should normally be motivated instrumentally and the role of MT is to enhance the communicative process. This finding is in accord with the research of Gulzar & Al Asmari (2010). Data analysis also reveal that then there is an increasing awareness among EFL teachers [males and females] in Saudi universities about the students' need for the English language to fulfill their academic and daily chores of life.

The results of the present study reflect also that the participants did not consider MT as an important factor to accomplish all teaching tasks. Male and female faculty participants of the present study reported significant differences in items 1, 5, and 6 in section 1 of the questionnaire. Lower values were assigned by females (3.3182) and males (3.5686) respondents to item 5 'MT increases the potential to understand language materials in the target language', and lower values (females 3.4545, males 3.6471) were also assigned to item 6 'MT elevates effectiveness of communicative process in Saudi EFL classrooms'. Such results indicated that male and female EFL teachers did not support these two items. It is reported that these items were less important factors for the use of MT for both male and female respondents. It approves that PYP male and female EFL teachers are aware of the fact that complete reliance on the use of MT might bear negative consequences. As such, items 5 and 6 which consider that the use of MT elevates communicative competence among students were rejected by the respondents. Such results do not align with Cooks' claim (1991) that the practice of using MT makes students communicatively competent. Moreover, male respondents assigned moderate value to items 5, and 3, indicating that relying on the MT even for teaching technical materials of TL might not be effective. The present study findings, therefore, are not in line with a study conducted by Al-Mutawa (1986) to elicit Saudi students' attitudes towards English language where the majority of the participants emphasized that Arabic

should not be compromised by giving unnecessary importance to English language. This is an important finding that reflects a contradiction among interactants belonging to the same Saudi context (i.e. teachers vs. students). This issue may raise some concerns as the teachers' supply of MT is based on moderate and limited use, but students want to use it for all the purposes. On the other hand, females assigned moderate values to items 3, 5 and 6 showing that though they did not rank them for the same positions but both groups placed them in the category of moderate items. Data analyses also revealed the existing differences between male and female faculty respondents on items 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6. The values assigned by male and female PYP EFL teachers towards the perceived effectiveness of MT are mainly in favour of accepting the first hypothesis of the present study.

*B. Behavioral Intentions towards the Use of MT in Saudi PYP EFL Classrooms*

TABLE 2:
EFL TEACHERS' BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS TOWARDS THE USE OF MT IN SAUDI PYP CLASSROOMS

| Questionnaire Items | | Group | n | M | SD | T | df | p value | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 7 | MT should be used in the Saudi university PYP EFL classrooms. | females | 44 | 3.2045 | 1.50317 | -1.175- | 93 | .000 | p < 0.05 |
| | | males | 51 | 3.4902 | .80926 | -1.127- | 63.765 | | |
| 8 | Teacher should consciously use MT in Saudi PYP EFL university classrooms. | females | 44 | 3.5227 | 1.50176 | .126 | 93 | .009 | p < 0.05 |
| | | males | 51 | 3.4902 | .98737 | .123 | 72.394 | | |
| 9. | Habits of using MT must be nurtured among the Saudi PYP EFL university students. | females | 44 | 3.3636 | 1.41571 | 1.915 | 93 | .302 | p > 0.05 |
| | | males | 51 | 2.8627 | 1.13172 | 1.884 | 82.039 | | |
| 10 | MT is an essential technique in Saudi PYP EFL classroom discourse. | females | 44 | 3.7500 | 1.29624 | 1.714 | 93 | .689 | p > 0.05 |
| | | males | 51 | 3.3529 | .95548 | 1.677 | 78.019 | | |
| 11 | Use of MT should be enhanced to boost up the proficiency of Saudi PYP EFL students. | females | 44 | 3.6136 | 1.79425 | .478 | 93 | .015 | p < 0.05 |
| | | males | 51 | 3.4706 | 1.08357 | .461 | 68.486 | | |
| 12 | Bilingual teachers can expedite the process of learning English. | females | 44 | 3.8409 | 1.73799 | 1.216 | 93 | .275 | p > 0.05 |
| | | males | 51 | 3.4902 | 1.02708 | 1.173 | 67.542 | | |

Table 2 comprehensively details the data analyses of the questionnaire items related to male and female teachers' behavioral intentions about the use of MT in Saudi PYP EFL classrooms. Both the groups of male and female respondents assigned the highest value to item 7 'MT should be used in the Saudi university PYP EFL classrooms' and item 8 'teacher should consciously use MT in Saudi PYP EFL university classrooms'. It is also worth mentioning here that male respondents ranked three items 7, 8, and 12 'Bilingual teachers can expedite the process of learning English equally significant and placed them first. Moreover, the lowest SD (. 80926) for item number 7 and 8 implies that male faculty respondents reflected high consensus with each other about the significance of these items. The data also showed that male and female respondents reported a difference in views about items 7 and 8. However, item 12 was also considered as the most important item by both groups and high SD (i.e. 1.02708 for males, and 1.73799 for females) for both the sample groups reflected no general agreement among the respondents about its significance. Such findings can be deemed as unusual, since they break the myth of continuous use of TL, and most importantly the effectiveness of native speakers. Macswan (1997, p. 47) explained the position of a bilingual teacher: "Children's attitudes toward language alteration are greatly affected by the attitudes of their caregivers. Recognition on the part of the teachers of the expressive power of code-switched discourse, and the sophisticated linguistic knowledge required to effectively employ the mode, should serve to alter the prejudicial opinions they have about the practice". Accordingly, such finding necessitates that those who are teaching English in KSA need to exploit this positive trend to help out the students with MT but the ultimate goal should be to use TL.

Moreover, the sample groups assigned the highest mean values to items which were related to the role of using TL. These results indicated that students should be exhorted to get benefit from the bilingual teachers to practice TL in and outside the classroom. On the other side, female respondents identified items 12, 10, and 11 as respectively high ranked items. These highest ranking items strongly suggest that the participants of this study know that the use of MT enhances students' proficiency and it gears up active use of TL. Thus, on the basis of the present study results, it can be claimed that MT can be used to learn TL, and slowly the use of TL becomes automated without any inhibition or additional aid of MT. This finding aligns with Eldridge's claim (1996, p. 303) who states that "messages are reinforced, emphasized or clarified where the messages have already been transmitted in one code but not understood." The male participants assigned the third highest value to the item 10 'MT is an essential technique in Saudi PYP EFL classroom discourse' and female respondents identified item number 11 'use of MT should be enhanced to boost up the proficiency of Saudi EFL students' for the same third position. This is a premier level of awareness in both sample groups, and it also goes with the conceptions of Aguirre (1988) who claimed that "language alternations or use of MT in the classroom are obvious and unavoidable and educators should regard language alternations as a communicative strategy employed by the students learning a second language." The fourth highest value was assigned to item 9 'habits of using MT must be nurtured among the Saudi PYP EFL university students' by male faculty respondents.

Conversely, female faculty respondents ranked item 8 'teacher should consciously use MT in Saudi EFL university classrooms' in the fourth position. The fifth highest value was assigned to item 9 'habits of using MT must be nurtured among the Saudi EFL university students and the sixth position was assigned to item 7 'MT should be used in the Saudi university EFL classrooms' by female respondents. The data analysis reveal that learning English language becomes

much easier if English teachers make their classes interactive by employing a variety of exercises and providing students with ample opportunities to practice TL in classrooms. Similarly, both sample groups agreed that students should be involved in such activities that could ensure maximum interaction in TL among the students as well as with the faculty members. Also, the results of the present study highly recommend the well planned use of MT.

Moderately low values are identified in items 11 and 10 by male respondents, while female respondents similarly reported low values to items 8, and 11. Cohort of both sample groups totally negated the idea of nurturing habits of using MT among Saudi PYP EFL classrooms' students, and they also delimited the scope of disproving it as an essential technique. This result completely aligns with the findings of Gulzar & Al Asmari (2013) who reported that free trend of using languages other than TL can be perilous for foreign language learners. The participants of the present study also supported the use of MT as a pedagogical technique by assigning moderate values to it. The lowest mean values were calculated for the items 9 by male members, and items 7, 8, and 9 by female faculty respondents. The differences of perceptions may be due to the fact that the participants of this study teach their male and female students in different setups, and each setup requires different prerequisites. Further, the different societal norms and the segregated working and environment in Saudi Arabia may be a reason behind this division of mindset.

The present study data analysis indicate that both sample groups showed differences with each other in most of the items (7, 8, 9, 10, and 11) and agreed on only item 12 out of 6 items. The data generated through the second part of the questionnaire revealed interesting results regarding the utility of MT in Saudi PYP EFL classrooms. The values assigned by male respondents suggested more consensuses due to the low percentage of SD (see table 2), whereas females reflected low consensuses as they assigned comparatively higher SD (see table 2) values of the items. Moreover, the female respondents reported significantly higher values as compared to their male counterparts. The current results explicitly show differences among both sample groups as female respondents did not seem to consider those items significant. Consequently, the values assigned by both groups towards behavioral intentions of MT are mainly in favour of accepting the second hypothesis of the present study.

*C. Perceptions about the Use of Different Reasons for MT*

The importance of all the variables was analyzed individually to understand their significance in Saudi PYP EFL classroom discourse.

TABLE 3:
EFL TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS ABOUT THE USE OF DIFFERENT REASONS FOR MT USE IN THE SAUDI PYP CLASSROOMS

| 13. Do you think that the following reasons enhance the use of MT in Saudi PYP EFL university classrooms? | | Groups :Males & Females | n | M | SD | T | df | p value | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| i. | Use of clarification in Saudi PYP EFL university classrooms? | females | 44 | 3.6591 | 1.96413 | -1.443- | 93 | .000 | p < 0.05 |
| | | males | 51 | 4.0784 | .62748 | -1.358- | 50.569 | | |
| ii. | Use giving instructions in Saudi PYP EFL university classrooms? | females | 44 | 3.9318 | 1.95767 | .165 | 93 | .165 | p > 0.05 |
| | | males | 51 | 3.8824 | .81602 | .156 | 55.780 | | |
| iii. | Use of translation in Saudi PYP EFL university classrooms? | females | 44 | 3.0909 | 2.19744 | -.794- | 93 | .036 | P < 0.05 |
| | | males | 51 | 3.3529 | .79558 | -.750- | 52.696 | | |
| iv. | Use of linguistic competence in Saudi PYP EFL university classrooms? | females | 44 | 3.9318 | 2.19299 | .668 | 93 | .273 | p > 0.05 |
| | | males | 51 | 3.7059 | .94433 | .635 | 56.613 | | |
| v. | Use of topic shift in Saudi PYP EFL university classrooms? | females | 44 | 3.5000 | 2.42564 | -.082- | 93 | .019 | p < 0.05 |
| | | males | 51 | 3.5294 | .75771 | -.077- | 50.238 | | |
| vi. | Use of ease of expression in Saudi PYP EFL university classrooms? | females | 44 | 3.6818 | 2.62167 | -.416- | 93 | .010 | P < 0.05 |
| | | males | 51 | 3.8431 | .83361 | -.391- | 50.498 | | |
| vii. | Use of emphasis in Saudi PYP EFL university classrooms? | females | 44 | 3.6364 | 2.68580 | -.829- | 93 | .006 | p < 0.05 |
| | | males | 51 | 3.9608 | .72002 | -.777- | 48.338 | | |
| viii | Use of checking understanding in Saudi PYP EFL university classrooms? | females | 44 | 3.7500 | 2.83766 | -.361- | 93 | .063 | p > 0.05 |
| | | males | 51 | 3.9020 | .92206 | -.340- | 50.828 | | |
| ix | Use of repetitive function in Saudi PYP EFL university classrooms? | females | 44 | 3.6818 | 2.98658 | .438 | 93 | .045 | P < 0.05 |
| | | males | 51 | 3.4902 | .85726 | .411 | 49.117 | | |
| x | Use of creating a sense of belonging in Saudi PYP EFL university classrooms? | females | 44 | 3.9545 | 3.02666 | .689 | 93 | .254 | p > 0.05 |
| | | males | 51 | 3.6471 | .93431 | .648 | 50.070 | | |

Table 3 details the results generated by both sample groups of the present study to elicit their responses towards the reasons that enhance the use of MT in Saudi PYP EFL classrooms. Male PYP EFL respondents assigned high values such as first, second, and third to items 1, 7, and 8 respectively, while female respondents assigned high values to items 10, 4, 2, and 8 respectively. Extremely high value was assigned by the female respondents to the item 10 concerning EFL teachers who are friendly or create a sense of belonging. In the same vein, Crystal (1987, p. 14) states that "switching commonly occurs when an individual wishes to express solidarity with a particular social group. Rapport is established between the speaker and the listener when the listener responds with a similar switch". On the other hand, male faculty respondents ranked it seventh. Such results also reflect that the prevailing level of formality and informality of male and female teachers with their students is not at the same level in Saudi PYP EFL classrooms discourse. The present study findings support the study of Gulzar & Al Asmari (2013), conducted in the same context to determine the effects of teachers' nonverbal communication on the learnability of the adult Saudi EFL learners, which revealed that Saudi female teachers were friendlier compared to their male counterparts.

The female participants of the present study rated item 4 'related to the significance of linguistic competence' as the second highest reason for the use of MT in Saudi PYP EFL classrooms. According to male teachers' view point, this reason does not prevail as a significant factor for the use of MT as they ranked it sixth. Flyman-Mattson and Burenhult (1999) explained that teachers' use of MT due to linguistic insecurity may damage the students' confidence in the teachers' proficiency in the foreign language. A possible solution for the teacher might, therefore, be to avoid words or structure he/she cannot control or quite simply restructure the utterances. Considering it as a vital issue, Crystal (1987, p. 112) contends that "a speaker may not be able to express him/herself in one language; so, he/she switches to the other to compensate the deficiency." This kind of conception in the classroom can be risky for EFL teachers. Furthermore, female respondents graded item 8 about 'the use of ease of expressions' at third position and fourth highest rating was determined for item 6 'checking understanding'. However, male respondents identified items 8 and 6 at third and fourth positions respectively. Interestingly, only item 8 'checking understanding' is a reason for the use of MT for which both respondents identified its value at the position of number 3. This finding goes in line with Flyman-Mattson and Burenhult's claim (1999) in which they explained that the main reason for teachers' language alteration is to make students understand their talk. Gumperz (1982) and Brice (2000) have also identified the main function of language alteration as 'checking understanding'.

Female respondents ranked item 6 'related to ease of expression' at the fourth position, and male respondents identified item 2 'giving instructions effectively' at the position of number four. It is important to clarify here that moderate low values such as fourth, fifth and sixth are identified in items 9, 1, and 7, by female respondents and male respondents ranked items 2, 6, and 4 for the same position. Item 10 'creating a sense of belonging', was ranked relatively high mean value and it was placed in seventh position by male respondents. Conversely, item 5 'regarding topic shift' was ranked seventh by female participants and male respondents identified 'topic shift' as the eighth important reason for the use of MT.

Flyman-Mattson and Burenhult (1999) clarified the significance of use of MT at certain points and claimed that the message is so important that the teacher is not willing to risk a misinterpretation. As such, MT is used to get the students' attention. In the current study, however, female respondents graded item 3 concerning 'translation' at the eighth position. Also, female participants ranked item 2 'giving instructions effectively', and item 4 linguistic competence at the position of number 2, and they also ranked items 6 and 9 at fourth position. The male participants of the study ranked item 9 'repetitive function' at number nine in the priority list and item 3 'translation' at the position of number 10. Male respondents' identification regarding item 3 'concerning translation' shows their high level of awareness about different reasons for the use of MT. For example, Krashen's views (1985, p. 81) also supported the findings of the male respondents and when he delineates that when teacher translates the students listen to the message in their own language and pay no intention to the English input. Atkinson (1987) also warned that due to excessive use of translation students begin to feel that they have not 'really' made clear or understood any item of language until it has been translated. Similarly, in this study, the findings suggest a careful use of MT especially while providing a translation. However, both sample groups reflected their perceptions in accordance with the views of the above mentioned linguists, and it proves that their perceptions are at a maturity level regarding the use of translation in Saudi PYP EFL classrooms. As far as lowest mean values of female respondents are concerned, the lowest mean values for the positions of seventh and eighth are identified through items 5 and 3. Male respondents identified items 10, 5, 9 and 3 for 7th, 8th, 9th and 10th positions.

Seemingly, the values assigned by both sample groups towards perceptions about the use of different reasons for MT are mainly in favour of approving the third hypothesis of this survey study. An interesting finding is that both the groups of the present study assigned medium values to the assumptions concerning use of MT is an effective tool in comprehending technical information and understanding TL material. On the other side, both groups strongly believe that language learning is facilitated if teachers use MT to make the interaction simple and easy with students. It may be due to the fact that the cohort of the present study bears a natural liking towards the well thought-out use of MT but they also confirm that bilingual teachers can better facilitate learning a foreign language, and use of MT as a technique also contributes positively to achieve English language proficiency. As far the least preferred items are concerned, both groups assigned the minimum values to the items stating that nurturing a habit of using MT among students, and use of MT with proficient students. The overall results of the present study reflect that the respondents are well aware and familiar with the prerequisites of the use MT and TL in Saudi PYP EFL classrooms. However, they graded the significance of reasons for the use of MT differently, and accordingly the values assigned by both of these groups about the use of different reasons for MT are mainly in favour of accepting the third hypothesis of the present perceptive study.

## IX. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The present study comprehensively investigated male and female EFL teachers' perceptions towards the dynamic use of MT in Saudi PYP classrooms along gender lines. On the basis of the present study results, it can be concluded that EFL male and female teachers provided very in-sighted and meaningful opinions about the pedagogical implications which may help teachers to reset classroom discourse patterns. Nevertheless, wider differences were detected in the all three sections of the questionnaire. Thus, the present study accepts all three null hypotheses set for the present study.

It can be concluded that the sample groups represented by the cohort of this study recommended more professional use of MT to achieve the purpose of high English language proficiency for Saudi PYP EFL learners. Moreover, the participants of the present study confirmed the significance of MT and claimed that its prudent use is imperative for Saudi PYP EFL learners to learn English if they want to be academically successful. Another vital finding of this investigation is that PYP EFL male and female teachers believe that students can learn TL easily if teachers come from a bilingual background. The present study findings also reveal that EFL faculty should take extra measures to achieve maximum pedagogical benefits in Saudi PYP EFL classrooms by the proper use of MT and TL. Due to some misunderstandings about the use of MT, educators, course developers and teachers cannot devise classroom strategies based on the appropriate use of MT. Moreover, due to these unclear guidelines related to the medium of instruction, male and female EFL teachers are in a perplexed situation about the use of language(s) such as MT and TL in Saudi PYP EFL classrooms. The teachers do not know about the extent of the use of MT in Saudi PYP EFL classroom discourse to cater to the needs of the students. Needless to say, it can be extremely difficult for a language teacher to create a balance between TL and MT in Saudi PYP EFL classrooms. Such a situation demands immediate attention from all the stakeholders. Moreover, this serious situation might be a main reason for the assumed students' low proficiency in the TL and due to which teachers' productivity is also suffering.

In a nutshell, it can be safely said that the use of MT in Saudi PYP EFL classrooms can basically be deemed as a motivation for Saudi students and its appropriate use not only motivates them to learn English language but also makes it a friendly venture. As such, it is strongly recommended that language policy embraces a language trend where the sensitive issue of percentage of MT in reference to Saudi PYP EFL classroom situation. Because each teacher uses the discretionary power of using MT or TL, the students' competence process might be hampered. EFL teachers need to ask colleagues or classroom advisers to observe their classes to note down the plus and minus points of their interactional patterns and/or audio record a number of lessons to reflect on their interactional patterns in Saudi Universities EFL classroom discourse. The recommendations of the present study can also be utilized by policy planners and curriculum developers to establish the role of MT and TL for the academic needs of Saudi PYP EFL classroom interactants. With the settlement of these issues, teachers and students both can establish classroom discourse in accordance with the requirements of TL learning demands. Moreover, it can be recommended on the basis of the results of the present study that both male and female EFL teachers in Saudi PYP classrooms need to be made aware of the limitations of MT because the insensible use of MT can have long-lasting and harmful ramifications on the learners' production of the TL.

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# An Empirical Study on Correlation of Learners' Motivations for Content-based Bilingual Learning with Their Achievements

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*Abstract*—Based on seven broad dimensions of L2 motivation by Dornynei, and combined with the aims and characteristics of bilingual instruction in China's universities, the empirical study adopts a qualitative and quantitative approach to the study of the correlation of learners' motivation for bilingual learning with their achievements. It reveals that achievements in bilingual learning are positively correlated with seven different dimensions of motivation, with significant other-related one and self-concept-related one significantly correlated. Strategies have been suggested to help bilingual teachers to cultivate, maintain and enhance learners' motivation by means of affection in and outside classroom.

*Index Terms*—bilingual instruction, learner' motivation, achievement, correlation, empirical study

## I. INTRODUCTION

Ever since bilingual instruction was carried out in China's universities in 2001, much has been discussed on a variety of issues concerning bilingual instruction in China's universities in the past 10 years, including its characteristics, instruction models, transition from college English teaching to bilingual teaching, theory applicable to bilingual instruction, learners' English level needed, implications of content-based language teaching in other countries or regions, etc. (see Zheng &Dai 2013). These researches do provide some solutions to the problems which teachers have encountered in the process of bilingual instruction in China, but too much emphasis has been put on the teaching aspects and little on the learners. Professor Wang once pointed out that to learn well or not depends much on the learners themselves (Wang Chuming 2001). In other words, the learners' motivation plays a very important role in learning any subject. However, when the author typed in keyword "bilingual instruction" in the "China hownet" database to review the 10872 articles published in the journals from 2003 to 2013 only to find that none of the articles dealt with correlation of learners' motivations for bilingual learning with their achievement, we then may come to the conclusion that little attention has been paid to learners' motivations for bilingual learning by researchers in China.

If teachers know little about learners' motivation or attitudes towards content-based bilingual instruction, how can they help their students to learn it well? The article, combined with the aims and characteristics of bilingual instruction in China's universities, attempts to adopt a qualitative and quantitative approach to the study of the correlation of learners' motivation for bilingual learning with their achievements, using for reference the seven broad dimensions of L2 motivation by Dornynei (1998), in order to explore the effective approaches to arousing, sustaining and enhancing the learners' motivations through affective factors from the teachers in and outside classroom.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Motivation is commonly defined as internal and external factors that stimulate desire and energy in people to be continually interested in and committed to a job, role or subject, or to make an effort to attain a goal. The researches on motivation of L2 learners began in 1950s when Gardner & Lambert (1959,1972) concluded that the learners' attitude towards the target language and culture of the target language-community play a crucial role in language learning motivation after conducting a study that lasted more than 10 years. That is Socio-Educational model which had a great impact on the researches on motivations involved in L2 learning. In 1964, Vroom put forward Expectancy Value Theories by introducing psychological factors into the study, claiming that learners' motivation to acquire a second language is determined by Effort value and Expectancy, that is, motivation is determined by the value of a task. To be exact, the more likely an individual attains a goal of a task, the more incentive value he may get from the task, and the stronger motivation he/she get to finish the task. Ausubel (1968) and Maslow (1970) supplemented learning motivation with cognitive need and affective factors. Schumann (1978, 1986) examined the effects of personal variables such ad status, attitude etc. in the culture and suggested three strategies taken by adult learners: assimilation, rejection and acculturation. In the late 1980s, researchers challenged the social psychological approach claiming that it does not include the cognitive aspects of learning motivation, and it is not practical and does not benefit L2 learning since it is too broad to help L2 educators to generate practical guidelines. These challenges caused Self-Determination Theory to come into being. At the same time, Gardner modified his Socio-Educational model, and there came the multi era in L2

motivation researches. In 1998, Dornynei found that almost all motivational constituents of the selected models/frameworks could be classified into seven broad dimensions after he had carried out a synthesis of thirteen different constructs by tabulating the main motivational domains underlying them.

Although the effect of motivations on L2 learners' achievement have been proved in many empirical studies at home and abroad, (Gardner,1985; Clement et al 1994; Tremblay et al 1995;Ehrman 1996; Xiaoshu 2003) no research on the effect on learners for bilingual instruction has been done. It is positively exploratory significant to do some researches on the relation between learners' motivation and their achievement. It is true that seven broad dimensions of L2 motivation by Dornyne focus on language learning, but it can be still applied to the empirical study for reference for two reasons. On one hand, one of the purposes of carrying out content-based bilingual instruction in China's universities is to improve Chinese students' English. On the other hand, in the absence of more systematical theory involved in learners' motivations for bilingual instruction it is a beneficial trial to use it for reference, in the hope of exploring a motivation theory applicable to bilingual instruction in universities in China in the future.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Purposes

The paper intends to reveal how the seven broad dimensions of motivation act on learners' performance of content-based bilingual learning in universities, and what strategies can be adopted to stimulate, sustain and enhance learners' motivations.

B. Instruments

The Chinese questionnaire items administered are based on seven broad dimensions by Dornynei, and combined with the aims and characteristics of bilingual instruction in China's universities. All the items have been pretested on some of the subjects and revised on the basis of the result of pretest afterwards before questionnaire sheets were distributed to the subjects. The questionnaire consisted of 2 sections: 1) background information of the subjects, including their name, gender, scores of CET Band-4 and Band -6, the number of bilingual courses taken and their QQ number, etc.; 2) 34 items concerning seven dimensions of motivation, with 5 items from Goal-related dimension, 4 from Instrumental/pragmatic dimension, 9 from Self-concept-related dimension,4 from Educational context-related dimension, 4 from Significant others-related dimension, 4 from Macrocontext-related dimension, 4 from Affective/integrative dimension.

The evaluation list of motivation for learners of content-based bilingual instruction is formed in accordance with Liker 7-point scale. The subjects are required to choose one from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" according to his/her own assessment with scores ranging from 1 point to 7 points. The higher score a subject gets in the item, the stronger motivation he/she has. For example:

When asked "The purpose of carrying out content-based bilingual instruction in China is to help students to obtain professional knowledge and to improve their English as well", the subjects are required to choose one from A, B, C, D, E, F and G.

A. strongly agree B. fairly agree C. comparatively agree D. generally agree E. comparatively disagree F. fairly disagree G .strongly disagree

C. Subjects

60 third-year students (39 male and 21 female) from School of Material Science and Engineering of USST answered the questionnaire. The Lecturer was invited to distribute the questionnaires in the classroom in order to make subjects take it seriously. 60 questionnaire sheets were distributed and collected, but 9 sheets were eliminated because some of the subjects didn't write down their names, or because some of them chose Answer A to all items. That means 51 copies are valid. 47 of the 51sujects scored more than 425 marks in CET-Band 4, and 17 of the subjects scored more than 425 marks in CET Band-6, which means all of them are qualified to take part in bilingual instruction according to an empirical study by Han Jianxia & Yu Liming (2007) .Subsequently, 9 of the subjects took part in the follow-up complementary interview via QQ (Table 1), to complement the questionnaire findings, and to retrieve more detailed information about factors that affect the subjects in their answers to the questionnaire.

TABLE 1
INDIVIDUALS INTERVIEWED VIA QQ

| Name | $Xu_1$ | Wang | Zhou | Xia | Yang | Li | Liang | Tian | $Xu_2$ |
|------|------|------|------|-----|------|-----|-------|------|------|
| Sex | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Male | Male | Male | Female |
| score | 83 | 56 | 80 | 86 | 60 | 92 | 71 | 68 | 87 |

D. Data Collection

Research data consisted of the variables of the subjects' motivation in different dimensions and the variables of the subjects' score of bilingual course taken. The average value of the subjects' score came from their final exam for *Materials Science and Engineering*. Though the number of bilingual courses these third-year students have taken ranges

from 3 to 7, the score of Materials Science and Engineering was selected as a variable because it is not only the most important basic course for the specialty, but also an exemplary bilingual course in Shanghai. *Materials Science and Engineering* (English Version, William D. Callister, John Wiely &Sons Inc.) has been used as the teaching material for the course. Teacher Qian, an associate professor returning from USA with a doctoral degree gave the lectures. STATA 12 was then used to analyze Mean, Standard Deviation, Min and Max.

## IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### A. *The Degree of Motivational Intensities*

Table 2 shows that the subjects' motivational intensities vary in different dimensions, but the difference is not significant. The strongest motivation comes from the Instrumental/pragmatic dimension, with its mean value highest among the seven dimensions (M=4,863,SD=0.641), Next to Instrumental/pragmatic dimension is Goal-related one (M=4.804, SD =0. 851) and followed by Macrocontext-related dimension and Educational context-related dimension with their mean value 4.694 and 4.554 respectively. The intensity of Self-concept related motivation (M = 4.183) is slightly stronger than that of Significant others-related dimension (M = 4.069). The weakest intensity of motivation is Affective/integrative dimension.

TABLE 2
STATISTICS

| Variable | Obs | Mean | Std.Dev. | Min | Max |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Goal-related dimension(a1-a5) | 51 | 4.804 | 0.851 | 3.200 | 6.600 |
| Instrumental/pragmatic dimension(b1-b4) | 51 | 4.863 | 0.641 | 2.750 | 7 |
| Self-concept-related dimension(c1-c9) | 51 | 4.183 | 0.911 | 1.778 | 5.889 |
| Educational context-related dimension(d1-d4) | 51 | 4.554 | 1.091 | 1 | 6.250 |
| Significant others-related dimension(e1-e4) | 51 | 4.069 | 0.885 | 2 | 5.750 |
| Macrocontext-related dimension(f1-f4) | 51 | 4.694 | 0.800 | 1.600 | 6.200 |
| Affective/integrative dimension(g1-g4) | 51 | 3.980 | 1.135 | 1 | 5.750 |
| Score | 51 | 79.49 | 9.613 | 54 | 94 |

TABLE 3
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MOTIVATIONS AND ACHIEVEMENTS

| Dimensions | Correlation Coefficient |
|---|---|
| Goal-related dimension(a1-a5) | 0.092 |
| Instrumental/pragmatic dimension(b1-b4) | 0.228 |
| Self-concept-related dimension(c1-c9) | 0.330** |
| Educational context-related dimension(d1-d4) | 0.230 |
| Significant others-related dimension(e1-e4) | 0.412*** |
| Macrocontext-related dimension(f1-f4) | 0.052 |
| Affective/integrative dimension(g1-g4) | 0.0160 |

sig: *$P<0.1$    ** $P<0.05$    *** $P<0.01$

Correlations between motivations and achievements (Table 3) shows that achievements in bilingual learning are positively correlated with seven different dimensions of motivation, in other words, achievements in content-based bilingual learning mainly result from student's multi-motivation though the effect on it and the intensities are different. Significant other-related

dimension is the most significantly correlated(r=0.412, P<0.01). Next to Significant other-related

dimension is Self-concept-related dimension(r=0.330, P<0.05), and followed by Educational context-related one and Instrumental/pragmatic one(r=0.230 and 0.228). The rest of the dimensions are not so apparently correlated with achievement.

### B. *Effect of Motivation in Different Dimension on Achievement*

Motivation in different dimensions has different effect on achievement, so does motivation in the same dimension on achievement. Based on the statistics and follow-up interview, how motivation in different dimensions act on the achievement of content-based bilingual learning is discussed as follows:

1) When it comes to motivation in Goal-related dimension, it does help to give the learners an impetus to content-based bilingual learning, but the effect on learners' achievement is not significant(r=0.092), which can be further proved by what the subjects said in the follow-up interview. Most of the interviewees agreed that the purpose of taking content-based bilingual course is to acquire professional knowledge and improve their English level as well, but they agreed with what Student Xia said ----"it is impractical to realize the purpose by just taking content-based bilingual courses alone." That not only means that the subjects took a reasonable view of bilingual instruction but also means that the motivation in the Goal-related dimension is not a good factor to arouse the learners' interest in content-based bilingual learning, and to improve their achievement.

2) The statistics show that the motivation in the Instrumental/pragmatic dimension plays a very important role in learners' taking bilingual courses. But it also can be seen that different motivation in this dimension has different effect on their achievement, for example, item 4 (to find a good job in the future) is positively correlated with achievement

(r=0.409, P<0.01) while item 3 (to earn credits) is negatively correlated with achievement(r=-0.055). This means that subjects value more future effect than immediate result of taking bilingual courses. Most subjects interviewed said that bilingual instruction can help them gain an advantage over others in the future, which would surely sustain and enhance their interest in bilingual learning. But in fact some subjects like Student Wang took a negative view of content-based bilingual instruction, saying that it may be putting the cart before the horse.

3) Motivation in Self-concept-related dimension is positively correlated with learners' achievement (r=0.330, P<0.05) which can clearly seen in Item 1,2,5,6,7 and 8 (r= 0.298**, 0.305**, 0.272*, 0.259*, 0.386***, 0.235*. Sig: *P< 0.1, **P < 0.05, ***P < 0.001). Majority of the subjects believed that taking bilingual courses can not only satisfy their desire but also bring them a sense of achievement in comparison with their classmates who have not. They feel delighted in taking content-based bilingual courses, because they can not only acquire professional knowledge but also immerse themselves in English in the third years in university when there are no more English courses in curriculum. It is obvious that the desire and sense of achievement gave them an impetus to learn bilingual courses well. And most female subjects believe that taking bilingual course will enhance their literacy (r=0.654, P < 0.01). Self-confidence and fear of failure in exam are also important factors in their motivation. It is well known that moderate degree of anxiety will help improve motivation and does good to content-based bilingual learning.

4) As to the motivation in Educational context-related dimension, the subjects generally agreed that although there are same courses in Chinese available, they've taken content-based bilingual courses not because they are required courses in the curriculum at college of Material Science and Engineering but because they want to meet the demand that the country have for them, i.e. to become bilingual persons in the future, and not because they felt dissatisfied with the effect of English learning in the first two years in university but because they want to use target language in professional knowledge. This point can be proved in their answers to Item 1(r=0.280, P<0.05) and Item 3 (r=0.326, P<0.05). Those interviewed said that they can benefit a lot from taking bilingual courses, so some of them even said that they would go on taking content-based bilingual courses in the fourth year. A good case in point is that Student $Xu_2$ even claimed that if there are no bilingual courses available in her fourth year, she would continue learning content-based bilingual material by reading original books.

5) Motivation in the Significant others-related dimension has a significant effect on learners' achievement, including teachers, parents, newspapers and magazines, and classmates. Statistics show that newspapers and their classmates have more influence on the subjects' taking bilingual courses than their teachers and parents. The means that the third years students have not followed their parents' and teachers' advice when taking courses, instead, they have formed their own thought and judgment about their own future by surfing on the net or reading newspapers, and therefore, they have their idea of what they want to learn for the future. This kind of inner thoughts and judgment would surely enhance the learner's motivation for content-based bilingual learning over long period of time. But what is worthy of note is that the teacher's English level also plays an important role in their taking content-based bilingual courses. High level of teaching staff is the prerequisite to using English as a teaching language in the content-based courses, otherwise the improvement of learners' English level cannot be guaranteed (Gu Yongqi & Dong Lianzhong 2005). Listening to teacher's lecture two weeks prior to students' selecting courses has a great impact on their decisions on what kind of courses they are going to take, courses in Chinese or bilingual ones. Just as Student $Xu_1$ said, bilingual teachers whose English level is not as high as Teach Qian are not qualified for the job. Still Student Tian argued that some students took bilingual courses by following suit, which can be used to explain the importance of their peers' influence.

6) Motivations in Affective/integrative dimension have the least effect on the learners' achievement(r=0.016) because few of the subjects want to integrate themselves into the cultures of English-spoken countries, not to speak of becoming one citizen in the countries, therefore the learners' motivation for content-based bilingual learning can hardly be enhanced by motivation in Affective/integrative dimension. But in today's economic globalization world, the subjects who major in Material Science and Engineering, a new discipline, realize that it is inevitable for them to communicate with their counterparts in the future, so they claim that they like people from English-spoken countries and are willing to make contact with them. That means the subjects have take a reasonable view of people and culture from those countries, which may help strengthen their motivation for bilingual learning.

7) Motivations in Macrocontext-related dimension have little effect on the learners' achievement. This result tallies with the additive characteristic of content-based bilingual instruction in China's universities. Additive bilingual instruction is defined as using second or foreign language as a teaching language in the professional courses in and outside classroom, and the purpose of the instruction is not to replace the learners' mother tongue but to cultivate students to be bilingual persons, to communicate with foreign counterparts directly in the future.

## V. SUGGESTIONS

As the findings in the study demonstrate and interviews reinforce, learners' achievements in bilingual learning are positively correlated with multi-motivation. The results of the present study also provide plenty of rich food for thought for the content-based bilingual teachers and researchers. Here are some strategies suggested to be adopted:

1) In developing learners' motivation, the teachers should find some ways to transform the objective aims required by the country into the learners' internal need, because internal need is the key to maintaining interest in bilingual learning. But the transformation should be in accordance with learners' different need.

2) Teachers should understand the learners' desires and then try every possible means to satisfy their desire and make the learners achieve a sense of accomplishment, like communicating with foreign counterparts face-to-face online about their specialty, and at the same time try to help learners establish internal incentive mechanism in them. In addition, teachers should create some kind of moderate degree of anxiety, because too much or too little anxiety would not help enhance learners' motivation.

3) Teachers or universities should try their best to stimulate learners' motivation and need for content-based bilingual learning by providing them literature or examples or opportunities to feel the need and significance of bilingual learning.

4) Teachers should set a concrete not subtract goal for learners which is not too difficult nor too easy to reach, because "goals that are concrete but not too easy to attain will lead to better achievement." (Locke, A.1996)

5) Universities or college should tap into their teaching resources to establish a complete system of bilingual courses, making teaching contents continuous and systematic, which most universities lack in carrying out content-based bilingual instruction in China nowadays, in order to meet the learners' needs, because the contents form a connecting link between the preceding and the following.

6) Teachers or university authorities should try their best to provide opportunities for learners to put what they have learned into practice, to strengthen their motivation for content-based bilingual learning.

In short, it is necessary for the university authorities and teachers to adopt corresponding measures to cultivate, maintain and enhance the learners' motivation for content-based bilingual learning, to help achieve the aim of bilingual instruction in China better.

Of course, due to small range of subjects and short period of time, there are some limitations of the study, for example, these tentative results needs to be further testified on the extent to which they are applicable to learners from different majors or from different universities.

APPENDIX.  QUESTIONNAIRE SAMPLE

Name:_____ Gender:_____ Number of bilingual course taken: _____
Scores of CET Band-4/Band-6_____/_____ QQ number: _____
Motivation Strategies for Content-based Bilingual Learning Questionnaire
Please rate the following items based on your evaluation of content-based bilingual learning. The results of the questionnaire will not affect your performance, nor will any personal information be leaked. Thank you!

1. The purpose of carrying out content-based bilingual instruction is to help students to obtain professional knowledge and improve their English as well;

2. The purpose of carrying out content-based bilingual instruction is to help students obtain bilingual ability;

3. The purpose of carrying out content-based bilingual instruction is to help students have access to frontier knowledge in their discipline, the world advanced technology and scientific thought as well directly;

4. The purpose of carrying out content-based bilingual instruction is to help students to communicate with their foreign counterparts in the future;

5. The purpose of carrying out content-based bilingual instruction is to help students to further study abroad;

6. I'v taken content-based bilingual course(s) to help me gain advantage over others in finding a job.

7. I'v taken content-based bilingual course(s) to help me adapt myself to overseas study;

8. I'v taken content-based bilingual course(s) to get credits;

9. I'v taken content-based bilingual course(s) to help me find a good job after graduation from university;

10. Content-based bilingual learning helps meet desire of me.

11. I like taking content-based bilingual courses;

12. Content-based bilingual learning helps enhance my literacy;

13. Content-based bilingual learning helps qualify myself for challenging work in the future;

14. I'v taken content-based bilingual course(s) because I like new challenges;

15. I'v taken content-based bilingual course(s) because it is required our country;

16. I feel dissatisfied at the effect of my College English learning;

17. I want to keep on learning English in my 4-year college life;

18. It is required by my school;

19. My teachers told me it is important to take content-based bilingual courses;

20. My parents ask me and encourage me to take content-based bilingual course(s);

21. I learned from newspapers that persons of bilingual ability are in great need;

22. My classmates have taken content-based bilingual courses;

23. Taking content-based bilingual course(s) helps get a pat from my teachers and classmates;

24. Content-based bilingual learning brings me a sense of achievement;

25. I have confidence in myself to learn content-based bilingual courses well;

26. My teachers' encouragement and praise contributes to my content-based bilingual learning;

27. Fear of failure drives me to hard-working;

28. I like my teachers (their character, sense of humors etc.)

THEORY AND PRACTICE IN LANGUAGE STUDIES                                                                    2081

29. I value academic performance;

30. My teacher' professional knowledge and his proficiency of spoken English attract me.

31. I like people from English-spoken countries;

32. I want to become one of the people of English-spoken countries.

33. I like the cultures of English-spoken countries.

34. I like to make contact with people from English-spoken countries.

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# Redefining *Cablaka* "Banyumasan Way of Speaking": Is It Totally Explicature?

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*Abstract*—**Banyumasan is a dialect of Javanese language. It is mainly spoken along the flow of Serayu river. Language as it is used in a speech community can reflect the community itself and so does Banyumasan. Banyumasan which has different linguistic feature compared to its standard Javanese also reflects the way of speaking of its speaker. The way of speaking in Banyumas is commonly known as *Cablaka*. *Cablaka* is Banyumasan way of speaking which means that a speaker tend to speak frankly based on the actual fact. However the phenomena shows us different thing. People, sometimes inevitably speak indirectly. Speakers express their thought to their hearers implicitly. What is meant without being said is generally called implicature. On the other hand, explicature happens when what is meant is as what is said. This article intends to redefine the concept of *Cablaka* as Banyumas way of speaking in the context of traditional selling and buying in Banyumasan. The implicatures found in selling and buying transaction are disagreeing, promising, commanding, requesting, accusing, keeping a secret and forbidding. The functions of implicatures in selling and buying transaction are to show politeness, to show respect, to show carefulness, to show uncertainty, and to keep face.**

*Index Terms*—*cablaka*, **traditional selling and buying, implicature, explicature**

## I. INTRODUCTION

Javanese language is grouped into Proto Austronesian language. Wedhawati et al (2006) states that "Proto Austronesian is divided into two groups: west and east. The west proto austronesian consists of: Malay language, Sundanese, Javanese, Balinese, Maduranese, Bugis, and languages in North Sulawesi and Philippines archipelago"(p.6). Ogloblin (2005) elaborates that the Javanese form the largest community in the Austronesian language family (p. 590). With about 80 million people at the end of the twentieth century, they make up about 40% of the Indonesian population.

Javanese has some dialects, one of them is Banyumasan. Banyumasan is said as the dialect of standard Javanese. Standard Javanese is mainly spoken in Yogyakarta and Surakarta. Compared to standard Javanese spoken in Yogjakarta, Surakarta, Banyumasan has some different features. Those differences are due to phonological dan lexical features.

Language as a means of communication may vary from one place to another. The variation is causes by some factors, such as geographical barrier and social factors. Chambers and Trudgill (1994, p.3) states that the variation caused by geographical barrier is also known as dialect.

Banyumasan is a dialect used along the flow of Serayu River. The river flows from Sindoro-Sumbing Mountains (Koentjaraningrat, 1984, p.23). The way people speak in this dialect is called *Cablaka*. *Cablaka* in a simple way can be defined as the way to speak frankly based on the fact. *Cablaka* is more responsible than *Blakasuta* since people speak directly based on the fact. On the other hand, *Blakasuta* is saying something without considering anything. *Blakasuta* is less responsible than C*ablaka* (Herusatoto, 2008, p.124). However, the fact show us something different The way people speak in traditional selling and buying in Banyumasan does not always reflect *Cablaka*. Both buyers and sellers sometimes express their thought indirectly. This indirect saying in linguistic is widely known as implicature. People use implicature in traditional selling and buying in Banyumas. If *Cablaka* is really the way of speaking in Banyumasan, it can be simplified that people use explicature as it is opposed to implicature. Thus, this article tries to investigate the implicature in traditional selling and buying in Banyumasan as a foundation to redefine the term *Cablaka* as the way of speaking of Banyumas people. The investigation to redefine *Cablaka* is traced by using linguistic evidence that is conversational implicature which takes place in the conversation of traditional selling and buying transaction.

Basically language used as a means of communication is divided into two forms; spoken and written. Each of them has some characteristics which differentiate one from another. Spontaneous speech is unlike written text. It contains many mistakes, sentences are usually brief and indeed the whole fabric of verbal expression is riddled with hesitation and silences (Halliday, 1994, p.76). He also mentions that provided whatever criteria are adopted are applied consistently, the lexical density of written language is likely to be of the order of twice as high as that for speech; and the discrepancy will be greater if other factors such as the relative probability of lexical items are taken into account (p. 80)

However, in delivering message, spoken language is also as informative as written language. Spoken language also has both surface and deep structure. Halliday (1994) quotes that speech is, by its nature, 'low in content'-in the special

sense of lexical density...; but it is not 'low in content' in the general sense of lacking information; and it is certainly not unstructured and superficial (p. 77). The statement that spoken language is not unstructured and superficial implies that spoken language also has surface and deep structure.

Selling and buying things is very close to human social life. In doing so, language plays an important role. The conversation happened in selling and buying is an interesting language phenomenon in our society. This type of conversation cannot be classified as casual conversation since casual conversation does not have any clear pragmatic purposes (Eggins and Slade, 1997). The conversation in selling and buying things has a clear pragmatic purposes, that is one participant gets things or services the other participant provides things or services.

No matter how simple a text is, it always has a structure. It is in line with Ventola (1979) who states that 'even in the use of language that appears most effortless and least specialized, namely casual conversation possesses structure in this sense. Structure is made up of separate events or elements. Hasan (1989) mentions the obligatory elements of selling and buying text as follows: sale request, sale compliance, sale, purchase, purchase closure. The generic structure of selling and buying text consists of sale initiation, sale request, sale compliance, sale inquiry, sale, purchase, purchase closure, finis. From her definition, it can be summed up that sale initiation, sale inquiry, finis are the optional elements.

The use of language in selling and buying can be categorized into three major functions. The first is referential function which means that language is used as a means to transaction of good and services. The second is emotive function. Language is used to express speakers' feeling and thought. People go to markets or traditional kiosk not only for buying good but sometimes they go there just for chatting. The third function is informative function. This means that language is used by both seller and buyer to gain information about the good and any other thing. Halliday (1989) explains that context is divided into three concepts. These concepts serve to interpret the social context of a text, the environment in which meanings are being exchanged (p.12). The first is field of discourse. Field of discourse refers to what is happening, to the nature of the social action that is taking place: what is it that the participants are engaged in, in which the language figures as some essential components. The second is tenor of discourse. Tenor of discourse refers to who is taking part, to the nature of the participants, their statutes and roles: what kind of role-relationship obtain among the participants, including permanent and temporary relationship of one kind or another, both the type of speech role that they are taking on in the dialogue and the whole cluster of socially significant relationships in which they are involved. The third is mode of discourse. Mode of discourse refers to what part of language is playing, what it is that the participants are expecting the language to do for them in that situation: the symbolic organization of the text, the status that it has, and its function in the context, including the channel (is it spoken or written or some combination of the two) and also the rhetorical mode, what is being achieved by the text in terms of such categories as persuasive, expository, didactic, and the like.

Speech acts are words that do things (Mey, 1994, p.110). When an utterance is produced it is not merely a combination of words. It has deeper intention. When one says 'I'll come tomorrow' he does not solely say it, however; at the same time when he produces this utterance he also makes a promise. Words that functions as 'promise' means that they do 'something'. Searle (1969) in Mey (1994, p. 165-167) classifies speech acts into five categories, as follows: representatives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declaration.

In order to be an effective communicator, a speaker and a hearer have to obey the cooperative principle proposed by Grice. He mentions that each speaker should give 'enough' contribution in conversation. He divides the cooperative principles into four maxims (Levinson, 1983, p. 101-102). The first is maxim of quality. This maxim contains an advice for the speakers to make their contribution one that is true, specifically; do not say what you believe to be false and do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence. The second is maxim of quantity. It includes the suggestion for the speakers to make their contribution as informative as is required for the current purposes of the exchange and do not make contribution more informative than is required. The third is maxim of relevance. It involves the recommendation for the speakers to make their contribution relevant. Last but not least is maxim of manner. It consists of advice for the speakers to be perspicuous and specifically avoid obscurity, avoid ambiguity, be brief, and be orderly.

The four maxim of Grice's cooperative principles are then simplified by Sperber and Wilson (1986) into one principle that is relevance principle. It then triggered the emergence of relevance theory. Communication is a process involving two information-processing devices. One device modifies the physical environment of the other. As a result, the second device constructs representations similar to representations similar already stored in the first devices. Oral communication, for instance, is a modification by the speaker of the hearer's acoustic environment, as a result of which the hearer entertains thoughts similar to the speaker's own. Whether an utterance is relevance or not can be explained by using the contextual assumptions. Those assumptions will inevitably lead the participants to make contextual implications. Sperber and Wilson specifically highlighted that communication is a matter of enlarging mutual cognitive environment, not to duplicating thoughts. The most important differences between Grice's approach and relevance theory has to do with the explanation of communication. Grice's account of conversations starts from a distinction between what is explicitly said and what is implicated. No explanation of explicit communication is given; essentially, the code model, with a code understood as a set of conventions, is assumed to apply. Implicatures are explained as assumptions that the audience must make to preserve the idea that the speaker has obeyed the maxims, or at least the cooperative principle. The principle of relevance is intended to explain ostensive communication as whole, both explicit and implicit.

Cablaka is the tendency to speak frankly; it is widely recognized in linguistics as explicature. Sperber and Wilson (1986) mention that the assumption communicated by speaker fall into two classes: explicature and implicature(p. 182). An assumption communicated by an utterance U is explicit [hence an 'explicature'] if and only if it is a development of a logical form encodes by U. An assumption communicated by U which is not explicit is implicit [hence an implicature']

Carston (2002) mentions that there are two point worth emphasizing in explicature (p. 116). The first is that the explicature/implicature distinction applies only to those assumptions that fall within the speaker's communicative intention. This leads to the the possibility of a difference between the proposition expressed by the speaker and her explicature (s): the proposition expressed may or may not be communicated; only when it is communicated is it an explicature of the utterance. The second is that it is clearly the content of explicature comes from two distinct sources, the linguistic expression used and the context, and it is derived in two distinct ways depending on its source, by linguistic decoding or by pragmatic inference.

Implicature can be resulted from the flouting of maxim of the cooperative principles. When a speaker exploits those maxims, he or she tries to hide something. The 'hidden' thing is the implied meaning of the conversation, Therefore this implied meaning is the conversational implicature.

Conversational implicature is a proposition which is probably implied or meant by the speaker which may be different from what he or she actually said in a conversation (Grice, 1975, p. 43). Mey (1994) adds that a conversational implicature is, therefore, something which is implied in conversation, that is, something which is left implicit in actual language use. In brief, it can be said that conversational implicture is something left unsaid by the participants of the conversation.

## II. METHODOLOGY

This research is a descriptive qualitative research since, the researcher describes the data qualitatively. Cresswell (1994) mentions that a qualitative research is an exploratory research where the researcher explores a single entity or phenomenon (the case) bounded by time and activity and collects detailed information by using a variety of data collection procedures during a sustained period of time. Data are derived from natural conversation happened in buying and selling in Banyumasan dialect. Hammersley (1992) highlighted that natural occurring data is preferable in qualitative research. Data was taken from traditional selling and buying conversation in both traditional markets and kiosks in Banyumas regency, Cilacap regency, Banjarnegara regency, Purbalingga regency, Kebumen regency. Banyumasan dialect is used in those regencies. Conversation is recorded by using tape recorder or handy-cam secretly. Data is then analyzed by using the relevance theory and context to find the conversational implicatures. Those implicatures are then classified into Searle's speech acts. By proving that implicature really happens in this conversation, the researcher then redefines *Cablaka*.

## III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The analysis shows that indirectness is used to show politeness, to show respect, to soften utterance, to show carefulness, to show uncertainty and to keep face. By using the function of indirectness in Banyumasan, this article tries to redefine cablaka.

This article tries to reveal the phenomenon of implicature in Banyumasan as the base to redefine Cablaka, the discussion starts with implicature in traditional selling and buying in Banyumasan.

The first conversation depicts the implicature of disagreement. The second utterance of below conversation shows that the speaker does not agree with the first utterance.

**Context:** The celebration of Independence Day happened during fasting month. Many festivals and celebrations were held on July not in August. July is a dry session which means the production of coconut sugar touched its lowest point. One of coconut sugar producer is selling his coconut sugar in the shop. While waiting for his turn, he watched the march from the shop.

Utterance 1: *Rame semanger ya, pitulasan nang kota*
　　　　　　*ramɛ  səmaŋər ya pitulasan naŋ kota*
　　　　　　It's merry here, Independence Day in town
Utterance 2: ***Ya rame lah.... Rame nang bocah***
　　　　　　*Ya ramɛ  lah ramɛ  naŋ bocah*
　　　　　　Yes it's merry.... Merry by children...

Utterance 1 is produced by a coconut sugar seller. Utterance 2 is made by shop owner husband. The conversational implicature of the above conversation is disagreement. At first, utterance 2 shows that the speaker agrees with utterance 1. By saying *ya rame lah...* He agrees upon the first utterance that the Independence Day celebration in town is merry. However, when he adds other premise, *Rame nang bocah* he denies what he agrees upon. He thinks that Independence Day celebration is only merry by children not by coconut sellers. There are some contextual assumptions that can be made from the utterance ***Rame nang bocah.***

1. It is July and dry session, so that the production of palm sugar reduce drastically.

2. Due to the reduction, the amount of palm sugar sold is also reduced and it will automatically reduce the shop owner income.

3. The income reduction is not a pleasant thing for the shop owner husband. Moreover, as the shop owner, he has to prepare some present for his coconut sugar seller.

4. It can be assumed that if it is merry with children, only children (or most of the children) who celebrated the Independence Day. Children will not purchase more money on coconut sugar hence the shop owner cannot make more money. From the contextual assumptions mentioned above, it can be concluded that the shop owner utterance *Rame nang bocah* implies that he does not mean to say that the Independence Day is really merry. So his utterance is meant to show his disagreement. Based on Searle's classification, disagreement is classified into representative.

If the shop owner husband says directly that he does not agree with the first utterance, he can simply say it. In fact, he says it indirectly. This shows that he does not reflect *Cablaka* in his utterance since he does not say it explicitly. The shop owner husband tries to be polite to his interlocutor by showing his disagreement indirectly. His indirectness is aimed to give information and to maintain politeness to his interlocutor simultaneously. The shop owner husband wants to inform his hearer that the celebration of the Independence Day is not really merry which means that he disagrees with his interlocutor first statement. He also wants to show politeness to his interlocutor since he know that he has business with his interlocutor so that if he cannot maintain a good social relationship by showing politeness he may lose one of his potential business partners.

The second conversation below shows the indirectness which takes place in traditional selling and buying in Banyumasan dialect. The conversation occurs during the fasting month.

**Context:** During the fasting month, the demand for eggs rises. Hence the shop owner sometimes forgets to add the stock in her display. When a buyer comes, she asks whether eggs are still available or not.

*Utterance 1: Tigane kantun niku thok nggih Bu?*
              *tiganɛ kantun niku tok ŋih bu*
              Are these the only eggs left mam?
*Utterance 2: Akeh koh teksih niko. Niki, niki kang mriki.*
              *akɛ h koh tɛ ksih akɛ h niko niki kaŋ mriki*
              There are many. Come..come here.
*Utterance 3: Oh.... Nyuwun sekawan kilo Bu*
              *oh .....nyuwun səkawan kilo bu*
              Oh ... Four kilograms please, Mam.
*Utterance 4: Nggih*
              *ŋgih*
              OK

The conversational implicature of the above conversation is promising and commanding. Promising is classified as commissive and commanding is classified as directive based on Searle's classification. The buyer is promising to the shop owner that she wants to buy the good as long as there are enough supply. By producing her utterance *Tigane kantun niku thok nggih Bu?* The buyer does not merely asking the availability of the good but she also making a promise if the good is enough, she will buy them. After hearing her utterance, the shop owner then makes some assumptions as follows:

1. The buyer is a potential buyer, so if the good is available, the buyer will buy.

2. The shop owner knows exactly that she has enough supply.

Those assumptions lead her to make an implication that the buyer is making promise to buy. Knowing that her buyer wants to buy the good if the supply is enough, the shop owner then make a reply *Akeh koh teksih niko. Niki, niki kang mriki.* It does not only mean to answer the availability of the goods but also a command for her buyer to buy. After hearing such reply, the buyer then makes some assumptions as follows:

1. The good is available more than she ever wants to buy.

2. She has not heard if the shop owner increases the price which means the price is reasonable.

3. She needs to buy egg for her own goal.

Those assumptions lead her make an implication that the shop owner commands her to buy the good. To ask the availability of the good, both buyer and shop owner use the word *kantun* and *akeh*. *Kantun* means ' something left' and *akeh* means many.

If the buyer says directly that she will buy the goods provided that the goods is available, she can say, for example, 'I want to buy egg if there is any'. In addition, the similar thing also happens to the seller. To give command to her buyer, she can simply say "OK, the goods is available, then buy them as much as you want". However, the conversation does not show those things. Both buyer and seller use indirect utterances to show their intention. The implicature produced by the buyer is promising and the implicature produced by the seller is commanding. Promising is grouped into commissive and commanding is grouped into directive.

Both buyers and sellers use indirectness in their utterances to show respect each other. The indirectness is realized in high Javanese language variety. The buyer is younger than the seller hence she uses *'krama inggil'* - high Javanese language variety- to the seller. So does the seller. Even though she is older than her buyer, she still uses *'krama inggil'*.

Both of them use indirectness in high Javanese variety to show their respect. Once again, indirectness emerges in traditional selling and buying conversation. The emergence of implicature highlights the phenomenon of *Cablaka* needs to be further defined.

The next conversation which contains conversational implicature shows the indirectness in Banyumasan dialect.

**Context:** A second buyer comes to the shop after the first buyer left. She knows if if the shop owner has a stock of coconut sugar in her store house which locates behind the shop.

Utterance 1: *Mba Endang ajeng piten?*
                *mba ɛ ndaŋ ajəŋ pintən*
                Miss Endang, how much do you want?

Utterance 2: *Kalih.*
                *kalih*
                Two

Utterance 3*: Mrika milih*
                *mrika milih*
                Please choose

Utterance 4*: Ngarep?*
                *ŋarəp*
                In front?

Utterance 5*: Bebas, milih njero ya kena, ngarep ya kena.*
                *bɛ bas milih njəro ya kəna ŋarəp ya kəna*
                It's up to you, whether inside or in font

The buyer says **Ngarep** which semantically means in front of. Spatially, **ngarep** means the shop and what she really intends to say is that she wants to choose the good in the store house which is behind the shop. To say it directly, the buyer can simply say that she want to choose the good in the store house. By saying the opposite utterance, the buyer expresses her intention that she makes a request. The buyer is requesting to choose the coconut sugar in the store house because she knows there are plenty of palm sugar with good quality as she wants. By saying *Ngarep?* she also performs a request to choose the coconut sugar in the store house, which locates behind the shop. Instead of saying to choose the good in the shop (which is in the front location), the buyer implicitly say that she wants to choose the goods in the store house which location is behind the shop.

This conversational implicature is derived from the contextual assumptions as follows.

1. The buyer knows that the shop owner still has stock of the good sh wants in her store house.

2. The buyer knows the location of the store house is behind the shop in which the shop owner usually keeps her stock.

3. The buyer knows that when she comes to the shop, another buyer has just left which means that the good she wants may have been bought by the previous buyer.

Those assumptions lead the shop owner to make a contextual implication that the buyer is requesting to choose the good in her store house. Hence the conversational implicature of this conversation is requesting. The implicature emerges from the utterance *Ngarep* which means in front. In fact both buyer and shop owner know that the store house is behind the shop not in front. This conversational implicature comes up because of this utterance which means that the implicature is calculable on the basis of conventional meaning together with contextual information. The buyer knows that the store house is behind the shop, instead of saying *mburi* which means 'behind', she says *ngarep* which means 'in front'. The conversational implicature of the above conversation is requesting. Requesting is classified as directive based on Searle's classification.

Requesting is considered as a high-cost speech acts, hence to reduce it, the speaker uses indirectness. By using indirectness the speaker tries to soften her utterance to her hearer. Softening her utterance is one characteristic of woman's speech. The indirectness is used to soften an utterance. The existence of indirectness in the conversation above portraits implicature. It is once again shows that *Cablaka* is not reflected in the conversation.

The below conversation which happens between the shop owner and the shop assistant also depict the indirectness.

**Context:** The shop assistant is classifying and packing the coconut sugar. She classifies them based on good and bad quality. She asks the shop owner if the coconut sugar from one of her sellers is mostly bad.

Utterance 1: *Gendise pak niko lah jarang sing apik nggih Bu.*
                *gendisɛ  pak niko lah jaraŋ siŋ apik ŋgih bu*
                Mr X' coconut sugar is rarely good, isn't it Mom?

Utterance 2: *Wiryo?*
                *wiryo*
                Wiryo?

Utterance 3: *Enggih*
                *eŋgih*
                Yes

Utterance 4: *Lah sing apik kaya wis nggo eceran.*

*lah siŋ apik kaya wis ŋgo ɛ cɛ ran*
The good one has already been sold for retail.

By saying *Gendise pak niko lah jarang sing apik nggih Bu,* the shop assistant accuses that the coconut sugar seller is not faithful. Her utterance says indirectly that the quality of Mr. X coconut sugar is barely good and perhaps he has sold the good ne to another. This conversational implicature is derived from two contextual assumptions as follows.

1. The shop owner knows exactly that the price of coconut sugar is increasing rapidly at that time.

2. Since the price is increasing rapidly, no wonder some of her unfaithful seller sometimes sells their palm sugar to another in order to get higher price.

3. The shop owner knows that Mr. X is not a faithful seller.

Those assumptions lead the shop owner to make a contextual implication that the shop assistant is accusing that Mr. X has sold his goods to another shop. The shop owner agrees on her shop assistant' report. Hence she makes an utterance *Lah sing apik kaya wis nggo eceran.* By saying it, she agrees with her shop assistant.

The conversational implicature of the above conversation is accusing. Accusing is classified as representative based on Searle's classification. If the shop assistant explicitly says that Mr. X sells his good to another shop, she can be said that she reflects *Cablaka* in her utterance. The shop assistance uses indirectness to accuse her boss's business partner. If she makes a direct accuse, she may be get fired. So she tries to make accuse carefully by not saying it directly. It can be said that the shop assistant. She uses indirect utterance to show her carefulness. She can deliver her message and be careful at the same time. The use of indirectness one again denies *Cablaka* and this shows that *Cablaka* is not always reflected in people utterances especially in Banyumas dialect.

The next conversation displays that implicature happens in Banyumasan dialect. The conversational implicature in the next conversation also shows that Cabaka is not always reflected in people's utterances.

**Context:** A buyer comes to buy coconut sugar. Before she buys, she pays her debt to the shop owner. The shop owner asks her about the condition of her trade.

Utterance 1: *Sepi apa rame Mba Endang?*
         *səpi apa ramɛ mba ɛ ndaŋ*
         Slack or life Miss Endang?

Utterance 2: *Dalem?*
         *daləm*
         Pardon

Utterance 3: *Sepi apa rame?*
         *səpi apa ramɛ*
         Slack or life?

Utterance 4: ***Kepripun si nggih?.... Duko lah....***
         *Kəpripun si ŋgih duko lah*
         Well I don't know what to say...I don't know...

The conversational implicature of the above conversation is keeping a secret. Keeping a secret is classified as representative based on Searle's classification. The buyer tries to keep a secret about the condition of her trade. By saying *Kepripun si nggih?.... Duko lah* buyer does not want to say the real condition of her trade. She does not want to answer the shop owner question due to the fact that she knows her trade is not in a really good condition. If she says that it is good, she still has debt to the shop owner if she says it is bad, she still can buy coconut sugar for her home industry. By relating her utterance with her condition, the conversational implicature reveals, that is keeping a secret. This conversational implicature is derived from the contextual assumptions as follows.

1. Buyer still has debt to the shop owner.

2. Buyer is still able to buy coconut sugar for her home industry which means that she still has money to support her home industry.

From those contextual assumptions, the shop owner then makes a contextual implication that buyer keeps a secret about her trade condition. By saying *Kepripun si nggih?.... Duko lah* buyer expresses her intention to keep a secret. Both *kepripun si nggih* and *duko lah* more or less have the same meaning that is uncertainty. Buyer does not want to show her trade real condition to the shop owner, hence she produces utterance which shows uncertainty. This expression is meant to show that she wants to keep a secret.

Trying to keep a secret, buyer produces indirect expression. In the conversation above, indirectness is used to show uncertainty. The speaker feels uncertain on her trade condition so she cannot say directly to her interlocutor. In her effort to show uncertainty, the speaker uses indirect utterance. As it has already been discussed, indirectness is not a part of *Cablaka* since *Cablaka* is said to be frankly. Hence to say that *Cablaka* is the way of speaking of Banyumas people, it needs to be redefined.

The next conversation figures out the conversational implicature in Banyumasan dialect. It happens between husband and wife-the shop owner and her husband.

**Conttext:** When a coconut sugar seller offers clove to the shop owner, the shop owner must make sure the dryness of the clove. She just buys 'kapulaga-*Amomum cardamomumand wild*-and the quality is not so good. As a consequence, she gets financial loss. The shop owner husband tries to warn his wife not to tell that story because there are five other

customers in the shop.

Utterance 1: Cengkeh bu
   *cəŋkɛ h bu*
   Clove mam

Utterance 2: *Nek garing gelem, nek ora emoh. Anu wingi ana wong adol kapulaga. Lah jan aku kayane prei dingin, emoh tuku dingin. Anu sekilo dadi setengah kilo.*
   *nɛ k gariŋ gələm nɛ k ora əmoh anu wiŋi ana woŋ adol kapulaga lah jan aku kayanɛ prɛ i diŋin əmoh tuku diŋin anu səkilo dadi sətəŋah kilo*
   If it is dry, I want to; If it is not, I don't want. Yesterday, there was a seller sold *kapulaga*. Oh my God, it seems that I am off, I don't want to buy it. It was a kilogram and it becomes half of it.

Utterance 3: Kae ana sms
   *kaɛ ana sms*
   There is a sms.

[The shop owner does not continue her story and keeps on serving her customers]

The conversational implicature of the above conversation is forbidding. Forbidding is classified as directives based on Searle's classification. The shop owner husband forbids his wife to continue her complaint. He forbids his wife continuing her complaint because he knows that among their customers who are in the shop at that time, is a relatives of the one who sold *Amomum cardamomumand wild* which caused them financial loss. After hearing her husband utterance, that is *Kae ana sms,* the shop owner then makes some contextual assumptions as follows.

1. Shop owner know exactly her husband characteristic, that he seldom expresses something directly.

2. Shop owner does not hear the ring tone of her cell phone that indicates there is a message.

3. Shop owner realizes that there is one relatives of Amonum cardamomumand wild' wild seller among her customers.

Those contextual assumptions then lead her to make a contextual implication that her husband forbids her continuing her complain. Shop owner husband in fact can say directly to his wife not to continue talking about their financial loss due to their purchase. Since he does not say it directly, he makes an indirect expression to forbid his wife. The indirect utterance produced by the shop owner husband is meant to protect both the shop owner face and one of their customer's faces. Face is the image that a person protects in their social contact with other. The shop owner husband tries to protect his face by showing his forbid in indirectness. He also tries not to threat one of his customer's faces who is also the relative of those who sells *Amonum cardamomumand wild* that makes them suffer from financial loss. The use of indirectness in the conversation above shows that implicature is applied in this conversation and it means that there is once more evidence that *Cablaka* is not absolutely realized.

Based on the linguistic evidence, that is, the conversational implicature depicted by each conversation, I state that *Cablaka* as the way of speak of Banyumas people need to be redefined. In spite of the characteristic of Banyumas people which tend to speak frankly, the evidence clearly show us the contrary. The emergence of conversational implicature in Banyumasan dialect positively give us evidence that Banyumas people is not totally frankly or in a simple way it is not totally explicature.

## IV. Conclusion

Based on the discussion, it can be inferred that there are some consideration in which people use indirectness. The indirectness is used for disagreeing, promising, commanding, requesting, accusing, keeping a secret, and forbidding. The functions of the indirectness are to show politeness, to show respect, to soften utterance, to show carefulness, to show uncertainty and to keep face. Banyumas people still use those considerations in their way of speaking. People still consider to whom they speak to, in what occasion the speech takes place and to what extent the speech is intended to. They still give respect to other people or their interlocutors so they try not to threaten their interlocutor 'face'. Goffman in Rankema (1994, p. 13) defines face as the image that a person protects in his social contact with other. Considering their interlocutors' face is also the reason why Banyumas people still use indirectness.

Those considerations which have been stated above highlight the use of indirectness in Banyumasan dialect. In a simple way, it can be said that indirectness reflects the conversational implicture. The linguistic evidence, that is, the conversational implicature becomes the base to declare that Banyumasan dialect *'Cablaka'* is not totally explicature.

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# Comprehension of the Translated Versions of Ancient Chinese Poems through the Perspective of Language Differences

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*Abstract*—Due to differences in form, style and culture between the original and the translated version of ancient Chinese poetry, the meaning of translated ancient Chinese poems is bound to differ from that of the originals. Therefore, to certain extent some ancient Chinese poems can never be completely translated; but it is possible that they can be better translated so that the reader of the translated poems may see more clearly from different angles the beauty of Chinese poetry.

*Index Terms*—the difference between Chinese and English languages, the ancient Chinese poems, meaning, untranslatability, problems, translating strategies

## I. INTRODUCTION

Translation is the bridge between translating the Chinese poems and English poems. Though such expert is rarely seen, great achievements have been made in this field, especially in the translating of English poems into Chinese. (Gu Zhengkun, 2003, p.444) A lot of ancient Chinese poems have been translated by experts in the field of translation, especially by the famous Sinologists Arthur Waley (1918), and foreign translators like Bynner, Ezra Pound and Watson. They contributed a lot to the introduction of Chinese literature, including Chinese culture, to foreign countries by doing plenty of translation works regarding to ancient poems as well as other literary works. It is hard to do it well when some of the ancient poems seem hard to understand even for Chinese people. In spite of that, their translation is of high quality and become so popular that many people in their countries began to read Chinese poems and their ideas of *poems* were greatly influenced by the those ancient Chinese poems. However, no translation can be perfect, let alone the translating of ancient Chinese poems by foreign translators. There are some problems faced by these foreign translators, which may greatly influence the quality of their translated works.

The aim of this paper is to explore some useful strategies by analyzing some problems appeared in several poems translated by some foreign translators', especially the one from the *Nineteen Old Poems*. The corresponding ways of avoiding and coping with these problems are introduced after the discussion of the problems so that they may be helpful for the present translators both home and abroad, and also the reader of the translated poems may "see more clearly from different angles the beauty of Chinese poetry or in the words of John Turner, 'the most literary, the most artistic, the longest-established civilization that exists'". (Xu, 1997, p.109)

Three parts will be included in this paper. The first part is a brief introduction to my topic and objectives I want to achieve. Then I will begins with the difference between Chinese and English language, then mainly discuss the problems of translating ancient Chinese poems into English by some foreign translators. Finally some ways of avoiding and coping with these problems will be suggested which may be helpful to the translators so that the true beauty of the originally ancient Chinese poems can be conveyed and real beauty of Chinese poetry can be available to foreign readers through translation.

## II. THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN CHINESE AND ENGLISH LANGUAGES

Generally speaking, Chinese and English cultures are different in that the former belongs to human culture while the latter belongs to scientific culture. The thinking pattern in Chinese appears synthetic and modest when that in English is analytic and emphasizing the details. Such differences are reflected in their languages. Chinese language is hypotactic and in grammar implicit while English language is paratactic and explicit. (Yi, 1999) Therefore different understanding to the same ancient Chinese poems will be inevitable and that also explains why different translators often translated the same poem into different versions.

## III. THE TRANSLATION OF ANCIENT CHINESE POEMS

"There are one billion people who use the English language and another billion who wield the Chinese, so the translation from one language into the other is the most important intercultural communication in the world of today. As the English is an inflectional language and the Chinese a hieroglyphic one, their translation is also one of the most

difficult tasks for translators. Interlingual communication, as described by I.A. Richards (1953, p.250) is 'very probably the most complex type of event yet produced in the evolution of the cosmos'. It is particularly true of the translation of classical Chinese verse in English rhyme, for the relationship between the words is implicit in the former but explicit in the latter." (Xu, 1997, p.1)

To translate Chinese poems has been a hard work for foreign translators because two reasons: the first is various nations still have minor differences among the many things they share in common; the second is poetry demand refinement in language, freshness in artistic conception and distinctiveness in style, in other words, it calls for beauty in form, sound and meaning. Thus it should be more difficult and complex for them to translate ancient Chinese poems into English. Not only the form, genre, style, function of the ancient Chinese language, but also the characteristics of the poetry, the culture, the people, as well as their way of expressing the feelings in that time always need to be concerned, otherwise they cannot convey the true beauty of the poems to the reader of the target language.

Like the translation of novels, prose and dramas by quite a number of noted translators, the translation of poems has also attracted much attention from Sinologists and translators both home and abroad. They may know the two languages well but not each of them is able to know Chinese language and culture so well that no shortcomings can be found in their translated works. That is why some translated poems always sound paraphrased and lack of the real beauty of the original poems for Chinese experts and readers no matter how mush work the translator has done. But why and what makes it sounds not that authentic? Thus it is necessary for us to find out the reasons. Here in this paper, the author will mainly discuss the problems of translating an ancient poem *On and On* from the *Nineteen Old Poems* by some foreign translators. Much attention will be focused on the language used in the poems, the authors' understanding to the cultural background of it, and the problem of untranslatability.

*A. The Characteristics of the Ancient Chinese Poem*

"Poetry," said Confucius (552-480BC), "may serve to inspire, to reflect, to facilitate communion or intercourse and to give vent to grievances." (Xu, 1997, p.27) In the *Nineteen Old Poems* we see for the first time the appearance of a new kind of poetry that employs a five-charactered line instead of the four-charactered line typical of the *Book of Poetry*. Its freshness and vitality exercise a great influence on the development of later Chinese poetry.

古诗十九首
（一）行行重行行
行行重行行，与君生离别。
相去万余里，各在天一涯。
道路阻且长，会面安可知？
胡马依北风，越鸟巢南枝。
相去日已远，衣带日已缓。
浮云蔽白日，游子不顾反。
思君令人老，岁月忽已晚。
弃捐勿复道，努力加餐饭。

*On and On*---the first of the *Nineteen Old Poems*---deals with one of the deep rooted human feelings, that of regret at separation, common to Chinese people since olden days. It is all the more touching for this feeling can equally apply to the man who is out far away and the woman who is staying at home.

Many foreign translators have tried on translating the poem and it seems their translation is simply doing the impossible well. Three versions of translation done by several foreign translators will be presented as follows:

(1) Burton Watson (1984):
SELECTIONS FROM THE "NINETEEN OLD POEMS OF THE HAN"
**I**
On and on, going on and on,
away from you to live apart,
ten thousand li and more between us,
each at opposite ends of the sky.
The road I travel is steep and long;
Who knows when we meet again?
The Hu horse leans into the north wind;
The Yueh bird nests in the southern branches:
Day by day our parting grows more distand;
Day by day robe and belt dangle looser.
Shifting clouds block the white sun;
The traveler does not look to return.
Thinking of you makes one old;
Years and months suddenly go by.
Abandoned, I will say no more

But pluck up strength and eat my fill.
(2) Arthur Waley (1918, 1977)
NINETEEN PIECES OF OLD POETRY
**I**
On and on, always on and on
Away from you, parted by a life-parting.
Going from one another ten thousand "li",
Each in a different corner of the World.
The way between is difficult and long,
Face to face how shall we meet again?
The Tartar horse prefers the North wind,
The bird from Yueh nests on the Southern branch.
Since we parted the time is already long.
Daily my clothes hang looser round my waist.
Floating clouds obscure the white sun,
The wandering one has quite forgotten home.
Thinking of you has made me suddenly old,
The months and years swiftly draw to their close.
I'll put you out of my mind and forget for ever (That I'm cast away and rejected I will not repine,)
And try with all my might to eat and thrive. (But only hope with all my heart you're well)
(2) Xu Yuanzhong    (1988)
NINETEEN OLD POETRY
**I**
You travel on and on
And leave me all alone.
Away ten thousand li,
At the end of the sea.
Severed by a long way,
Oh, can we meet someday?
Northern steeds love cold breeze
And Southern birds warm trees.
The farther you're away,
The thinner I'm each day.
The cloud has veiled the sun,
You won't come back, dear one.
Missing you makes me olf,
Soon comes the winter cold.
Alas! Of me you're quit,
I hope you will keep fit.

B.    *Problems in Translating the Ancient Chinese Poems*

Reduplication VS Repetition

The rhetoric of duplication and repetition often appeared both in Chinese and English literary works. In Chinese, nouns, quantifiers, verbs and adjective can be used in the reduplicated forms according to certain rules. And the reduplicated word not only has the original meaning of the word, but also endowed with the implied or suggested meaning. Reduplication is usually preferred in Chinese poems, especially the ancient ones. Two forms of repetition are often used in ancient Chinese poems, one is using totally the same words such as the reduplication, and the other is partially same in form but different in content. Reduplication and repetition are usually used to show emphasis, but also appear more expressive and touching in showing all kinds of farther human feelings. (Chen, 2004) In the first line of the poem *On and On*, the same word is repeated four times. The repetition of four monosyllabic words does not seem monotonous, but shows on the contrary, the farther the husband goes away, the lonelier the wife becomes.

While in English the repetition of a word usually implies emphasis (Nida, 2001, p.3). So the translation from Chinese to English is likely to lose the original feelings or spirit expressed in the original poem. Let's see an example. In the female poet of Song Dynasty Li Qingzhao's famous poem Sheng Sheng Man, the most typical repetition of the same word is shown in the first line:

寻寻觅觅，冷冷清清，凄凄惨惨戚戚。

It is so creative that seven words are repeated successively in the beginning, which sounds pleasing and rhythmic to ear and gradually deeper in feelings. The author's grief and sorrow are fully conveyed through this short line. But it is not easy to make it in its English versions. For example:
(1) So dim, So dark, So dense, So dull,

So damp, So dank, So dead.
(2) Search. Search. Seek. Seek.
   Cold. Cold. Clear. Clear.
   Sorrow. Sorrow. Pain. Pain.
(3) I've a sense of something missing I must seek
Everything about me looks dismal and bleak.
Nothing that fives me pleasure, I can find.

In version (1), the translator uses one form of repetition in English---alliteration---to translation the line. The neat structure strictly followed the original but the translation appears a little affected to some extent. In the second version the translator's omission of the subject turns the verbs "search" and "seek" into imperatives and the reader would not know it is the poetess who was seeking, so he fails to bring out the original beauty in sense (Xu, p.22). In version (3) the translator aims to convey the spirit but ignored the beauty in the original form and structure. Though the three versions are all from the famous translators, it seems there is always something lost compared with the original poems.

The same is true with the translated versions of the poem *On and On*. Something has been lost when the foreign translators try to translate the reduplicated word "行行" by simply repeating "on and on, always on and on" or " on and on, going on and on". It is clear that their effort does not help them to reach the effect they have intended to achieve. While the Chinese translator Xu Yuanzhong didn't use the same method of repetition, but it is he who understood the real meaning of the original poem and conveyed it to the readers. That is why it is said that the translation of poems is so complex and difficult and sometimes even untranslatable.

Semantic Zero

A semantic meaning in one culture may not exist in the other. This is called semantic zero by Lado. (1957, cited by Chen in 2004) Due to the great differences in many aspects of Chinese and English culture, semantic zero become common in their vocabulary systems---people cannot find out the corresponding or similar words or expressions when translating some typical Chinese cultural items. (Chen, 2004, p.107) For example, the ideology "道" is quite rich in meaning while the translated version " the way" can hardly convey its true meaning. The philosophical conception "阴阳" is also not exist in English culture.

In the above poem, "胡马""越鸟" and "浮云" "白日" are typically used in ancient Chinese poems to express certain meanings, but their meanings are not exist in English. Therefore, translation without further consideration would cause confusion and misunderstandings. In Watson's translation, "the Hu horse" and "the Yueh bird" are used and in Waley's version "the Tartar Horse" and "the bird from Yueh". These translations are even hard for Chinese readers to understand, let alone English readers.

The untranslatability of some Chinese poems may cause other problems. Some translators, especially foreign translators, may try to avoid selecting these poems and prefer those which are easy to translate. It will then result in the "one-side" understanding to ancient Chinese poems as well as misleading in their knowledge of Chinese poetry.

Half-understandings to the original poem

The first step in translation is to fully understand the original text---the poem. In the above translation, Watson and Waley have well done in repeating four times the same adverb "on". But Watson's interpretation of the second line seems wrong for the original does not mean that the wife is going away from the husband to live apart, but only implies how she is grieved to be separated from him.   (Xu, 1997, p.110) There are several understandings to the last line of the poem *On and On*. Compared with the Chinese translator Xu's translation, Watson misunderstood the implied meaning so the last two lines he presented to the reader is just opposite with Xu's, which would inevitably mislead the reader's understanding to the original meaning. Waley also presented two version of the last line, of which the first understanding is the same with Watson's. They have such half-understandings to the line because they didn't really understand the virtue and rule women have to possess and obey in ancient China. If they know more about Chinese people, the society and the history, they will fully understand why the wife still give her best wishes to her husband when she was abandoned by him.

"Reproduction" of the ancient poems---an extreme of foreignization

Since the introduction of Nida's translation theory into China in the 1980s, Jin Di (1921-), a noted Chinese translation scholar, has explored the applicability of "dynamic equivalence" to literary translation between English and Chinese. And on the basis of Nida's theory he formulated his own theory of "equivalent effect". A controversial issue over "dynamic equivalence" is its tendency toward naturalization. Friedrich Schleiermacher postulates two basic translation methods: one is to leave the writer alone as much as possible and move the reader toward the writer, and the other is to leave the reader alone as much ass possible and move the writer toward the reader ( Ma cited in Schulte and Biguenet 1992:42) The former may be termed as a naturalizing translation and the latter a foreignizing translation. (Ma, 2003, p.107)

Absolute foreignization and naturalization do not exist. But there can be extreme foreignization by which the original beauty in form is not preserved in the translated version. Waley translated most of the ancient Chinese poems in a prosaic way, that is, the original verse patterns are not strictly kept and even lost to a large extent. In the translation of *On and On,* none of the three translators kept the original form of the poem---two neat sentences in a line of ten words. Other foreign translator may also follow their way to render the poems. We can find evidence from some translated

versions of *On and On* and Sheng Sheng Man easily.

*C.   Some Strategies in Translating Ancient Chinese Poems*

Translating reduplicated words

As far as translation is concerned, the translator may either repeat the same reduplicated words of the original in their translation, or avoid using the same method according to their own aesthetic judgment or experience, though sometimes it is impossible to avoid completely (Xi, 2000). There are no certain principles or forms for translators to follow. Therefore various ways of dealing with reduplication comes out from different translators, among which some are really successful. Take one of the translated versions of Li Qingzhao's poem as an example.

I seek but seek in vain,

I search and search again:

I feel so sad, so drear,

So lonely, without cheer.

The above translation is unique because the translator conveyed both the form and style of the original poem by not only reduplicating some key words but also using alliteration in every two lines. And the readers are able to understand all the beauty in the original poem.

Therefore, there are no rules guiding people in their translation of the reduplicated words and expression. They can either use the same method in their translation or avoid using it to dig out the real meaning. However, this does not mean they can translate any poems at their own will. The translation of ancient Chinese poems should reach the state of "as natural as the original".

Compensation

It seems semantic zero would always cause the problem of untranslatability. But it does not mean it cannot be solved. "Fletcher already made use of the method of compensation in translating poems. It is, generally, an affective accommodation often employed by experienced translators to overcome the local difficulties or local untranslatabilities while translating a literary or poetic work. Addition, extension, break-up, incorporation, substitution, transposition, etc. may all fall under the category of compensation. Whenever a translator cannot translate some words and expressions literally, he may make use of this or that compensation method so as to better convey the spirit of the original and reproduce the style of it." (Liu Zhongde, 2003, p.130) Compensation is an indispensable method to overcome the difficulties in the translation of poetic works. **The compensation in translation is to make up the semantic losses caused in the course of converting the linguistic forms of the original language into those of the target. The method is often used when no equivalents or proper expressions can be found in the target language.**

When you do translation from English into Chinese, you will have to use omission. When you do translation from Chinese into English, you will have to use addition. In the poem *On and On*, the expression "胡马", "越鸟"are used with their associative meanings which can not be found in English language. "胡马" means horses raised in the north while "越鸟" means birds grown up in the south. The author of the original poem uses these two expressions figuratively to show people's internal feelings of being sentimentally attached to their hometown. But in Waley and Watson's translation they only translated them literally into "the Hu horse/ the Tartar horse" and "the Yueh bird/the bird from Yueh" without conveying the real meaning of the original. The same is true with the expressions "浮云"and "白日" which are only typically used in ancient Chinese. The former refers to crafty and evil beauties and the latter symbolize loyalty of the wife's love to her husband. The sentence shows the guess of the wife that her husband may have allured by the beauties afar and forget to come back home. These massages can be conveyed to the reader of the translated poem only by using the method of compensation, that is to say, the necessary cultural background should be explained and added by the translator in order to help the reader really appreciate the feelings of the Chinese wife as well as the implied meanings in the poem; otherwise they may feel confused and bewildered when read those unfamiliar expressions which are probably just some meaningless symbols in their sphere of knowledge.

Fully understanding to the original poem

A full understanding not only refers a good understanding to the language of the original poems, knowing the language itself is certainly not enough since it is simply a tool to convey the author's ideas and feelings, but also a further understanding to the cultural and historical background of the poem, for example, people's ideas at that time, the characteristics of the society, the development of a certain part of Chinese history, etc., and the author's intention to write it. Only when the translator understands everything about the poem, can he achieve faithfulness in content in his "product". Based on that, he can then use the most appropriate words and expressions to translate, so that expressiveness in language can be achieved.

Compromise between Naturalization and foreignization

Absolute froeignization and naturalization do not exist. All translations have to make a compromise between the two basic methods of translation. Whether the translator chooses one or the other depends on various factors: the purpose of translation, intended readers, text types and so on. To evaluate which method is better one should take into account all these factors. From the standpoint of the intended readers, naturalization translation is directed toward a large number of common readers, whereas foreignization is only towards a few elitists who know the two languages concerned (Ma, cited in Robinson, 2003) That is because the purpose of translating ancient Chinese poems into English is to introduce

Chinese literature as well as culture to the target readers, which is much beneficial to the intercultural communication between the East and West.

## IV. CONCLUSION

There is never a completely perfect or timeless translation as both language and culture are always in the process of change. Furthermore, language is an open system with overlapping meanings and fuzzy boundaries. (Nida, 2001, p.5) Translating is a communication event rather than a system for matching the features of source and target languages. Poems call for the beauty in form, sound and meaning, so a translator of them should not be satisfied with the mere conveying of the ideas in the original, but must strive for the reproduction of the original beauty. However, due to the differences in form, style and culture between the original and the translation of ancient Chinese poetry, the meaning of the translated ancient Chinese poems is bound to differ from that of the originals. Therefore, to certain extent some ancient Chinese poems can never be completely translated; but it is possible that they can be better translated so that the reader of the translated poems may see more clearly from different angles the beauty of Chinese poetry.

So what are the basic requirements then? Cheng Fangwu pointed out long ago that the translation of a poem must remain to be a poem (Liu, 2003, p.140), that is to say, the translator ought to do his best to make his translation bear a certain due form, rhythm, and rime when necessary. That is the first thing they should never forget. And secondly, it should be faithful to the original (Ibid. p.140), i.e. retain the original meaning and artistic conception concerning the language, culture and thought.

Either of the two requirements is indispensable, firstly because the original poem is a piece of artistic work both in form and in spirit and consequently its translation should also remain such a piece of work.. And secondly because the translation of poem, including ancient poems, should be faithful to the original since translating is not creation itself. Being faithful to the original means that the translation of a poem should convey the content of the original and adopt a form close to the original. The translation will be relatively satisfactory only when the translator achieved this. Although the process is difficult and complex in that the requirement of poetry translation is much higher and strict and the ideal state is nearly impossible to reach, there have been many high-quality translation works of ancient poems. We should be optimistic with the understanding of Chinese language and culture by more translators.

This paper does not means to criticize any translators who have been famous long before for plenty of excellent ancient Chinese poems they have done in the field of translation. Though some translated versions can hardly reach the state of closing to the spirit of the original poems, more misunderstandings and excessive reproduction can be avoid in the process of translation and typical problems would be limited to a very small scope if more attention of the translators, especially foreign translators can be focused on understanding the difference between the two languages and cultures. When enough preparations of the knowledge on Chinese and English languages and cultures and experience on translating between the two languages have been done before translation really begins, then it would be possible for the ancient poems to be better conveyed by the foreign translator.

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# Neuro-linguistic Programming (NLP) for Language Teachers: Revalidation of an NLP Scale

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*Abstract*—Enjoying much potential for learning and teaching, Neuro-linguistic programming (NLP) is regarded as a supplementary tool in L2 teaching and an approach to support learners to achieve excellence in their performance. Relying on its saliency, Pishghadam, Shayesteh, and Shapoori (2011) constructed and validated an NLP scale to examine the extent to which English language teachers employ NLP techniques in their practices. In accordance, this study attempted to revalidate the NLP scale through Rasch-rating scale model (RSM) and to underscore its importance in the field of language education. The WINSTEPS program was used to perform the Rasch measurement. Based on the analysis, items 5 and 9 were removed from the scale to maintain uni-dimensionality. To boot, given that the 5-category rating scale did not function satisfactorily, it was shifted to 3-category rating scale. At last, empirical findings were discussed, and implications were yielded in the context of English language teaching.

*Index Terms*—Neuro-linguistic programming (NLP), Rasch-rating scale model (RSM), revalidation, language education, NLP scale

## I. Introduction

Today, working in education might seem to be a true challenge; given that, young learners manifest negative attitudes toward school and learning ever more. In response, teachers should be able to pacify the process and think up possible solutions to tackle the growing number of psycho-pedagogical issues (Pishghadam, 2011, Pishghadam & Saboori, 2014). As with anything in life, effective relationship with learners is an indispensable module of every learning experience. NLP is now emerging as an emotional bridge which assists teachers to build and maintain functional rapport with students and motivate them throughout their learning journey toward success.

The term NLP, developed by Richard Bandler and John Grinder in 1970, broadly portrays people as a whole mind-body system with preset associations between neurological processes (neuro), language (linguistic) and learned behavioral strategies (programming) (Dilts, Grinder, Bandler, & DeLozier, 1980). Indeed, NLP studies "brilliance and quality_ how outstanding individuals and organizations get their outstanding results" (O'Connor, 2001, p. 1).

Earlier studies of this humanistic approach were mainly psychotherapeutic-based, since NLP's initial inspiration rooted in the observation of adroit therapists Fritz Perls, the founder of Gestalt therapy, Virginia Satir, the family therapist, and Milton Erickson, the hypnotherapist (Tosey & Mathison, 2010). Yet, gradually, therapists, counselors, sales persons, trainers, educators, and other practitioners of many kinds eagerly found this multi-disciplinary tool worthwhile to achieve efficacy in their area of expertise (Tosey, Mathison, & Michelli, 2005; Zastrow, Dotson, & Koch, 1987). More recent interest in practical view of NLP has arisen in the realm of education (Moore, 2009). Chief among them is the field of second/foreign language learning and teaching (Pishghadam, Shayesteh, & Shapoori, 2011).

Nonetheless, despite its widespread popularity as a conceptual framework to effective communication, personal development, and learning, NLP has not been touched severely by the academic world. As criticized by Witkowski (2010) "today, after 35 years of research devoted to the concept, NLP reminds one more of an unstable house built on the sand rather than an edifice founded on the empirical rock" (p. 65). After all, believing in NLP's immense value not only in practice but also as a topic for research (Tosey & Mathison, 2003) and observing the dearth of studies in this area, lately, Pishghadam, Shayesteh, and Shapoori (2011) gave a new dimension to the understanding of NLP pertinent to the field of English language learning and teaching. In so doing, they constructed and validated an NLP scale (via exploratory factor analysis) to investigate to what extent English language teachers incorporate NLP techniques in their teaching performance. Evaluating its association along with teacher's amount of success, experience, gender, and degree (Pishghadan, Shapoori, & Shayesteh, 2011), they underlined NLP's absolute power in bringing up change within pedagogical settings. All the same, the attempt did not gain considerable recognition and was not conspicuous enough to the scholars of the field probably due to NLP's anti-theoretical status (Bandler & Grinder, 1979), unclear evidence base, lack of evaluation of its practices (Tosey & Mathison, 2010), or teachers' lack of relevant knowledge(Yero, 2001).

Given these concerns, the current paper intends to *revalidate* the aforementioned scale and remind its saliency to L2 trainers, educators, and teachers anew.

## II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Ever since those early days, human beings have been seeking excellence in their lives and specifically in their communications as a constant goal. Relatively recent in origin, NLP, defined as 'the art of communication excellence', has attempted to maintain this very aim by showing interest in people, delving into their inner feelings and concentrating on *how* they think (Moore, 2009). Its remarkable application in developing rapport, influencing others, and changing behavior for the purpose of coping with life more effectively, can be accommodative.

As a tool of self-improvement NLP hinges on making complicated human behavior learnable by others through modeling excellence (Grinder, 1985). Its revolutionary principal, known as "modeling", basically revolves around Bateson's epistemological thinking notion on how we know the world (Tosey & Mathison, 2010). Modeling, as the core process of NLP, investigates language patterns, behaviors and thoughts to uncover concealed cognitive strategies behind particular capabilities (Tosey & Mathison, 2010).

In general, NLP is esteemed as the study of subjective experience stemming from individual's exclusive view of the world (Moore, 2009). That is, it shares constructivist's underlying principals by emphasizing idiosyncratic defined 'reality' (Craft, 2001). Based on this view, NLP downplays the role of social impact and heeds less to social dimensions caring for individual differences and uniqueness of their world interpretations (Toseyet al., 2005). Furthermore, its fundamental philosophy is encapsulated in the conceit the map is not the territory, meaning that individuals' reflections are based upon their confined internal representation of the world (map) and not the world itself (territory) (Grinder & Bandler, 1976).

NLP is likewise recognized as a psychological vehicle for change assuming a drastic change to one's map of the world (Tosey et al., 2005). To improve communication and life quality, NLP presupposes a positive intention behind every single attitude. That is, it endeavors to elicit, reframe, and simply alter a negative intention or an unwanted behavior to a new positive pattern (Moore, 2009; Zastrow et al., 1987).

In essence, NLP appears to be further practical (technique driven) than theoretical (Heap 2008). Bandler and Grinder's (1979) interest in theory-in-use, what is *useful* rather than what is *true*, made them come up with an anti-theoretical pragmatic method which goes beyond solid academic values and boundaries (Tosey & Mathison, 2010). This leads several other scholars to regard NLP as a model rather than a theory of human behavior (Zastrow et al., 1987). To boot, its content embracing models, strategies, and techniques seem to be strongly eclectic (Tosey et al., 2005).

In numerous practical applications of NLP, education is ranked within the top. Among a broad range of techniques and frameworks offered by NLP, some specifically aim at teachers and learners (Beaver, 2002; Freeth, 2003; O'Connor & Seymour, 2000). This goal-oriented approach employs multiple techniques to generate enhanced performance in education. There seems to be much within NLP from which educators, teachers, and learners can avail. Yero (2001) and Tosey and Mathison (2003) underscore NLP's striking potentiality for teaching and learning. Building on his findings, Statham (2005) alleged that NLP can engender considerable improvements in learning and education. Moreover, Moore (2009) regarded NLP as a catalyst in fulfilling the needs of pedagogical systems. Kudliskis and Burden (2009) proposed NLP tactics as "given away" to teachers and students encountering exam anxiety and other germane pressures. Technically speaking, NLP could be taught to help improve memory, promote personal strength, adopt effective learning strategies, distinguish and reframe impeding educational beliefs, raise self-esteem, and optimize motivation (Dilts & Epstein, 1995; Thornbury, 2001).

As a new horizon for language teachers and learners, NLP offers solutions to classroom problems (Tosey & Mathison, 2003) and provides resources to accentuate language instruction (Helm, 2009; Millroad, 2004). Revell and Norman (1997) put forward 13 underlying NLP assumptions for language teachers to complement their belief system:

1. Mind and body are interdependent. Each impacts the other one.
2. The map is not the territory.
3. There is no failure.
4. The map becomes the territory. That is, what you consider to be true turns out to be true.
5. Be aware of what you want.
6. Our required resources are within us.
7. Communication is an amalgam of verbal and non-verbal behavior.
8. The unconscious mind is superior.
9. Communication in both conscious and unconscious.
10. There is a positive intention behind all behaviors.
11. The meaning of my communication is the response I receive.
12. Modeling excellent behavior leads to excellence.
13. Flexibility is a core component of the system.

NLP practitioners assume that on the condition language teachers adopt NLP techniques; their efficacy enhances (Antic, 2006). As a result of sundry teacher training workshops, Millroad (2004) reported that teachers' verbal

interactions can influence English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners' success or failure through establishing congruence by way of NLP strategies.

On the whole, to date, there is little empirical work into NLP scattered across different fields (Moore, 2009; Tosey & Mathison, 2010). Generally speaking, teachers and educators focus their teaching chiefly on content regardless of teaching students the ways to master their minds. Therefore, the dire need for critical evaluation and research is palpable in this context. Eventually, the current paper sets out to draw scholars' attention and add further creditability and persuasion to the concept of integrating NLP in language education by *revalidating* the NLP scale already developed by Pishghadam, Shayesteh, and Shapoori (2011).

### III. METHODOLOGY

*A. Participants*

Our community sample consisted of 154 English language teachers teaching at different private language institutes of Mashhad, Iran. They aged between 19 and 46 years old (Mean = 21.7) with a range of between 1 and 23 years of teaching experience (Mean = 8.6). Our teachers were 91 females and 63 males who were majored in the various branches of English like English teaching, English literature, and English translation. It is necessary to mention that within the educational setting of Iran, people educated in different branches of English, with an adequate level of knowledge and proficiency in English language, are allowed to teach English (Pishghadam, Baghaei, & Shayesteh). Therefore, holding EFL degree does not play a crucial role in recruiting teachers. The participants were selected based on their willingness to participate. Ethical approval was obtained prior to commencing the study and collecting data. Participants were initially informed that their identities would not be revealed and their responses would be kept confidential and used for the purpose of research only.

The rationale behind selecting language institutes and not public schools was the role of NLP in each setting. The educational policies within Iran's public schools are centralized. Decisions are made by the government and there exists less freedom on the part of the teachers to employ their materials and strategies including NLP techniques. In contrast, language institutes, adopt a de-centralized educational policy. That is, teachers have more freedom and flexibility in applying their own materials and skills. Moreover, relying on the fact that in public schools teachers are permanently employed, they do not have the fear of losing their jobs; hence, there remains no competition or interest for creating a more fruitful class (Pishghadam et al., 2012). On the contrary, institute teachers are temporarily employed. This indicates that on the condition they do not absorb more students to the institute; they will be replaced, shortly. Accordingly, teachers' enthusiasm rises alongside with their increased freedom and more efforts would be made to improve teacher-learner rapport by employing various approaches such as NLP techniques.

*B. Instrument*

The NLP scale utilized in this study for the purpose of revalidation was designed by Pishghadam, Shayesteh, and Shapoori (2011). The questionnaire comprises 38 items ranging from (5) "always" to (1) "never", requiring 20 minutes to complete. Factor analysis has been used to substantiate the construct validity of the scale, and its overall reliability has been r=.82. This scale includes 8 factors: flexibility, anchoring, elicitation, modeling, individual differences, leading, establishing a rapport and emotional and cognitive boosters. Negatively worded items (i.e., 24, 33, 34, 36, 37, and 38) were reverse scored so that a total positively-oriented score can be achieved.

*C. Procedure*

The data was entered into and processed with WINSTEPS software (Linacre, 2009). Rasch rating scale model (RSM) (Andrich, 1987) was employed for revalidation. Initially, fit indices were calculated to find out whether the data fulfill the logistic model assumptions. Thereafter, category functioning was examined to recognize if the 5-category rating scale was a proper choice. The purpose behind selecting RSM as the proper measurement tool was the potential merits of this relatively new theory over the classical test theory (CTT):

1. RSM rejects the concept of raw scores and provides person and item estimates that are placed on an interval scale.

2. RSM is item and person free; that is, it yields estimates for item difficulty and person abilities separately, yet on a common interval scale. On the contrary, CTT is test and sample dependent, it means the item difficulties depend on the samples general ability (Ferreira, Almeida, & Prieto, 2011). To be specific, focusing on individual items and persons rather than on group statistics, RSM predicts how persons with given underlying ability levels are expected to endorse each item (Conrad & Smith, 2004).

### IV. RESULTS

In order to substantiate the construct validity of the scale fit indices together with category statistics were studied through the lens of RSM (Andrich, 1987) as applied in the software program WINSTEPS (Linacre, 2009).

*A. Fit Indices*

The preliminary analysis of all the 38 items yielded an item separation index of 2.66 with an item reliability of 0.88 (see Table 1), and a person separation index of 2.23 (see Table 2) with a person reliability of 0.83.

TABLE 1:
SUMMARY OF 38 MEASURED ITEM

| | TOTAL SCORE | COUNT | MEASURE | MODEL ERROR | INFIT | | OUTFIT | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | MNSQ | ZSTD | MNSQ | ZSTD |
| MEAN | 552.1 | 154.0 | .00 | .07 | 1.06 | .0 | 1.07 | .2 |
| S.D. | 44.2 | .0 | .19 | .01 | .32 | 2.3 | .31 | 2.0 |
| MAX. | 631.0 | 154.0 | .36 | .08 | 2.11 | 5.3 | 2.05 | 5.1 |
| MIN. | 453.0 | 154.0 | -.40 | .05 | .54 | -5.0 | .56 | -4.2 |
| REAL RMSE .07 | | TRUE SD .17 | | SEPARATION 2.40 | | ITEM RELIABILITY .85 | | |
| MODEL RMSE .07 | | TRUE SD .18 | | SEPARATION 2.66 | | ITEM RELIABILITY .88 | | |
| S.E. OF ITEM MEAN= .03 | | | | | | | | |

The fourth column, "MEASURE", indicates item difficulty; that is, bigger values signify more difficult items. "MODEL ERROR", the third column, displays the standard error of the item difficulty estimates. In this table, item measures range from .36 (i.e., "I correct all the learners' errors") to -0.40 (i.e., "I show my interest in the topics presented by my students") logits. The root mean square error (RMSE) is 0.7 for items and is 0.14 for persons, suggesting an accurate measurement.

TABLE 2:
SUMMARY OF 154 MEASURED PERSON

| | TOTAL SCORE | COUNT | MEASURE | MODEL ERROR | INFIT | | OUTFIT | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | MNSQ | ZSTD | MNSQ | ZSTD |
| MEAN | 136.2 | 38.0 | .44 | .14 | 1.03 | -.1 | 1.07 | .1 |
| S.D. | 17.1 | .0 | .35 | .03 | .44 | 1.8 | .47 | 1.7 |
| MAX. | 179.0 | 38.0 | 1.99 | .31 | 2.19 | 3.6 | 2.55 | 3.4 |
| MIN. | 75.0 | 38.0 | -.35 | .10 | .21 | -4.9 | .21 | -4.6 |
| REAL RMSE .16 | | TRUE SD .31 | | SEPARATION 1.97 | | PERSON RELIABILITY .89 | | |
| MODEL RMSE .14 | | TRUE SD .32 | | SEPARATION 2.23 | | PERSON RELIABILITY .83 | | |
| S.E. OF PERSON MEAN= .03 | | | | | | | | |

Table 3 revealed that a couple of items did not fulfill the model expectations implying that they would possibly measure a construct that is far from the rest of the items or present a further dimension. Based on the table, items 5 and 9 widely misfit the model building upon the criteria set forth by Wright and Linacre (1994) for rating scale data (Infit MNSQ 0.6 to 1.4). In principle, misfit items holding infit MNSQ smaller than 0.6 indicate overfit or redundancy but do not impair the construct validity of the scale. Conversely, items with MNSQ estimates greater than 1.4 diverge from the measurement of the targeted construct and deteriorate the analysis (Linacre, 2005). Thus, in order to improve the model fit, items 5 and 9 were removed from the measurement relying on the fact that they might entail a distinct dimension and lead to multidimensionality.

TABLE 3:
ITEM STATISTICS AND FIT STATISTICS

| ENTRY NUMBER | MEASURE | MODEL S.E. | INFIT MNSQ | ITEM |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 34 | .36 | .05 | .76 | NLP 34 |
| 25 | .33 | .06 | .71 | NLP 25 |
| 35 | .27 | .06 | .71 | NLP 35 |
| 37 | .22 | .06 | .90 | NLP 37 |
| 36 | .21 | .06 | .70 | NLP 36 |
| 31 | .19 | .06 | .78 | NLP 31 |
| 3 | .19 | .06 | .76 | NLP 3 |
| 22 | .18 | .06 | .72 | NLP 22 |
| 10 | .18 | .06 | 1.06 | NLP 10 |
| 23 | .18 | .06 | .74 | NLP 23 |
| 33 | .16 | .06 | .76 | NLP 33 |
| 6 | .14 | .06 | .77 | NLP 6 |
| 15 | .14 | .06 | .72 | NLP 15 |
| 7 | .09 | .06 | 1.15 | NLP 7 |
| 8 | .03 | .06 | 1.39 | NLP 8 |
| 20 | .02 | .06 | .73 | NLP 20 |
| 21 | .00 | .07 | .81 | NLP 21 |
| 16 | .00 | .07 | 1.39 | NLP 16 |
| 11 | -.01 | .07 | 1.23 | NLP 11 |
| 32 | -.01 | .07 | .87 | NLP 32 |
| 17 | -.02 | .07 | 1.05 | NLP 17 |
| 19 | -.03 | .07 | .74 | NLP 19 |
| 30 | -.05 | .07 | 1.30 | NLP 30 |
| 13 | -.06 | .07 | .94 | NLP 13 |
| 4 | -.06 | .07 | 1.12 | NLP 4 |
| **9** | **-.07** | **.07** | **1.47** | **NLP 9** |
| 28 | -.07 | .07 | 1.30 | NLP 28 |
| 29 | -.07 | .07 | 1.23 | NLP 29 |
| 18 | -.13 | .07 | 1.27 | NLP 18 |
| 24 | -.15 | .07 | .72 | NLP 24 |
| 12 | -.16 | .07 | 1.29 | NLP 12 |
| 27 | -.19 | .07 | 1.14 | NLP 27 |
| 38 | -.20 | .07 | 1.22 | NLP 38 |
| 26 | -.24 | .08 | 1.16 | NLP 26 |
| **5** | **-.30** | **.08** | **2.11** | **NLP 5** |
| 14 | -.32 | .08 | 1.27 | NLP 14 |
| 2 | -.34 | .08 | 1.12 | NLP 2 |
| 1 | -.40 | .08 | .91 | NLP 1 |
| MEAN | .00 | .07 | 1.06 | |
| S.D. | .19 | .01 | .32 | |

The first misfitting item is *Item 5* ("when the learners do not understand something, I present it in a new way") with infit MNSQ of 2.11. The second misfitting item is *Item 9* ("to ensure learners' understanding and to remove the ambiguities I ask them some questions") with the fit MNSQ of 1.47. These items are indicators of multidimensionality and therefore must be removed from the scale.
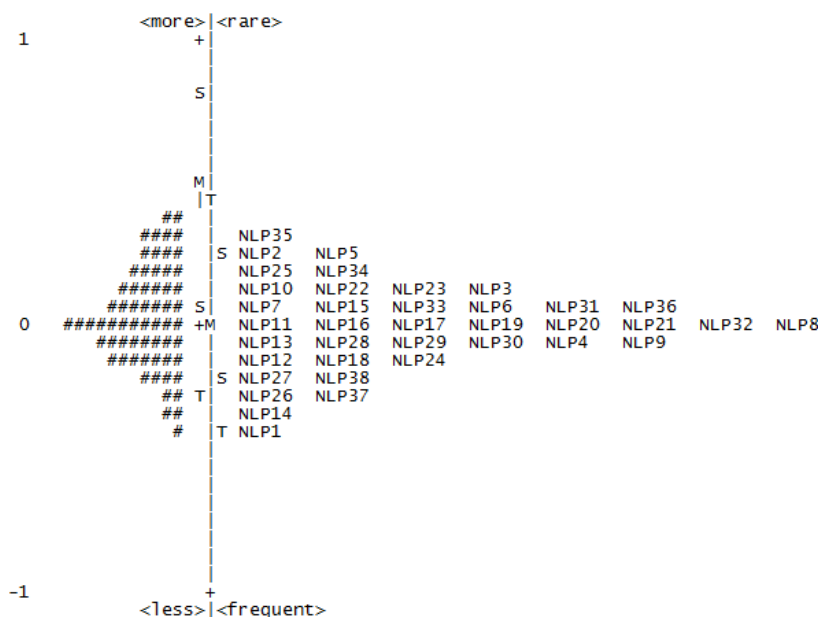
```
                 <more>|<rare>
      1             +
                    |
                   S|
                    |
                    |
                   M|
                    |T
              ##    |
              ####  |   NLP35
              ####  |S NLP2    NLP5
              ####  |  NLP25   NLP34
             ###### |  NLP10   NLP22   NLP23   NLP3
            ####### S|  NLP7    NLP15   NLP33   NLP6    NLP31   NLP36
      0  ##########  +M NLP11   NLP16   NLP17   NLP19   NLP20   NLP21   NLP32   NLP8
            ########|  NLP13   NLP28   NLP29   NLP30   NLP4    NLP9
             #######|  NLP12   NLP18   NLP24
              ####  |S NLP27   NLP38
              ##   T|  NLP26   NLP37
              ##    |  NLP14
              #     |T NLP1
                    |
                    |
                    |
                    |
                    |
                    |
     -1             +
                 <less>|<frequent>
```

Fig 1. Items-persons map

The items-persons map in Figure1 above illustrates that the construct represented by the items is well covered by the scale. As the figure suggests, items are spread all over the scale which implies that they cover a wide range of the NLP constructs. Moreover, the majority of the thresholds have clustered towards the center of the scale, which indicates that the scale is a precise measurement of the construct and well-targeted for the sample.

*B. Category Functioning*

As previously noted, our sample respondents displayed their degree of agreeability based on a 5-point Likert type scale. Relying on Table 4 Rating Scale Statistics, "CATEGORY LABEL" shows the label of each category (i.e., strongly disagree to strongly agree), and "OBSERVED COUNT" explicates the number of times each single category is rated. The "OBSERVED AVERAGE" advances alongside with category values. That is to say, as the participants' abilities increase, the probability of rating category 5 enhances accordingly. "Infit MNSQ" and "Outfit MNSQ" consider the average of infit and outfit mean-squares of the responses to each single category. Based on Table 4, fit indices are totally placed within the safe area (0.6 to 1.4).

TABLE 4:
RATING SCALE STATISTICS (12345)

| CATEGORY LABEL | OBSERVED COUNT | OBSEREVED AVERAGE | INFIT MNSQ | OUTFIT MNSQ | STRUCTURE CALIBRATION | CATEGORY MEASURE |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 311 | .24 | 1.05 | 1.31 | NONE | (-1.32) |
| 2 | 390 | .24 | .87 | .99 | .09 | -.43 |
| 3 | 1338 | .31 | .98 | .90 | -1.01 | .04 |
| 4 | 1634 | .45 | .87 | .32 | .00 | .76 |
| 5 | 2234 | .67 | .65 | .88 | .54 | (2.12) |

"STRUCTURE CALIBRATION" or Rasch-Andrich thresholds are regarded as the points at which either of the two adjacent categories may be equally rated (Linacre 2005). Since, the first category is not preceded by any other category; it has no estimate and is presented as "NONE". From this perspective, positive values suggest that the lower of the two adjacent categories is more probable to be rated; while, negative values indicate that the higher category is more likely to be observed. The empirical ordering of the categories which increase along the continuum is a fundamental prerequisite to Rasch measurement. The step calibration value for categories 2 (0.05), 3 (-1.18) and 4 (.00) broadly damage the measurement's monotonically increasing trend. As a matter of fact, step calibration disorder entails that either the category structure is too narrow to distinguish, or too many alternatives have been selected (Linacre, 1999). Moreover, the distance between the thresholds should not surpass 5 logits to prevent data loss owing to the absence of suitable categories, or fall below 1.4 logits to explain the distinctiveness of the categories (Linacre, 1999). Thus, it is deduced that our respondents were not capable of making a distinction between the steps and gestate the five levels of performance accurately; as a result, the 5-categories did not yield consistent outcomes.

To preserve the category chain and enhance fit to the model, a number of configurations encompassing three and four category scales were examined. Nonetheless, the 12223 pattern engendered the best indices. In consequence, the

adjacent categories 2, 3 and 4 were integrated into 2 and the 12345 category pattern (5-point scale) was shifted to 12223 (3-point scale) (Table 5).

TABLE 5:
RATING SCALE STATISTICS (12223)

| CATEGORY LABEL | OBSERVED COUNT | OBSEREVED AVERAGE | INFIT MNSQ | OUTFIT MNSQ | STRUCTURE CALIBRATION | CATEGORY MEASURE |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 675 | .19 | 1.25 | 1.14 | NONE | (-2.84) |
| 2 | 1438 | .41 | .89 | .90 | .67 | 1.3 |
| 3 | 2241 | .79 | .93 | .94 | .99 | (2.78) |

Table 5 reports that the overall rating scale statistics operate satisfactorily after collapsing categories. The observed average and structure calibration statistically advance along with category values. Moreover, the threshold estimates in addition to mean square fit indices are located within the acceptable range of 1.4 to 5 and 0.6 to 1.4, respectively.

V. DISCUSSION

Paying greater attention to providing better inner and external learning environments and using sensory rich language may cause students to learn more effectively and teachers to teach more easily. By recognizing better learning strategies using NLP techniques, teachers are able to open up their students' minds to greater possibilities and more opportunities in life. To meet this end, the current study intends to revalidate the NLP scale constructed and validated by Pishghadam, Shayesteh, and Shapoori (2011) with the purpose to measure the extent to which English language teachers employ NLP techniques in their classes. To revalidate the 38-item NLP scale, Rasch rating scale model (Andrich, 1987) was employed.

The results of the Rasch measurement indicated that except for items 5 and 9, the remaining items operated well within the model. To achieve satisfactory fit, it was necessary to remove the misfitting items. Item 5 is "*When the learners do not understand something, I present it in a new way*". Being flexible and esteeming students' individual differences are core components of NLP (Revell & Norman, 1997). However, the relevance of the item to the concept of NLP is ignored in the context of language learning in Iran. The likely justification may be that, due to the institutes' compact syllabuses and heavy teaching loads, teachers hardly find time to re-present the materials in a different way. As an extension to the issue, paying attention to individual differences is valued by the teachers (i.e., considering students' language abilities 'item 4', eye movement 'item 8' and opinions 'item 27'); yet, is not feasible and practical at times owing to some contextual barriers.

Item 9 is "*To ensure learners' understanding and to remove the ambiguities I ask them some questions*". As the item implies, our teachers probably adopt further strategies, apart from asking questions and elicitation, to assure their learners' full understanding. Indeed, teachers might notice the issue by directly observing students' non-verbal behaviors rather than the verbal ones (Pishghadam, Shayesteh, & Shapoori, 2011). This also supports Revell and Norman's (1997) assumption of emphasizing both verbal and non-verbal communication.

Based on the results gained from the category measurements, the 5-category structure (12345) which was selected in the first place, did not operate productively for the NLP scale. Subsequent to inspecting a number of configurations, 3-category structure (234) witnessed to be a better option. Consequently, for the purpose of sustaining distinctiveness, choices 1 (strongly disagree), and 5 (strongly agree) were removed and the rating pattern shifted to: 2 (disagree), 3 (undecided) and 4 (agree).

The analysis manifested the hierarchy of NLP strategies employed by our sample EFL teachers. The most difficult item was found to be item 34 "*I correct all the learners' errors*". In truth, the hardest item is practiced less in the classrooms. That is to say, teachers generally do not correct all learners' errors. From NLP perspective, there is a positive intention behind all behaviors (Revell & Norman, 1997; Zastrow et al., 1987). Therefore, students' mistakes and errors are viewed as integral parts of language learning classes (Brown, 2007). In this regard, teachers resist the tendency to correct every single error and create a positive climate which encourages learners to talk (Chastain, 1988). On the other hand, the easiest item was found to be item 1 "*I show my interest in the topics presented by my students*". The teachers broadly apply this NLP technique in their classes and regard students' viewpoints. Supporting Bandler and Grinder's (2005) idea of establishing a rapport, teachers attempt to maintain better attraction and involvement in the students by welcoming their proposed topics.

The value of this study resides in revalidating the NLP scale which can be a striking merit to researchers interested in studying NLP and language school managers in recruiting eligible teachers who are able to build effective rapport with their students. By employing NLP techniques and identifying their undeniable role in the educational domain, the teachers can cultivate their ultimate capabilities and emotionally attract more students to classroom environment (Pishghadam, Shayesteh, and Shapoori 2011).

On the whole, to buttress and promote the current instrument, it is suggested to replicate the study with a larger and more appropriate sample. Besides, further studies can be carried out employing this NLP scale to discover its likely correlation with distinct pedagogical and psychological variables. Another potential research can concentrate on ways to raise teachers' inclinations toward administering more NLP techniques in classroom area.

Last but not least, the researchers faced different limitations throughout this study. Due to restricted sampling, universal generalization of the outcome is slightly problematic; however, similar contexts and samples may better benefit from the implications. Moreover, the current NLP scale is a self-report. In truth, advertently or inadvertently participants may not submit accurate answers in order to look better or hide their actual self. Accordingly, potential bias threatens its validity (Baer, 1998). In the end, since our sample teachers were majored in different branches of English (i.e., English teaching, English literature and English translation) further research is recommended to investigate teachers' views majored in English teaching (TEFL) who have gone through the pertinent university courses and are more acquainted with the nature of educational psychology and NLP.

APPENDIX

*Neuro-linguistic Programming Questionnaire*
1. I show my interest to the topics presented by my students.
2. In answering the questions, I give hints to the students.
3. While teaching, I use some of the words or phrases used by the learners.
4. I help my students with less ability.
5. When the learners do not understand something, I present it in a new way.
6. I ask my students to pay attention to similarities and differences of the subjects.
7. I give my students the words needed for a conversation.
8. I pay attention to the language learners' eye movements.
9. To ensure learners' understanding and to remove the ambiguities, I ask them some questions.
10. I let the learners move freely in the classroom.
11. I give enough time to the language learners to write down notes and do class activities.
12. I try to create a positive feeling in my students toward language learning.
13. I create new challenges for my students.
14. When the language learners do not understand a subject matter, I write it down on the board.
15. If needed, I ask the language learners to speak clearly.
16. For holding a dialogue, I present the required grammar.
17. I prefer to call my students by their first name.
18. I welcome new and creative answers.
19. I make use of flash cards, CDs, posters, and other teaching aids.
20. I ask my students to pay attention to details.
21. I pay attention to individual differences.
22. I talk about myself and my own experiences in the classroom.
23. I ask my students of my teaching and speaking rate in the classroom.
24. I make use of only one teaching method.
25. I assign a special duty for every individual.
26. During the teaching process, I write down the new material on the board.
27. All my students' opinions are important to me.
28. I get my students' ideas of the topics presented in the class.
29. For better learning and understanding, I ask the learners to take notes.
30. I write down the new subject material on the board as a model.
31. I inform my students of their progress.
32. I give feedback to my students' correct and incorrect answers.
33. I run the class in a formal way.
34. I correct all the language learners' errors.
35. I ask successful language learners to talk about their personal ways of progress in the classroom.
36. I expect my students to adjust themselves to my teaching rate.
37. The learners can form groups freely.
38. I do not make use of encouragement for my students' progress.

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# The Textual Function of Discourse Markers under the Framework of Relevance Theory[*]

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*Abstract*—**Under the framework of relevance theory, this paper deals with the textual function of discourse markers (DMs). How do DMs make the text coherent? What are the principles behind it? Specifically this paper analyses DMs within the framework of Relevance Theory, including the motivation of DMs and their textual function. DMs function to influence utterance interpretation in a cognitive way in terms of the essentials of Relevance Theory and their employment is likely to provide the hearer with procedural guidelines for searching for optimal relevance, and consequently cast constraints upon his interpretation.**

*Index Terms*—**discourse markers, textual function, relevance**

## I. INTRODUCTION

Discourse markers (DMs) have long been the central concern in pragmatics, referring to those components in a discourse which express procedural meaning and help lead communicators to communicative intention. Scholars have given different names to this linguistic phenomenon such as discourse particles, discourse operators, discourse markers, pragmatic expressions, cue words and so on, among which DMs are most widely used. The current study prefers the term "discourse markers".

DMs have drawn attention from many researchers at home and abroad. Levinson (1983), Shiffrin (1987), Blakemore (1987, 1992, 2002), He Ziran and Ran Yongping (1999), Li Zuowen (2003), Li Jianxue (2004) and other scholars have made a detailed study on DMs.

Levinson (1983) first mentioned DMs as a subject of study in his book *pragmatics*, but there is even no exact name. He has pointed that many words and phrases in English serve to set up the relationship between an utterance and the prior discourse. Levinson only makes comments by some examples, but doesn't look into this phenomenon. Since then, DMs are studied in three main approaches: structural, cognitive and pragmatic approaches.

Schiffrin (1987) gives a detailed discussion on DMs in his book *Discourse Markers*. After explaining the functions and use of 11 English DMs: *oh*, *well*, *and*, *but*, *or*, *so*, *because*, *now*, *then*, *I mean*, and *you know*, Schiffrin proposes five distinct planes in discourse and argues that DMs function to construct discourse coherence from three aspects.

Blakemore (1987, 1992, 2002) applies Relevance Theory by Sperber and Wilson (1995), to DMs, and thinks DMs a guide for the hearer to achieve the intended interpretation. Then Blakemore (1992) holds that DMs help to make a discourse coherent in three ways: introducing a contextual implication; strengthening an assumption expressed, or introducing further evidence for it; denying, or contradicting an assumption. Fraser (1999) studies DMs from the perspective of syntax. In terms of pragmatic functions, DMs are classified into conjunctions, prepositional phrase and adverbial phrase.

The study of DMs is also concentrated on at home over the past decades. The research is done from a wide variety of perspectives. He Ziran and Ran Yongping (1999) make a study on DMs from the cognitive-pragmatic aspect. They argue that in the process of producing and interpreting utterance, DMs can help the hearer understand and interpret the utterance as the speaker expects in accordance with the specific communicative contexts; Li Zuowen (2003) discusses the textual funtion of DMs from the aspect of coherence theory; Li Jianxue (2004) mainly explores different functions of DMs by analyzing DMs in 54 inaugural addresses of presidents of the United States.

Although some scholars apply Relevance Theory to the DMs, they haven't given a systemic explanation to the contextual function of DMs. This paper tries to make a systemic exploration from cognitive perspective, focusing on the procedural guidelines played by DMs to explain how DMs help hearers understand speakers' intention, consequently achieve coherent function under contexts. By analyzing quite a lot of examples, the function of DMs in utterance production and interpretion is clearly demonstrated.

## II. RELEVANCE THEORY AND COHERENCE

### A. Relevance Theory

Relevance Theory is proposed by Sperber and Wilson (1986/1995). It argues that speech communication is an ostensive-inferential process and the speaker must guide the hearer to search for the speaker's intention in any given

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communication situation. According to Relevance Theory, an ostensive-inferential process can be understood from two perspectives. For the speaker, communication is a kind of ostension which lets the hearer know his informative intention. By ostensive stimulus the speaker wants to make manifest to the hearer a set of assumptions and make the information mutually manifest. For the hearer, he needs to make inference to gain the speaker's intention based on ostensive stimulus. Then combining his cognitive context and what the speaker produces, the hearer tries to get enough contextual effect and achieve optimal relevance. Hence, communication is the combination of two parts: ostension and inference.

The core of the theory is the communicative principle of relevance that "An assumption is relevant in a context if and only if it has some contextual effect in that context" (Sperber&Wilson, 1995). According to Sperber and Wilson (1995), contextual effect is contextual implication. The new contextual effect is yielded through the interaction between newly-presented information and contextual assumptions, through which the old context is constantly revised, supplemented and improved and then constitutes the foundation of the next-step communication and inference (Sperber&Wilson, 1995). In addition, relevance principle asserts that every utterance by the speaker is supposed to be relevant and worth processing by the hearer to achieve the intended meaning. In this case, every ostensive act of communication will lead the hearer to infer the speaker's intention as a clue. Relevance degree of he utterance by the speaker depends on contextual effect and processing effort from the positive and negative aspects. The balance between contextual effect produced by an utterance and the processing effort of the hearer to understand an utterance is the position communicators expected to reach, which is called optimal relevance.

According to optimal relevance, on the one hand, the hearer believes that the speaker will produce ostensive stimulus with enough relevance which is worth processing. The hearer has to make inference from the ostensive stimulus to gain the enough contextual effect. For example, if a person notices his friend's empty glass, he can make a conclusion that he might want a drink. If his friend tries to remind him of the empty glass by different ways, such as waving the glasss in front of him, making an action of drink from the empty glass and so on, he will get the stronger conclusion that his friend is thirsty and wants a drink. On the other hand, the speaker will produce utterances with the limits of his own capabilities and preferences. So the speaker will not always produce utterances maximally relevant to the hearer, because the speaker can not offer information beyond his knowing and produce utterance in a hearer-friendly manner without considering his preferences.

Another two concepts in Relevance Theory are explicature and implicature. The interpretation of an utterance needs not only recovery of explicatures but also implicatures. According to Sperber&Wilson (1986/1995), the explicatures of an utterance are those assumptions communicated by it that are a development of the logical form it encodes. In other words, explicatures are the assumptions recovered via a combination of decoding and inference. Assumptions can be more or less explicit: the greater the role of decoding in recovering an assumption, the more explicit it is (as cited in Iten, 1998). On the contrary, the implicatures of an utterance are completely inferred from all the propositions conveyed by an utterance and involve the contxtual assumptions the hearer will choose to achieve contextual effect. Sometimes speaker's utterance creates the contextual assumptions consistent with the hearer's assumptions so that the hearer can interpret the utterance quite easily. Thus the hearer may arrive at the specific interpretation of utterance intended by the speaker under the contextual assumptions. In this case, the speaker makes the implicatures of the utterance accessible to the hearer.

As Relevance Theory asserts, speech communication and understanding are concerned with seaching for relevance. The speaker will manage to make his utterances relevant to the hearer, for example, the use of DMs. the hearer supposes that the speaker's utterance is relevant and tries to interpret the utterance under contextual assumptions to achieve contextual effects with least effort.

*B.   Coherence Theory*

Coherence is one of the most important features of a discourse, which refers to the semantic connection within a discourse. The study of coherence began before the birth of modern linguistics. Since then, a great deal of study has been done around coherence which can be divided into three stages: early stage, fast development and deeply developed stage. Quite a lot of definitons about coherence are proposed by linguists among which Halliday&Hasan (1976) gives a convincing definition to coherence, i.e. a text is a passage of discourse which is coherent in these two regards: it is coherent with respect to the context of situation, and therefore consistent with register; and it is coherent with respect to itself, and therefore cohesive. Neither of these two conditions is sufficient without the other, nor does the one by necessary entail the other. It is agreed that the connections between utterances contribute to the coherence of a discourse. There are different relations among utterances of a discourse, such as elaboration, cause-and-effect, comparison and contrast and so on and so forth. Coherence of a discourse is achieved by cohesion. Coherernce is a concept in people's mind but cohesion is a linguistic device to make a discoure coherent.

*C.   Coherence and Relevance*

To some extent, the relation between coherence and relevance is interdependent. A coherent text indicates that the utterances in it must be relevant and a relevant text is also considered a coherent one. It can be illustrated by the example (1):
(1) A: What did Sue say, then?

B: Our train is leaving in thirty seconds.

This conversation can be interpretated in two ways. One is a coherent one. B's utterance answer the A's question directly. What sue said is "our train is leaving in thirty seconds". There is the other incoherent interpretation that B's utterance is not the answer to the A's question. And on the surface the two utterances lack coherence. But in daily life the second interpretation is also acceptable and can be consider a coherent text. The key is what context B wants the hearer to interpret his utterance in. In some sort of context the second interpretation is also taken as a coherent one. Whether a text is coherent or not lies in whether the hearer can undertand the speaker's utterance under the intended context. The hearer will understand the speaker's utterance guided by the principle of relevance. The hearer supposes that the utterance is relevant and interpret it in the intended context which comes to an optimally relevant interpretation.

According to Relevance Theory, the incoherent interpretation can also be considered optimally relevant. The coherent interpretation is clearly coherent in meaning with A's utterance; however, the incoherent interpretation is processed for relevance under the principle of relevance and B's utterance stimulates the contextual effect in hearer's cognition. B's reply seemingly has no relation with the A's question, but under B's intended context his reply can be interpreted that the train is leaving and let's discuss it later. If the hearer understands the B's utterance in the above context, the hearer will come to an optimally relevant interpretation under the principle of relevance. The first interpretation doesn't involve contextual assumptions. And second interpretation doesn't establish its contextual assumptions on the content of A's utterance, and there is no relation in meaning between the two utterances. This is the reason why the second interpretation is considered incoherent. In fact the coherence of a text is not determined by the relation in meaning but contextual effect yielded by the utterance in the hearer. In this case we can see that the second interpretation is also coherent, although it is interpreted different from the first interpretation without contextual assumptions. Coherence is a consequence of the hearer's search for optimal relevance.

Relevance Theory tries to explain the correlation between different portions in a discourse from cognitive perspective and reveal the mental mechanism in the process of understanding utterances. In this case, relevance gives a good explanation to coherence. That is to say, whether a text is coherent lies in whether the hearer can achieve the optimal relevance of an utterance.

## III.   DISCOURSE MARKERS

### A.   Definition of Discourse Markers

The study of DMs has already attracted attention from linguistic scholars in this field. And DMs have been widely explored from different perspectives. Regardless of wide study of DMs, there has not been an agreement on the name and definiton of this phenomenon. Ostman (1982) uses category to define DMs, he thinks DMs are pragmatic particles with prototypical, core members and peripheral members. Levison (1983) takes DMs as signals showing the relationship between an utterance and previous discourse. Stubbs (1983) regards DMs as elements setting up relationship between syntactic units and discourse context. Schiffrin (1987) defines DMs as sequentially dependent elements which bracket units of talk. It is quite difficult to decide which linguistic item belongs to the category of DMs. Take all above into consideration, we think DMs are those linguistic items signaling coherence relations, marking pauses, transitions, or other aspects of communication.

### B.   Discourse Markers Carrying Procedural Meaning

Blakemore, Diane (1987, 1990, 1997) asserts that linguistic meaning can provide two basic types of encoding meaning. The first type is conceptual meaning related to representation. The second is procedural meaning associated with computation. When the information encoded by an element contributes to the content of the utterance, the element expresses conceptual meaning which is related to the truth condition of the utteracne; when the encoding information of an element makes constraint on understanding the utterance or leads the way to intended meaning of the utterance, the element expresses procedual meaning.

Compared with conceptual meaning encoded by most words, procedural meaning can be encoded by DMs which do not affect the truth conditions of utterances but constrain the hearer's interpretation of utterances. By constraining the logical relation between utterances, DMs can guide the hearer to the intended meaning of the speaker by inferential process. The following examples show that DMs *so* and *after all* make the utterance interpreted quite differently.

(2) a. Tom can open Bill's safe.
    b. He knows the combination.

(Blakemore 2002:78)

This converstion can be interpreted in two ways according to the relation between the two utterances. Utterance (b) can be the conclusion inferred from (a) or the premise for utterance (a). The relation between the two utterances is cause-and-effect relation, and different interpretations lie in which is cause and which is effect. This ambiguity can be made clear by the use of DMs. They can be used to indicate the inferential procedure and guide the hearer to the intended interpretation. So and after all are used in the conversation to illustrate the two different interpretations as the following examples.

(3) Tom can open Bill's safe. So he knows the combination.
(4) Tom can open Bill's safe. After all, he knows the combination.

<div align="center">(Blakemore 2002:79)</div>

The different DMs in the two utterances don't add semantic information to the proposition but constrain the procedural relation between two segments and help the hearer reach intended information. Specifically, *so* indicates that the relation between the two segments is implication. We can infer that Tom knows the combination from his being able to open Bill's safe. On the contrary, *after all* indicates the relation between the two segments is the relation of premise and conclusion. Tom knowing the combination is a premise to his being able to open Bill's safe. Thus, DMs here expresses "procedural meaning" instead of "conceptual meaning".

DMs are the typical liguistic form expressing procedual meaning which is not a component of utterances. The use of DMs is to make sure that the hearer can interpret utterances correctly with least processing effort by playing a procedural role.

<div align="center">IV.   RELEVANCE THEORETICAL ACCOUNT OF THE TEXTUAL FUNCTION OF DISCOURSE MARKERS</div>

The textual function of DMs here refers to their helping to make a discoure coherent. According to Relevance Theory, discourse coherence is a process of the hearer's search for optimal relevance. However, DMs can help the hearer's achieving optimum contextual effect at the cost of least processing effort by constraining the hearer's interpretation of utterances, ultimately help the hearer achieve optimal relevance and make the discourse a coherent whole. This is the cognitive explanation to the textual function of DMs.

*A.   The Textual Function of Discourse Markers*

Halliday (1985) asserts that textual function is concerned with the textual resources the speaker has for creating coherence. Discourse coherence is related to communicators' mental activities and interaction between communicators and the context of situation. A very general characteristic of many DMs is to build up the connection of communicated ideas with a context. And the textual function of DMs is to contribute to coherence in a discourse. Schiffrin (1987) holds that the textual properties of DMs refer to the relation between sequentially arranged segments in discourse between one proposition and the next proposition, between one utterance and the following utterance, between speakers' turns, between discourse topics, etc. DMs function to connect not only adjacent utterances but also utterances and context. DMs with textual functions, such as *and, therefore and moreover* can show clearly how the speaker conveys the relation between propositions expressed by utterances.

e.g. (5) Stella: *And* try to understand her *and* be nice to her, Stan *and* admire her dress *and* tell her she's looking wonderful.

<div align="center">(the example from *A Streetcar Named Desire*)</div>

Repetition of *and* in the example reminds the hearer that the information is not finished and the following is relevant, *and* indicates the continuation of information.

(6) This means that it can utilize indirect sunlight, for example on cloudy or rainy days, and even, indoor light. *Moreover*, it can release electrical energy anytime, even in the dark.

*Moreover* indicates the proceeding utterances are extending the previous parts in meaning.

(7) I've never been to China and *therefore* I don't know much about it.

*Therefore* shows that the proceeding segment is enhancing the previous segment. The logic relation between two segments is the relation of cause and effect.

Textuality is closely related to DMs. Schiffrin (1987) gives a definition to DMs as "sequentially dependent elements which bracket units of talk", which marks that DMs serve as "discourse glue" providing coherence.

In addition, DMs *and* mainly contribute to construct textual meaning of a discoure, put linguistic units in paralleling position at different level as the following example.

e.g. (8) Stanley: *And* what have we here? The treasure chest of a pirate! *And* diamonds! A crown for an empress!

(the example from *A Streetcar Named Desire*)

In the following examples, *well* shows its feature of interrelation. On the one hand, it helps to construct a discourse on the textual level; on the other hand, *well* makes the relationship between the speaker and the hearer clear. The two functions may appear simultaneously, but its function is decided by certain text. However, one function always overwhelms the other in specific context.

e.g. (9) Blanche: …Do you all like parrot stories? *Well*, this one's about the old maid and the parrot.

(10) Stanley: You hens cut out that conversation in there!

　　　Stella: You can't hear us.

　　　Stanley: *Well*, you can hear me and I said to hush up!

<div align="center">(the example from *A Streetcar Named Desire*)</div>

In the example (9), *well* makes the text more coherence, while the example (10) indicates the close relationship between two participants.

Some DMs which carry procedual meaning, does not affect the truth condition of the utterance, but mainly contribute to interactional meaning as the following example.

(11) *I suppose*, you are not going o cinema....

By and large, DMs have various functions, but its main function is to construct textual coherence. DMs' signaling coherence can be realized on two levels: local coherence and global coherence.

1.  Discourse Markers' Signaling Local Coherence

According to Schiffrin (1987), DMs refer to 'sequentially dependent elements which bracket units of talk' that signal relationships between immediately adjacent 'units of talk' and which thus have a coherence building function at a local level (Lenk, U., 1998). Local coherence refers to the semantic relevance between the adjacent utterances in a discourse or the adjacent utterances in a turn of talk. The Use of DMs can make the relationship between adjacent utterances much clearer and eliminate misunderstanding. DMs constrain the choice of possible logico-semantic relations between information expressed in utterances. Specifically, the relation between utterances can be interpreted in different ways, especially for different hearers, thus DMs can constrain the hearer's choice from many possible realtions between utterances and lead the hearer to the intended one. For example:

(12) The student was late for the lecture. [ ] he missed his train.

The slot in the example can be filled with "for" indicating causality, "and" indicating coordination. Clearly there exist several possible semantic relations between the two utterances. The hearer is likely to misunderstand the information conveyed by the speaker without ostensive marks. However, with the help of DMs, the hearer is guided to choose one certain relation suitable for the context, achieving the intended information of the speaker. The use of DMs connects the two utterances tightly and makes the discourse coherent. DMs signal local coherence from the following respects:

Firstly, DMs enhance the coherent relation between discourse units. Some relation between utterances in a discourse may be recognized easily, but sometimes the realation is not so clear, in order to help the hearer achieve enough contuxtual effect or some communicative purpose, the speaker adds DMs to the discourse deliberately. For example:

(13) James came to school. He attended class.

(14) James came to school. *Then*, he attended class.

The example (13) is interpreted sequentially as James coming to school followed by his attending class, but then in (14) enhances the sequential relation between the two utterances which avoids the possibility of ambiguity.

Secondly, DMs are also used to make a further explanation to the previous parts. Sometimes it is necessary to use DMs to explain what the speaker wants to express. According to Relevance Theory, communication is a dynamic process. When making utterances, the speaker usually will have an evalution on the hearer's comprehension ability so that he can make utterances which will be easily understood by the hearer. When the speaker considers that the hearer has difficulty to interpret the communicative intention, he may give some explanation, or offer some background of utterances for the hearer. DMs is one of effective way to introduce the explanation and guide the hearer to explore further, consequently help the hearer achieve the communicative intention expected by the speaker. In this case, the discourse marker serves to construct the local coherence.

(15) There are three meta-functions in Halliday's systemic functional grammar, that is, ideational function, interpersonal funciton and textual funciton.

(16) We must finish the assignment on time, *in other words*, we need to finish doing the investigation this Friday.

Both *that is* and *in other words* in above examples introduce explanatory language in the following part. They serve to mark that the following part is relevant and can help you interpret the previous part as an explanation, consequentially, guide the hearer to the intended meaning of the utterances.

Thirdly, DMs indicate the coordination relationship between adjacent utterances which is widely used to show intra-sentential relationships. Such DMs include and, or, meanwhile, at the same time, etc. for example:

(17) John was doing homework *meanwihle* Peter was playing computer games.

The two utterances connected by *meanwhile* are in equally important position and happen at the same time. Here *meanwhile* indicates coordination relationship.

2.  Discourse Markers' Signaling Global Coherence

Global coherence, in contrast with local coherence, refers to the relations between non-contiguous utterances. The widely-discussed case of non-contiguity is what is called "digression" (Wilson, 1998; Lenk, 1998). Global coherence, in this case, exists between the parts of discourse before and after the digression. Wilson (1998) asserts that DMs used between the parts of discourse before and after the digression can enhance coherence between the whole discourse and the portion or between two portions. DMs' signaling global coherence can be divided into following cases.

Firstly, DMs introduce external information to justify the content of discourse. The speaker usually uses DMs to look for authentic information so as to enhance the reliablity of discourse. As evidential signal, DMs make the hearer believe what the speaker says is right and achieve the speaker's communicative intention.

(18) The Bible tells us, "we need to have a 'new heart'or, in modern terms, a heart transplant".

(19) As the old saying goes, "No pains, no gains".

(20) According to Dr Nick Middleton, a geographer at Oxford University, if the damage carries on, the impact on all living creatures is likely to be profound.

By connecting the present utterance with the authentic statement, the speaker tries to make his communicative intention interpreted correctly by the hearer.

Secondly, one function of DMs is introducing a topic. Some DMs such as first of all, first and for most, to begin with, to start with, once upon a time and so on and so forth are usually used at the beginning of a discourse marking the start of a topic.

(21) *First of all*, I would like to introduce myself.

(22) *To begin with*, we extend our welcome to your coming.

In the above examples, the DMs function to build up the connection between the situational context and the proceeding discourse. Clearly the context is conerned with a speaker's beginning his speech by DMs. In this way the discourse is considered a coherent one.

Thirdly, DMs are endophoric markers which are used to refer back to some portion of the Discourse and build up the connection the utterance in which DMs are and the other part in a discourse. In systemic function grammar, endophor is a kind of way to make a discourse coherent. Here DMs function to make a discourse globally coherent.

(23) In these circumstances, it is not surprising to find that population loss from inner areas has been running at a lower rate in the 1980s and that the government's efforts at introducing more private investment have met with some measure of success. *As mentioned in the previous section*, there are sound reasons by the slowndown in big-city population decline.

The discourse marker in the example (23) refers back to the content of previous section, so building up the connection between the following utterances and the previous section, consequently making the discourse coherent.

Fourthly, DMs can be used to end a topic. *finally, at last, in conclusion, in short, to sum up, to conclude* mark the end of the utterance. DMs serve to make a conclusion to the previous part and make the discourse come to the end smoothly. For example:

(24) *In closing*, we would like to propose a few novel and intriguing application areas that in our opinion deserve further investigation by the research community.

(25) *In short*, we need a public policy that values universal-care coverage.

DMs help the hearer be aware of the coming of the end, so that the hearer can interpret the following part as the speaker expects. In this case the two parts connected by DMs are relevant and the communication is successful.

Fifthly, DMs are used as structual clues such as *to begin with, next, finally; above all, in adiiton, then; in the first place, in the second place, moreover*. They function to construct the discourse, make the ideas conveyed by the discourse spread to the hearer step by step. For the whole, the discourse is a coherent one in logic. At the same time, it is easy for the hearer to interpret the communicative intention expected.

*B. Discourse Markers and Utterance Production*

Human communication is guided by a general principle, that is, both the speaker and the hearer take responsibility to contribute to the success of communication. Specifically, the speaker will be likely to produce the utterances with the optimal relevance so that his audience can achieve the optimal contextual effect at the cost of minimum processing effort. For the hearer's part, the speaker is supposed to produce the utterance relevant to the hearer's cognitive context.

DMs function to adapt utterance-producing to the right point which is optimally relevant to the hearer. in speech communication, as far as the speaker is concerned, communication is a kind of choice. That is, before utterance-producing, the speaker has to choose the way to convey his information which is most suitable to the hearer's interpretation. In this case the speaker will first evaluate the hearer's cognitive ability and textual resourses so that he can decide how exciplit the information is conveyed. If the speaker thinks that the hearer lacks enough contextual resources and cognitive ability, he will choose more explicit way to convery his information so that the hearer can save processing effort to obtain the intended information of the speaker. Otherwise, the speaker will produce utterances with more implicit information suitable for the hearer's understanding. In addition, considering economic principle of language, too much information is also a burden for the hearer with strong cognitive ability and rich contextual resources. Thus the speaker's producing utterance is involved in evaluation of the hearer's environment. One of explicit way to convey information is to use DMs which can help the hearer gain the speaker's informative and communicative intention. The following is the example about KFC respectively to different kinds of audience.

(26) a. Benjamin went to KFC. The fried chicken looked good and he ordered it.

  b. Benjamin went to a place where fast food is provided. It is called KFC. There he saw fried chicken which is floured and pan-fried.

To those addressees who are familiar with the KFC, the brief introduction in (26a) is a better choice whereas to those who know little about KFC, (26b) is the preference of the speaker. Conversely, if talking (26a) to those who do not know what KFC is, then it can be anticipated that the addressees will fail to understand the utterance. For the same reason, if speaking (26b) to those who know KFC very well, then processing the surplus and unnecessary information will also become a burden to the addressees and waste their cognitive resources and processing effort.

As previous parts mention, in order to make communication successful, the speaker usually evaluates the hearer's cognitive ability, contextual resources, etc., before the speaker produces an utterance. According to the evaluation towards the situation of the hearer, the speaker will choose a suitable way to express his information. As for the hearer lacking enough cognitive ability, the speaker will take measures to constrain the hearer's interpretation towards the intended information among which DMs are widely used measure. DMs can not only help the hearer save processing effort but also make utterance optimally relevant.

Generally speaking, there may exist many kinds of relationship between two utterances. DMs function as signaling their relation clearly. For example:

(27) A: I disliked the person we met yesterday.

   B: He's our new manager.

(28) A: I disliked the person we met yesterday.

   B1: *Anyway*, he's our new manager.

   B2: *After all*, he's our new manager.

Since there are no any connectives between the two utterances in (27), the conversation can be interpreted differently in different contexts. It may express the persuading, warning, etc., in this case, the hearer can not gain the speaker's intended information which consequently causes the failure of communication. In example (28), DMs are used to build up a connection between two utterances. *Anyway* helps to constrain the hearer's inference towards the communicative intention, indicating that we can't change the fact that he is the new manager although you hate the person. *After all* implies the meaning of persuading others to show kindness to the person because he is the new manager.

DMs mainly function to constrain the hearer's inference and eliminate the ambiguity of utterances. For example:

(29) James likes to please Mary.

(30) He is Mary's favorite.

The relationship between these two utterances is unclear. Either of them can be the premise or conclusion of the other, so the hearer may find it difficult to interpret the speaker's communicative intention. When the hearer has problem in recovering the speaker's communicative intention, the speaker has responsibility to help the hearer by some extra means, say, DMs. If the speaker puts *so* or *after all* before the utterance (30), their relationship will become clear.

(31) a. James likes to amuse Mary.         (conclusion)

   b. *After all*, he is Mary's lover.         (premise)

(32) a. James likes to amuse Mary.         (premise)

   b. *So* he is Mary's lover.         (conclusion)

with the help of DMs, the hearer can choose the speaker's intended contextual assumptions and achieve adequate contextual effect at the cost of least processing effort. As for utterance (31), *after all* guides the hearer towards the contextual assumption expected by the speaker:

(31') If X is someone's lover then X likes to amuse this person.

A different discourse marker in utterance (32) implicates different contextual assumption:

(32') If X likes to amuse a person then X may become this person's lover.

*After all* and *so* constrain the interpretation of utterances from different degrees. *Likewise, you know* can also be put in front of utterances signaling the premise.

(33) Mary was coming.

   *After all*, James had not noticed her.

(34) Mary was coming.

   *You know*, James has not noticed her.

*After all* and *you know* introduce different propositional meaning. From the different tense in the following parts, we can get to conclusion that new information is introduced by *after all* while old information is introduced by *you know*. This is the different functions of these two DMs that constrain the production of utterances.

All above DMs, playing a procedural role, are used to constrain the inferential phase of comprehension. They draw the hearer's attention to the special relationship between utterances and guide the hearer to search for optimal relevance, that is, functioning as semantic constraints on relevance (Blakemore, 1987, 1992). So the use of DMs is an effective way for the speaker to produce a proper utterance.

*C.   Discourse Markers and Utterance Interpretation*

As far as the hearer is concerned, communication is a process to pursue optimal relevance. That is, his assumption towards the utterance produced by the speaker is supposed to achieve enough contextual effect. According to Relevance Theory, both the speaker and the hearer are supposed to make effort for a successful communication. After evaluting the hearer's textual resources, cognitive ability and processing ability the speaker has reasons to believe that the hearer will interpret utterances correctly with intended contextual information. As for the hearer, he also believes that the speaker will produce utterances with relevance so that he can use the provided contextual assumptions to infer the speaker's communicative intention. In most cases, the speaker has reasons to believe that the hearer can gain correct contextual assumptions to interpret the communicative intention appropriately. However, sometimes communication may end up with failure. For example, when a teacher entered the classroom, he said it was cold today. The utterance he provided can be intrepreted differently on different assumptions. The hearer may not interpret the intended information with ease. It may be a statement about weather, or it carries illocutionary meaning: would someone near the window mind closing the window. One reason for the failure of communication is that the speaker fails to provide relevant information for the hearer. The other reason is that different hearers with different cognitve environments and processing ability may get quite different inference about the informative intention and communicative intention of the same utterance.

DMs can help the hearer acheive communicative intention intended by the speaker. Since communication is a dynamic process in which the speaker and hearer's contextual resources are changing constantly with the progression of communication. In the process of communication, the speaker will constantly change their way of information-conveying in order to assist the hearer with achieving communicative intention intended by the speaker. Once it is found that the hearer has difficulties to produce the intended contextual assumptions, the speaker may resort to DMs or other methods to constrain the range of hearer's choosing contextual assumptions, consequently help the hearer gain correct contextual assumptions to interpret the communicative intention appropriately.

In following examples DMs are used to constrain the hearer's selection of context in order to make sure that the hearer can gain enough contextual effects and intended information of the speakers.

(35) A: Bejamin is not coming to school today.

    B: James is at home.

    B1: *After all*, James is at home.

    B2: *So* James is at home.

    B3: *You see*, James is at home.

    B4: *However*, James is at home.

    B5: *Anyway*, James is at home.

Without any ostensive mark, it is difficult to interpret correctly the relationship between (35A) and (35B). However, with different DMs put in-between, the logico-semantic relationship between (35B1-35B5) and (35A) becomes clear.

There is another example proving the functions of DMs:

(36a) A: Peter can find his own way home.

    B: *So*, he is not stupid.

(36b) A: Peter can find his own way home.

    B: *After all*, he is not stupid.

*So* and *after all* in the above examples do not affect the truth conditions of the utterances in which they occur but make the relation between utterances clear. The DMs in (36a) and (36b) indicate procedural meaning about what role the propositions of their following utterances will play in the inference process. Thus, *so* in (36a) indicates that the propostion of B's utterance serves as a conclusion and the one of A's utterance functions as the premise of B's utterance. While *after all* in (36b) introduces the information that the proposition of B's utterance is a premise for understanding the propostion of A's utterance. Here the use of *so* and *after all* constrains the hearer's contuxtual assumptions and help the hearer acheive contextual effect, finally guide the hearer towards the intended interpretation. The inferential processes involved in (36a) and (36b) are showed in (36a) and (36b) respectively.

(37a) If someone can find his own way home, then he must not be stupid. (major premise)

    Benjamin can find his own way home. (minor premise)

    Benjamin's not stupid. (conclusion)

(37b) If someone's not stupid, he can find his own way home. (major premise)

    Benjamin's not stupid. (minor premise)

    Benjamin can find his own way home. (conclusion)

With the constraints of *so* and *after all*, there are different major premises in interpretation. The major premise in (37a) implies that not being stupid is the necessary condition for finding his own way home, while the one in (37b), the sufficient condition for finding his own way home. So it is clear that the use of DMs makes the hearer interpret the utterance at the cost of minimum processing effort and obtain the speaker's communicative intention, making the discourse a coherent whole.

To sum up, DMs play a very important role in both utterance production and interpretation. They not only help the speaker organize information, produce clear utterances but also help the hearer to infer correctly the implicatures of the discourse, consequently guide the hearer towards optimal relevance and maintain the discourse coherence.

## V. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the adoption of DMs in speech communication can ease the hearer's search for optimal relevance of utterances and add discourse coherence. From the viewpoint of the speaker, they can be used to help the speaker organize information, prompt communicative situation. Analyzed from the hearer, the textual function of DMs in conversation is to constrain the hearer's interpretation of utterances in order to cost the least processing effort for the hearer to achieve optimal relevance, which entitles the hearer to go ahead and recover the proposition which yields adequate contextual effects in the smallest and most accessible context. Thus DMs help the hearer search for optimal relevance and make the discourse a coherent whole.

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# A Critical Discourse Analysis of *The Los Angeles Times* and *Tehran Times* on the Representation of Iran's Nuclear Program

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*Abstract*—**This study aims to investigate how ideological differences manifest themselves in the discourse of *The Los Angeles Times* and *Tehran Times* dealing with Iran's nuclear program to have a wake-up call about the power of language in changing one's view about the events. After the critical analyses of six news reports based on van Dijk's (2000) framework, it was found that the two newspapers represent the same issues differently, according to their different ideologies by using two macro-strategies of *positive self-presentation* and *negative other-presentation* which are realized by other discursive strategies such as: lexicalization, presupposition, consensus, hyperbole, illegality and disclaimer. Some implications of the findings are suggested.**

*Index Terms*—**newspapers, critical discourse analysis, Iran's nuclear program, ideology**

## I. INTRODUCTION

News discourses play a crucial role in changing and even shaping people's points of view and opinions about the events, the people and the world around them. In newspapers, the events are not usually (re)presented as they are in reality, but are represented in a way that the newspapers intend them to be (Reah, 2002). The events, therefore, are not mirrored but they go through journalistic practices which involve linguistic recontextualization in language. Through this, one single reality may be represented differently in different newspapers with different attitudes and *ideologies*. In other words, the words are played with and different linguistic devices are used to influence the readers' view of the events. Fowler (1991) states that "news is not just a value-free reflection of facts. Anything that is said or written about the world is articulated from a particular ideological position" (p. 101).

On account of the ideological loading and meaning-making function of news, it should come as no surprise that many scholars have investigated news discourse within different socially committed frameworks. In their book Manufacturing Consent: The Political Economy of the Mass Media (1988), Herman and Chomsky introduced the Propaganda Model which "is concerned with exploring the relationship between ideology, communicative power and social class interests" and "offers an institutional critique of mass media behavior" (Klaehn and Mullen, 2010, p.217). Herman and Chomsky state that one of the major functions of media is their propaganda function. By propaganda, it is meant that "most of the news content is oriented toward social reproduction, i.e., the continuation of the capitalist class system, especially in its neoliberal form. This means that information is usually framed within the parameters of elite interests and certain topics and ideas tend to be excluded" (Pedro 2011, p.1865). In this model, five factors (the ownership, advertising, information sourcing, flak, and anti-communism) are introduced as filters through which information must pass in order to be considered *news*. Herman (1996) states that:

the dominant media are firmly imbedded in the market system. They are profit-seeking businesses, owned by very wealthy people (or other companies); they are funded largely by advertisers who are also profit-seeking entities, and who want their ads to appear in a supportive selling environment. The media are also dependent on government and major business firms as information sources, and both efficiency and political considerations, and frequently overlapping interests, cause a certain degree of solidarity to prevail among the government, major media, and other corporate businesses. (p.1)

There are many other theories about news representation such as Bennett's (1990) indexing theory which is concerned with how journalists index the voices in the news coverage and how political viewpoints which are against the policies of the government are likely to be ignored or marginalized in the mass media. Framing theory also refers to the fact that issues and events presented to the people are framed by the media and people's understanding of the events is dependent on this framing (Semetko and Valkenburg, 2000). According to Entman (1993), to frame means "to select some aspect of a perceived reality to make them more salient, thus promoting a particular problem definition, casual interpretation, moral evaluation, and/or treatment recommendation" (p. 52). Likewise, Shoemaker and Reese's (1996) the Hierarchy of Influences focuses on five layers of factors which influence the content and the process of news

production: the individual journalists' background and personal and political beliefs, journalism daily work routines, the organizational imperatives, influences from the outside of media organization: "sources, advertisers, the political power of government, market structures, and technology", and ideology which is believed to shape and be shaped by news content (Hackett, 2006. p.4).

Mass media in general and newspapers in particular have also received the attention of many critical discourse analysis (CDA) practitioners to resist the power of newspapers in manipulating and influencing people's ideas in a way that is in favor of the elite of the society. CDA is concerned with discourse in forming and being formed by social political practices (Fairclough, 2001) and aims to raise the readers' consciousness of the power of language in changing the events and influencing the readers' views.

In the same vein, the present study uses a CDA framework to elucidate how Iran's nuclear program, as one of the major issues of great significance in the ongoing tensions between the U.S. and Iran and the one which among other events has received more media attention in Iran and America, is represented in *The Los Angeles Times* and *Tehran Times* focus. Thus, the main research question in this study is:

*How ideological differences manifest themselves in the discourse of The Los Angeles Times and Tehran Times dealing with Iran's nuclear issues?*

The article first gives a short background of Iran's nuclear program. Then, the framework and the data collection procedures used in this study are provided. Next, the CDA analysis section will bring examples of the major discursive strategies detected in the news reports on Iran's nuclear program based on Van Djik's (2000) model. Finally, some general conclusions and implications based on the results of the study will be discussed.

## II. IRAN'S NUCLEAR PROGRAM: A BACKGROUND

Before Iran's Islamic Revolution in 1979, the United States supplied Tehran with a nuclear research reactor and a nuclear cooperation agreement between the two countries were completed in the late 1970s. However, after the revolution, the relations between the two countries degenerated and the cooperation agreement between the two countries was never signed. During the Iraq-Iran war (1980-1988) Iran's search reactors were bombarded several times. After the war, Iran turned to Russia as a supplier that could complete its nuclear power plant in Bushehr.

In 2002, the existence of two nuclear power plants in Arak and Natanz was revealed and this was the beginning of the ongoing tension between the IAEA, Iran, the European trio, namely Germany, France, and Great Britain, and the United States. Iran insisted that these two plants were for peaceful purposes only, but the U.S. and the West claimed that they were two sites for nuclear weapon program. Since then, Iran has invited the IAEA specialists to visit its nuclear sites and there have been a number of negotiations between Iran and the Western sides of the conflict. Although no evidence has been found for producing nuclear weapons, Iran has faced many economic sanctions and military boycotts. In 2006, the stand-off between Iran and the West extraordinarily increased after the ex-President of Iran made some confrontational remarks against Israel and the West while the country re-opened its nuclear enrichment facilities. In 2010, the U.S. threatened to attack Iran when Iran announced that it planned to build 10 research reactors for medical purposes (World Nuclear Association, 2010).

This tension has continued until now and has attracted world attention. Hence, a number of studies using a CDA framework have recently focused on Iran's nuclear program (e.g. Izadi and Saghaye-Biria, 2007; Atai and Adriani, 2009; Rasti and Sharagard, 2012). To the best of our knowledge, this study is among the few studies which analyzed the discourse of the two sides of the debate. Most of the studies done on Iran's nuclear program have taken a conservative position and have focused only on the discourse of American newspapers. Therefore, this study aimed to investigate the discourse of both sides of the debate on the representation of Iran's nuclear program. Thus, it can bridge the gap in the literature.

## III. METHODOLOGY

### A. Sources of Data

The sources of data for this study were two newspapers: *The Los Angeles Times* and *Tehran Times*. The reports which were written on Iran's nuclear program were collected from the websites of these newspapers. The main reason for the selection of these newspapers is that these newspapers belong to the countries that are the two main opposing sides of Iran's nuclear program. Another reason is that *The Los Angeles Times* is one of the top American newspapers which has not been attended to in previous studies done on American newspapers and Iran's nuclear program. *Tehran Times* is also one of the Iranian newspapers in English which is published in Iran and other countries. Moreover, these newspapers can be easily accessed in their websites.

### B. Procedures

In order to have a better comparison of how an event may be presented differently by the two newspapers with different perspectives, the following stages for data collection and sampling were adopted.

A period of 37 days, from May 15 to June 21 in 2010, was selected to collect news reports relating to Iran's nuclear issues from *The Los Angeles Times* and *Tehran Times* websites. This period of time was selected since two important

events occurred during this period: one is the signing of a deal by Iran, Turkey, and Brazil on May 17 and the other is the fourth round of sanctions endorsed against Iran by the UN on June 9. During this period, 40 news reports from The *Los Angeles Times*, and 90 news reports from *Tehran Times* were collected. All these news reports dealt with issues relating to Iran's nuclear program .Then, out of these collected news reports, the researchers decided to find subjects relating to Iran's nuclear program, about which both of the newspapers published some news reports. In order to find these shared subjects, all the headlines of the collected data were carefully studied. Having done this, the researchers found three shared subjects between the two newspapers in the data and the size of the data was reduced to 14 news reports. These three subjects along with the number of the news reports that *The Los Angeles Times* and *Tehran Times* published for each of these subjects are presented in Table 1.

TABLE I.
THE SHARED SUBJECTS PUBLISHED IN THE TWO NEWSPAPERS AND THEIR FREQUENCY OF THE NEWS REPORTS FOR EACH SUBJECT

| | Shared Subjects | *Tehran Times* | *Los Angeles Times* |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | The sign of a deal by Iran, Turkey, and Brazil on May 17, 2010 | 4 | 2 |
| 2 | The reaction of Russia after a speech by Iran's president on May 26, 2010 | 1 | 1 |
| 3 | The fourth round of sanctions against Iran on June 9,2010 | 2 | 4 |
| Total | | 7 | 7 |
| | | 14 | |

At the end, for each of these three subjects one report per newspaper was randomly selected. As a result, three pairs of news reports with the same subjects were obtained. After taking these procedures for sampling the data, the three pairs of news reports were comparatively analyzed according to van Dijk's (2000) framework to see how Iran's nuclear issues are presented in the two newspapers.

*C. Methodological Framework*

In this research van Dijk's (2000) framework is opted for as the basis of the analyses. This framework is based on an *ideological square* which presents a general and practical strategy of ideological analysis, and thus can be applied to the analysis of ideological discourse at all levels of discourse. This ideological square has these four principles: "Emphasize positive things about US. Emphasize negative things about Them. De-emphasize negative things about Us. De-emphasize positive things about Them" (van Dijk, 2000, p.44).

The semantic macro-strategies of *positive self-presentation* employed either for individual face keeping or for collective purposes by focusing on the positive aspects of one's group, and *negative other-presentation* which is related to the use of derogatory terms and focusing on the negative characteristics of out-group members (van Dijk, 2000) are the bases of this framework. These two macro-strategies are realized by other forty discursive strategies which are potentially possible to occur in different kinds of ideological discourses. However, using this framework in a study, one cannot expect that all these forty strategies to be found in the discourses to be analyzed. Taking this point into account, this framework was used as the basis of the analyses, to find how ideological differences are manifested in the discourse of the two newspapers by the use of the two macro-strategies, in general, and other available strategies in this framework, in particular. The most common discusive strategies of this framework found in the news reports in this study along with descriptions according to van Dijk (2000) are listed here.

*Consensus*: This is a political strategy which is used especially when a county is threatened by out-groups, so cross-party and national consensus is used.

*Hyperbole*: A device for the enhancement of meaning, either for *positive self- presentation* or *negative other-presentation*.

*Disclaimer*: This strategy is used to keep face by stating our positive characteristics first, and then focus on their negative attributes.

*Distancing*: A socio-cognitive device which may, for instance, be employed by the use of demonstrative pronouns instead of naming or describing *Others*.

*History as lesson*: Sometimes a situation is compared to positive or negative events in history, either as a *positive self-presentation* or *negative other-presentation strategy*.

*Humanitarianism*: Invitation of the readers/ listeners to pay more attention to human rights, or show empathy for the situation of in-group members.

*Implication*: A piece of information may be left implicit because it may be inconsistent with the overall strategy of positive self-presentation. Negative details about in-groups' actions thus tend to remain implicit.

*Illegality*: A device by which the out-group members are characterized as criminal or law breaker.

*National self-glorification*: A strategy which is used by referring to the honorable history of one's country, or by praising its principles and traditions.

*Presupposition:* Van Dijk compares discourses to icebergs, in the sense that most of the meanings of a text are not explicitly expressed but presupposed to be known by the recipients. Presuppositions are used typically to speak about the controversial ideas or to assume the truth of some preposition when such truth is not accepted at all.

*Vagueness*: Speakers/writers may make use of vague expressions like: 'few', 'a lot', 'very', 'thing', 'low', and 'high' in order not to give enough information to the readers/ listeners either as a positive self-presentation or a negative other-presentation.

## IV. CDA ANALYSIS OF THE NEWS REPORTS AND DISCUSSION

In this part, the three pairs of news reports with the same subjects are critically analyzed. Due to the lengthy results of the analyses, only some of the strategies detected in the news reports are presented.

### A. A Deal Signed by Iran, Turkey, and Brazil on May 17, 2010

The first pair of news reports analyzed here is about a deal signed by Iran, Turkey, and Brazil on May 17, 2010 according to which Iran would ship 1200 kilograms of its low enriched uranium for 120 kilograms of 20 percent enriched nuclear fuel rods to power the Tehran research reactor.

In paragraph 13 of *Tehran Times'* report ("Iran, Turkey, Brazil," 2010), this deal is described as a *constructive move*: "The Brazilian and Turkish foreign ministers called the deal **a constructive move** that leaves no pretext for any country or organization to put pressure on Iran". Moreover, in paragraph 15, *Tehran Times* claims that: "Davutoglu called the agreement '**a great success**' which **proved diplomacy could still work**".

These descriptions of the deal in this way are examples of *hyperbole* that is a semantic rhetorical device to exaggerate one's act according to one's ideologies and interests. Here, *Tehran Times* is exaggerating the deal, especially when it is called "a great success", since later on it proved not to be that much of a success. This use of *hyperbole* is more generally working toward the overall semantic strategy of *positive self-presentation*. Into the bargain, in paragraph 15 of this report, there is a point about the use of quotation which is worth mentioning. In this sentence, it is not clear whether the second part of the sentence beginning with "which" is told by Davutoglu or is the opinion of the writer injected in the sentence. More possibly, it is strategically added to the previous part to imply that this part is also told by the foreign minister.

Quite to the contrary of *Tehran Times*, *The Los Angeles Times* begins its report (Richter & Parsons, 2010) with expressing the skepticism and indifference on the part of the US officials toward this deal, devoting ten paragraphs to the opinions of the American officials about this deal which are mostly negative. These ten paragraphs imply the American officials' willingness to impose further sanctions against Iran since this deal is not enough for solving *larger issues* related to Iran's nuclear program. Then from paragraph eleven, *The Los Angeles Times* begins to give some information to the readers about the content of this deal. This way of presenting the information to the reader is highly ideological. Van Dijk (2000, p.55) states that "sentences that express positive meanings about us, and negative meanings about them, will typically appear up front, if possible in headlines, leads, abstracts, announcements or initial summaries of stories".

In paragraph 5 of *The Los Angeles Times'* report: "**Although** it would be a 'positive step' for Iran to transfer low-enriched uranium out of the country, **as it first agreed to do last October**, Gibbs said, **the plan outlined Monday would not resolve long-standing problems**", it is first acknowledged that "this deal would be a positive step", then by referring to the last October's deal which was suggested by the US and rejected by Iran, it is mentioned that this plan is not enough to solve long-standing problems. This is an example of the use of a *disclaimer (Apparent Concession)* in the discourse. This strategy is a combination of the overall semantic strategies of *positive self-presentation* and *negative other-presentation*. It is used to save face by first stating the writer's good will and unbiased opinion of *Others* then focusing on the negative attributes of *Others*.

Moreover, in paragraphs four, six, eight, and sixteen of this report, Iran is presented as a country that does not "live up to international obligations", a country which tries to develop "a nuclear weapon". The use of this phrase seems to give a horrifying image of Iran which is presented as a threat to human beings. The argumentative strategy used here is called *illegality* which is an argumentative strategy by the use of which the out-group members are presented as law breakers and criminals. It is used as a device for the overall strategy of *negative other-presentation*.

*The Los Angeles Times* and *Tehran Times* opposed each other in presenting this deal to their readers. It was shown that *The Los Angeles Times'* report presented this deal as an insignificant act by Iran, as a "ploy" to buy time to prevent further sanctions and by using the strategies of *illegality and disclaimer* as the most frequent strategies that is used in this report, the American newspaper gave a horrifying, negative picture of Iran's nuclear program. On the other hand, in the Iranian newspaper, the picture that is given to the readers is different from that of *The Los Angeles Times*, since the contract is presented as a "constructive move" and a sign of Iran's "good will" by using strategies of *lexicalization*, *repetition* and *hyperbole* as the most frequent ones. Therefore, the findings of the analyses of these reports support van Dijk's (2000) notions in his *ideological square* that in ideologically loaded discourses the focus is on the negative acts of *Others* and the positive acts of *Us*.

### B. Russia's Reaction toward Iran's Ex-president's Speech on May 26, 2010

The second pair of news reports is related to Russia's reaction after a speech delivered by Iran's ex-President on May 26, 2010. In this speech, he criticized Russia for siding with the U.S. and adopting negative stances toward Tehran's declaration which was signed by Iran, Brazil, and Turkey on May17. As mentioned in the previous part, according to

this declaration, Iran was called for to ship 1200 kilograms of its low-enriched uranium to Turkey to be exchanged for 120 kilograms of 20 percent enriched nuclear fuel. Iran considered this deal as "a constructive movement"; however, America and other permanent members of the UN Security Council did not consider this as an influential step and insisted on the imposition of further sanctions against Iran. Russia also sided with this stance of the UN Security Council which made Iran's ex-President to deliver a speech criticizing Russia for its stance toward this movement. Both of the American and Iranian newspapers published reports on the reaction of Russia toward this speech.

*Tehran Times* chooses this lead paragraph for its article ("Russia supports,"2010) to report on this event:

**On day after** President Ahmadinejad severely criticized Russia for siding with the U.S. on the Tehran nuclear agreement, two top Russians (sic) officials announced that the Kremlin is ready **to support** the nuclear fuel swap deal signed between Iran, Turkey and Brazil.

*Tehran Times* begins the lead with: "On day after President…", to imply that the speech which was delivered by Iran's ex- President was so influential and impressing that just *one* day after the speech, Russian officials changed their stance toward the deal and announced their readiness "to support" the deal.

Reading this report critically, one can observe that all the *lexical choices* which describe Russia's reaction toward Iran are positive, conveying a sense of support and friendship and there is not even one word to convey a sense of disagreement on the part of Russia. *Ready, backs*, s*upport, energetically, contribute, positive, friendly relations, peaceful resolution, actively support, and assist* are the words which are repeated throughout this report:

Lead) *... the Kremlin is ready* **to support** *the nuclear fuel swap deal signed between Iran, Turkey and Brazil.*

2) *Patrushev* **said his country backs nuclear** *swap on the Turkish territory.*

3) *Moscow is ready to* **energetically contribute to** *a settlement of the problem concerning the Tehran declaration, the Voice of Russia quoted Patrushev as saying.*

4) *Patrushev also said that Russia believes the outlook for Tehran-Moscow* **cooperation is positive.**

5) *For his part, Jalili said, "The Tehran declaration* **is a positive step** *for interaction that should be complemented by* **other side's positive steps***."*

6) *He went on to say that Iran and Russia's common interests and threats necessitate the two nations to maintain* **friendly relations.**

7) *...Lavrov said the Tehran agreement may* **see a peaceful resolution to** *the nuclear standoff between Iran and the west.*

8) *"The scheme (on uranium swap) meets the requirements for* **a peaceful resolution** *of Iran's nuclear issue…*

On the other hand, *The Los Angeles Times*' report (Stark, 2010) begins with this headline for its report: "Russia lashes out at Iran"**.** The verb "lashes out" used in this headline to mean: 'to criticize somebody in an angry way' (Hornby, 2004), connotes anger and impatience, and by this *lexical choice*, this American newspaper wants to convey that Russia is so angry at Iran that cannot tolerate Iran's acts any more. This lexical choice works toward *negative other-presentation*. The lead paragraph also contains negative and derogatory terms when speaking about Iran and when describing the reaction of Russia toward the speech. Moreover, there is a sense of *illegality* in this lead about Iran which refuses to deal with its nuclear problems: "Foreign Minister Sergei Lavrov **dismisses** Iranian criticism that Russia is susceptible to Western influence and says **Tehran has obstinately refused** to address about its nuclear program".

In this report, there are many negative and derogatory terms about Iran and its relationship with Russia. This kind of *lexicalization* by the writer gives a negative image of Iran:

1) *...* **dismissed** *criticism from the Iranian president as* **"emotional"***, and expressed* **frustration** *over what he portrayed as* **Tehran's obstinate refusal** *to...*

2) *...* **lashed backed** *at Iranian President Mahmoud Ahmadinejad, who a day earlier described the Kremlin as* **a potential enemy***…*

5) "Iran's response was **unsatisfactory,** to say the least".

8) *The Russian leadership was* **outraged** *by his remarks. A Kremlin aide, foreign policy advisor Sergei Prikhodko, on Wednesday accused Ahmadinejad of* **"political demagoguery."**

9) *The rhetoric reflects* **a new depth of Moscow's impatience** *with Tehran…*

12) *…, and* **criticized** *Iran for wasting time by rejecting the earlier offer.*

In paragraph 12 of this report: "He pointed out that much of the recent agreement was recycled **from a proposal made in 2009 by the International Atomic Energy Agency**, and criticized Iran for wasting time by rejecting the earlier offer", *The Los Angeles Times* refers to the deal which was proposed by the International Atomic Energy Agency in October 2009 and rejected by Iran. Here, the strategy of *history as lesson* is used by referring to this deal. *The Los Angeles Times* wants to convey that the deal suggested by Iran on May 17 cannot be trusted upon since it is the repetition of that previous one which Iran refused to act upon.

An interesting point about these news reports is the way the two newspapers present the information and the events. The Iranian newspaper focuses on a telephone conversation which was initiated by the Russia's officials at the beginning of the news reports. However, The American Newspaper begins the report with some quotations from Russian officials, all of them conveying a sense of anger and impatience toward Iran in general, and the speech delivered by Iran's ex- President on May 26 in particular. Then, by the use of the sentence : "But it was not all tough talk", nearly at the end of the report, in paragraph 13, *The Los Angeles Times* changes the tone and begins to mention

some positive words and phrases about Russia and Iran's relationship. In this part, the American newspaper also refers to the telephone call initiated by the Russian officials to the Iranian officials on Thursday, one day after the Iran's ex-President's speech. This way of ordering the information related to an event in the text is highly ideological, since the writer first focuses on the negative parts related to the *Others*, and then at the end of the text mentions some minor information about the positive points, as a strategy to *emphasize negative things about Them* and *de-emphasize positive things about Them*. This way of presenting the events in discourse is highly ideological. These support Van Dijk (2000) who states that:

Information that is favorable for or about the own group or unfavorable for the out-group will tend to be topical, important and explicit. Information that portrays us in a negative light will tend to remain implicit, not topicalized, hidden, vague and little detailed (p.78).

*C.  The Fourth Round of Sanctions against Iran*

The third subject related to Iran's nuclear program which attracted the attention of *The Los Angeles Times* and *Tehran Times* is the fourth round of sanctions approved against Iran. In spite of Iran, Turkey, and Brazil's efforts to prevent this round of sanctions such as signing a deal on May 17, 2010 to deliver much of Iran's low-enriched uranium to Turkey, the U. S. and its allies were the winners and the United Nations Security Council approved another round of sanctions against Iran for its development of nuclear program on June 9, 2010. However, this round of sanctions was not considered by the U.S. and its allies that much of a victory since they could not satisfy Turkey and Brazil to vote in favor of the sanctions and these countries voted against the sanctions and Lebanon abstained.

*Tehran Times* selects lead paragraph for its report ("Iran Dismisses," 2010): "In response to the UN Security Council's ratification of a fourth sanctions resolution against Iran, Iran's ex-President said that Iran will itself produce the 20 percent enriched uranium to power the Tehran research reactor". Instead of reporting about the details of the resolution, this lead is selected to show that Iran does not care about these sanctions and that in spite of all the pressures imposed by the U. S. and its allies, it has yet the power to produce 20% enriched uranium by itself.

Taking a cursory look at this report, it becomes obvious that this report is composed of several Iranian officials' quotations, containing derogatory and *negative* terms about the U.S, the Security Council, and the resolution. The ex-President of Iran is voiced more than other officials (he is quoted twelve times). Moreover, all the quotations mentioned in this report convey a sense of *anger*, *warning*, *indifference toward the sanctions,* and *manifestation of power*.

By the use of a derogatory term: "a worthless scrap of paper", in paragraph 2 of this report: "… Ahmadinejad called the UN resolution 'a worthless scrap of paper' "; the Iranian newspaper aims to have a *negative other-presentation* and to imply that the approved sanctions against Iran are not important in the view of Iranian officials.

In paragraph 20 of this report: *"*On Wednesday, Iran's ambassador to the UN said, "No amount of pressure and mischief will be able to break our nation's determination to pursue and defend its legal and inalienable rights", by mentioning *"our nation determination"*, *Tehran Times* is using a *consensus* strategy to show that all the Iranians are supportive of the nuclear program which is obviously a *presupposition*. Moreover, in paragraph 20: the argumentative strategy of *legality* is used by the phrase: "its legal and inalienable rights".

In paragraph 21, *Tehran Times* quotes from Iran's ambassador:

Ambassador Mohammad Khazaee added, "Iran is one of the most powerful and stable countries in the region and never bowed -- and will never bow -- to the hostile actions and pressures by these few powers and will continue to defend its rights."

Here a *presupposition* is used. One can ask whether Iran is really one of the most stable countries in the region, or it is strategically *presupposed* as a *positive self-presentation*. Another strategy which is used here is *national glorification*. Iran is described as a powerful country in spite of all the pressures and sanctions which have been imposed on it by the western powers during the history. The use of "few" is also strategically used here. Are they really *few*? In the UN Security Council, twelve members supported the imposition of this latest round of sanctions against Iran and the fact is that the countries against Iran are not few at all. Into the bargain, the actions of these powers, which are *presupposed* here to be *few*, are described as "hostile", a derogatory term opted for to convey that what these powers do, such as the imposition of sanctions against Iran, are based on their hostility against Iran , not because of justified or defensible reasons. Moreover, the strategy of *legality* is repeated here by the use of the words: "…defend its rights".

In contrast to *Tehran Times*' report which chose to begin its report with the announcement of a new decision about the production of 20 percent enriched uranium by itself as a reaction toward the resolution, *The Los Angeles Times*' report headlined: "U.N. adopts new sanctions against Iran" begins its report (Richter, 2010) with this lead:

In a diplomatic setback, the U.S. fails to win unanimous support for latest round of sanctions approved by the U.N. Security Council. Turkey and Brazil voted against the sanctions meant to punish Iran for its nuclear program, and Lebanon abstained.

The lead of this report begins with *"in a diplomatic setback"* as the theme of the sentence, accompanied with the verb *"fail"*. These *lexical choices* are made to give a picture of dissatisfaction of the results of the resolution on June 9. The American newspaper wants to imply that although the sanctions were approved by the UN Security Council, it was not a victory for the U.S. since Turkey and Brazil voted against the sanctions. The U. S. ultimate goal had been to have a unanimous support from all the members to be able to *punish* Iran. The word *punish* is also a derogatory term. Generally, from the CDA point of view, the description of this absence of unanimity as "a diplomatic setback" and a

failure is a kind of *irony*. Iran is described as a country that has done illegal and even dangerous activities especially in its development of nuclear energy and it is needed that all countries be united in halting this country from these activities. Now that two countries have voted against this resolution, *The Los Angeles Times* describes this event as a failure for the U.S.

In paragraph 3: "Iran insists the nuclear program is intended for development of civilian energy, but the U.S. officials and many world leaders charge Iran is seeking an atomic weapon capability", the use of "U.S. officials and many world leaders" is a kind of *consensus* strategy to convey that most of the world is against Iran and that U. S. is not alone in its opposition against Iran. Moreover, by the use of "atomic weapon capability" in this sentence, the discursive strategy of *illegality* is used. By the use of this strategy, Iran is presented as a dangerous law breaker which is seeking to produce atomic weapons and because of this, all the world is needed to cooperate with the U.S to prevent from a catastrophe for human begins. These two strategies used in this paragraph work to give a negative image of Iran.

In *Tehran Times'* report, the most frequent strategy is *lexicalization;* all of the lexical choices are derogatory and negative. The justification of this finding can be that, this report intends to show the anger of the Iranian officials about this round of sanctions and by using derogatory terms this newspaper tries to undermine the imposition of these sanctions and also the validity of the UN Security Council. *The Los Angeles Times'* report was also found to be full of discursive strategies most of which work toward *negative other-presentation*, giving a horrific image of Iran's nuclear program. Using strategies such as *illegality*, the writer tried to justify the imposition of this round of sanctions by the USA and its allies. The findings of these two news reports' analyses confirm van Dijk's (2000) claim that "ideologies impinge on discourse" (p.82).

## V. Conclusions

The results obtained from the CDA analyses of the three pairs of news reports showed that ideological manipulations of language can be exercised by the use of the two overall semantic macro-strategies of van Dijk's (2000) framework: *positive self-presentation* and *negative other- presentation* which are realized by other discursive strategies within this framework. In this study, the most frequent strategies which were used by the two newspapers to realize these two macro-strategies are: *lexicalization, presupposition, consensus, hyperbole, illegality and disclaimer.*

The findings also manifested that *The Los Angeles Times* and *Tehran Times* represented the issues related to Iran's nuclear program differently, according to their points of view and perspectives. The analyses showed that the three subjects which were focused on, in this study, were presented differently in the two American and Iranian newspapers. Among the three pairs of news reports, the second pair relating to Russia's reaction toward Iran's ex-President's speech was found to be highly ideological since the news reports in this pair represented the same subject, namely the reaction of Russia toward Iran after Iran's ex- President's speech on May 26, 2010. The writers of these reports manipulated the language when quoting Russian officials and played with the discourse forms. For example, *The Los Angeles Times* did not refer to the telephone calls which were initiated by the Russian official until the end of the news report, in an attempt to give a negative image of Russia's relationship with Iran. *Tehran Times*, on the other hand, focused on this event at the beginning of the report, trying to show the willingness of the Russian officials in negotiating with Iran.

Moreover, the findings of this study corroborate with the findings of Ghiasian (2006), KhosraviNik (2008, 2009, 2010), Atai and Adriani (2009), and Yaghoobi (2009), among many other studies conducted within CDA frameworks, about the biased representation of events and social groups in newspapers. Moreover, the findings lend supports to van Dijk's (2000) belief that "discourses express, confirm, instantiate or constitute ideologies" (p. 86), and to the fact that ideologies are injected in discourse by the use of different kinds of discursive strategies like the ones which are included in van Dijk's (2000) framework. As such, the findings of this study call attention to the importance of being aware of the potentiality of language to manipulate the facts and realities.

Into the bargain, the results of this research prove the efficiency and conclusiveness of van Dijk's (2000) framework in the uncovering of hidden ideologies in discourse. Accordingly, the findings of this study being based on van Dijk's (2000) semantic discursive categories can enrich the CDA literature, since the study is among few CDA studies which focus on semantic categories, not the syntactic structures of discourse as have been attended to many other CDA studies (e.g. Hernandez, 2008 and Yaghoobi, 2009).

## VI. Implications for Language Pedagogy

This study has a wake-up call for students to be aware of the power of language in changing and even making their points of view and opinions about the events, the people, and the world around them. This awareness of the power of language in inculcation of ideologies is highly vital for EFL learners since they are exposed to a variety of authentic materials such as textbooks and movies which are produced by the native speakers of English. As such, EFL learners can "act as transmitters of foreign thoughts and beliefs to their own culture" (Koupaee, 2010, p.1). Therefore, EFL learners should be aware of the possible latent meanings that are injected in these materials, to resist the imposition of ideologies on them.

The findings of this research and the CDA analyses of the news reports can also be insightful in the courses that deal with journalism and reading comprehension. EFL teachers of these courses can introduce the CDA framework

introduced in this study to their students and ask them to critically analyze the news and texts they read in class or in their daily life. By doing this, the teachers help EFL learners to be equipped with some analytical tools to detect the hidden meanings in the discourse they deal with and improve their reading skills, as was proved by (Asgharzadeh, 2009). Moreover, using CDA tools in EFL classes can increase EFL learners' creativity, motivation and activity (Koupaee, 2010).

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# Lexical Cohesion of Sino-British College Students' EAP Writing

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*Abstract*—**English becomes an important tool of academic research and international communication with the rapid development of global economy. Producing a piece of EAP writing with completeness, clarity and coherence has become a pursuit of both college students and academic staff. The coherence and completeness of EAP writing is realized mainly by lexical cohesion. However, it has long been ignored by Chinese EFL learners and teachers. Using the corpora of BAWE and EAP writing by British and Chinese learners, this research compares and contrasts the indices of lexical cohesion generated by computational linguistics tool, Coh-Metrix, across different levels and between English native speakers and Chinese EFL learners. It is found that both native speakers and Chinese EFL learners tends to use less simple repetition and more complicated cohesion with the improving of English language proficiency while the average frequency of lexical cohesion employed by Chinese EFL learners is less than native speakers. Therefore lexical cohesion teaching and learning should be given more consideration for successful EAP writing for Chinese EFL learners.**

*Index Terms*—**EAP writing, Chinese EFL learners, lexical cohesion, corpus linguistics, Coh-Metrix**

## I. INTRODUCTION

EAP writing plays an important role not only in degree study but also pave way for future career success. More and more scholars' academic success depends on their English language proficiency and the connections between English language and specialty knowledge are increasingly closer (Hyland, 2005). Plenty of research and labour market investigation shows that college students can adapt themselves to the more competitive global and local economic development with proficient English for Academic Purpose (EAP) and English for Special Purpose (ESP) (Sun, 2010).

According to the latest UIS (UNESCO Institute of Statistics) data on the mobility of students (UIS, 2014), at least 4 million students in 2012 were enrolled in tertiary education abroad. The top destination universities are mainly in the countries with English as native language, such as USA, UK, Australia and Canada. International students not only have to acquire good communication skills and fluent English both in writing and speaking, but also absorb the western writing culture in style, structure, reference and the local policy towards academic integrity in academic writing. Even if international students acquire good score in English proficiency tests, they often find that academic papers in English-speaking universities are different from what they are used to.

As for international students from China, EAP writing is a great challenge for them due to the differences of language type and culture system. With more than 10 years of English study experience before Chinese EFL learners enter into tertiary education, many of them have acquired a certain amount of English vocabulary and grammar. However few of them could produce a piece clear, concise and coherent EAP writing. Besides the format of the EAP writing, the main reason for their difficulty in EAP writing comes from the unity of the idea, which is partly realized by the cohesion devices of the text.

In the hope of EFL learners could express themselves like a native speaker, traditional lexical-grammatical teaching method had been reproached and the modern EFL teaching focuses more on the communicative skills of the learners. It emphasizes the spoken communication and weakens the language input of lexis and grammar and thus hinders the development of language communicative skills. Writing is one of the key components of communicative capacity of EFL learners'. The level of writing proficiency is greatly influenced by the appropriate using of the words and phrases of the target language. Lexical cohesion, as an important device of discourse structure, has a great influence on discourse organization and cohesion.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), cohesion contributes to the wholeness and unity of the text and they divided it into grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Hoey (1991) claimed that lexical cohesion is the only type of cohesion that regular forms multiple relationships and it is the dominant mode of creating texture. There have been many studies on lexical cohesion since the publication of the groundbreaking work by Halliday and Hasan in 1976. Although there are some researches carried out on the cohesion of academic writing (Witte and Faigley 1981), but only few studied especially lexical cohesion using in academic writing (Stotsky 1983, Chen 2008, Mirzapour 2011). Due to the limit resources to analysis, the relevant studies in China are about the works from students majored in English language or short argumentative writing on one topic.

With the development of corpus linguistics and computational linguistics, the authentic language resources provide first-hand research data and the computational tools make the study of large quantity information from corpora possible.

This study is going to compare the lexical cohesion using by both native speakers and Chinese EFL learners in their EAP writings with the indices generated by computational tool, Coh-Metrix. The purpose is to find the features of lexical cohesion in academic writing produced by Chinese EFL learners and thus give indication to Chinese EFL learning and teaching on EAP writing.

Four questions will be answered with this study.

1. Is lexical cohesion an effective index for distinguishing the levels of English language proficiency?

2. Can lexical cohesion be used to differentiate the writing from ENL speakers and EFL speakers?

3. Do Chinese EFL learners use more lexical cohesion than native speakers?

4. What are the main differences and similarities on lexical cohesions in EAP writing between native speakers and Chinese EFL learners?

## II. LEXICAL COHESION: LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

Lexical cohesion, as an important contributor to discourse organization, has been studied broadly in EFL and ESL on its relation to language proficiency. But due to different analyzing point, research method, data, the results are different. Mainly there are three different opinions about the relationship between the frequency of lexical devices and language proficiency: positive related, null related and negative related.

Through comparing and contrasting writing by 160 EFL learners from Arab, China, Japan and Spain, Ferris (1994) found the better EFL proficiency, the higher frequency of cohesive links. The idea is supported by the studies by Liu and Braine (2005), Clarence (2012). On the contrary, Crossley and McNarma (2012) found users with higher EFL level tended to use less cohesions than those with lower levels.

As for the difference between EFL writers and ENL writers on cohesion links using, Mirzapour and Ahmadi (2011) found Persian EFL writers had excessive using of cohesion links; Spanish EFL writers used less cohesion links (Crossley & McNarma 2009); Johnson (1992) claimed that there was no significant difference on cohesion through comparing 20 Malaysian writers' and 20 native speakers' persuasive essays.

The different results of the previous researches are due to the different definition of cohesion, data collection and methodology. Many researchers have been trying to find the standard to direct the learning and classroom teaching of cohesion. So far there has been no satisfying result. There is even less research directly on lexical cohesion in EAP writing. This research is to find the features of lexical cohesion in EAP writings by Chinese college students. Hopefully the findings will help students and teachers to carry our more efficient work with considering the skillful using of lexical cohesion in EAP wiring.

## III. COMPUTATIONAL TOOL FOR ANALYZING LEXICAL COHESION: COH-METRIX

The exactness and reliability of computational tool may help with clearing the above ambiguous studies. Coh-Metrix was developed by staff from Memphis University and its online system can be available at http: Coh-Metrix.mephis.edu. The initial development aim was to find the level of readability of text through analyzing lexical relations. Crossley and McNamara was the first to use it to analyze EFL writing. Its application and reliability have been tested by Granger, etc. for many times. Its indices and architecture is reported in Graesser, McNamara, Louwerse and Cai (2004) and McNamara (2011).

The five groups of indices generated by Coh-Metrix studies the lexical cohesion within one paragraph:

Index 1: Noun Overlap (NO) is the simple repetition of nous. Any other different forms (e.g. plural) are not included.

Index 2: Content Word Overlap (CWO) considers the proportion of explicit content words that overlap between pairs of sentences. Local and global indices, and their standard deviations are included in the indices. The mean of global indices is used in this research.

Index 3: Stem Overlap (SO) refers to a noun in one sentence matched with a content word (i.e., nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs) in a previous sentence that shares a common lemma (e.g., tree/treed; mouse/mousey; price/priced).

Index 4: Hypernymy of Nouns and Verbs (HNV) is reported in Coh-Metrix with the help of WordNet. In WordNet, each word is located on a hierarchical scale allowing for the measurement of the number of subordinate words below and superordinate words above the target word. Coh-Metrix provides estimates of hypernymy for nouns, verbs, and a combination of both nouns and verbs.

Index 5: Latent Semantic Analysis (LSA) is to measure the semantic repetition among sentences and paragraphs. Coh-Metrix offers 8 groups of indices about LSA, which is between 0 (low cohesion) and 10 (high cohesion). Examples are made in the introduction to Coh-Metrix version 3.0:

Text 1: The field was full of lush, green grass. The horses grazed peacefully. The young children played with kites. The women occasionally looked up, but only occasionally. A warm summer breeze blew and everyone, for once, was almost happy.

Text 2: The field was full of lush, green grass. An elephant is a large animal. No-one appreciates being lied to. What are we going to have for dinner tonight?

The indices of Text 1 are much higher than the indices in Text 2. Text 1 is all about a leisure scene in a park: green, grass, children, playing, summer, breeze, kites and happy. On the contrary, Text 2 has no focused semantic relation, which means the sentences are not overlapped semantically.

## IV. CORPORA AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The corpora are made up from two parts: BAWE and Huanghuai University (HHU) students' EAP writing. BAWE is part of the project of British Higher Institution Assessment Writing Genre Survey supported by Economic and Social Research Committee from 2004 to 2007, which including 6 million words and 13 different genres. The collection of the written assignments is from Year 1 to 3 of undergraduates with different discipline background. The HHU EAP writings are collected from the essays of EFL learners in Huanghuai University in China. From level 1 to Level 3, 30 essays are selected randomly from each British ENL learners and Chinese EFL learners. Altogether there are 270 essays are examined, including 180 essays from BAWE and 90 copies from HHU students' EAP writing.

It is relatively difficult to get EFL essays from college students in China because undergraduates and graduates in China are not required to write in English academically except for abstract. In order to study EAP writing of college students in China, the research have the samples of EAP writing from joint programs in HHU in China. HHU has cooperated with Bangor University, Aberystwyth University, Coventry University in UK and University of Mysore in China on different specialties, ranged from accounting, marketing, computer science, software engineering, art design, cartoon and animation, nursing and automotive engineering. Most joint program graduates from HHU will either seek for further education in the UK or India or get employed in international companies. Students receive intensive training of English for General Purpose (EGP). From Year 2 and then on students will be trained and assessed by both staff from partner universities and HHU. Some of the core modules assessment requires the submission of academic writings, which make it available to get EAP writing by college students in China.

One natural paragraph is selected from each essay in the corpora. The section avoids charts and tables and in-text references. Thus the name of the author and the year of publication in quotation were deleted on purpose to reflect the natural flow of the text. Then the text of each subtract is pasted into the online Coh-Metrix 3.0. After clicking the button of 'Submit', 108 indices are generated. This study saved each group of indices into an Excel file according to the levels and mother tongue of the writers. Only the five indices are examined in each group: noun overlapping, content words overlap, stem overlap, LSA and hypernymy (nouns and verbs).

## V. INDICES OF LEXICAL COHESION IN EAP WRITINGS

The first group of indices is from the essays written by British ENL college students, which is shown in Table 1:

TABLE1:
LEXICAL COHESION IN EAP WRITING ACROSS LEVEL 1-4 BY BRITISH ENL COLLEGE STUDENTS

| Corpus | Level | NO | CWO | SO | LSA | HNV |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| BAWE-ENL | 1 | 0.5465 | 0.1086 | 0.6416 | 0.3196 | 2.1715 |
| BAWE-ENL | 2 | 0.5540 | 0.1049 | 0.6492 | 0.3444 | 2.1120 |
| BAWE-ENL | 3 | 0.5772 | 0.1036 | 0.6653 | 0.3035 | 1.8685 |
| Average | | 0.5592 | 0.1057 | 0.6520 | 0.3225 | 2.0507 |

Table 1 shows that noun overlap increase with the increasing of the language level. Occurrence of stem overlap from Level 1 to Level 3 keeps on going up. On the contrary, indices of both content word overlap and hypernymy of nouns and verbs drop down across different levels.

The second investigation is about the Chinese EFL learners who receive their education in British higher institutes. Their performance of lexical cohesion across different levels in EAP writing are shown in Table 2:

TABLE 2:
LEXICAL COHESION IN EAP WRITING ACROSS LEVEL 1-4 BY CHINESE EFL COLLEGE STUDENTS IN UK

| Corpus | Level | NO | CWO | SO | LSA | HNV |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| BAWE-EFL | 1 | 0.5000 | 0.1213 | 0.5500 | 0.3275 | 1.9843 |
| BAWE-EFL | 2 | 0.5348 | 0.1081 | 0.6804 | 0.3150 | 2.0160 |
| BAWE-EFL | 3 | 0.5755 | 0.0936 | 0.6951 | 0.3121 | 2.0249 |
| Average | | 0.5368 | 0.1077 | 0.6418 | 0.3182 | 2.0084 |

Table 2 shows the indices of noun overlaps, stem overlap and hypernymy of nouns and verbs all increase by different degrees. The figure of content word overlap declines across level 1 to level 3. The indices of latent semantic analysis go down straight from level 1 to level 3.

Essays by EFL Chinese college students are divided into 3 levels from Year 2 to Year 4 in China as it is not required to produce academic writing in Year 1. The indices of their using lexical cohesion are shown in Table 3:

TABLE 3:
LEXICAL COHESION IN EAP WRITING ACROSS LEVEL 1-3 BY CHINESE EFL COLLEGE STUDENTS IN CHINA

| Corpus | Level | NO | CWO | SO | LSA | HNV |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| HHU-EFL | 1 | 0.5672 | 0.1396 | 0.6201 | 0.2565 | 1.7834 |
| HHU-EFL | 2 | 0.5895 | 0.1178 | 0.6226 | 0.2271 | 2.1637 |
| HHU-EFL | 3 | 0.6001 | 0.0998 | 0.6272 | 0.2036 | 2.1956 |
| Average | | 0.5856 | 0.1191 | 0.6233 | 0.2291 | 2.0476 |

Table 3 shows the three groups of indices (noun overlap, stem overlap, hypernymy of nouns and verbs) of lexical cohesion by EFL college students in China go up while the other two groups (content word overlap and latent semantic analysis) go down across the three levels.

## VI. DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION

The overall trend of noun overlap in EAP writing by three groups of college students increases across the different levels. According to Biber et al. (1999), the reason for the higher frequency of nominalizations in EAP writing is that the function of nominalizations within the context is "to treat actions and processes as abstract objects separated from human participants", whereas fiction and speech "are more often concerned with people and use verbs and adjectives to describe how they are behaving". And Ravelli (1996) claims that nominalizations are "prestigious, technical and formal, rather than coming from a more everyday realm". This further suggests another important rhetorical effect produced by the use of nominalizations, which lower level of undergraduate students might notice and learn to use them with more exposure to academic study.

Using of LSA tends to be decreasing with the level improving. The possible reason for that is there might be more jargons within the discipline. Higher indices of LSA indicate the higher readability of the text and the decrease of LSA in ESP writing in the corpora means the articles tends to be more complicated and harder to understand for general readers. It is a bit unexpected to see that Chinese EAP writings have more frequency of using specific words than British ENL writing. What's more, British native speakers tend to use less specific words with language proficiency level improving.

The decreasing of content word overlap and increasing of stem overlap indicate the improving of college students' vocabulary. The reducing tendency of hypernymys shows that British ENL college students use more specific words with the improving of language proficiency.

From Table 1, 2 and 3, it is hard to conclude whether the overall using of lexical cohesion is increasing or not with the improving of language proficiency. However the lexical cohesion skills are obviously different across different level. From Table 4: The average indices of lexical cohesion by British ENL and Chinese EFL college students, we can see clearly that British ENL college students use less simple repetition (noun overlap and content word overlap) and more complex repetition (stem overlap, latent semantic analysis and hypernymy of nouns and verbs).

TABLE 4:
AVERAGE INDICES OF LEXICAL COHESION IN EAP WRITING BY BRITISH ENL AND CHINESE EFL COLLEGE STUDENTS

| Learner | NO | CWO | SO | LSA | HNV |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| British ENL | 0.5660 | 0.1061 | 0.6495 | 0.3220 | 2.0695 |
| Chinese EFL | 0.57845 | 0.1149 | 0.6442 | 0.2651 | 2.0515 |

With different degree of language environment exposure, lexical cohesion in EAP writing shows different figures. Table 5 shows the means of the above five indexes of lexical cohesion by Chinese EFL college students in the UK and China respectively.

TABLE 5:
MEANS OF INDICES OF LEXICAL COHESION IN EAP WRITING BY CHINESE EFL COLLEGE STUDENTS BETWEEN UK AND CHINA

| Corpus | NO | CWO | SO | LSA | HNV |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| BAWE-EFL | 0.5368 | 0.1077 | 0.6418 | 0.3182 | 2.0084 |
| HHU-EFL | 0.5856 | 0.1191 | 0.6233 | 0.2291 | 2.0476 |

From Table 5, the same results occur as what happens to Table 4, noun overlap, content word overlap, hypernymy of nouns and verbs by HHU-EFL are all overused than BAWE-EFL Chinese students. But the complex use of lexical cohesion, such as stem overlap and latent semantic analysis indices figures are lower than that of the Chinese learners in the UK.

With the above analysis, we can conclude that the overall frequency of lexical cohesion in EAP writing has no obvious increases or decreases across levels of language proficiency. Each individual index we researched does have growing or dropping tendency across different language levels. As for the difference in using lexical cohesion in EAP writing between Chinese EFL learners and British ENL learners, more simple lexical cohesion and less complex lexical cohesion are used by Chinese EFL learners. The better the writer's English proficiency is, the more complex lexical cohesion is used in their EAP writings.

## VII. THE LIMITS AND THE IMPLICATION OF THE RESEARCH

One of the limits of the study can be the sample selection. The length of paragraph is generally shorter by Chinese EFL learners than by ENL speakers. The average length of paragraph by Chinese EAP writer is from 150 to 200 while the average paragraph length by native speakers is about 250. The number of words of the natural paragraph might influence the indices produced by Coh-Metrix. Another thing about the corpora is whether the essays written by joint program students in HHU can represent Chinese EAP writing. With the development of EAP teaching in China, there should be more options for assessed EAP writings in Chinese universities. Therefore extended text and general non-English major college students' EAP writing can be sampled. Besides the five indexes in this research, more aspects of lexical cohesion should be studied. The different computational tool for lexical cohesion analysis should be explored as well in the future research.

The focus on corpus linguistics is to highlight the communication function of language and the application of language: language is action and meaning is application (Mahlberg, 2006). In the natural use of language, the research tries to find some features of lexical cohesion in EAP writing across different EFL levels with comparing to British ENL speakers. Mother tongues positive transfer has quite limited influence on upper intermediate or advanced EFL learners and more rules of natural language development will be applied to them. As EFL learners, Chinese college students and classroom teaching should focus more on lexical cohesion in EAP writing, especially complex lexical cohesion. Through large amount of natural EAP writing, we can find the features of lexical cohesion by different language users across different levels. Independent learners and classroom instructor should both be aware of the significance of corpus linguistics in their learning and teaching. The true principles of language application are embedded in the vivid natural language.

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# Repair in EFL Talk: A Case of Iranian Intermediate and Advanced EFL Learners

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*Abstract*—This study reports the ways Iranian intermediate and advanced EFL learners repair their talk while interacting with their teachers and the differences between these two groups. Sixty Iranian EFL learners (30 intermediate and 30 advanced) were divided into four classes and two sessions of each class were recorded. The cases of repair were chosen and categorized based on the position of repair initiation, devices and strategies used to initiate them and type of repair completion (self or other-repair). The results of data analysis revealed that both groups used several devices and strategies to initiate repair in five different positions. Most differences between these two groups were on the frequencies with which they used these devices and strategies and the fact that cases of self-repair happened far more among advanced group.

*Index Terms*—repair, repair initiation, repair completion, self-repair, other-repair

## I. INTRODUCTION

Conversation analysis (CA) emerged in the late 1960s and early 1970s as a sub-discipline of sociology but it has established itself as a separate discipline in its own right (Markee, 2000). CA stemmed from the work of sociologist Harvey Sacks who lectured at the University of California in the 1960s and 1970s. His lectures were recorded by one of his students, Gail Jefferson, and published in 1992 (Sacks, 1992). The ideas in CA were mainly influenced by two theories; the first one was the work of Goffman (1959) who emphasized the importance of face-to-face interaction. He argued that we perform our social selves by managing the ways we appear in everyday situations to affect how others orient to us (Hutchby & Wooffit, 1998). The second and more powerful influence was from the works of Garfinkel (1967) known as ethnomethodology. According to Ten Have (2004):

Ethnomethodology is a special kind of social inquiry, dedicated to explicating the ways in which members collectively create and maintain a sense of order and intelligibility in their social life. It has emerged as a distinctive perspective and style of social research in the teachings and publications of Harold Garfinkel. (p.14)

Being influenced by these two theories, Sacks focused on the methods and procedures used to accomplish everyday conversation; in other words, he focused on how participants understand and are understood by others. For Sacks, ordinary conversation was an orderly, structurally organized phenomenon during which participant accomplish a social order (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Travers, 2001). To sum up, CA argues that conversation has its own dynamics structures and rules, and looks at the methods used by speakers to structure conversation efficiently (Pridham, 2001).

## II. BACKGROUND

At first the focus of CA was on casual, mundane conversation between friends and acquaintances, but nowadays it investigates all forms of spoken interaction, including those in institutional contexts such as classrooms, doctor's surgeries, courtrooms, etc. In all contexts, whether casual or institutional, participants take turns usually one by one, order and organize their talk sequentially and repair the problems they face in interaction in order to achieve their goals. The main concern of CA is these interactional arrangements and what participants do to accomplish their goals. Therefore, the main focus of CA analysts is on the organizations of talk in interaction including: turn-taking, sequence organization and repair (Drew & Heritage, 1992; Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Markee, 2000).

According to Liddicoat (2007), repair, which is relevant to all levels of talk, is itself a mechanism of conversation and refers to the processes available to speakers through which they can handle the problems which occur in talk. Repair is more than just correcting errors in talk by replacing an incorrect form with a correct one, even though such corrections are a part of repair. As a matter of fact, many cases of repair have to deal with situations in which there is no error made by the speaker at all (Jefferson, 1987). Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks (1977) believed that the organization of repair can be analyzed based on three different terms: the position of repair in relation to an initial trouble source, the person who initiates repair (self or other) and who completes it (again self or other) and finally whether a repair is successful or unsuccessful.

According to Schegloff et al. (1977), repair may be initiated by the speaker of the trouble (self-initiated repair) or by its recipient (other-initiated repair). Besides, a repair may be made by the speaker of the trouble (self-repair) or by the recipient of the item (other-repair). Liddicoat (2007) believed that repair is designed to resolve the trouble as quickly as possible and locations for repair are locations relative to the trouble source. He enumerates five possible types of repair based on the position of repair initiation: same turn repair, transition space repair, second position repair, third position repair and fourth position repair.

*A. Same Turn Repair*

Non-lexical perturbations in speech including cut-offs, sound stretches, items such as *uh* and *uhm* and pauses are used by the speaker of the trouble to accomplish repair initiation in the same turn as the trouble source (Schegloff, 1979; Schegloff et al., 1977). In his study, Schegloff (1979) identified three more ways through which speakers may initiate repair in this position. First, a repair initiated to repair a particular trouble may end by changing an earlier part of the talk to avoid a missing element. Second, different types of repair initiations are often found together as a repair segment. Third, in some cases an initial attempt at repair does not succeed, so the speaker initiates an additional repair on the same trouble source.

According to Liddicoat (2007), the speaker is in a 'marking time' when the repair does not progress after succeeding tries. It refers to a repair in which all attempts at the trouble are alike, in other words, the first repair is like the original and the second like the first. He added that repair initiated in this position may also be resolved by the recipient of the trouble in the next turn.

*B. Transition Space Repair*

The transition space after the turn containing the trouble source is the second opportunity for self initiation (Schegloff et al., 1977). According to Liddicoat (2007), transition space repair can be done in four different ways. Firstly, it may happen without any explicit repair initiation marker. Secondly, it is sometimes accompanied by a reduced transition space showing the need to get an additional turn. Thirdly, in some cases, speakers may use devices such as *uh, uhm* or *I mean* to indicate that a repair is being initiated in the transition space. Finally, speakers sometimes use a *not X, Y* format to initiate transition space repair.

*C. Second Position Repair*

Repair in second position which happens in the turn following the trouble source is the first possible opportunity for other-initiated repair (Schegloff, 2000). According to Schegloff et al. (1977), speakers use a range of turn-constructional devices, which are basically different from those employed in self-initiated repair, like *huh?*, *what?* and other question words to initiate repair in second position. These turn-constructional devices can be ranged from the most generic (showing no indication of the trouble) to the more specific forms (showing some indication of the trouble). They mentioned that partial repeats have a similar function as question words and another frequent type of repair initiation found in this position is the use of *you mean* with a possible understanding of the trouble. They have also identified a preference for stronger over weaker forms of repair initiation.

All second position repairs do not involve other-initiated self-repair; they may also be resolved by other-repair produced in the same second position turn. These types of repair are called corrections and have their own sequential properties (Jefferson, 1987). These properties vary according to whether the correction is exposed or embedded. In exposed correction, the correct form is provided in second position by the recipient of a trouble. Embedded correction differs from exposed correction in that it is incorporated (embedded) into the action under way and does not interrupt it (Liddicoat, 2007).

*D. Third Position Repair*

This position is another opportunity for the producer of the trouble to initiate repair. "Third position, after an interlocutor's response to a previous turn, allows for the possibility of repairing a trouble in understanding of a prior turn demonstrated by the recipient's response to it" (Liddicoat, 2007, p. 196). Schegloff (1992) has proposed a canonical ordered four-component format for third position repair which is the result of speaker's practices in constructing repair turns in third position consisting of: a repair-initiating component, an agreement/acceptance component, a rejection component and the repair proper.

The repair-initiating component usually has the form *no* or possibly repeated as *no no,* in addition, *no* may also happen in combination with *oh* as *oh no* (Liddicoat, 2007). The agreement/acceptance component is usually found when the recipient of the original turn has perceived it as a complaint and responded with an apology or an excuse (Schegloff, 2005). In the rejection component, the speaker overtly rejects the understanding of the first turn through a small number of possible formats. The most common format is *I don't mean* X in which X identifies the problematic item in the trouble source (Schegloff, 1997). The repair proper is the most frequent component found in this position in which the speaker deals with the problem that the recipient's response has revealed by modifying the prior turn in some way (Schegloff, 1992).

*E. Fourth Position Repair*

Fourth position repair, which is an opportunity for a recipient of original trouble to repair a problem of understanding evident in the third position, is very rare because most problems are dealt with before this turn (Schegloff, 1992).

## III. METHODOLOGY

### A. Settings and Participants

The participants of this study were 60 Iranian EFL learners (30 males and 30 females) aged between 16 and 27 and studying English in a private institute in Mashhad, Iran. They were divided into four classes (two intermediate and two advanced classes) attending English classes twice a week for 20 sessions. Persian was the first language of all the learners and they were learning English as a foreign language.

### B. Procedures

Two sessions of each one of these classes were recorded during a term of learning English by a high quality recorder. The recorded material was listened carefully several times and the cases in which learners repair their talk while conversing with their teachers were chosen and transcribed using the system and symbols designed by Gail Jefferson and published by Lerner (2004). At first the cases of repair were categorized based on the position of repair initiations, and then they were further categorized in each position according to the devices and strategies learners used to initiate them. The types of repair completion (self or other-repair) were also taken into account for each type of repair in every position. The purpose was to find out the ways these two groups repair their talk while interacting with their teachers and the differences between them.

## IV. RESULTS

### A. Same Turn

Both groups used cut-offs to initiate repair in the same turn as the trouble source when the trouble has already been produced. In all cases of repair initiations among intermediate learners and some cases among advanced learners, cut-offs happened in the middle of the words to stop the articulation of next sounds as in extract 1.

(1) [Intermediate]
S:  she cleaned hi- her room
    (S=student    T=teacher)

In this extract, the learner interrupted the production of the word "his" and substituted the new word "her". The cut-off was used to postpone the production of the trouble to repair the problematic element. Talk after cut-off was congruent with the turn so far in this case. Unlike intermediate learners, advanced learners used cut-offs also in a different way to interrupt the syntax of the sentences and started new sentences which were not consistent with the turn so far as in extract 2.

(2) [Advanced]
S:  my question was out of- I (.) just wanted to know

In this extract, the student's turn before cut-off projected one particular trajectory (*it was out of*) which was cut-off and a new trajectory began (*I just wanted to know*). The talk after cut-off launched a different turn shape and a different possible completion. Talk after cut-off was not consistent with the turn so far in this extract.

Other non-lexical perturbations (*uh & uhm*, pauses and sound stretches) were used by both groups to initiate repair in this position. They used *uh & uhm* and pauses to stop the articulation of next elements in the turn. They happened outside word boundaries to repair a next element. Unlike repair with cut-offs the trouble had not been produced yet with repair through *uh & uhm* and pauses and talks after them were always congruent with the talks so far. Sound stretches were also used by both groups of learners with the same goal as pauses to create some time to search for some unavailable items.

In some cases both groups of learners initiated repair for a particular trouble, but replaced an earlier part to avoid the missing element as in extract 3.

(3) [Advanced]
S:  maybe you're right but I've never felt uhm: I've never been a >jealous< person

In this extract *uhm:* indicates a search for a noun which was not carried through by the learner. The learner, instead, replaced an earlier part in the turn to avoid the need to produce the missing element.

There were many cases of repair segment (various types of repair initiations in combination) among intermediate and advanced learners as in extract 4.

(4) [Intermediate]
S:  uhm; I read th- gone with the wind uh: the book first then I watched the film fo::r several times

In this extract the student used cut-off to interrupt the ongoing production of *the*, then he used *uhm* and sound stretch on *for* at the end of the sentence to make time to search some unavailable item.

There were also three cases of marking time among intermediate learners which finally ended up being cases of self repair as in extract 5.

(5) [Intermediate]

S:  I told him to:- to find- to find the –uhm to FIND the calendar

In this case the student first used sound stretch on the word *to* but repeated it again two more times after a cut-off and *uhm* until she finally finished the sentence.

The extracts discussed so far were all cases of self-initiated self-repair, however some cases of repair initiations in the same turn were repaired by the recipient of the trouble source or in other words they were cases of self-initiated other-repair as in extracts 6 and 7.

(6) [Intermediate]

S:  the red one is faster uhm: cause the:: those are bigger //

T:  the wheels

S:  yeah.

(7) [Advanced]

S:  you know all kind of - - this feeling is not bad there is uhm: the:: kind you want something fo::r you and others too

T:  envy

S:  yeah thanks.

In both these extracts the students initiated repairs in the same turn as the trouble sources which were searching for some unavailable items but they didn't succeed and the words were given by the teachers in the second turn.

Tables at the end of each sections show the frequency of devices and strategies used by the two groups to initiate repair in each position along with the frequency of repair completions. Based on this table, both groups used almost the same devices and strategies except marking time which only happened among intermediate learners. The most obvious differences between these two groups were in the frequency with which they used every devices and strategies and the frequency of repair completions.

TABLE 1
SAME TURN REPAIR FOR BOTH GROUPS OF LEARNERS

| Group | TR | Cut- offs | Other non-lexical perturbations | Avoiding | Repair segment | Marking time | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Intermediate | SR | 10 | 17 | 8 | 35 | 3 | 73 |
|  | OR | 0 | 2 | 0 | 8 | 0 | 10 |
| Advanced | SR | 17 | 24 | 11 | 54 | 0 | 106 |
|  | OR | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2 |

(TR=type of repair, SR=self-repair, OR=other-repair, N=total number)

*B. Transition Space*

All cases of repair initiations among intermediate learners and some cases among advanced learners in this position happened with no explicit repair initiation markers as in extract 8.

(8) [Intermediate]

S:  it helps me to have a longer live. Life.

In some cases, advanced learners used devices such as *uh & uhm* and *sorry* to indicate repair initiation in the transition space. These devices were used to keep the turn and perform the repair because they indicate a repair on some next level as in extract 9.

(9) [Advanced]

S:  the only thing that can help us in difficult days (0.3) is having a little fate. Sorry faith.

TABLE 2
TRANSITION SPACE REPAIR FOR BOTH GROUPS OF LEARNERS

| Group | TR | No marker | Uh & uhm | sorry | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Intermediate | SR | 8 | 0 | 0 | 8 |
|  | OR | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Advanced | SR | 4 | 3 | 2 | 9 |
|  | OR | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Based on the table above, repair initiation in this position happened with almost the same frequency in both groups. The difference was that intermediate learners always initiated repair in this position with no markers while advanced learners used *uh & uhm* and *sorry* in some cases.

*C. Second Position*

Repair in this position was the first place for other-initiated repair and a range of devices were used by the teachers to initiate repair in this position. These devices can be ranged from most generic (showing no indication of the trouble like *what?*) to the most specific (pointing out the trouble like other question words and partial repeats). Using of more specific devises is called stronger repair initiation and according to Schegloff et al. (1977) there is a preference for stronger over weaker forms of repair initiation.

(10) [Intermediate]

S:   can you say the text again?
T:   what?
S:   the (0.4) topic of [the text
T:   [it was travelling.
(11) [Advanced]
S:   I choose them with no: rule
T:   how?
S:   what was the word (0.2) randomly
T:   got it.

In both these extracts, the learners couldn't convey the meaning of their first turn, so the teachers initiated repair in the second position. Finally, the learners repaired the problem in the third turn by clarifying his previous turn. The most specific way through which teachers initiated repair in this position was using partial repeats as in extract12.

(12) [Advanced]
S:   what do you think about this part () of the argument?
T:   what part?
S:   that in every field uhm: the best one is a man
T:   I think that's kindda true

In this extract the teacher used partial repeat, which was always the combination of what with the trouble, to initiate repair. Partial repeats were the most specific types of devises used by learners in this position and in all cases learners self repaired the trouble in the third position.

Another way through which teachers initiated repair in this position was by using *you mean* and the correct forms of the problems as the teachers' understanding of the learners' first turn as in extract 13.

(13) [Intermediate]
S:   I was busy yesterday and forget to write it
T:   you mean forgot it's past
S:   yeah

Most of the repair initiations in this position were cases of correction in which the recipients of the troubles (teachers) produced the repair. Some cases of corrections were exposed with the teacher just providing the correct form as in extracts 14.

(14) [Intermediate]
T:   why are you learning English?
S:   I like understand news and movies
T:   to understand

In this extract, the teacher just corrected learner's problem in the second position by providing the alternative with no explanation of it what so ever. There were also cases of embedded correction among both groups as in extracts 15.

(15) [Advanced]
S:   I'm usually busy to do that
T:   you're usually too busy to do that
S:   yeah

In this extract, the teacher repaired trouble in the second position. Unlike exposed correction repair was embedded in a full sentence.

TABLE 3
SECOND POSITION REPAIR FOR BOTH GROUPS OF LEARNERS

| Group | TR | What | Other question words | Partial repeats | You mean | Embedded correction | Exposed correction | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Intermediate | SR | 2 | 5 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 11 |
| | OR | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 6 | 29 | 39 |
| Advanced | SR | 3 | 6 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 15 |
| | OR | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 8 | 8 | 18 |

Based on the table above, both groups used the same devices and strategies and again the difference was between the frequencies and repair completion. The most important difference between these two groups was in the number of corrections; exposed correction happened far more in intermediate group. In this position other-repair happened in intermediate group more than twice as much as advanced group.

*D. Third Position*

This position was another opportunity for the producer of the trouble to initiate repair and all cases of repair initiations in this position can be categorized based on Schegloff's (1992) four component format (repair initiating component, the agreement/acceptance component, the rejection component and the repair proper). In the repair initiating component both group of learners used *no* to initiate repair in third position as in extract 16.

(16) [Intermediate]

S:　I like the: first role
T:　so you like Marlon Brando
S:　no the other Godfather
T:　oh Al Pacino

The agreement/acceptance component didn't happen between these two groups of learners. The rejection component happened twice among advanced learners as in extract 17.

(17) [Advanced]
S:　you can't be faithful and be happy in this world
T:　so the world is a mess to you
S:　I don't mean that I mean you can't be uhm: faithful and () happy at the same time

In this extract the learner initiated repair in the third position by rejecting the teacher's understanding of his first turn and repaired it in the third position by using *I don't mean that*.

The repair proper component was the most likely type of repair initiation in third position and happened more frequently among both group. All cases of repair proper component happened by repeating the prior turn with some modifications, such as prosodic marking, to display that the prior turn is being made clear as in extracts 18.

(18) [Advanced]
S:　have you seen unfaithful
T:　yes we had uhm: a neighbor (.) their marriage ended
S:　no I mean unfaithful the movie
T:　oh no.

In this extract, the learner initiated repair in the third position. She modified her talk by stressing the word "movie" to resolve the source of misunderstanding. All cases of repair proper ended up by being cases of self repair.

TABLE 4
THIRD POSITION REPAIR FOR BOTH GROUPS OF LEARNERS

| Group | TR | Repair initiating component | Rejection component | Repair proper | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Intermediate | SR | 2 | 0 | 5 | 7 |
| | OR | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Advanced | SR | 4 | 2 | 7 | 13 |
| | OR | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Based on the table above, third position repair happened among advanced group almost twice as much as intermediate group. Another difference was that the rejection component happened just among advanced learners.

*E. Fourth Position*

In this position the troubles that had not been resolved in the previous turns with the speaker and the recipient were dealt with. Fourth position repair was very rare among both groups of learners and most of the problems were resolved before this turn. It happened once among intermediate and once among advance learners which were both cases of other-repair as in extract 19.

(19) [Intermediate]
T:　is this film familiar?
S:　this one is pretty easy
T:　do you know the name of the film, Sahar?
S:　yeah
(0.3)
T:　we're waiting for you to say it
S:　oh, Gone with [the wind
T:　[thanks

Here teacher's original turn can be understood as a pre-request to name the film. Student's action following teacher's turn indicates that she is acting on turn as asking her whether she knows the name or not. Teacher then produces another form of the request designed to follow up her original turn.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Both groups used many similar and some different devices and strategies to initiate repair in different positions. Cut-offs, other non-lexical perturbations, avoiding, repair segment and marking time were the devices and strategies used by intermediate learners for repair initiation in the same turn position. Advanced learners used the same devices and strategies in this position except for marking time which didn't happen among this group. The difference between these two groups in this position was the number of times they used each devices and strategies e.g. advanced learners used cut-offs, other non lexical perturbations, avoiding and repair segment far more than intermediate learners. Another important difference between these two groups in this position was the fact that just two cases of repair initiations in this position wounded up to be cases of other-repair among advanced learners but this number for intermediate learners

was 10. Repair initiation in the same turn happened far more among advanced learners due to their stronger ability to keep the turn by the use of different devices and strategies. Teachers can help learners in lower levels by teaching them several devices and strategies for keeping the turn. The more devices and strategies learners know, the more they can keep their turns. This ability helps learners to repair their problems by themselves and move forward during the process of learning.

In the transition space, the big difference between the two groups was the fact that intermediate learners initiate repairs in this position with no repair initiation markers but advanced learners use devices like *uh* & *uhm* and *sorry* more than half of the times. All cases of repair initiations in this position were cases of self-repair. Results in this position also showed the intermediate group's lack of ability to use devices showing a repair in the transition space following the first turn.

There were two big differences between these two groups of learners in the second position repair. The first one was that exposed correction was used far more among intermediate group than advanced group. The second one was the fact that the cases of other-repair among intermediate learners were more than twice as much as advanced learners. Other differences were all about the number of times each group used every devices and strategies. One of the most important implications of this study is drawn from the repair initiation in the second position. Corrections happened far more in intermediate group and most of them were exposed corrections. Corrections avoid learners from the opportunity to repair their talk and just provide the correct forms. It's better if teachers provide opportunities for learners to repair their talk by themselves.

In the third position, advanced learners used repair initiating component, rejection component and repair proper to initiate repair but intermediate learners just used the first and the third strategies and rejection component didn't happen among this group. Another difference was again in the number of times each group used these strategies. The small number of repair initiations in the third position can be an indicator of teachers' intolerance toward problems in learners' talk. Sometimes it is better to give learners opportunities to figure out the problems by themselves. Teachers can give them this opportunity from time to time and if they did not correct their problems, teachers can repair their talk in the next turn which is the fourth position. Finally, fourth position repair happened once among each group and there was no difference between the way the initiate repair in this position.

To sum up, it can be said that learners in more advanced level repaired their talk more so we can say that using repair is a sign of growth in learners' knowledge of the language they are learning. But the most important implication of this study is the fact that more advanced learners repair their talk more by themselves than less advanced ones. Based on the findings of this study, the ability to self-repair is a sign of development in foreign language learning, so if teachers let learners self-repair their talk, they facilitate the process of learning. Teachers can initiate repair and let learners self-repair their talk instead of providing the correct forms.

## APPENDIX. TRANSCRIPTION SYMBOLS

// double obliques indicate the point at which a current speaker's talk is overlapped by the talk of the another.

[ a left bracket indicates the point of overlap onset.

] a right bracket indicates the point at which two overlapping utterances end. If they end simultaneously, or the point at which one of them ends in the course of the other. It also is used to parse out segments of overlapping utterances.

= equal signs indicate no break or gap.

A pair of equals, one at the end of one line and one at the beginning of the next, indicate no break between the lines.

The pair is also used as a transcript convenience when a single speaker's talk is broken up in the transcript, but is actually through-produced by the speaker.

A single equal sign indicates no break in an ongoing piece of talk, where one might otherwise expect it, e.g., after a completed          sentence.

(0.0) numbers in parentheses indicate elapsed time by tenth of seconds.

- - double dashes indicate a short, untimed interval without talk, e.g., a 'beat'.

(.) a dot in parentheses indicates a brief interval (a tenth of a second) within or between utterances.

__ underscoring indicates some sort of stress, via pitch and/or amplitude.

A short underscore indicates lighter stress than does a longer underscore.

:: colons indicate prolongation of the immediately prior sound. The longer the colon row, the longer the prolongation.

:_ combinations of underscore and colon indicate intonation contours. Basically, the underscore punches up the sound it occurs beneath.

.,?? punctuation markers are used to indicate the usual intonation.

WORD  upper case indicates especially loud sounds relative to the surrounding talk.

<word  a pre-positioned left carat is a left push, indicating a hurried start; in effect, an utterance trying to have started a bit sooner than it actually did. This can be heard, for example, as a compressed onset of the utterance-part in question. A common locus of this phenomenon is self repair.

Word<  a post positioned left carat indicates that while a word is fully completed, it seems to stop suddenly.

- a dash indicates a cut-off.

>< right/left carats bracketing an utterance or utterance-part indicate that the bracketed material is speeded up, compared to the surrounding talk.

<> left/right carats bracketing an utterance or utterance-part indicate that the bracketed material is slowed down, compared to the surrounding talk.

.hhh a dot-prefixed row of h's within a word indicates an inbreath. Without the dot, the h's indicate an outbreath.

Wohhrd A row of h's within a word indicates breathiness. In some transcripts the h's are italicized, in some not.

(h) paranthesized h indicates plosiveness. This can be associated with laughter, crying, breathlessness, etc.

£ the pound-sterling sign indicates a certain quality of voice conveys supressed laughter.

Wghord a gh stuck into a word indicates gutteralness. In some transcripts the gh is italicized, in others, not.

() empty parentheses indicate that the transcriber was unable to get what was said. The length of the parenthesized space reflects the length of the ungotten talk.

(word) parenthesized words and speaker designations are especially dubious.

(blerf) nonsense syllables are sometimes provided, to give at least an indication of various features of the ungotten material.

(( )) doubled parentheses contain transcriber's descriptions.

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# The Integration of Dictionary Use Strategy Training into Basic English Class

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*Abstract*—Based on the previous research which showed that students knew little about effective ways of dictionary consultation due to the lack of formal dictionary use training, the author worked out specific teaching contents and approaches on dictionary use strategy training, and systematically carried them out among 80 first-year English majors by integrating the training into their Basic English class. The follow-up interview showed that students' efficiency in using dictionaries and their independent language learning had been improved through the training.

*Index Terms*—dictionary use strategy, training, English majors, basic English

## I. INTRODUCTION

Chinese *Syllabus for College English Majors* requires clearly that in terms of using reference books, freshmen and sophomores should "be skillful in using bilingual dictionaries and easy monolingual dictionaries", juniors and seniors should "be adept at using all kinds of monolingual dictionaries and large encyclopedias, be able to solve problems in both language and other fields".

However, our observation and previous research (Liu Lin, 2013) revealed that though teachers are aware of the importance of encouraging students to use dictionaries in English learning and have taken certain measures, they do not know exactly how to guide students to use dictionaries efficiently. Few teachers have systematically taught students to use dictionaries, or designed various exercises to train students' dictionary use strategies. Also, few teachers tell students the types of dictionaries and their usages appropriate at different learning phases and in different learning activities.

The lack of training and instruction resulted in a series of problems. Firstly, when buying dictionaries, faced with different kinds of dictionaries from different publishers, students do not know which one to choose. Secondly, though students have mastered some basic skills of consulting dictionaries, they are still confused about how to take advantage of dictionary use strategies for English learning. The problems are manifested as follows: 1) Students rely too much on mobile phone dictionaries or pocket e-dictionaries. 2) Students know little about high-quality pedagogical dictionaries, let alone monolingual dictionaries. 3) When looking up a word in a dictionary, students only read the first or the first few meanings, without paying attention to other meanings, illustrative sentences, or collocations. 4) After buying a dictionary, students rarely read the preface, guide to using the dictionary, style explanation, appendices and other required readings, thus resulting in the misuse of dictionary. Consequently, it is often the case that in reading, students do not know when to consult dictionaries or even though they have consulted the dictionary, they only apply the meanings mechanically; in translation, students often mistranslate words and phrases; in writing, they rely too much on sentence to sentence translation, with Chinglish emerging endlessly.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Researches on dictionary use mainly focused on three aspects: types of dictionaries used by language learners (Cubillo, 2002; Lang Jianguo&Li Jin, 2003; Chen Yuzhen, 2007); the purposes of using dictionaries by language learners (Bejoint, 1981; Atkins & Varantola, 1998; Shi Gengshan & Chen Guohua, 2007); language learners' dictionary use strategies (Laufer & Kimmel 1997; Zhao Wei, 2004; Meng Zhen & Shao Chenghua, 2005; Chen Yuzhen, 2008).

Researchers abroad explored specific perspectives of dictionary use. For example, Huang Shufen and Zohreh Eslami (2013) discussed the use of dictionary and contextual guessing strategies for vocabulary learning by advanced English-language learners. Holi Ibrahim Holi Ali (2012) examined monolingual dictionary use in an EFL context.

Researchers in China found the urgency that students didn't have sufficient dictionary use strategies. They suggested that teachers should give expert guidance in students' dictionary use. For instance Chen Yuzhen (2008) proposed that training should be offered to teachers so that they can give effective guidance to students in dictionary use. Chen Min and Li Shoujing (2009) conducted a survey on first-year students' dictionary use in vocabulary learning, and found out that students' poor skills of using dictionary had a negative influence on their learning efficiency. They deemed it necessary to integrate the instruction of dictionary use into regular teaching, and teachers should have the awareness to provide guidance to develop students' dictionary use strategies.

However, most of the researches merely drew some conclusions from the survey on dictionary use and put forward

some suggestions based on the discussion of the results. Only a few empirical researches explored how to practically cultivate students' dictionary use strategy in classroom teaching. A typical example is An Innovative Research on High School English Teaching Based on E-dictionary (Wang Qiang & Chen Zehang, 2011) carried out by the Institute of Foreign Language Education and Teacher Education of Bei Jing Normal University from 2008 to 2009, which found that classroom training and instruction played a very important role in students' dictionary use strategies. But it is infeasible for all the students to have the same kind of advanced and expensive e-dictionary in English class unless being subsidized as what was done in that research. Li Hongna (2007) probes into the influence of dictionary use strategy training on students' vocabulary learning. But the research neglected the fact that dictionaries are not only used in learning vocabulary, but also in other aspects of language learning such as reading, translation and writing.

Since dictionaries are indispensable in all aspects of language learning, using dictionaries properly was regarded as one of the cognitive strategies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990), which also reflects students' autonomous learning ability. Therefore, it is necessary to introduce the instruction of dictionary use strategy in English major teaching so as to help learners solve many language problems by themselves.

However, with limited conditions, it is infeasible to offer professional dictionary use courses for freshmen. Henri Béjoint (1994) points out that the most efficient teaching method for dictionary users is to integrate dictionary use training into regular courses so as to get dictionary use teaching finished in classroom teaching system. As Basic English is a highly comprehensive course with many class hours and is set for lower grade students, it is appropriate to integrate dictionary use strategy training into the teaching of Basic English flexibly.

### III. DICTIONARY USE STRATEGY TRAINING

#### A. Subjects

The subjects participated in the training were 80 first-year English majors who just completed their first semester's study.

#### B. Teaching Principle

The research plans to combine dictionary lectures with regular Basic English teaching and students' extra-class study. Tasks are designed in dictionary lectures to enhance students' efficiency of using dictionaries as well as raise students' awareness of using strategies. Meanwhile, students' dictionary using strategies are constantly practiced in regular Basic English class as well as extra-class study, which, in turn, reflects the problems and students' need in using dictionaries in English study, thus provide materials and basis for dictionary lectures. In regular Basic English class, teachers can encourage students' initiative by asking them to share their notes taken in their extra-class study. Through extra-class study, students can practice the dictionary using strategies, obtain more proficiency, and expand the knowledge learned in class. Figure 1 illustrates the interrelationship among dictionary lecture, regular Basic English class and extra-class study.
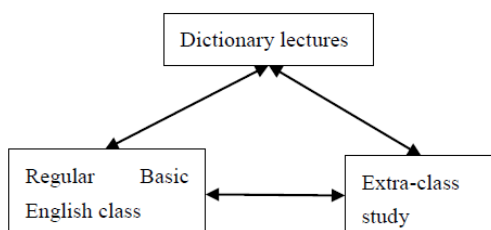


Figure 1. The interrelationship among dictionary lecture, regular Basic English class and extra-class study.

#### C. Procedures

Nine lectures concerning the using of dictionaries are given to the students during one semester.

Lecture 1: How to choose and use English dictionaries. This lecture includes the following five contents. 1) The definition of English learning dictionaries, their characteristics and good examples of learning dictionaries. 2) Definition and examples of bilingualized dictionaries as well as illustration of the advantages of binlingualized dictionaries over bilingual dictionaries. 3) Using different dictionaries to solve different problems (see Table 1). 4) Preface and user guide in dictionaries. 5) How to choose a dictionary.

TABLE 1.
USING DIFFERENT DICTIONARIES TO SOLVE DIFFERENT PROBLEMS

| Types of dictionaries | Functions | Examples |
|---|---|---|
| Monolingual dictionary | 1. The exact meaning of an unknown word<br>2. New meanings of a known word<br>3. Slangs, colloquialism | *Macmillan English Dictionary For Advanced Learners of American English* (Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, 2003) |
| English-Chinese dictionary | Difficult words, rarely used words | *A New English-Chinese Dictionary* (Shanghai Translation Publishing House, 2003) |
| Bilingualized dictionary | Learning basic words | *Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary* (The Commercial Press / Oxford University Press, 2004) |
| Chinese-English dictionary | Chinese-English translation | *A Modern Chinese-English Dictionary* (Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, 2001) |
| pocket e-dictionary / mobile-phone dictionary | 1. Follow teacher's teaching<br>2. After-class fast reading | OZING, Noah, Hanvon |

Lecture 2: Introduction to some commonly used English dictionaries. This lecture introduces seven types of dictionary in terms of their sizes, purposes, characteristics, functions, merits and demerits. The dictionaries introduced in this lecture include *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE)*, *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (ALD)*, *Collins Dictionary of the English Language (CDOEL)*, *Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language (WNWD)*, *Dictionaries of idioms*, *Dictionaries of collocations*, *Dictionaries of synonyms and thesauri*.

Lecture 3: Using monolingual dictionaries in English study. This lecture introduces some monolingual dictionaries such as *Oxford Student's Dictionary of Current English*, *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, *Penguin English Student's Dictionary*, *Concise Oxford Dictionary* and *Cambridge International Dictionary of English*. Students are encouraged to choose proper dictionaries according to their different proficiency. Sufficient examples are offered to illustrate the functions of monolingual dictionaries: Students can be exposed to English by consulting monolingual dictionaries. They can learn to think in English and hence reduce the chance of making Chinglish. Properly choosing a monolingual dictionary and using it can help students to understand the exact meaning of words, and improve their English writing ability.

Lecture 4: Using dictionaries to gain improvement in reading and vocabulary.

Based on a passage, the teacher designed exercises and activities for students to grasp the main idea of the passage, guess the meanings of words according to their context, analyze word formation, and compare different words with the help of dictionary so as to get an idea of how to express views with proper words. In forms of independent learning, exploration and collaboration, students experienced how to guess meanings from contexts, how to clear away vocabulary obstacles in reading with the help of dictionaries. The purpose is to increase students' speed and raise their interest in reading, develop their ability to choose proper words in writing and cultivate their comprehensive ability in reading.

Lecture 5: Using dictionaries in translation from English into Chinese. Four steps are designed to help students make the best of dictionary in prose translation: 1) understand the prose; 2) find out difficult words; 3) try to translate the difficult words with the help of the Chinese-English Dictionary; 4) decide which English word or phrase should be used with the help of the English-English dictionary, English-Chinese Dictionary, the Collocation Dictionary, etc. Divide students into groups of four and ask them to appreciate and translate *Sonnet 18* and *A Red, Red Rose* into Chinese through group discussion. Students participated actively in the activities, and produced fine translations. The reasons may be as follows: Firstly, students could understand the poems very well. Secondly, the topic of "love" is attractive to them. They like to discuss and experience the different ways of expressing love by ancient and contemparay poets. Thirdly, using dictionaries throughout the whole class made the previously boring and difficult appreciation for poems become active, relaxing and operational.

Lecture 6: Using dictionaries in translation from Chinese into English. Students work in groups of four to translate a selected part of the Chinese prose *Moonlight over the Lotus Pond*. They shall follow the same four steps in Lecture 5, get prepared for the presentation in which each group should show the class how they manage to translate it. They may need someone to write on the blackboard, someone to handle dictionaries and someone to give a short speech about their choice of words. The teacher gives necessary feedback and comment on their presentation.

For the students, translating proses or poems is indeed not an easy task, because their proficiency cannot ensure faithful, expressive and elegant translation. But it's not so hard to overcome the difficulties in word choice with the help of dictionaries. Their translation showed that they could make the best use of dictionaries to seek the right word in translation.

Lecture 7: Writing conference. This lecture is composed of four steps. 1) Provide students with specific living examples in students' writing and analyze their problems of inappropriate choice of words and Chinglish in writing. Teacher should draw students' awareness to the fact that using dictionaries properly can help to avoid those problems and thus improve their writing. 2) Assisted by dictionaries, the teacher, together with students, revise one piece of writing written by a student, to learn how to polish an article. Draw students' attention to the following perspectives: Chinglish, improper collocation and mistakes in part of speech. 3) Students work in groups of four, discuss and revise the articles delivered to their group written by their classmates. 4) Each group presents their product of revision.

Working in groups to revise their own writing with the help of dictionaries can improve students' both awareness and ability of using language appropriately.

Lecture 8: Using semantic information in dictionaries. In forms of teacher's explanation and illustration, this lecture elaborates the importance of using semantic information in dictionaries in the following three aspects: 1) Definitions of an entry word include its basic meaning, extended meaning, figurative meaning, etc.. Figurative meaning contains its cultural implication which is significant to the understanding and application of language. Besides, dictionaries also provide synonyms, antonyms and derivations of words, which are helpful to improve the diversity and flexibility in writing. Some additional information such as labels for part of speech, grammar, style, etc. is also useful in students' writing. 2) Examples in an entry can specifically reflect its usage patterns, enhancing the learners to express their ideas correctly and properly. However, learners should not rely on only one dictionary. Sometimes they need to consult more than one dictionary to get satisfactory examples. 3) Fixed collocation of words is a typical reflection of English mode of thinking. By learning fixed collocations, students can create more native-like expressions in their writing.

Lecture 9: English writing with the help of dictionaries. Ask students to write an article of 200 words entitled Should Smoking Be Banned. Design three pre-writing activities, namely word tree, words differentiation and filling in proper connectives for an article. Students are required to complete these tasks in forms of group collaboration. During writing, students should use dictionaries to make sure that they can choose the right words, compose correct and proper sentences and argue in logical order.

## IV.    POST-TRAINING INTERVIEW

### A.    Subjects and Instrument

One week after the training, we conducted a half-structured interview. 20 students were randomly selected from the 80 students who received dictionary use strategy training. They commented on their dictionary use, explained reasons for selecting a certain strategy. A tape recorder was used to record the interview. All the tapes were transcribed and analyzed immediately after the interview was finished.

### B.    Results and Discussion

The training had great influence on students' English learning.

Before the training, when they came across a new word in reading, students could only guess its meaning from the context. After the training, they have learned to observe its usage and figure out its collocation and usage pattern from its context.

Distinguishing between synonyms has been a tough problem in students' English learning. But in the training, the teacher assigned synonyms for students to distinguish in the first place, and then asked them to distinguish synonyms they found in reading materials they chose for themselves in extra-class study. In this way, students' initiative was greatly improved. In addition, in the later part of the training, the focus was shifted from synonym distinction to the translation and composition of poems and proses, namely from word level up to the passage level. Students' ability has been further improved.

Dictionaries play a positive and active role in translating and writing, which involve the choice among different words, since they are language producing processes. Therefore, how to choose the most appropriate word to convey feelings and meanings becomes the focus of the later part of the training. By presenting how to translate poems and proses, the teacher led students to seek the right words with the help of dictionaries. After a series of training, students can properly translate some ancient poems and contemporary proses on their own. Starting from synonym distinction, the expected purpose of the training, that is, holistically improve students' ability to use language, has been achieved.

## V.    THE TEACHER'S EXPERIENCE IN THE TRAINING

### A.    The Influence of the Training on the Teacher

Teacher's working focus has been shifted due to the influence of dictionary on students learning as well as the rearrangement of class time. Before teaching dictionary use strategy, teachers spent much time consulting dictionaries for the explanations and usages of words during the preparation of the lessons. Teaching efficiency was poor and students needed to be supervised and compelled by the teacher to finish their homework. However, after the teaching of dictionary use strategies, teacher's time on preparation for lessons has been spent in designing activities to improve students' independent study. When preparing for a lesson, the teacher will firstly think about which words can be learned by students on their own, and which words need to be learned together with teacher and other students through discussion. The teacher began to attach much importance to students' observation of illustrative sentences, let students find out the usage of words by themselves, so as to raise their language awareness.

It is not the teacher who speaks for the whole class. Sometimes a student's accurate understanding of a word in a certain context brings the house down. Using dictionaries makes the class full of happiness resulting from the discovery of language rules and the creative use of target language. What the teacher does after class is not urge students to review lessons, but deal with students' eagerness for learning. Though teacher's amount of work was not reduced, the later working state gives the teacher more career satisfaction and makes teaching more effective.

The teacher plays the leading role in the training. She is the one who designs and implements the teaching of dictionary use strategies. In the processes of preparing for the lesson, having class and discussing with students, along with students' formation of good learning habit and improvement of learning efficiency, the teacher has got her own professional development.

*B. Some Common Problems Occurred in the Training and Their Solutions*

Students hold different dictionaries in class, which may bring about some difficulty in the dictionary using activities. For the same entry word, they may find out different explanations and illustrative sentences. It is undoubtedly desirable if students are required to use the same kind of dictionaries. But teachers can draw students' attention to the explanation, collocation and usage of words, ask them to compare the explanations since they may be different in different dictionaries. The different dictionaries can enrich illustrative sentences for the students.

At the beginning, learning may be slow in class. There may not be too many activities in class since the main purpose is to teach strategies to students. Homework concerning dictionary use may be assigned to students, with detailed requirement being specifically stated. As students' ability improves, they will use dictionaries more and more skillfully.

It is desirable that the time spent on using dictionaries be limited to 10 to 20 minutes. Too long a time may distract students' attention, and hence reduce class efficiency. The best effect can be achieved if dynamic strategies of teaching and learning vocabulary can be used.

## VI. CONCLUSION

It is necessary for teachers to instruct effective strategies of using dictionary. This research suggests that ownership of dictionary does not necessarily mean the effective use of dictionary. Teachers' instruction with specific purpose and practical plan, plays an important role in students' dictionary use. Before the training, students merely used dictionary as a tool for translation. They depended more on Chinese explanations than the English ones. They paid little attention to the collocation, derivation and illustrative sentences in the entry. In the one-term training, students experienced various functions of dictionaries through the completion of dictionary using tasks designed by the teacher, and gradually achieved dictionary use strategies under teacher's guidance. Now, when they come across new words, they have their own judgment as to which words only need guessing based on their contexts, which words need to be looked up in the dictionary, which need to be studied in detail and which need not. Meanwhile, students have learned to pay close attention to such information in the entry as pronunciation, illustration, derivation and collocation.

Teachers should pay enough attention to the significance of dictionary use strategies, which is one of the cognitive strategies. In their teaching practice, teachers should fully recognize the current situation that students are lack of systematic knowledge and strategies of using dictionaries, and make plans to train them in this aspect accordingly. Dictionary is the most successful and important book about language, in which the explanations and illustrations provide contexts for learners of non-English natives to determine the meaning and conventional usage of words, and offer further distinction of meanings so as to tell learners how to speak and write in that language. Therefore, teachers should strengthen their instruction of how to learn illustrations in dictionaries to students, so that students can use such a resource effectively.

It is feasible to integrate the teaching of dictionary use strategy into Basic English class. This research proves that dictionary has positive influence on various aspects of English learning, and that it is feasible to integrate the teaching of dictionary use strategy into Basic English class because it improves the traditional approach of teaching vocabulary. By using dictionaries, students' initiative of learning has been raised and their interest and confidence have been stirred. Teaching approaches have been enriched and refreshed and classroom atmosphere has become livelier.

The cultivation of students' dictionary use strategy is a work that is done once and for all. By scientifically integrate dictionary use strategy teaching into Basic English teaching and make it in coherence with the whole process of English major teaching, the quality of teaching can be improved to a large extent, and the existing teaching structure and pattern of Basic English can be optimized.

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# The Ticking Mind and Beating Heart: Speaking, Imagination and Empathic Intelligence

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*Abstract*—This study was an attempt to investigate the nature of inter-subjective and intra-subjective phenomena in terms of the interface between language, thought, feelings as well as the relationships between teachers and students. In effect, this study discusses the mentioned issues by focusing on the argument that a sensitive attention should be given to the embodied language experiences brought by students into the class in order to demystify the discourse experiences which enhance or impede students' language progress. To this end, an eclectic model has been designed and developed based on some particular principles suggested by different approaches in CDA along with emphatic intelligence. Hence, a number of advanced Iranian students learning English as a foreign language were selected as the participants of the study who went under a 120-hour instruction. The study revealed that in teaching speaking skill, a kaleidoscopic view needs to be adopted in terms of the relation between and among the interlocutors in which the social relations seem to be crucial.

*Index Terms*—critical discourse analysis, emphatic intelligence, inter-subjectivity, intra-subjectivity, kaleidoscopic view

## I. INTRODUCTION

Speaking skill is one of the most challenging issues language learners have to deal with. Speaking proficiency seems to be one of the main priorities for language learners. In fact, language learners tend to evaluate their progress in English through their speaking skill. It is worth mentioning that oral skills in general and speaking skill in particular have been the focus of almost all language textbooks through conversations or pair works. In effect, a variety of approaches, according to Richards (1990), have been resorted to in dealing with speaking (e.g. direct approach in which some particular features of oral interaction are elaborated like turn taking, topic management or oral strategies; and also indirect approach in which the attention is directed to conditions, context, or task work as well as group work, etc.).

McCarthy and Carter (1997) argued that so many attentions have been directed to oral proficiency which revealed that the nature of speaking is totally different from that of writing. McCarthy and Carter (1997) continued that the observed differences are depicting the purposes of choosing writing or speaking mediums for communication.

Spoken discourse, according to Luoma (2004), is composed of conjoined phrases and clauses, planned and unplanned speech, laden with more vague and generic vocabularies, fixed phrases, fillers or hesitation markers, slips and errors, and are formal or casual.

Considering the fact that a comprehensive language learning takes place in a situation in which diverse dimensions are developed; a blended and eclectic model seems to be conceivable since speaking as a challenging skill involves a vast variety of factors—productivity, purposefulness, interactivity, challenge and authenticity besides vocabulary, structural and phonological accuracy. Hence, speaking as a skill means a particular combination of critical thinking, imagination, body language, vocabulary, structure, stress, intonation, voice, etc. Hence, among different involved factors in speaking skill, three factors of critical thinking, imagination and emphatic intelligence are worthy to be reflected.

Resorting to the inter-subjective and intra-subjective nature of language learning; using five models of CDA, an interface was made between language, thought, and feelings. In effect, the presents study by considering the relationship between teacher and students as well as the embodied language experiences brought by students into the class tries to design a framework in teaching speaking skill to enhance students' speaking proficiency. To this end, an eclectic model has been designed and developed based on the particular principles suggested through Fairclough's (2001) three-dimensional model, Van Dijk's (2001) sociocognitive model, Jäger's (2001) discourse and dispositive model, Wodak's (2001) historical model, as well as Scolon's (2001) mediated discourse analysis model. It is worth mentioning that the adopted model based on which the study was conducted developed through blending some particulars of different approaches in CDA along with emphatic intelligence as the best method to meet the needs of the

study. The following sheds light on the concepts crucial in conducting the present study, i.e. CDA, emphatic intelligence, as well as speaking skill, teachers and learners.

## II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

### A. Critical Discourse Analysis: Theoretical Definition

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is an academic research activity aiming to investigate "the power relations, ideological manipulations, and hegemony" (Rahimi & Sahragard, 2007, p.1). CDA indicates what has been formerly known as critical linguistics (CL) (Wodak, 2002) which emerged in the late 1970s (Fowler and Kress, 1979). Critical theory provides a critical perspective or attitude towards society (Rahimi & Sahragard, 2007). Fairclough (1995) defines critical theory as "any theory concerned with critique of ideology and the effects of domination" (p.20).

Systemic functional linguistics (SFL) which was introduced by Halliday is the basic ground for CL or nowadays CDA. It is a theory of grammatical description that considers language as a semiotic system. This theory recognizes several strata for language. The description part of this theory seeks to provide a general grammar applicable to text analysis as well as in the interpretation of the text (Webster, 2003). SFL has different but inter-related functions (Halliday, 1985). Halliday (1985, p. XXVI) presents SFL as:

(…) a theory of language as choice. It represents a language, or any part of language, as a resource for making meaning by choosing. Each choice point in the network specifies (1) an environment, consisting of choices already made, and (2) a set of possibilities of which one is (to be ) chosen; (1) and (2) taken together constitute a 'system' in this technical sense (…)

Hence, CDA embarks on deciphering and demystifying both "opaque and transparent structural relationships of dominance, discrimination, power and control" (Wodak, 2007, pp.208-209). Wodak (2001) argued that "CDA sees language as 'social practice' (p. 1), and considers the context of language use to be crucial (Weiss and Wodak, 2003). She assumed three concepts of critique, power, history and ideology as indispensable elements in all CDA.

Wodak (2001) elaborates that the main purpose of CDA is revealing "the opacities in discourse which contribute to the exercise, maintenance, or reproduction of unequal relations of power" (p.258). It means that the ambiguous utterances are elucidated in order to uncover the unequal power structures governing the society.

CDA as a new paradigm in the domain of applied linguistics has been so thriving that most studies are now conducted based on its principles. Students bring their experiences of language, communication, culture, personal issues and even their emotional feelings, their knowledge of the world, of language, etc. It seems that CDA may suggest some procedures or principles adapting into real language context especially for enhancing speaking and resolving the observed challenges. Yet, the role played by emotions and feelings cannot be ignored. There is compelling evidence for blending speaking skill with emphatic intelligence and imagination. In fact, CDA may be beneficial in enhancing oral proficiency through blending and modeling imagination, emphatic intelligence and different skills of language in general and speaking skill in particular.

### B. Emphatic Intelligence

One of the issues worth mentioning is related to the fact that effective teaching and learning needs to occur in an emotional along with intellectual context where individuals' personal experiences, value systems, skills, abilities and even the emotional and intellectual challenges the students go through were considered. Arnold (1991, 1993, 1994, & 1998) argued that effective teaching occurs in a dynamic situation in which thoughts and feeling were reconciled through the relations between teacher and students.

Hence, emphatic intelligence seems to be a crucial factor influences the performances of the teachers since, it refers to the capacity by which the students are stimulated to engage in the process of learning along with the enthusiasm and expertise it provides for the teacher. In other words, the concept of emphatic intelligence highlights a liberal, democratic, student-centered educational paradigm which emerged during 1960s by John Dewey.

In effect, emphatic intelligence refers to a concept through which inter-subjectivity (dynamic relations between subjects) and intra-subjectivity (dynamic experiences within the subjects) are expressed (Arnold, 1993). Arnold (1993) considers inter-subjectivity and intra-subjectivity as the influential factors for learning. Hence, emphatic intelligence refers to the capacity to adjust oneself towards others, to reflect oneself and to mirror others. In effect, Arnold considers emphatic intelligence as an intelligently caring context.

## III. METHODOLOGY

The aim of the present study was to design and develop an innovative model in order to resolve the difficulties the learners go through in achieving a satisfactory proficiency in using speaking skill. In fact, the study aimed to examine the potentials of an eclectic model of CDA to improve the speaking proficiency of Iranian EFL students. This study involved both quantitative and qualitative analyses, but the overall design of this investigation was a qualitative position.

### A. Research Questions

The following research questions were posed about the two groups of learners (experimental and control):

1. What are the differences between the performances of students who went under instruction through the designed innovative model and those who went under instruction through the usual model?

2. What are the differences between the performances of the subjects before and after instruction?

### B. Participants

The participants of the present study were 60 advanced language learners from two intact classes of a language institutes in Shiraz (*Farda Language Institute*), with 30 students in each (15 females and 15 males), i.e. experimental group and control group. The classes were held for six two-hour sessions per week for a total of 120 hours over 10 weeks. Therefore, during the course, diverse themes and topics were covered (Family; Education; Jobs; Hobbies and interests; Hometown; Transportation; Shopping; Television; Gifts; Travel; Success; Adventure; Food; fashion). The experimental group went through an eclectic model but the control groups went through a traditional method of teaching speaking.

### C. Method

In conducting the present study an eclectic model was selected and adopted based on the particular principles suggested by Fairclough's (2001) three-dimensional model, Van Dijk's (2001) sociocognitive model, J äger's (2001) discourse and dispositive model, Wodak's (2001) historical model, as well as Scolon's (2001) mediated discourse analysis model along with the emphatic intelligence. In effect, considering the concept of discourse planes introduced by Jager (2001), which refers to " the societal locations from which `speaking' happens" (Jager, 2001, p. 49), the present study assumed the discourse planes as the diverse genres like science(s), politics, media, education, everyday life, business life, administration, etc. which is working as an umbrella contains other factors.

To this end, borrowing from Jager (2001), the concept of discourse position as a sub-category of discourse plane was assumed as "the specific ideological location of a person or a medium (Jager, 2001, p. 49). Jager (1996) defines discourse position as the location from which the participation in the discourse and assessment of it for individuals and/or groups and institutions result. It produces and reproduces the special discursive entanglements, which feed on the hitherto experienced and current life situation of those involved in the discourse. Thus, the discourse position is the result of the involvement in, of being `knitted into', various discourses to which the individual has been subjected and which it has processed into a certain ideological position during the course of its life. (p. 47)

in operationalizing the model, the discourse position were supposed to be composed of the four elements of nexus of practice, mediated means, social relations and cultural values which seems to be crucial in any speaking task.

Furthermore, the students were exposed to diverse topics which is based on the semantic macro-structure of the adopted model in which practice, genre, discourse fragments or texts and emphatic intelligence were crucial. The following diagram shows the designed model in teaching speaking to the experimental group.
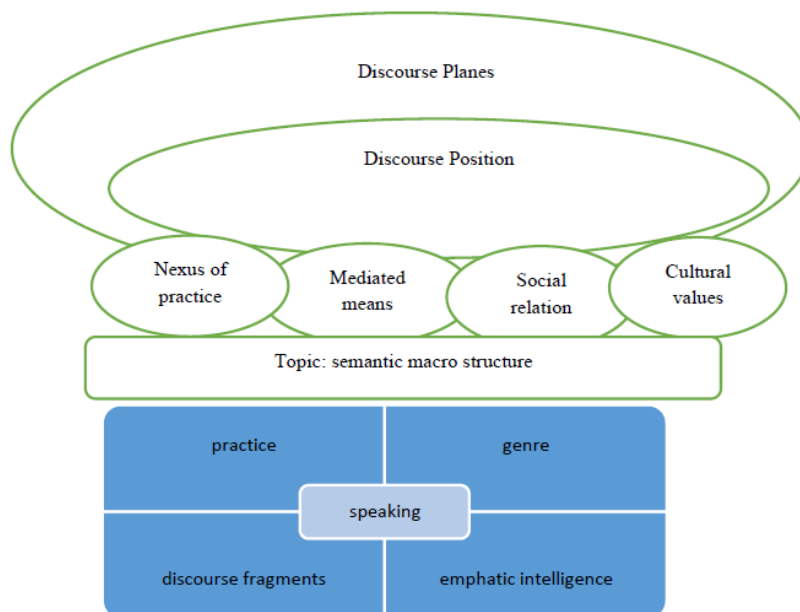


Generally, in evaluating the speaking skill of the learners, their performance were measured based on three macro-features of mechanics, functions as well as social and cultural rules and norms. Mechanics composed of pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary; functions of transaction and interaction; and social and cultural rules and norms of turn-taking, rate of speech, length of pauses between speakers and relative roles of participants.

### D. Procedure

In conducting the present study two homogenous groups of EFL learners studying English at the advanced level—who were studying English for at least 5 years were selected as the participants of the study. In effect, the participants were 60 homogenous students with 30 students in each group—an experimental and a control group each composed of 15 females and 15 males. Hence, the control group received instruction using a traditional approach common in handling speaking tasks in Iran—pre-speaking for warm-up, during-speaking to handle the speaking task, and post-speaking phase in which the students discuss other related issues along with the tips provided by the teacher in terms of supra-segmental features, accuracy (grammatical errors), idioms, expressions, etc. the experimental group, on the other hand, were taught using the eclectic model in which not only their critical thinking were raised but also their emphatic intelligence, the different elements of any speaking task, i.e. cultural values, social relations, mediated means, nexus of practice (body language, eye-contact, language itself, etc.), discourse planes and positions along with genres were considered and dealt with. It is worth mentioning that the two groups went through a pre-test and a post-test based on IELTS speaking to determine their progress and effectiveness of the course. In effect, in both pre- and post-tests an analytic procedure were utilized in scoring. Finally the extracted data were analyzed and compared between and among groups.

Practically, in teaching speaking, the students in the control group went through five micro-stages, i.e. warm-up (15 minutes), presenting useful expressions (15 minutes), asking questions based on the presented topic (30 minutes), vocabulary expansion (20 minutes), and focus point (40 minutes). It is worth mentioning that the subjects were informed about the next topic which would be covered in the next session. The experimental group, on the other hand, not only received instruction in the same order with the same allocated time in each micro-phase but also were consciously raised in terms of the genres of the speaking tasks the students went through, the various discourses through which the speaking tasks might be handled, the role played by body language, eye contact, social relations and cultural values through role playing. In addition, the emphatic intelligence of the experimental group were considered and handled in terms of inter-subjective and intra-subjective dimensions in which the thoughts, feeling and ideas of the subjects were influencing and influenced. In other words, the discussion-like class encouraged the students to share their own feelings, thoughts, and ideas in such a way that they forgot their concerns about accuracy while trying to express their own thoughts, feeling and ideas. It is worth mentioning that the situation in which the students tried to win the floor were achieved through raising their critical thinking and critical attitude using challenging questions.

Yet, both the pre-test and post-test on the speaking proficiency of the subjects were scored analytically in four domains of fluency and cohesion, lexical resources, grammatical range as well as accuracy and pronunciation with a band score of zero to four (0-4). The results were put in SPSS 15 to be analyzed and compared. The next parts sheds light on the results.

## IV. RESULTS

Descriptive statistics including means and standard deviation of the both experimental and control groups in the pre-speaking are given in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR PRE-SPEAKING TEST

| Group | N | Mean | SD |
|---|---|---|---|
| Experimental | 15 | 8.44 | 0.33 |
| Control | 15 | 8.38 | 0.20 |

Table 1 illustrates that the participants of the study were 30 students studying English in institutes for several years who were divided into two groups of experimental and control randomly. In effect, the table shows the performance of students in pre-speaking test, in which, the mean of the scores of the experimental group was 8.44 and of the control group 8.38. Furthermore, participants showed a standard deviation of 0.33 in the experimental group and 0.20 in the control group. In order to determine the homogeneity of the two groups of experimental and control, the scores of the participants in the two groups were put in the SPSS software and the t-test statistic for independent samples was run which was resulted in the homogeneity between the two groups and non-significance differences between them. The following tables illustrate the results of the t-test on the pre-speaking test.

TABLE 2:
T-TEST ON THE RESULTS OF THE PRE-SPEAKING TEST: EXPERIMENTAL VS. CONTROL GROUPS

| | Sig. | t | df. | Mean difference |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Scores | 0.55 | 0.59 | 23.21 | 0.06 |

As table 2 shows the significance of conducting the t-test is 0.59, well above the 0.05 threshold, so the two groups of experimental and control are homogenous in terms of speaking proficiency before the instruction. In the previous section, it was discussed that the two groups went through a 120-hour course on speaking followed by a post-speaking test. Table 3 shows the performance of students in post-speaking test, in which, the mean of the scores of the experimental group was 12.85 and of the control group 12.05. Furthermore, participants showed a standard deviation of 0.38 in the experimental group and 0.46 in the control group.

THEORY AND PRACTICE IN LANGUAGE STUDIES

TABLE 3:
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR POST-SPEAKING TEST

| Group | N | Mean | SD |
|---|---|---|---|
| Experimental | 15 | 12.85 | 0.38 |
| Control | 15 | 12.05 | 0.46 |

The scores given to the students on the post-speaking test were also put in the SPSS software in order to have a comparison between the performances of the two groups besides the progress the students had after the instruction. Table 4 sheds light on the differences between the performances of the two groups of experimental and control after instruction.

TABLE 4:
T-TEST ON THE RESULTS OF THE POST-SPEAKING TEST: EXPERIMENTAL VS. CONTROL GROUPS

| | Sig. | t | df. | Mean difference |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Scores** | 0.00 | 5.11 | 26.90 | 0.79 |

As the table shows (table 4) the significance of conducting the t-test is 0.00, under the cut-off point of 0.05 ; accordingly, there is evidence to suggest that participants in the experimental group experienced statistically significantly greater progress due exposing the innovative method for speaking comparing to the results achieved by the participants in the control group.

Furthermore, the paired sample t-test was conducted to determine whether the progress of the two groups before and after instruction is significant or not. In effect, the paired t-test was conducted to evidentially investigate the effects of the instructional course on the improvement of the subjects. The results are presented in table 5.

TABLE 5:
PAIRED T-TEST ON THE RESULTS OF PERFORMANCE OF THE SUBJECTS: PRE-SPEAKING TEST VS. POST-SPEAKING TEST

| Pre-speaking-post-speaking | Sig. | t | df. | Mean difference |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Experimental group** | 0.00 | -30.86 | 14 | -4.40 |
| **Control group** | 0.00 | -32.61 | 14 | -3.67 |

The results in table 5 indicated that the differences between the performances of the participants in the pre-speaking and post-speaking tests in the both groups were significant. In other words, the instructional course was successful in improving the speaking proficiency of the subjects. Hence, there is no doubt regarding the efficacy of the presented instructional course to improve the speaking proficiency; but, it seems that the eclectic innovative model in teaching the speaking proficiency—resorting to the some principles of the critical discourse analysis approach, imagination, and empathic intelligence—was more successful.

## V. FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

The results and the related data demonstrated the supremacy of experimental group who went through instruction based on an innovative model utilizing some concepts and terminologies of CDA along with the ones of emphatic intelligence as well as imagination. However, the both groups were homogeneous in terms of the speaking proficiency on the outset; the results of t-test statistic indicted to the significant differences between the both groups of experimental and control. In effect, the results showed the homogeneity between the two groups in terms of speaking proficiency before instruction but the observed differences between the two groups in terms of speaking profanely after the instruction revealed something about the role played by method of instruction on speaking.

In effect, some principles or even terminologies of the critical discourse analysis supported by a number of models were utilized in designing, developing and implementing an innovative model merged with the foundations of the emphatic intelligence and imagination. CDA, according to Fairclough and Wodak (1997, p. 258), "sees discourse – language use in speech or writing – as a form of 'social practice. Considering discourse as a social practice demands "a dialectical relationship between a particular discursive event and the situation(s), institution(s) and social structure(s), which frame it" (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 258). Considering discourse as a social practice indicated it as constituting "situations, objects of knowledge, and the social identities of and relationships between people and groups of people" (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 258).

The role of discourse in any speaking task is ingrained with the emphatic intelligence and imagination as ticking mind and beating heart in the center of oral production. In effect, discourse is constitutive for sustaining and reproducing "the social status quo and transforming it" (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 258). Teaching speaking skill involves a kaleidoscopic view in which the type of the relation between and among the interlocutors determine the social relations as a pre-requisite dimension of emphatic intelligence in which the concepts of power, ideology or even hegemony keep changing often and quickly. A kaleidoscopic view needs to be adopted in dealing with speaking skill since any discourse or text is, in fact, the work of a number of interlocutors.

There is no doubt that any language production—written or spoken—involves a vast variety of issues and factors among which intertextuality and recontextualization of diverse genres are brilliant. Meanwhile, diverse models of teaching speaking were introduced dealing with the pronunciation, content, organization, or accuracy; power as "the

effects of differences in social structures" (Wodak & Meyer, 2001, p. 10), received the least attention. Wodak and Meyer (2001) argued that "language is entwined in social power in a number of ways: language indexes and expresses power, and is involved where there is contention over and a challenge to power" (p. 10). Hence, considering language as an instrument for exercising power demands a critical discourse analysis perspective regarding teaching any skill including speaking skill since the learners not only needs to be equipped with the integrations of the language but also with the factors other than language influential on the success or failure of any speaking task, i.e. the role played by power, social relations, cultural factors, mediated means, as a few among others.

Emphatic intelligence, on the other hand, as the capacity to make social relationship with others, seems to be crucial for any communication especially the oral ones. In fact, communication means something more than articulating or comprehending some emotions or facts. However, for any communication the interlocutors need to be equipped with the ingredients of language, e.g. lexis, grammar, pronunciation skill, etc.; the empathic intelligence along with imagination seem to be in the heart of communications influencing perception, expression and communication. So many methods have been suggested to meet the diverse challenges the learners experience in dealing with productive skills especially the oral one; but, the emphatic intelligence, the imagination and even the critical thinking skills as the center of any communication have been ignored.

Ioannidou and Konstantikaki (2008) considering empathic intelligence as a foundation on which effective relationship, understanding and communication are constructed argued that effective communication demands "developing ideas and solutions, in problem solving, effective communication and avoiding or preventing conflicts" (p. 119). Accordingly, it is crucial to consider emphatic intelligence as a baseline for teaching speaking skill as a heavily challenging skill the learners need to deal with.

In a nutshell, the results of the study showed significant differences between the performances of the two groups of experimental and control. Hence, the results shed light on the efficacy of the designed innovative model to meet the challenges the foreign language learners go through.

## VI. CONCLUSIONS

The major intent of this study was to design and develop an innovative model for dealing with speaking proficiency in which many challenges the foreign language learners go through be considered. To this end, a number of advanced Iranian students learning English as a foreign language were selected as the participants of the study who were divided into two groups of experimental and control. The both group went under a 120-hour instruction on speaking in which the experimental group using an innovative one and the control group a traditional one were taught. It is worth mentioning that the two groups took a speaking test before instruction to select the most homogenous ones and speaking test after instruction to determine the efficacy of the presented course.

However, the both groups showed a huge learning in terms of speaking proficiency after instruction; the success of the experimental group was much wide. It was found that in teaching speaking skill, a kaleidoscopic view needs to be adopted in terms of the relation between and among the interlocutors in which the social relations seem to be crucial. Furthermore, the study revealed that emphatic intelligence should be considered at the heart of any speaking task. The study also emphasized that the adopted kaleidoscopic view regarding speaking skill needs to consider discourse or text as the work of a number of interlocutors.

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# Press Translation in International Communication

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*Abstract*—Exchanges and cooperations between China and other countries and regions become more and more frequent in recent ten years which is impossible to be separated from translation in international communication. Nowadays, more and more people in the world are involved in the press, such as newspapers, magazines, broadcast, TV and Internet. During the course of China's going to the world stage, press translation in international communication is increasingly important. The main functions of press translation are sending messages, attracting readers and persuasion. The accurate translation of neologisms, vivid headlines and compact and brief leads can ensure the functional equivalence. In this article, I will elaborate systematically the basic features and the fundamental purposes of international communication, the basic principles and the cultural integration in press translation, and furthermore I will discuss the specific solutions to the difficulties in press translation.

*Index Terms*—characteristics of press translation, international communication, cultural integration, equivalence translation, discourse right

## I. INTRODUCTION

English is commonly considered to be the Lingua Franca of the world according to socio-linguistics, which means English is widely spoken in different parts of the world on different occasions, such as an international conference or a private conversation. Press English, one of the varieties of written English used, possesses its unique characteristics, which have been commonly acknowledged and studied by many people. In English, all the changes and brought by the society's advancement are best represented in mass media including newspapers, magazines, TV, radios, etc. Actually, newspapers, TV and radio have their own styles in forming part of a general journalistic pattern, which we classify them into "Press English" (Li Liangrong, 1999:101). Based on this point, this thesis is devoted to a systematic study of press translation in international communication. Previous scholars actually have made many valuable suggestions and achievements on it, and put forward some theories on some undecided issues. We are exposed to literally thousands of messages and news that inform, entertain, confuse and often irritate us. Each news item affects, in some way, the individual reading, seeing or hearing. In a word, press translation plays a vital role in international communication.

## II. INTERNATIONAL COMMUNICATION AND PRESS ENGLISH

### A. Characteristics of International Communication and the Definition

International communication is defined as a kind of one country's publicities are introduced toward the outside world, which includes publicizing a country's principles, policies, domestic situation as well as the country's stance on international issues. Communication not only performs the task of information transmission, but also plays the role of a cross-cultural messenger. Nowadays, translation is no longer merely regarded as the transmission of language symbols; meanwhile, t is also regarded as a mode of cultural transmission.

Translation in this article refers to several possible versions-foreign propaganda, foreign publicity, overseas information and foreign publicity. For the sake of consistency, all of them will be grouped into "international communication" from Chinese to English. Language discussed here is English; its audience refers to those whose native language or second language is English.

As a special literary form, foreign publicity, which is different from literary works, has its own characteristics that should not be ignored in translation. This requires us to do our best to make our publicity translation clear and intelligible when we introduce China to the rest of the world.

### B. Press English and Its Function

With the further development in reform and opening-up, China has more and more contacts with the outside world. That is to say, there is the need for China to know about the rest of the world and for others to understand China better. For the two purposes, a large amount of information must be transmitted by news media, such as newspaper, radio, TV and Internet, among which, newspaper is the origin of press English. Press English spreading in the mass media, one of varieties of English, has its own language features and stylistic features:

a. Inform the readers or audience: the news tells what has happened locally and internationally.

b. Influence the readers: the press English sets up a different way of thinking, especially the editorials and the columns which try to express a point of view and persuade the readers or audience to "buy" an idea.

c. Entertain the readers or audience: the news English either from the foreign newspapers or the English newspapers

in China brings various articles or programs like sports, entertainment program and so on, which add pleasure (Wang Lei, 2003:96).

Except for above three functions, press English provides a good means for college students who expect to learn English by being exposed to real English environments. Of all the media, newspaper reading seems to be the easiest and the most convenient way to get news. Reading English newspaper is one of the effective ways to gain proficiency of the English language. Many students, lacking essential knowledge of journalist English, find it difficult to understand English newspaper or the programs on VOA or BBC.

*C.   Qualifications for Translators*

International communication is impossible to be away from translating press English. It is certain that the development of politics, economy and culture of a country will be included in the news. Translation is a bridge that crosses intercultural communication. During translating the news, many cultural differences existing countries will have to be translated together. What we translate is not only the names of objects and different actions, but also feelings, ways, beliefs and transfers some events relating to the world safety and human ecological environment. So, translators must have social awareness and responsibility for the national and international public, should always keep the principles of exactness, subjectivity and justice in mind.

Solid language competence is very important for a good translator who should not only be familiar with the source language, but also be a master of the target language (Bagnall Nicholas, 1993:61). Journalistic translator should love the people and language on both sides, and at the same time, he should be firmly rooted in them. Furthermore, translators must keep up with the growth and change of the language, for the development and changes of society can be reflected in the language, such as, phrase meaning may be shifted; new words and expressions may be emerging.

Culture is the soil of language. Each piece of news contains culture factors and reflects the latest development of the social culture. Language competence, in the sense of being a bilingual, is not enough, unless it is also matched by a person's being bicultural. That is to say, one must have an intimate knowledge of the culture in question. One must be able to recognize subtle ironies and literary allusions. What the translators have or haven't of the intercultural consciousness will greatly influence the translation quality. Dictionaries and encyclopedias can be very helpful in dealing with lexical problems, but they rarely go far enough in providing the kind of information which is necessary to understand the cultural differences.

### III.   FEATURES OF PRESS ENGLISH IN INTERNATIONAL COMMUNICATION

*A.   Ways to Classification*

In this information era, technology makes it possible for us to carry and spread news on different mass media. So, news can be classified into many kinds.

According to different media, news is classified as newspaper coverage, magazine coverage, radio news, TV news, cable new dispatches, and the newest one-internet news. News can also be classified as world news, home news and local news according to the different locations. According to the reporting ways, news is classified as political news, technological news, cultural news, sports news, violence and crime news, weather news and disaster news, etc.

According to the qualities of the news, there are soft news and hard news. Hard news, which is also called spot news or straight news, refers to the daily news. It is a chronicle of current events or incidents and is the most common news style that is the factual account of significant news events. Soft news, a term for all the news that isn't time-sensitive, which always has more words than that of hard news, and which includes profiles of people, programs or organizations, aims at entertaining or advising the readers. You may have come across newspaper or TV stories that promise "news you can use", which might be tips on how to stretch properly before exercising, or what to look for when buying new computers.

*B.   Structure of Press Writing*

Efficiently transmitting information requires the news must have its own style and structure leading to a quick and effective communication. News writer has different plans for different types of stories.

Pyramid structure or chronological approach: to write the news in time sequences, with the unimportant one followed by important details;

Inverted pyramid style: to organize news stories in which the essential material is placed at the beginning and subsequent paragraphs providing information in declining order of importance because the reader- especially a busy reader- always asks the most important questions first and asks unimportant questions only if he or she has time.;

A straight news story: a timely report on an event, usually written within 24 hours after the event takes place (Bruce, 2002:125). Most stories the readers read on the front page of newspapers are straight news stories. A news story is like a monologue, but this monologue is based on an imagined dialogue with the reader, and it takes shape according to what the readers want to know most. The structure of a news story is often referred to as the inverted pyramid. That is because the main and most important point is contained in the first sentence. The rest of the story contains elements of less importance as the reader nears the bottom.

## C. Rules in Writing Press

The headline, the lead, the body and the ending consist of the whole press news. Different rules should be followed in different parts.

In order to appeal to the readership, the translation, especially the translation of the headline, should have to meet the following rules:

a. Being specific. As with all forms of news writing, the use of specifics is better than generalities. e.g. Die as car smacks tree.

b. Being positive. Another custom most headline writers observe is phrasing headlines in a positive, rather than in a negative manner. This is based on the principle that newspaper is supposed to tell readers what did happen.

c. Expressing Opinions. Headlines on stories dealing with opinion should show the source of that opinion. If a story is attributed to a secondhand source, this should be reflected in the headline.

d. Representing the key points. One should avoid repeating words in the same headline deck. Also, watch out for similar phraseology in adjacent heads and decks. People expect newspaper stories to concern events that have occurred since the previous edition was published.

The lead as the opening sentence or paragraph must be more than just an opening to your story, which can also catch the readers' or listeners' attention and make them want to read on. Two categories are accepted as "hard" leads and "soft" leads. The choice depends on the nature of the story and determines the form of the rest of the story.

The body of the story involves combining the opinions of the people you interview, some factual data, and a narrative which helps the story flow. In a hard news story, the body supports the lead in the classic inverted pyramid style, so that the facts and quotes are written in declining importance. The body of a story can be written in other ways that depart from the inverted pyramid. One form is called the hourglass, which tries to retain the suspense of traditional, fictional storytelling. Stick to one particular theme throughout the story. You can put in different details but they all have to relate to the original idea of the piece. (e.g. If your story is about black youth and their relationship with the police you DO NOT want to go into details about the life of any particular youth). A reporter has the eyes and ears for the readers. They try to provide some visual details to bring the story to life.

The ending can be as difficult as the beginning. One way to end is with a "kicker," which is often a catchy quote. Another effective ending is to conclude with a quote or anecdote that relates the story back to the main theme and leaves the reader thinking about the essence of the story. Avoid preaching or lecturing at the end of the story. It is often hard to resist, but if the story is told well, the quotes and facts that a news writer chooses will allow the reader to come to the same conclusion on their own.

## IV. THE NATURE, CRITERIA AND METHODS OF PRESS TRANSLATION

### A. Nature of Press Translation

Translation is a bridge in communication on politics, economy, cultures and ideas among different nations and countries. The communication on these aspects is an activity that runs through human history, social development and cultural spread: translation of press English is the translation of a special style that has unique features, but it still agrees with the basic nature, criteria, methods and policies of translation.

Press English translation is also a science. While non-standard language usually has many kinds of proper translation methods determined by the tastes and abilities of translator himself, so translation is an art or a skill. The expressive, the informative and the vocative are the three main functions of language. The core of the expressive function is the mind of the speaker, the writer and the originator of the utterance which expresses his own feelings regardless of any response; the core of the informative function of language is external situations, the facts of a topic, reality outside language, including reported ideas or theories; The core of the vocative is readership. News reporting belongs to informative text, in which statements that relate primarily to the report of the truth or the real facts of the matter has to be translated in the best style that the translator can reconcile with the style of the original.

That is to say, the translation of news reporting is the unity of science, skill and art. In fact the nature of science, skill and art should be united in the whole translation process and they are just emphasized on different degrees according to the different goals and functions.

### B. Criteria of Press Translation

Since translation existed in the humans' history, the criteria of translation have always been a controversial issue. In translation there is no absolutely stale criterion. The translation should apply different criteria in terms of the text types, the feature of the times, social an cultural elements and so on.

Translation of news reporting requires agreeing with the news declarative process based on the exactness of information; the language should suit both defined and popular tastes and have the maximum readability. In the translation of news reporting, the first criterion is exactness and completeness, that is to say, the truth of the original news should be expressed accurately and it is not allowed to add or delete information freely and deliberately. The second criterion is that style of the translation should be in harmony with that of the Chinese news. After all, the readers are mostly Chinese.

*C.   Difficulties of Press Translation*

Various types of news result in the difficulties of news translation. Translators have to adapt themselves to different types of news. Most of the words, meanings, and grammatical structures used in the English news belong to everybody's English. Most of us knowing few of the "funny" expressions in the westerners' use can become fiercely significant in the translation.

How to keep concise? For translators, the first thing is to know the exact meaning of the words, then use the most appropriate words to express the meaning. But he must bear in mind that the words he uses should be concise and clear, for the space of newspaper is limited.

How to deal with the coinages and new expressions emerging continuously? With the development and globalization of economy, a large number of new words emerge to meet the needs.

How to keep faithful to the original? In translation, translators cannot distort the truth freely, he must avoid subjectivity.

The last difficulty is how the language of news reporting appeals to the reader's senses. In press English, there are some figures of speech to enrich the language, translator should say things in a way that readers find easy to relate to.

*D.   Methods of Press Translation.*

In the process of translation, Peter Newmark has broken through and developed the traditional translation methods of literal and free translation, who proposed the semantic translation and communicative translation that indicate a new direction in translation studies. Communicative translation attempts to produce on its reader an effect as close as possible to that obtained on the readers of the original; semantic translation attempts to render exact contextual meaning of the original.

News reporting belongs to the informative text, and whose section containing recommendations, instructions, value judgments, etc. the following translating methods should be paid attention to:

a. Literal Translation: It is a common used and simple way of translating the news. E.g. : Helping the poor or poverty relief : in Chinese, Fuping(扶贫).

b. Free Translation. It is used when the literal translation will make misunderstand for the target readers because of the lack of related knowledge about the countries or the background of the news. E.g. to engage in speculation and profiteering: Touji Daoba(投机倒把) in China.

c. literal-free translation. When either of them cannot reach the effect of correct translation, translators will have to put the two methods together. E.g. Official document in Chinese culture, "Hongse(红色)" has been considered as authority，but for the foreign readers, "Red" may lack the imagery about Hongtou Wenjian(红头文件) in Chinese. Thus if the translators interpret at the surface as the "red document", the readers will feel puzzled. The translation combined the two methods can make them understand and to reach the purpose of spreading China overseas.

## V.   CULTURAL DIFFERENCES IN PRESS TRANSLATION

*A.   Reasons Why Translators Should Know*

In press translation, cultural differences are the most difficult problem which we have to deal with. Many improper translations occur owing to being short of culture knowledge and to ignoring some idioms usage of source language. Due to different ecological, social and religious environments, each country or race forms its own culture, which takes on different characteristics, though they surely share some common ground with each other.

Press language is a comprehensive complex which breeds many cultural elements. Press language's translation is a process to convert one language to another in which culture is also transplanted. Taylor and Newmark (2001:99) defined culture as a complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, customs and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society. And the media from its function is to reach cultural aggression besides its general use of spreading or propaganda the domestic habitats. And press as a major part of the media, plays an important role in international communication, especially in spreading news outside or receiving news. Thus, to understand the different cultures will help translators to better spread the information, and the translation texts are expected to be accepted by the target readers, or the translation will fail to achieve the desired effect.

*B.   Cultural Differences in Press Translation*

Each nationality has created its own culture. Though their cultures may have something in common, great differences still exist, particularly between oriental and occidental cultures. As one of the four ancient civilized countries, China's distinctive culture takes a significant position in modern society in the world civilization. Nonetheless, as far as cultural communication is concerned, Oriental cultures occupy subsidiary position while the western cultures the dominant position.

Without culture, language will lose its characteristics. Different languages reflect different approaches to life and ways of living as well as historical and cultural backgrounds (Liu Biqing, 1998:88). In intercultural communications, many cultural factors can be mirrored in the language. This point can be clearly expressed in press translation. Cultural differences fall into two major groups.

On one hand, lacking of equivalents in different languages. Each country has something unique to itself. It is particularly the case in China. Very often we cannot find English equivalents for some peculiar Chinese words and expressions. In a superficial sense, this seems to be the clash of two languages while in a profound sense; it is caused by the great differences in cultures and ways of thinking between English-speaking countries and China, especially in Chinese food names, religious terms, names of cultural relics, new terms with Chinese characteristics, etc (Huang Qin, 2007:34). As they have no equivalents in English, we need to add some background explanation to make them comprehensible to foreigners.

On the other hand, the same word, the same thing or the natural phenomenon in two cultures with different meanings or connotations and reflects the distinctive local cultures. The word "yellow" can refer to color in English-speaking countries and China. Besides it can be used to describe someone who is in a depressing or gloomy state in English; On the contrary, in Chinese, it can be used as an adjective meaning "pornographic" to modify nouns such as "*Huangse* books(黄色书刊)" and " *Huangse* CDs(黄色碟片)". The Chinese word "*Huangse*(黄色)" is somewhat equivalent to the English word "blue" in this sense".

*C.   Influence of Cultural Factors in Press Translation*

Translation is the transformation of different languages as well as the transplant of cultures. The message encoded in one cultural may be decoded quite differently in another.

In historical process, there must be something gifted with special meanings resulting from the social heritage, such as languages have their own characteristics. For example, to westerners, the dragon is often a symbol of evil, a tierce monster that destroys and therefore must be destroyed. However, in the dynastic times in China, dragon is the traditional symbols of royalty. China has been deeply influenced by Confucianism and Buddhism, while the dominant religions of English-speaking countries are Christianity. In press English, a number of references to characters or events in the Bible can be found.

To some degree, translation from one culture to another exerts some influence on the development of a target language system by enriching it with the source language's culture-loaded words, expressions and rhetorical devices(Newmark, 1991:57). Undoubtedly, through several hundred years of cultural contacts and exchanges as well as the unremitting efforts by Chinese and western translators over the past centuries, the Chinese and western cultures now have more in common. Some words and expressions have already been absorbed by English like "kungfu" "win-win strategy" and some English words have also found their ways into Chinese like "GRE" and "rally", what's more, some more created words, especially, the translation of some set names like "superlean(酥不腻)", "Long Kudo(龙虎斗)", "Go Believe"，etc. are being accepted by more and more western people(Xiong Xin, 2014:116). But this doesn't mean the great cultural differences will disappear in the predictable future. These differences have filtered into every aspect of society. They stand like mountains between two languages.

## VI.  CONCLUSION

Translation of press English plays a very important role on politics and economy as well as in people's daily life. Press translation can bring us a great deal of latest information of the world as well as bring China to the world (Xiong Xin, 2010:100). Though it is very valuable, it is really a hard task to fulfill. Press English studies is quite different, whether on the structure or on the language.

Maybe some ideas put forward in this article are immature due to the author's limited knowledge about press English and the lack of the press translation experiences; however, the author arduously hope that it may draw more people's attention on the study of press translation, especially from Chinese to English.

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# The Impact of Content-based Instruction on Students' Achievement in ESP Courses and Their Language Learning Orientation

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*Abstract*—**This paper investigated the effect of Content-based Instruction (CBI) on students' English language learning. In so doing, two methods of teaching English, that is, the CBI and the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) were compared with regard to the students' achievement in their final examination and language learning orientation. The subjects consisted of 82 freshmen who were randomly assigned into two groups at Gonabad University of Medical Sciences. To collect data, three instruments were employed: the Nelson test of achievement form 050 C, the Language Learning Orientation Scale (LLOS) questionnaire, and a final achievement test. The data were analyzed using t-test and some correlational analyses. The results indicated that there was no significant difference between the groups regarding the Nelson test and LLOS at the onset of the study, but there was a significant difference between the groups' performance regarding the method of teaching English. In other words, the group taught through the CBI outperformed the one taught through the GTM (p=0.006 and p<0.05 for the GTM and CBI groups, respectively). Moreover, there was a significant difference in the subjects' language learning orientation after treatment (p=0.038). Some suggestions and implications were put forward for the EFL/ESL teachers to consider.**

*Index Terms*—**Content-based Instruction (CBI), Grammar-Translation Method (GTM), achievement, Nelson test, Language Learning Orientation Scale (LLOS)**

## I. INTRODUCTION

The history of language teaching and learning has seen different developments through which various methods and approaches have emerged. The Grammar Translation method was dominant in Europe and some other countries for teaching foreign languages from the 1840s to the 1940s. Next, due to the advances in the areas of psychology and linguistics, language teaching enjoyed a scientific importance and the Audiolingual method emerged. Then, other alternative approaches and methods such as Total Physical Response, Community Language Learning, the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Whole Language, the Lexical Approach, and Competency-based Language Teaching appeared. Later, the Communicative approaches which include Communicative Language Teaching, the Natural Approach, Cooperative Language Learning, Content-based Instruction and Task-based Language Teaching emerged (Richard and Rodgers, 2001).

In fact, the Communicative Language Teaching (hereafter, CLT), aiming at both developing communicative competence in learners and considering all language skills as equally important, has the Content-based Instruction (hereafter, CBI) or Content-based language teaching (CBLT) as one of its spin-off approaches (Richard and Rodgers, 2001). So, the CBI has enjoyed much popularity and applicability since the early 1990s (Stoller, 2002).

However, in the Iranian context of teaching and learning English, CBI has received little attention in teaching English not only to English and non-English majors but in different levels of education ranging from primary schools, to secondary schools, and to university levels. Specifically speaking, the central bureau of Sama schools under the auspice of the Islamic Azad University in Iran has launched a new program for CBI at its primary and secondary school levels, but no nationwide program in the education ministry has been started by the government so far. As such, this study attempted to implement CBI in medical science courses at university level and compare it with the old grammar-translation method (hereafter, GTM) with regard to the students' course achievement and language learning orientation.

## II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

### A. Content-based Instruction

CBI, as one of the spin-off approaches and process-based methodologies to CLT, has achieved much popularity and applicability since the early 1990s (Richard and Rodgers, 2001; Stoller, 2002), and different definitions with some degree of similarity have been posed for it. Brinton, Snow and Wesche (2003) defines it as "(…) the integration of

particular content with language teaching aims (…)" or "the concurrent teaching of academic subject matter and second language skills". Leaver and Stryker (1989) claim that CBI is an instructional approach in which "language proficiency is achieved by shifting the focus of the course from the learning of language per se to the learning of subject matter". Further, Short (1993) holds that in CBI content topics, instead of grammar rules or vocabulary lists, are used by language teachers.

Moreover, CBI tries to develop both the students' language and their content knowledge through providing them with authentic, meaningful academic contexts. It also claims that the acquisition of language is most effective when the conditions of acquisition are analogous to those of first language acquisition (Krashen 1985; Savignon 1983; Snow 1993; Wesche 1993).

Basically, CBI has been presented in the two forms of language-driven approach and the content driven approach depending on the emphasis given to the language or content. In the former, the students' language development more than the content knowledge is emphasized, while in the latter, much emphasis is placed on assisting students acquire content learning by providing different kinds of linguistic and cognitive help (Met, 1998, cited in Butlor, 2005).

*B.  CBI Models*

The models of CBI vary in design and implementation based on such factors as setting, level, and the nature of instruction. Some models are utilized in foreign language situations while others are used in second language environments. Some models have proved successful at the elementary school level whereas some have demonstrated their effectiveness at secondary or post-secondary levels. And finally, some models emphasize the content but in some models more emphasis is put on language (Duenas, 2004).

However, in line with the purposes of the study, three general models of CBI, namely, theme-based language instruction, sheltered content instruction, and adjunct language instruction will be introduced.

Theme-based language instruction (the concern of this study): In this model, which is also called theme-based or content-infused language instruction, the course is taught by a language instructor and "is structured around topics or themes, with the topics forming the backbone of the course curriculum" (Brinton, Snow and Wesche, 2003, p. 14).

Sheltered content instruction: Through this model, the instruction is implemented by a content expert who is a native speaker of the target language. In other words, it is defined as "content courses taught in the second language to a segregated group of learners by a content area expert, such as a university professor who is a native speaker of the target language" (Brinton, Snow and Wesche, 2003, p. 15).

Adjunct language instruction: Applying this model, students take part in two linked courses, a content course and a language course both of which include the same content in common and complement each other regarding jointly coordinated homework (Richard and Rodgers, 2001, p. 216).

Having presented some aspects of CBI, it seems warranted here to have a close look at the other method of teaching English employed in this study, i.e., the Grammar Translation.

*C.  Grammar Translation Method*

The Grammar Translation method (hereafter, GTM) was the offspring of German scholarship, whose purpose is "to know everything about something other than the thing itself" (Rouse, 1925, cited in Kelly, 1969, p. 53). This method in fact was first known in the United States and dominated the teaching of foreign and European languages from the 1840s to the 1940s.  The GTM is mostly based on the following principles (Richard and Rodgers, 2001, pp. 5-6):

1) The aim of studying a foreign language is to learn a language so as to read its literature for the advantage from the mental discipline and intellectual development which emanate from studying a foreign language, 2) reading and writing other than listening and speaking are more emphasized, 3) the sentence is the main focus for language practice and learning, 4) lots of emphasis is put on accuracy, 5) the deductive teaching of grammar is followed, and 6) the medium of instruction is the students' native language.

Many studies, conducted regarding the CBI, have concentrated on its impact in disciplines like accounting (Chau Ngan, 2011; Malmir, Najafi Sarem, & Ghasemi, 2011), technology (Gaynor, 2013), Spanish (Pessoa, Henry, Donta, Tucker, & Lee, 2007), Chinese Language Flagship program, and some other ESP courses. Also, some studies have utilized CBI at the elementary or secondary school levels (Omoto and Nyongesa, 2013; Ruby Yang, 2009). In addition, Stoller (2002) stated that teaching through CBI boosts learner's critical thinking and leads to their learning the language fast and with more pleasure.  Moreover, the results of the Multicultural Improvement of Cognitive Abilities (MICA) project reveal that the students taught through CBI improved both in cognitive and academic achievements and in their language proficiency (Kessler and Quinn, 1987). However, few studies, if any, have been carried out to compare the effect of teaching English through the CBI and the GTM in the fields related to the medical sciences at university level. Thus, this study is an attempt to compare two essentially different methods of teaching, the Content-based Instruction and the Grammar-translation Method in students majoring in different fields of medical sciences with regard to their final course achievement and language learning orientation skills. As such, the following questions were presented:

Q1. Is there any significant difference between the students' achievement when taught through Content-based Instruction vs Grammar-Translation Method?

Q2. Is there any significant difference between the students' Language Learning Orientation (LLO) with respect to the method of language instruction (CBI vs GTM)?

III. METHODOLOGY

*A. Subjects*

The subjects consisted of 82 freshmen majoring in the fields of Environmental Health (N=21), Laboratory Sciences (N=21), Anesthesia (N=19), and Public Health (N=21) at Gonabad university of medical sciences, Gonabad, Iran. They had previously a three-year experience of learning English at junior high schools and a four-year experience at high school and pre-requisite English Centers in the formal system of education in Iran. They were, also, of both genders (but mostly females) aged between 18-20 years old and were randomly assigned into two groups, so that the students in Environmental Health and Anesthesia courses were put into the grammar translation group and those in the Public Health and the Laboratory Sciences courses were placed in the content-based instruction group. They were in their second term of a B.Sc. degree at university taking a three-credit general English course, too. Table1 shows the subject distribution into groups.

TABLE 1.
THE DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS INTO GROUPS

| Method | Course | N | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Grammar Translation Method (GTM) Method 1 | Environmental Health | 21 | 40 |
| | Anesthesia | 19 | |
| Content-Based Instruction (CBI) Method 2 | Laboratory Sciences | 21 | 42 |
| | Public Health | 21 | |
| Total | | | 82 |

*B. Instrumentation*

Three instruments were utilized to collect data: 1) the Nelson test of achievement (hereafter, Nelson), form 050 C, 2) Noel's Language Learning Orientation Scale (hereafter, LLOS) questionnaire, and 3) a final achievement test (hereafter, FAT), a description of which follows:

**1. The Nelson Test of Achievement**

The Nelson test of achievement form 050 C consists of 50 multiple-choice items measuring the learners' general language proficiency in English. The test has been developed by Fowler and Coe (1976) and its reliability and validity have been established. It was administered to examine whether the subjects were homogeneous in terms of their English language proficiency (See Appendix A).

**2. The Language Learning Orientation Scale questionnaire**

The Persian version of Language Learning Orientation Scale questionnaire which aims at exploring the learners' motivation orientation included 21 items. The 21 items in the questionnaire have been further divided into three subscales, namely, amotivation, external motivation, and internal motivation. Items 1 to 3 falls into the amotivation subscale which refers to a situation in which an individual does not see any relation between their action and the consequences of those actions yet he or she sees the consequences as arising from factors beyond his or her control (Deci and Ryan, 1985).

The external motivation including items 4 to 12 consists of the three other subscales each with three items. The external motivation indicates the actions performed to obtain some instrumental goals such as achieving a reward or avoiding a punishment. These subscales were termed as external regulation, introjected regulation, and identified regulation.

The internal motivation consisting items 13 to 21 encompasses three other subscales each with three items. The internal motivation, according to Deci and Ryan (1985), refers to motivation to carry out an activity merely for the purpose of satisfaction and pleasure that the action possesses. These subscales are referred to as knowledge, accomplishment, and stimulation.

The reliability of the subscales of this questionnaire has been reported by Khodadady and Khajavy (2013) as 0.84 for the Amotivation, 0.69 for External Regulation, 0.68 for Introjected Regulation, 0.76 for Identified Regulation, 0.73 for Accomplishment, 0.73 for Knowledge, and 0.75 for Stimulation.

**3. The Final Achievement Test**

The final achievement test taken from a test bank developed by the researcher included four sections of vocabulary, grammar, translation, and reading comprehension. The vocabulary section consisted of 8 items of word meaning, 8 items of word definition matching, and 10 items of fill-in-the blank type. The grammar section had one item of sentence combining form (The small number of grammar items is because less emphasis is given to grammar throughout the adopted textbook and vocabulary reading and reading comprehension of utmost importance). The translation section included four sentences to be translated into Persian. And the reading comprehension consisted of two passages with true/false, multiple-choice, and essay type items.

*C. The Textbook*

The main textbook employed was a general English textbook entitled "English for the Students of Medicine (I) written by Deedari, R. & S. M. Zia Hosseini in 1989. This book contains 19 lessons, 9 of which were taught in this study due to both the length of each lesson and the time limitation. The focus of the book is mainly on vocabulary

learning, reading comprehension and translation into the students' mother tongue (here, Persian). Each lesson is consisted of the following parts, sections, and subsections: Part I. Pre-reading (A. Pronunciation Practice, B. Word Study: Definitions, C. Word study: Definitions and Exemplifications, and D. Grammatical Points to Be Explained); Part II. Reading Passage (A. True and False Questions, B. Multiple-choice Items, and C. Oral Questions); Part III. Homework (Section One: vocabulary exercises, A and B parts of fill-in-the-blank type, and C. Synonym of matching-type items; Section Two: open-ended exercises for the grammar points in two sub-parts; Section Three: Reading comprehension including one passage with multiple-choice questions; and Section Four: A. Translation practice consisting of a passage, and B. Some specialized terms to be translated into Persian.

### D. Procedure

To conduct the study, several steps were taken. At first, the subjects (N=82) were chosen based on the convenience sampling method and were randomly assigned into two groups to be taught through either grammar translation method (method 1) or content-based instruction method (method 2).

Secondly, the Nelson test and the LLOS questionnaire (as a pre-test) were administered in the first session of class. The Nelson test took about 50 minutes and the LLOS questionnaire required about 8 minutes to be answered. The LLOS was in Persian, so the subjects had no questions (See Appendix B), and the Nelson test was in English; however, the researcher himself was available for any question.

Thirdly, the treatment was performed for one semester consisting of 25 one-hour-and-a-half sessions for a three-credit general English course using the general English textbook whose description was given above. In the CBI method, the subjects were divided into groups of four or three, the instruction was carried out both in English and Persian with more emphasis on English, group work was encouraged, the students worked cooperatively, the teacher was guiding, facilitating and directing the teaching and learning process where and when necessary. The teacher, besides, assessed performance frequently, geared the activities to the students' developmental and proficiency levels, needs, styles, and interests, attended to both form and function, established meaningful and clear situations for teaching and learning, made great use of realia and visual aids, involved all the students in class activities, created learner-centered activities, and attended to the students' problems with regard to meaning, pronunciation, and translation individually. As for the CBI, the teaching procedure had the following characteristics: most often the language of instruction was Persian. Regarding the vocabulary, all the words were translated into Persian by the students and with the teacher's help, the students had to memorize list of words, fill in the blanks with the appropriate form of the words given, and do some matching exercises. With regard to the reading comprehension, the students read and translated a passage into Persian with the teacher's correcting their mispronunciation, misinterpretation or mistranslation, nearly all the questions and answers were in Persian, and the students were required to answer different types of questions like true/false, multiple-choice, or essay-type ones. In case of grammar, it was taught deductively. Afterwards, the students had to do the exercises.

Fourthly, at the end of the term, the FAT was administered along with the LLOS questionnaire (as the post-test). And finally, the obtained data were analyzed.

### E. Data Analysis

To analyze the data, they were put into Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 19 employing t-test and some correlational analyses. The t-test was run to ensure the homogeneity of the groups and to consider any significance difference in the subjects' performance regarding the Nelson test, LLOS questionnaire, and the FAT. Some correlation analyses were, also, performed between Nelson test, the subscales of LLOS questionnaire, and the FAT. The P value was set at 0.05 level of significance for all the analyses.

## IV. RESULTS

### A. Test of Normality

In order to make sure that the two groups were initially homogenous, three tests of normality were run for the Nelson test, the Persian version of Noel's LLOS questionnaire, and the FAT. The obtained results indicated that all the three instruments were normal using Kolmogorov-Smirnov at 0.05 level of significance. The results appear in the tables 2 through 4.

TABLE 2.
TEST OF NORMALITY FOR THE NELSON TEST

|  | Method | Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a] | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | | Statistic | Df | Sig. |
| Nelson | GTM | .079 | 42 | .200[*] |
|  | CBI | .139 | 40 | .051 |

P>0.05

TABLE 3.
TEST OF NORMALITY FOR THE FINAL ACHIEVEMENT TEST (FAT)

|  | Method | Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a] | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
|  |  | Statistic | df | Sig. |
| FAT | GTM | .124 | 42 | .102 |
|  | CBI | .087 | 40 | .200[*] |

P>0.05

TABLE 4.
TEST OF NORMALITY FOR NOEL'S LANGUAGE LEARNING ORIENTATION SCALE (LLOS)

|  | Method | Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a] | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
|  |  | Statistic | df | Sig. |
| LLOS | GTM | .099 | 42 | .200[*] |
|  | CBI | .084 | 40 | .200[*] |

P>0.05

## B. T-test

As mentioned earlier, several t-tests were performed in data analysis. First, a t-test was run for the Nelson test to ensure that the groups were homogeneous in terms of their English language proficiency. The results revealed that there was no significant difference between the groups in this regard at the onset of the study (p=0.98>0.05). Table 5 shows the results.

TABLE 5.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST/NELSON

|  | Method | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | P Value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Nelson | GTM | 42 | 24.8810 | 6.29054 | 0.981 |
|  | CBI | 40 | 24.8500 | 5.27476 |  |

Second, to make sure of the subjects' homogeneity in terms of their motivational orientation, a t-test was also performed for the LLOS questionnaire between the two methods. The obtained results (Table 6 below) indicated that there was not any significant difference between the methods in this regard, (p=0.915).

TABLE 6.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR LLOS QUESTIONNAIRE

|  | Method | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | P Value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| LLOS | GTM | 42 | 107.3810 | 15.34633 | 0.915 |
|  | CBI | 40 | 107.0250 | 14.66111 |  |

Third, to investigate whether the types of instruction (CBI vs GTM) was effective, the students' score on the FAT was compared in the two groups using t-test, the result of which pointed out that the groups were significantly different from one other, (p<0.05 and p=0.006 for the CBI and GTM groups, respectively). Table 7 demonstrates the results.

TABLE 7.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST FOR GTM VS CBI

|  | Method | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | P Value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| FAT | GTM | 42 | 14.8512 | 2.36273 | 0.006 |
|  | CBI | 40 | 16.1998 | 1.94600 |  |

Fourth, another t-test was run to examine the effect of gender in the FAT. The result showed that there was no significant difference between males (M) and females (F) though the females obtained a higher mean in the FAT (F mean=15.02±2.46, and M mean=14.12±1.84, p=0.34). Table 8 delineates the results.

TABLE 8.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE TWO GENDERS IN GTM GROUP

|  | Gender | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | P Value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| GTM | Male | 8 | 14.1250 | 1.84197 | 0.34 |
|  | Female | 34 | 15.0221 | 2.46134 |  |

Fifth, another t-test was run to examine the effect of gender in the CBI group. The result showed that there was a significant difference between females and males (F mean=16.60±1.91, and M mean=14.97±1.53, p=0.019). Table 9 points out the results.

TABLE 9.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE TWO GENDERS IN CBI GROUP

|  | Gender | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | P Value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| CBI | Male | 10 | 14.9740 | 1.53915 | 0.019 |
|  | Female | 30 | 16.6083 | 1.91487 |  |

And finally, a paired t-test was performed to investigate whether the students' orientation in language learning has changed after the treatment. The obtained results appearing in Tables 10, 11, and 12 pointed out that there was a significant difference between the students' orientation and motivation towards learning English due to the intervention (In the tables below, PRELLOS stands for the LLOS before treatment and POSTLLOS shows its administration after treatment).

TABLE 10.
THE PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE LLOS BEFORE AND AFTER INTERVENTION FOR METHOD 1 (GTM)

|  |  | Mean | N | Std. Deviation | P |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pair 1 | PRELLOS | 100.0250 | 40 | 11.85054 | 0.570 |
|  | POSTLLOS | 98.0250 | 40 | 18.95269 |  |

TABLE 11.
THE PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE LLOS BEFORE AND AFTER INTERVENTION FOR METHOD 2 (CBI)

|  |  | Mean | N | Std. Deviation | P |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pair 1 | PRELLOS | 100.2857 | 42 | 13.67620 | 0.042 |
|  | POSTLLOS | 106.1190 | 42 | 15.76690 |  |

TABLE 12.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST AFTER INTERVENTION

|  | Method | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | P |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| POSTLLOS | GTM | 40 | 98.0250 | 18.95269 | 0.038 |
|  | CBI | 42 | 106.1190 | 15.76690 |  |

## C. Correlation

To investigate whether there is any go-togetherness between the students' scores in the tests taken, some correlational analyses were carried out among which the correlation between the Nelson test and the FAT was significant for the two groups even though it was of a low coefficient (r=0.357). The result is presented in the Table 13 below.

TABLE 13.
THE CORRELATION BETWEEN THE NELSON AND THE FAT

|  |  | FAT | Nelson |
|---|---|---|---|
| FAT | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .357[**] |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) |  | .001 |
|  | N | 82 | 82 |
| Nelson | Pearson Correlation | .357[**] | 1 |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | .001 |  |
|  | N | 82 | 82 |

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

Further, the correlations between each subscale of the LLOS questionnaire and the subjects' performance on the FAT were performed. The results indicated very low correlation coefficients except for FAT and Nelson in the GTM group (r=.409). Table 14 shows the results.

TABLE 14.
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN FAT & NELSON IN GTM GROUP

|  |  | FAT | Nelson |
|---|---|---|---|
| FAT | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .409[**] |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) |  | .007 |
|  | N | 42 | 42 |
| Nelson | Pearson Correlation | .409[**] | 1 |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | .007 |  |
|  | N | 42 | 42 |

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

## V. DISCUSSION

As already mentioned, the purpose of this study was to investigate if there was any difference between the two methods of teaching English with regard to the students' final achievement and their LLO. In this regard, the following research questions were put forward: 1) Is there any significant difference between the students' achievement when taught through Content-based Instruction and Grammar-translation Method? and 2) Is there any significant difference between the students' Language Learning Orientation (LLO) before and after treatment via Content-based Instruction and Grammar-translation Method?

Regarding the first question, the students' achievement in the FAT indicated that there was a significant difference between the CBI and the GTM. That is, the students taught through the CBI method outperformed their counterpart group which was taught via the GTM. This finding pointing out the effectiveness of CBI is in line with those of some foreign language educators, to name a few: Crandall (1993), Short (1997), Snow (1998), and Stoller (2004). They claimed that CBI enjoys some benefits like fostering academic growth while also developing language proficiency. The finding is, also, consistent with those of Curtain (1995) and Met (1991); they asserted that language acquisition increases through CBI and the learners achieve more when the emphasis is more on the meaningful and relevant content other than the form itself.

In case of the second research question, as the obtained results revealed that the students' LLO and motivation have changed to some extent in the CBI group, it can be inferred that the CBI has been more effective in comparison to the GTM, a finding which is in accordance with those of Brinton, Snow and Wesche (2003). They held the view that the students' motivation would increase and their learning would be effectively promoted if the lesson content were regarded as relevant to them. The reason might be due to the fact that the activities employed were found to be more meaningful and interesting, and accordingly the students were more involved in the integrated and organized activities. Moreover, teaching through CBI led to the students' high motivation, great interest level, and more intrinsic motivation a finding which corresponds to what Grabe and Stoller (1997) and Boivin and Razali (2013) claimed. In addition, the finding is in line with those of Genesee (1998) and Met (1991) who believed that CBI is motivating since language is the means of providing meaningful and suitable content.

## VI. CONCLUSION

Through conducting this study, we, first, investigated to see if there was any significant difference between the students' achievement when taught through Content-based Instruction or Grammar-translation Method. Next, we explored the difference between the students' Language Learning Orientation before and after treatment via Content-based Instruction and Grammar-translation Method.

As was mentioned above, it was discovered that the CBI group outperformed the GTM one. Thus, based on the findings, several conclusions can be drawn, and accordingly some implications can be put forward. At first, the CBI proved to be much more influential in light of the students' performance in the final achievement test. So, it is recommended that the CBI be more practiced and implemented in classes if EFL/ELT teachers want their students to be successful learners in terms of learning the foreign language and consequently regarding their performance in examinations.

Secondly, since there was a change in the students' orientation and attitude toward learning English using CBI, it can be concluded that group work, cooperative learning, student involvement, providing comprehensible input, and teaching at the right level are the things more needed and welcomed by the students; and the students could achieve better scores, as Chau Ngan (2011) states, in all aspects of ESP.

And finally, CBI, if adopted carefully and well-planned, can provide the students with comprehensible learning tasks and activities stimulating both problem solving and critical thinking, resulting in more achievement in linguistic and content areas, as well as higher language learning orientations.

However, it should be mentioned that the study had one limitation even though the researchers did their best to compensate for it. In fact, the main textbook employed for the CBI and GTM groups was the same. To make up the shortcoming, the researchers tried to adopt some other materials to be used in the CBI group. The research reports, magazine articles, and even some news related to the theme of each lesson were introduced to the students only in the CBI group and they were required to provide a summary or a discussion on them for the following sessions.

## APPENDIX A.  THE NELSON TEST OF ACHIEVEMENT (TEST 050 C)

Directions: Choose the correct answer and mark your answer sheet. Only one answer is correct.
1. A) The bird are in the sky                     B) A bird's in a sky
   C) The birds in a sky                           D) The bird's in the sky
2. What ………….. doing?
   A) are they            B) do they          C) does they          D) is they
3. Jane and Tom …………….. the door.
   A) are walking at     B) walk at          C) walks to          D) are walking to
4. Charles and I ……………..
   A) am here             B) we are here      C) are here          D) we here

5. Ann, what ……………?
   A) is doing         B) she's doing      C) are doing      D) are you doing
6. Tom's ……………….. street.
   A) in the           B) at the         C) into the         D) under
7. How many girls are there in the room?
   A) There are any     B) There's one    C) A girl        D) There two
8. Mary works, but ……………
   A) works Tom?      B) does Tom?     C) Tom does?    D) Tom works?
9. Liz is looking at ………….
   A) them           B) they          C) there        D) their
10. Who's that girl?
    A) He's Elizabeth     B) Her name Sarah     C) She's a good girl     D) It's Anne
11. Where's the dog?
    A) He's under chair    B) There's on the table   C) It's near the window   D) Its here
12. Is John tall?
    A) Yes, he's        B) No, he'sn't      C) No, his not        D) Yes, he is
13. What's his name?
    A) It John         B) It's John       C) John it's the name     D) Its John
14. Do you draw or write?
    A) I'm draw and write          B) I drawing and writing
    C) I'm not draw but I'm write      D) I draw and I write
15. Is that a chair?
    A) Yes, that's      B) Yes, there is    C) Yes, it is          D) Yes, it's that chair
16. Is this chair brown?
    A) No, isn't brown chair       B) No, this is the green chair
    C) Yes, it's brown             D) Yes, it is a brown
17. What's her father doing?
    A) Her working in the garden     B) Working in the garden
    C) Is working in the garden      D) She is working in the garden
18. How many books are there?
    A) They're many             B) There are many
    C) There are eight            D) Are two books there
19. A) Is that red book a big?        B) Is that book a big red?
    C) Is red that big book?         D) Is that red book big?
20. Anne …………. tomorrow.
    A) can sing     B) can to sing       C) is going sing     D) going to sing
21. The pen is …………. his pocket.
    A) in            B) into            C) at            D) to
22. The car is ………… the tree.
    A) near of       B) with          C) beside          D) next
23. What's that man?
    A) He's John     B) Yes, it's a man    C) It's John          D) He's a teacher
24. Do you like the boat?
    A) No, I don't like it    B) Yes, I like him    C) No, I like not    D) Yes, I like
25. A) Ken is talking to Jane and we        B) We and Jane is talking to Ken
    C) Jane and we talking to Ken         D) We are talking to Ken and Jane
26. A) Is you friend that pretty girl?       B) Is that friend you're pretty girl?
    C) Is that girl pretty your friend?      D) Is that pretty girl your friend?
27. A) Is this your hat there?          B) Are those your hat there?
    C) Are those your hats there?       D) Is this your hats here?
28. She is writing …………
    A) on any book     B) in a paper      C) with a pen      D) by pencil
29. A) Do Gary live in Bristol now?       B) Does Gary live in Bristol now?
    C) Is living in Bristol now, Gary?      D) Does now Gary live in Bristol?
30. Monday is the first day.
    A) Tuesday is the second          B) The second is Thursday
    C) Tuesday is the fourth           D) The fourth is Thursday
31. Mike is beside Pat. Pat is ………….. Mike.
    A) behind          B) between         C) beside         D) in front of
32. Tom is Mrs Black's son.

A) She is his daughter      B) He is his son      C) She is her son      D) He is her son
33. A) Go over there to they                    B) Go over there to them
    C) Come over there to me                    D) Come to them over here
34. A) Look my garden, Susan!                   B) Susan looks my garden.
    C) Susan is look at my garden.              D) Look at my garden, Susan!
35. A) You know not the old man                 B) You know a old man
    C) An old man knows you                     D) An old man don't knows you
36. Watch ………….
    A) him and his dog      B) he and he's dog      C) him and he's dog      D) him and its dog
37. Whose house is this? It's ………….. house.
    A) the Mr Smith's            B) our            C) Mrs' Smith          D) she's
38. A) Where are they going put the books?       B) Where there are going to put the books?
    C) Where are they going to put the books?    D) Where are there going put the books?
39. A) Jack's English and Anne are two           B) Jack's English and Anne is too English
    C) Jack's English and Anne's, too            D) Jack's English and Anne is, too
40. Do pigs fly?
    A) No, dogs don't                    B) No, and not dogs, too
    C) No, and dogs not                  D) No, and dog doesn't fly
41. Jack is standing beside …………..
    A) us              B) its          C) they          D) your
42. This car is ………….
    A) of John          B) to John        C) John's        D) Johns'
43. A) Betty has some flower               B) Betty's has any flowers
    C) Betty's any flowers                 D) Betty has some flowers
44. A) These are the third lesson          B) This is the lesson two
    C) This a lesson, too                  D) This is the third lesson
45. A) Tom cans have Joan's bicycle        B) Tom can have Joan's bicycle
    C) Tom can to have Joan's bicycle      D) Tom can has Joan's bicycle
46. It's 11:30.
    A) Yes, it's thirty past eleven        B) Yes, it's half past eleven
    C) Yes, its' thirty to twelve          D) Yes, its half to twelve
47. 439 is …………
    A) four hundred and thirty nine        B) four hundreds and thirty nine
    C) four hundred thirty nine            D) four hundreds thirty and nine
48. A) The teacher don't like some book    B) The teacher doesn't likes some book
    C) The teacher don't like his book     D) The teacher doesn't like her book
49. Mother washes the girls' hair. Look, she …………..
    A) is washing it now    B) washes it now    C) is washing them now   D) washes them now
50. The cat has ………….
    A) the long legs        B) long legs        C) the legs long         D) legs long

APPENDIX B. THE PERSIAN VERSION OF LANGUAGE LEARNING ORIENTATION SCALE

مقیاس بررسی میزان توجه و گرایش به یادگیری زبان انگلیسی
در پرسشنامه زیر جملاتی وجود دارد که فرد زبان انگلیسی را می آموزد. نشان دهید که چقدر با جملات داده شده موافقید. به خاطر بسپارید که جواب
درست یا اشتباه وجود ندارد، چرا که افراد مختلف نظرات مختلفی دارند.

| كاملا مخالف | نسبتا مخالف | مخالف | بی نظر | موافق | نسبتا موافق | كاملا موافق | سئوالات |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | | | 1-نمیتوانم بفهمم که چرا زبان انگلیسی را یاد می گیرم، و صراحتا بگویم، اصلا اهمیت نمی دهم. |
| | | | | | | | 2-صادقانه بگویم، نمیدانم، واقعا احساس می کنم که وقتم را با یادگیری زبان انگلیسی تلف میکنم. |
| | | | | | | | 3-من نمی دانم چرا زبان انگلیسی را مطالعه میکنم، من نمی توانم بفهمم چه کاری با مطالعه کردن زبان انگلیسی انجام میدهم. |
| | | | | | | | 4-من زبان انگلیسی را فرا میگیرم تا درآینده شغل بهتر و با اعتبارتری داشته باشم. |
| | | | | | | | 5-من زبان انگلیسی را فرا میگیرم تا در آینده حقوق بیشتری دریافت کنم. |
| | | | | | | | 6-من زبان انگلیسی را فرا میگیرم، چرا که احساس می کنم دیگران این انتظار را از من دارند. |
| | | | | | | | 7-من زبان انگلیسی را فرا میگیرم، چرا که اگر نتوانم با دوستانم که زبان مادریشان انگلیسی است صحبت کنم، احساس شرمساری می کنم. |
| | | | | | | | 8-من زبان انگلیسی را فرا میگیرم، چون اگر زبان انگلیسی را ندانم احساس گناه می کنم. |
| | | | | | | | 9-من زبان انگلیسی را فرا میگیرم، تا به خودم نشان دهم که چون زبان انگلیسی صحبت می کنم شهروند خوبی هستم. |
| | | | | | | | 10- من زبان انگلیسی را فرا میگیرم، چرا که می خواهم فردی باشم که می تواند بیش از یک زبان را صحبت کند. |
| | | | | | | | 11-من زبان انگلیسی را فرا میگیرم، چرا که که فکر می کنم برای رشد فردی ام خوب است. |
| | | | | | | | 12-من زبان انگلیسی را فرا میگیرم، چرا که می خواهم فردی باشم که می تواند به زبان دومی صحبت کند. |
| | | | | | | | 13-بخاطر لذتی که به هنگام فهمیدن ساختاری مشکل در زبان انگلیسی تجربه می کنم، زبان انگلیسی را فرا می گیرم. |
| | | | | | | | 14-بخاطر احساس رضایتی که در هنگام موفقیت در انجام تمرین های مشکل در زبان انگلیسی تجربه می کنم زبان انگلیسی را فرا میگیرم. |
| | | | | | | | 15-بخاطر لذتی که به هنگام پیشرفت دریاد گیری زبان دوم تجربه می کنم، زبان انگلیسی را فرا میگیرم. |
| | | | | | | | 16-چون دانستن در مورد جامعه و شیوه زندگی افراد ساکن در کشور های انگلیسی زبان برایم لذت بخش است، زبان انگلیسی را فرا میگیرم. |
| | | | | | | | 17-بخاطر احساس رضایتی که به هنگام کشف چیز های جدید به من دست می دهد، زبان انگلیسی را فرا میگیرم. |
| | | | | | | | 18-بخاطر لذتی که در دانستن بیشتر در مورد جامعه و شیوه زندگی افراد ساکن در کشور های انگلیسی تجربه می کنم زبان انگلیسی را فرا میگیرم. |
| | | | | | | | 19-بخاطر احساس لذت بخشی که به هنگام شنیدن زبانهای خارجی تجربه می کنم زبان انگلیسی را فرا میگیرم. |
| | | | | | | | 20-بخاطر احساس لذت بخشی که به هنگام صحبت کردن به زبان انگلیسی تجربه می کنم، زبان انگلیسی را فرا میگیرم. |
| | | | | | | | 21-بخاطر احساس خوبی که به هنگام شنیدن صحبت انگلیسی زبانان تجربه می کنم زبان انگلیسی را فرا میگیرم. |

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# The Aesthetic Experiment of Oscar Wilde in *A House of Pomegranates*

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*Abstract*—**Oscar Wilde (1854-1900) is one of major proponents of Aestheticism in England. This thesis attempts to probe into Oscar Wilde's second collection of fairy tales—*A House of Pomegranates*, which is complicated and abstruse in aspects of language, theme and narration, compared with his first collection of fairy tales—*The Happy Prince and Other Tales*. The author contends that *A House of Pomegranates*, which is subversive of the fairy tale convention, is brought forward by Wilde's aesthetic intentions—art is independent of life and immortal, thus, an experiment in aestheticism. The approach of textual analysis and comparison are adopted in this thesis.**

*Index Terms*—**Oscar Wilde, *A House of Pomegranates*, aestheticism, experiment**

## I.  INTRODUCTION

Oscar Wilde (1856-1900), Irish poet, dramatist, novelist and essayist, is one of the two most important exponents of Aestheticism in English literature. From the eighties to the nineties in the 19th century, Wilde wrote and published all his major works, including his famous plays—four comedies and one tragedy, his sole novel—*The Picture of Dorian Gray*, a series of critical essays collected in *Intentions*, two collections of fairy tales—*The Happy Prince and Other Tales* and *A house of Pomegranates*. His works, full of epigrams and paradoxes, reveal the ugliness of the bourgeois society and his unique aesthetic philosophy as well.

*A House of Pomegranates*, with four short stories symbolizing four seeds eaten by Persephone—the queen of the underworld, is the second collection of fairy tales of Oscar Wilde. The four stories are "The Young King", "The Birthday of the Infanta", "The Fishman and His Soul" and "The Star child". It was considered unfit for children because of its complex plot and deep insight into life and society when first published. The current thesis intends to unearth the aesthetic ideas embedded in *A House of Pomegranates*, giving full play to close reading of the text. This thesis examines every pomegranate in detail, seeking the signs and symbols of aestheticism left by Wilde while conceiving to confirm the experiment carried out by Wilde in the field of fairy tale.

## II.  THE MAJOR AESTHETIC CONCEPTIONS OF OSCAR WILDE

No name is more evidently bound up with the aesthetic movement of the 1880s and 1890s in England than that of Oscar Wilde. This connection results as much from the sensational details of Wilde's life as from his aesthetic theories collected in his critical works or scattered in his works. Wilde breaks out of the yore of the tradition and transcends his predecessors by putting forward a series of unprecedented ideas on art and creation. Although Wilde's philosophy is far from systematic and even illogical, it is coherent in the sense that the same spirit of aestheticism consistently links it. Tangled as Wilde aesthetic principles are, it is, nevertheless, likely for us to clear out several general principles.

Firstly, for Wilde, art transcends morality. He claims in his critical book *Intensions* that all art is immoral, "except those baser forms of sensual or didactic art that seek to excite to action of evil or of good"[1]. By "immoral", Wilde means that art is useless, expressing neither love for nor hate against good or evil. However, it does not indicate that Wilde is free from moral concerns, for Wilde is equally concerned with the same problems confronting his contemporaries and such intellectual giants as Ruskin, Carlyle and Arnold. Nevertheless, on the perplex relationship between the good and the evil, he thinks otherwise. He maintains that art and ethics belong to separate categories.

Secondly, Wilde maintains that art is independent of life, and it holds the mirror up for life. The negation of life's effects on art forms only the first phase of Wilde's assertions on the relationship between life and art, which is elaborately dealt with in Wilde's critical essay "The Decay of Lying". Wilde expresses his protest against nature, which symbolizes the vulgar real-life for him. As a result, art is not to be found in nature herself. He is convinced that "Nature is always behind the age", and he proceeds to say, "And as for life, she is the solvent that breaks up Art, the enemy that lags waste her house"[2].

Thirdly, Wilde puts great emphasis on form and the innovation of form. Wilde gives great priority to form, and energetically advocates reform and innovation, which are, to some extent, overlapping with the autonomy of art. He proposes, for the sake of absolute autonomy of art, the artist should be an individualist, who has the final say to

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[2]  Wilde, Oscar. *Intentions1*. Kingbook International Digital Library. 10 Nov. 2008 <http://202.119.108.52:8077/Soft_Show.asp?SoftID=5743>

everything concerning his own work. Wilde considers that only through reform and innovation can the artist attain self-development and achieve the complete independence of art.

### III.    AESTHETICISM IN *A HOUSE OF POMEGRANATES*

The most obvious sign of Wilde's expression of aesthetic ideas in *A House of Pomegranates* is the detailed description of Beauty. As is known to all, traditional fairy tales are very vague in describing the beautiful appearance of human beings and costumes, but Wilde insists on the converse. In *A House of Pomegranates*, Wilde's lingering on concrete beauty is immensely prominent. In "The Birthday of the Infanta", for example, Wilde dwells on the grace of those slim Spanish children: how elegantly they are dressed and how graceful their manners are. More importantly, the description of the beautiful costume of the princess is considerably elaborate. Her robe was and skirt was decorated with silver, fine pearls and gold (Wilde, 1968).

In addition, when the dwarf is looking for the princess, Wilde delays him by the magnificence of the sumptuous decoration in the palace, turning the beauty of these rooms into tangible words. The walls alone is quite impressive, covered with a pink-flowered Lucca damask with birds patterns and silver blossoms, and the furniture is made of silver designed with florid wreaths (Wilde, 1968). Wilde creates all these beautiful concrete images that fascinate the dwarf.

It is the same in "The Fisherman and His Soul". When describing the little mermaid, although Wilde casts away the abstract word "beautiful", he brings forward quite an amazing picture with vivid marvelous word painting. The fisherman falls in love with her for good reasons that the readers are aware of. What's more, when the fisherman is allured by the young witch to go to the top of the mountain to dance, there appears a man under the shadow of a rock. The fashion of his costume is also described in great detail, despite the fact that it is not really conducive to the development of the plot.

In "The Star-child", the star-child's curls that resemble the rings of the daffodil, his ivory skin, and his beautiful lips, eyes, and body together present a fancy picture. Besides, the wonderland discovered by the young king, and those rare and costly material that holds a great fascination for him is also in vivid description.

In these tales, Wilde's unconventional artistic treatment of beauty confirms one of his major aesthetic theories—art is immoral. Wilde is conveying his aversion to utilitarianism in *A House of Pomegranates* through the concrete and detailed description of beauty, which is independent of social mores. In these stories, beauty loses its social function as the carrier of virtues; instead, it becomes an end itself, while fairy tales before Wilde tend to associate beauty with morals. Traditionally, the heroines, more often than not, are not only beautiful and but also kind, while their antagonists ugly and evil. Wilde changes this mode and dissociates beauty from morals. For instance, in "The Birthday of the Infanta", the princess is beautiful, the most graceful of all children, but she is cruel and indifferent to the sudden death of the little dwarf who renders her much happiness earlier during daytime. Another case in point is the star-child, who is rather fair, but his beauty work does him no good, because he is proud, and cruel, and selfish when he grows up. The child despises other children of the same village and regards himself the master. He has no pity for the poor, or for those who are afflicted in some way. He even sends his mother away, who has been looking for him for years. It is not until he turns ugly does he begin to repent of his sin. Moreover, in "The Yong King", the rare and beautiful objects are closely related to tears, blood or even death. For example, those beautiful pearls are obtained at the price of slaves' lives. In addition, the mermaid, who is of rare beauty, has no soul at all.

The minute depiction of the scene in the garden of the palace, the charming performance arranged for the princess in "The Birthday of the Infanta" and the detailed description of the costume of the strange person worshipped by all the witches in "The Fisherman and the Soul" are all brimmed with beauty, yet they are not connected to the evolvement of the plot. Consequently, Wilde's infatuation with beauty functions not as a vehicle for moral teachings, but is the supreme end of art. The lingering sculpture of beauty, which seems unnecessarily redundant, further proves Wilde's aestheticism. All these instances are Wilde's weapons against the function of beauty and art, for he believes that art is useless, caring for neither right or wrong, and the aim of art lies in the perfection of itself. Wilde reiterates that the real artist should have no ethical sympathies at all, because beauty is the only compass for art. To make every detail perfect and pure is what Wilde intends. He holds that intellectual virtues are what the artist and his art need to transcend, because the moral life of man forms but part of the subject matter of the artist, and the sculpture of evils hold the same temptation for him.

The second distinguishing point about *A House of Pomegranates* is the unexpected endings, which also indicates Wilde's aestheticism. The ending of typical traditional fairy tales, more often than not, can be expected, while in *A House of Pomegranates*, three stories, out of total four, end with the sudden deaths of the heroes. Wilde's way of concluding a story is in direct contrast with what is anticipated. "The Star-child" is the most dramatic of all the four stories. The star-child turns from an evil child to a good person and contrives to redeem himself, and to retrieve his mother, which are achieved through thick and thin. During his brief reign, he shows much sympathy for the suffered. He bears no cruelness to bird or beast, and teaches kindness and charity to all the people. There is peace and splendor in his land. Until then, happy ending has been expected. However, Wilde arranges the anti-climax—the premature death of the star-child. Yet his reign only lasts for three years and then he dies unexpectedly. His successor is very cruel but rules the county for a long time (Wilde, 1968). The readers cannot but notice that the kindness is not reciprocated and the moral order has not been restored.

In "The Birthday of the Infanta", the dwarf entertains all the audience. He is kind to the animals, sharing his nuts with the squirrels. He never forgets the birds, and feeds them crumbs although he only has a small helping of food. Kind as he is, he is not able to obtain the love from the beautiful princess, which is quite different from the treatment received by the frog prince in *The Princess and the Frog*. Instead, when the truth—the little princess whom he loves dearly is merely mocking at his ugliness dawns upon him, he ceases to be out of a broken heart. The princess shows no pity for his death, instead, she gives orders that she would only play with people who has no heart (Wilde, 1968). There is neither regret nor expiation for the sins. Wilde abandons the invariable pattern that the good is rewarded and the ill punished. For him, both the moral and the immoral are rough material for further creation.

Furthermore, in the "The Fisherman and His Soul", the narration continues when the fisherman cuts off his soul and plights himself to the little mermaid when readers least expect it. The fisherman and the mermaid are supposed to be happy ever after. Nevertheless, Wilde brings forward the question of body, soul and heart. The soul travels and experiences, while the body and love remain in the sea. The romance is broken when the soul returns for the third time and entices the fisherman with the feet of a dancing girl. The fisherman leaves his beloved mermaid. Finally, realizing that the sins of the soul, the fisherman is resolved to return, but it is impossible to get rid of his soul the second time. The soul makes every effort to get into the body, but with no success. When the soul is on the verge of giving up, the fisherman gives in out of pity. At this news, the mermaid dies (Wilde, 1968). Only then is the value of love brought to light without reserve: love surpasses wisdom and riches in value. The sudden death befalls the couple, and the black color of it reverses the happy aura around traditional fairy tales. The story does not end here as is conjectured. Three years later, beautiful flowers with aroma are discovered in the corner of the Field of the Fullers where the couple are buried. These flowers make the priest speak of the God whose name is love (Wilde, 1968). The irony is that after people pray for the world in the sea, the flowers never appear again.

All these odd endings provide further support for Wilde's aesthetic views. They differ from traditional fairy tales in the fulfillment the moral function. On the one hand, these odd endings prove Wilde's insistence on the immorality of art: art is not a means to inform the public of right and wrong. Wilde's opposition against utilitarianism is made clear as well. On the other hand, these unexpected endings demonstrate Wilde's willingness and advocacy of creation and transcendence. He intends to break the old order and establish the new, as Shillinglaw (2006) points out that Wilde's aesthetic motive subverts the notion of moral. The sudden deaths are out of the expectation of the readers, but they echo to the creational spirit of Oscar Wilde. Wilde is a rebel against the tradition, advocating the spirit of creation in art. Wilde seeks to transform the fairy tale discourse—to change both in content and style, which is fully embodied in the sudden conclusion of fairy tales with abrupt deaths. The melancholy tone replaces the tone of happiness: whatever the effort, the end is doomed. It is apparent that Wilde is determined to subvert the messages conveyed by the modes set by classical fairy tales.

The third eye-catching characteristic of *A House of Pomegranates* is the detailed suffering. One case in point is the star-child. The Star-child turns ugly after turning his mother away. For three years, he has been in exile seeking his mother. How he suffers is not dealt with a few words, but dwelled upon. He wanders over the world where he is treated brutally, where he can not find love. He is treated exactly the way he treats others earlier when he is beautiful. The village children mocked him, and threw stones at him, and the carlots forbid him to sleep in the byres. At one time, he is a beggar, tired and feet bleeding; at another time, he is sold as a slave and cast into a dungeon. He is sent to search for the white, yellow, and red gold successively. Moreover, his life is threatened all the time and his way to expiation is uneven.

The same minute depiction appears again in the case of the bereavement of the king in "The Birthday of the Infanta". The melancholy of the king would have been flitted through with a few words; however, Wilde dwells on the details of the love and sorrow of the king for the dead queen. He is in constant mourning for the queen who died twelve years ago. He loves her so much that he embalms her body and keeps her in a chapel where he visits every month (Wilde, 1968). He carries his sorrow to such an extent that he carries on his mourning despite the opposition and thus loses his land, which is seemingly irrelevant to the major plot.

The striking imagery of violent cruelty is nightmare for children, and is rare in traditional fairy tales which are supposed to be created for children. It is evident that Wilde is obsessed with the description of pain and suffering in *A House of Pomegranates*, where there are unreciprocated love and unprovoked death in every story. Ruggaber (2003) holds that Oscar Wilde challenges aesthetic principles in *A House of Pomegranates*.

Under the cover of the fairy tale genre, he exposes the same issue of moral, only deeper, as he once marked that people will tell the truth if given a mask. Wilde declares finds the masks that people wear about in a good society much more interesting than what is behind the masks. Wilde contends that art should contain anything actually happened, or happens frequently in real life, so the truth is disclosed through imaginary stories and characters. The unusual revelation of cruelty and suffering challenges his readers to reflect on several social and moral problems, such as the questioning of institutions, the value of beauty and moral complexity.

However, the handling of the plots in *A House of Pomegranates* does not offer traditional morals in a conventional way. For example, the tragic scene of the death of the dwarf fails to arouse the conscience in the beautiful princess. She is as cruel as ever, for she gives the order that those who come to play with her should possess no hearts in the future. This story does not attempt to provide ready morals, while it does drive the readers to analyze on their own. It is the

society, which values beauty more than anything does, that renders the princess indifferent to the extreme suffering. Moreover, the plot of conspiracy against the queen is neglected. Neither is the criminal punished nor is the justice restored. As for the star-child, the more intense is his suffering, the more convincing is the aesthetic values of Wilde explicit in this story, as he considers that the question of right or wrong is more complex than assumed.

In stating that art is immoral, Wilde is against the hypocrisy of the society, against those who preach right and wrong; because there is indeed injustice in the world and the evil is not necessarily punished. Wilde assumes that it is an unpardonable mannerism to implant morality in the works of art. Under the mask of fairy tale the genre, Wilde introduces the reality of life to children: life has suffering as its inevitable part. Bruno Bettelheim's influential study in child psychology, *The Uses of Enchantment,* suggests that fairy stories impart us much about the inner problems of human beings and they also describe human mind, which is certainly true of Wilde's tales. Invariably, Wilde reveals the dark side of life: the humanity is not human. The fairy tale genre serves as the cover for Wilde's serious writing.

Besides the three points mentioned above, the digression in *A House of Pomegranates* also contributes to Wilde's aestheticism. The mystery of it lies in the unusually detailed secondary information, which leads to digression from the major plot. Wilde wanders away from the primary plot many a time. For instance, in "The Birthday of the Infanta", the love story of the king and the belated queen runs on into more than two pages: how they meet and are betrothed, how he loses her and mourns for her, which should have been merely mentioned. Besides, in "The Birthday of the Infanta", before the show of the little dwarf, Wilde pours out many words to depict the precedent five performances with one paragraph dedicated to each of them. With these unnecessary details, the performance of the dwarf is not given proper prominence. Wilde introduces the dwarf's performance with just a few words: the funniest part (Wilde, 1968). Here the emphasis on the dwarf is not quite persuasive as it likely to be in traditional tales, since the length of the show is not distinguished.

In "The Star-Child", the hero are supposed to be the star-child, however, it is not until the fourth page does the child appear. The background information with regard to the baby's parentage would have been put in a few words as a deserted baby found in the winter pine-forest. However, Wilde describes it in great detail. At first, a dramatic discussion among animals about the cold weather is on display, followed by the struggle in the icy forest of the two woodcutters, which may be engaging, but superfluous, compared with traditional fairy tales.

The most puzzling digression arises in "The Fisherman and His Soul". The young fisherman goes to the witch to seek help. The witch promises to help him send his soul away only on the condition that he dances with her. Magic and witches recur in traditional fairy tales, but the magic here is associated with mystery. The dance, the bizarre scene of dancing with the witches, the strange man leaves the reader encompassed with doubts.

As we all know, Wilde is highly talented and well-read in classics, so he must be versed in fairy tales. Therefore, the only justification for the digression in *A House of Pomegranates* is his intention to exercise his aesthetic philosophy, to make every detail perfect and beautiful. He claims that the social ideas and the meaning of joy in art consist in "the flawless beauty and perfect form of its expression"[3]. For the sake of beauty, which Wilde holds as his God, he makes it rule to render the details perfect.

In addition, the digression that brings vigor and suspense into the old story pattern breaks the convention, conforming to Wilde's tendency to break the old and to establish the new. To Wilde, form is the highest principle, and the creation in form is still more important. He clarifies himself that "The simple utterance of joy is not poetry any more than a mere personal cry of pain."[4] Emotions are subordinate to the governing artistic form, without which, the feelings make no sense. "The absolute distinction of the artist is not his capacity to feel nature so much as his power of rendering it."[5] Language goes before thought for Wilde; therefore, it's important to create within the fairy tale genre. The digression that does not comply with the mode set by classic fairy tales is deliberately created by Wilde for the sake of creation in form.

## IV.  Conclusion

Wilde's *A House of Pomegranates* is complex in language, plot and theme, different from the tradition represented by Anderson and Grimm's Fairy Tales. The most distinguished three defining aesthetic features in *A House of Pomegranates*: the minute beauty and pain, the digression from the major plot and the unexpected death endings that meet no companion in traditional fairy tales, are all expressions of Wilde's esthetic ideas—art transcends morality and should be different from real life. Therefore, Wilde is conducting an unprecedented aesthetic experiment in the name of fairy tales.

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# The Impact of Field Dependence/Independence Cognitive Styles and Gender Differences on Lexical Knowledge: The Case of Iranian Academic EFL Learners

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*Abstract*—Most of the research which has investigated the relationship between effective learners' variables and language proficiency allows the researcher to quantify the strength of the relationship. The scope of this paper limited to examining the role of field dependence/independence cognitive styles and gender differences on EFL learners' lexical knowledge. To attain the goals of the research, a number of EFL learners sat through the Vocabulary Size Test (VST) as well as the Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT). The findings of the study indicate the need for caution when concluding that cognitive styles of field dependence/independence affect lexical knowledge in the absence of tests for possible interactions between FD/FI and other variables, including gender differences that may influence vocabulary knowledge. By the same token, understanding the effective role of students' cognitive aspects and gender will enable teachers and researchers to design appropriate materials and activities to help students enhance their lexical competence.

*Index Terms*—field dependence/independence cognitive styles, gender differences, lexical knowledge, EFL Learners

## I. INTRODUCTION

A number of variables are found to be affecting EFL proficiency and, consequently the foreign language acquisition process. So, it will become increasingly difficult to typify individuals and to classify groups of individuals together, since each person appears to be a unique complex of variables. In the same vein, some researchers have attempted to isolate particular learner variables which might enhance or hinder progress in learning a foreign or second language (Chapelle & Roberts, 1986; Reid, 1987; Wenden & Rubin, 1987; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Skehan, 1991). As cited in Dreyer and Vander Walt (1994), various research identified a number of variables that account for some of the differences in how students learn, including attitude and motivation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner & Smythe, 1975; Gardner, Smythe, & Brunet, 1977), personality type/traits (Chastain, 1975; Guiora et al., 1975; Brodkey & Shore, 1976; Busch, 1982), learning styles (especially the field dependence/independence distinction) (Witkin et al., 1977a, 1977b; Birckbichler & Omaggio, 1978; Hosenfeld, 1979; Hansen & Stansfield, 1981, 1982; Chapelle & Roberts, 1986; Ried, 1987), and language learning strategies (Bialystok & Fröhlich, 1978; Bialystok, 1981; Wenden, 1983, 1986a, 1986b; O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, & Russo, 1985a, 1985b; Wenden & Rubin, 1987; Oxford, 1989; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). By the same token, in recent years there has been an increasing awareness of the necessity in second or foreign language research and teaching to investigate cognitive aspects and gender differences that have undeniable effects on language learning and teaching.

Cognitive or learning style has been found to be one of the important factors from among students' personal attributes that can affect learning processes and learners' performance. Cognitive styles are the attributes that exist within learners, affecting the way they function intellectually. Accordingly, Brown (1994) stats that "the way we learn things in general, and the particular attacks we make on a problem seems to hinge on a rather amorphous link between personality and cognition; this link is referred to as cognitive style" (p. 104). Furthermore, field dependence/field independence has been one of the most widely studied with regard to its educational implications among the various dimensions of cognitive style. Hence, Hansen-Strain (1984) studied field dependence/independence as a cognitive style in terms of age, gender differences, and culture.

Concerning second or foreign language acquisition, particular attention has been given to learners' approaches based on gender differences to a vocabulary task, since vocabulary plays a significant role in achieving high results in second or foreign language learning, and in promoting an individual's ability to function well in many spheres of life. In other words, vocabulary has long been considered as a strong determinant of reading achievement. "It is clear that a large and

rich vocabulary is the hallmark of an educated individual. Indeed, a large vocabulary repertoire facilitates becoming an educated person to the extent that vocabulary knowledge is strongly related to reading proficiency in particular and school achievement in general" (Beck, Mckeown & Kucan, 2002, p. 1). Accordingly, Kraft & Nichel (1995) in their investigation proved female learners' advantages on measures of verbal fluency, vocabulary and quality of speech.

Considering the aforementioned issues, learning vocabulary is considered as one of the first steps of learning a second or foreign language. According to Read (2002)**,** "vocabulary, along with grammar and reading comprehension was the aspect of language that was most commonly included in new objective tests" (p. 304). Moreover, concerning the importance of vocabulary and its role in second language learning, Seal (as cited in Celce-Murcia,1991) asserts that "words are perceived as the building blocks upon which knowledge of the second language can be built" (p. 296). To put into simple words, words are considered as the basic building blocks of an utterance, units of meaning from which larger structures such as sentences, paragraphs, and whole texts are formed. Also, having adequate knowledge of vocabulary is considered as the most important factor in communication (Roever, 2001). Regarding the importance of lexical competence, Sener (2009) restated Wilkins' (1972) famous saying that without grammar, very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

There is some evidence to support the impact of socioeconomic status and authoritarian societies on field dependence/independence cognitive styles. In a study conducted at university of Barcelona by Forns-Santacana, Amador-Campos, & Roig-Lopez (1993), the students of different economic backgrounds took part in the GEFT. For finding the simple shapes embedded in the complex set, skills of perceptual reconstruction are needed. The results showed that students of higher economic classes performed better on GEFT, which proved that they are more developed in perceptual reconstruction skills and more field-independent. In addition, the gender variable produced differences only in the FD/FI variable, where boys scored higher than girls. Furthermore, Brown (1994), in his study, claimed that authoritarian societies which are highly socialized and use strict laws tend to raise more field dependent people while democratic and industrialized societies with a competitive nature and freer norms tend to produce more field independent people.

Witkin and Goodenough (1981) stated that the way parents treat their children influences the degree of being field-dependent or field-independent. The studies of child rearing showed that field independence tendencies result from child rearing methods or norms that emphasize gaining independence from parental control. They claimed that when there is a strong emphasis on the obedience to parental authority, and external control of impulses, the child will likely become field-dependent. When the child is encouraged to function autonomously and be independent, he or she will become relatively field independent.

Field dependent and field independent individuals are interested in different fields of study. Witkin et al. (1977) reported that more field dependent students are interested in social sciences while field independent students like mathematics and science. Saurenman (1980) studied high/low achieving students in terms of their FD/FI cognitive style. It was concluded that high achieving learners tend to be more field independent, more creative in divergent production tasks, and more interested in academic achievement. Besides, Mrosla (1983) studied the difference between low and high achieving mathematics learners. She found that high achieving mathematics students were more FI than low achieving mathematics students.

Chapelle and Roberts (1986) argued that a good language learner is one who is field independent and tolerant of ambiguity. The results of their investigations confirmed this hypothesis that FI and AT are the characteristics of a good language learner and predict success in language learning. Conversely, Brown (1987) and Carter (1988) found that field dependence was more advantageous for language learning.

Some studies have attempted to find an evidence for a relationship between field dependence/independence cognitive styles and second language acquisition. A study was done in Canada with English-speaking students learning French (Tinajero & Paramo, 1998). The results of the study showed a significant positive correlation with achievement on French reading, listening, writing, and grammar tests. In addition, they indicated that field independence cognitive style was a significant predictor of second language proficiency in French.

Padilla-Falto (1996) attempted to find the effects of instruction and field dependence/independence cognitive styles on the acquisition of Spanish prepositions (i.e. por and para) in advanced-learners of Spanish as a second language. The first hypothesis that field-dependent students learn the prepositions better was supported, but second hypothesis that FD learners will perform better in a grammar-based, teacher-centered classroom environment was not supported.

The effects of field dependence/independence cognitive styles on speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills have been investigated in some studies. Hwang (1997) found a significant positive correlation between listening comprehension and field independence.

Genesee and Hamayan (1980, as cited in Bialystok, 1992) found that FI was correlated with written language proficiency and listening comprehension, but not with oral production for younger children. In other words, they studied first grade English speaking students in a French immersion program in Canada. They reported positive and significant correlation between FI and French listening comprehension skills and general achievement in French.

Drane, Halpin, von Eschenbach, and Worden (1989, as cited in Eftekhar Hosseini, 2005) investigated the relationship between field dependence/independence cognitive styles, reading proficiency, and gender on a group of female and male second graders. They found that there were no significant gender differences in reading comprehension scores. However, FI students were more proficient readers than FD ones.

Rezaeian (2012) studied the possible relationship between field dependence/independence as a cognitive style and foreign language proficiency considering some other variables as sex and age in Iranian language learners. The research sample included 148 students (70 males and 78 females) studying at Level Ten at the Iran Language Institute. The other 146 students including 68 males and 78 females were university students at Shiraz University. The ILI students were at the age cohort of 15-17, and university students were at the age cohort of 22-26. They were given the Group Embedded Figures Test to determine the cognitive style, and Oxford Placement Test to measure the proficiency of the students. The results indicated that field dependence/independence was a significant factor affecting the performance of the students on the proficiency test. Furthermore, age and sex were found to affect the degree of field dependence/independence in Iranian language learners.

In their study, Rezaee and Farahian (2012) revealed a clear picture of field dependent and independent learners. For this purpose, their case study reported a university freshman who was observed for three months in a grammar class at a university. Based on the pieces of evidence obtained through making use of five instruments, observation, Grammar Test, interview with subject, private classroom interactions, and Embedded Figures Test, it was revealed that the student was a field-independent learner. While interviewing with the learner, it was also revealed that years of learning grammar in academic contexts did not result in the subject's skill in composing sentences. They found that despite the view that field independent learners profit more de-contextualized analytic approaches and formal context (Saville-Troike, 2006), such an approach may not help the learners. The result of this study supported the hypothesis that "FI person plays a major role in the acquisition of linguistic competence but not communicative competence" (Hansen & Stansfield, 1981, p. 353). It implies that they learn the language components well, but they might have problem using it in the context globally.

There is an evidence to support the existence of positive and credible relationship between field dependence/independence cognitive styles and vocabulary knowledge (Rostampour and Niroomand, 2014). In a study conducted among Iranian male and female undergraduate EFL learners, a vocabulary size test was administered to divide the students into three groups of high, mid, and low in terms of their vocabulary level. Then the participants' cognitive styles were measured through the Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT). The findings of the study indicated that field dependence/independence cognitive styles had a significant correlation with vocabulary knowledge in the high, mid groups.

As this review has demonstrated, there are a lot of interests on cognitive styles of field dependence/independence. All in all, considering the aforementioned studies, the following research questions are posed:

Q1. Do field dependence/independence cognitive styles influence the EFL learners Vocabulary knowledge?

Q2. Does the interaction of gender affect these learners' vocabulary knowledge?

## III. METHOD

### A. Participants

The current research was administered at Islamic Azad University, Shiraz branch. The participants majored in English language teaching for their bachelor's degree. Out of the entire sample (82 male and female students) only forty-four females and fifteen males comprised the study participants. They were at the age cohort of 21-29.

### B. Instruments

•The Vocabulary Size Test (VST) was developed by Nation (2007) to gauge students' receptive vocabulary size from the first 1000 to the fourteenth 1000-words families of English words. In other words, this test is used to determine the students' vocabulary levels. It was written in the form of multiple-choice items. Test-takers are required to have a fairly well-developed idea of the meaning of the words to correctly answer the items because the correct answer and the distractors frequently share elements of meaning.

•The Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT) used as a tool for measuring field dependence/independence of the test-takers was developed by Witkin, Raskin, Oltman, and Karp (1971). They reported a Spearman-Brown reliability coefficient of 0.82 for their instrument. The GEFT instrument contains complex figures within which simple geometric figures are embedded. The simple forms are present in the complex figures in the same size, the same proportions, and in the same direction as when they appear alone. The participants are supported to figure out the simple geometric shapes and to trace them in pencil directly over the lines of the complex figures. Field-independent participants can easily locate a large number of simple figures while field-dependent participants are able to locate just a small number of them. As in particular, the Group Embedded Figures Test consists of three sections with 25 complex figures. The first section includes seven simple figures and is given as a practice. The time allocated for this section is 2 minutes. Each section, two and three, includes nine complex pictures and the time allowed for each is 5 minutes. So, the participants are asked to find 18 simple figures just within 10 minutes. The total grade of the test-taker is scored by the number of the simple pictures correctly figured out in the second and third sections. One point is given to every correct

response, and the participants are not given any points for locating the simple shapes in the first section. Therefore, the scores of GEFT can range from 0 to 18.

*C. Procedures*

The study was carried out at the end of two educational sessions, with the administration of two tests of Vocabulary Size which determines the students' level of vocabulary knowledge, and Group Embedded Figures which determines the participants' degree of field dependence/independence cognitive styles. Before administrating the GEFT in allocated time, a brief explanation was given to the participants about the way they can easily figure out the simple geometric shapes and trace them in pencil directly over the lines of the complex figures. After calculating the students' vocabulary breadth scores were out of 140 and GEFT scores were out of 18, a two-way ANOVA was run so as to demonstrate the effects of independent variables (the FDI cognitive styles and gender differences) on dependent variable (vocabulary knowledge).

## IV. RESULTS & DISCUSSION

Cognitive or learning style has been considered one of the important factors from among students' personal attributes that can affect learning processes and learners' performance. Accordingly, the study investigated whether or not the cognitive styles of field dependence/independence, gender, and the interaction of them could be affective on EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge. In other words, it was hypothesized that field dependence/independence cognitive styles do not influence the EFL learners' lexical knowledge. In addition, the interaction of gender does not affect these learners' knowledge of vocabulary.

Based on the students' raw scores on GEFT, they were classified into three groups of Field-Dependents (FD), Field-Intermediates (FInt), and Field-Independents (FI). In this regard, the participants who scored 7 or higher were considered as FI, and those who scored 5 or lower were considered as FD. Field intermediate scores were between 5 and 7. A summary of demographic data by cognitive styles and gender differences is reported in Table I.

TABLE I.
DEMOGRAPHIC DATA FOR COGNITIVE STYLES AND GENDER DIFFERENCES

| Gender Differences | Field Dependent | Field Intermediate | Field Independent |
|---|---|---|---|
| Males | 7 | 1 | 7 |
| Females | 23 | 2 | 19 |
| Total | 30 | 3 | 26 |

As it can be observed, Table I presents the demographic information about the study independent variables. Moreover, in order to demonstrate the effects of independent variables (the FDI cognitive styles and gender differences) on dependent variable (vocabulary knowledge), a two-way ANOVA was run. Table II provides the results of the two-way analysis of variance.

TABLE II.
RESULTS OF TWO-WAY ANOVA
DEPENDENT VARIABLE: VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Corrected Model | 6343.385a | 5 | 1268.677 | 9.268 | .000 |
| Intercept | 57154.165 | 1 | 57154.165 | 417.545 | .000 |
| Cognitive Styles | 5374.901 | 2 | 2687.450 | 19.633 | .000 |
| Gender | 679.537 | 1 | 679.537 | 4.964 | .030 |
| Cognitive styles* Gender | 755.629 | 2 | 377.814 | 2.760 | .072 |
| Error | 7254.717 | 53 | 136.881 | | |
| Total | 159403.000 | 59 | | | |
| Corrected Total | 13598.102 | 58 | | | |

A. R Squared = .466 (Adjusted R Squared = .416)

According to Table II, the significant level reported by the computer for the effect of cognitive styles is .000. Therefore, it can be concluded that the differences between the means of the different cognitive styles were significant at 0.05 and 0.01 levels. Besides, gender differences were significant at 0.05 levels. Additionally, the interaction between the independent variables which was shown in the output as Cognitive styles* Gender was not significant. In other words, the results indicated that the two independent variables (field dependence/independence and gender differences), with no interaction between them, have an effect on the dependent variable (vocabulary knowledge). As such, in order to determine where the effect lies exactly, a Scheffé test was carried out. The results are shown in Table III.

TABLE III.
DIFFERENCES IN COGNITIVE STYLES AMONG THE THREE GROUPS
MULTIPLE COMPARISONS (SCHEFFE) ON COGNITIVE STYLES

| (I) FD/FI | (J) FD/FI | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| FD | MID | -16.70 | 7.084 | .071 | -34.54 | 1.14 |
| | FI | -18.67* | 3.135 | .000 | -26.57 | -10.78 |
| MID | FD | 16.70 | 7.084 | .071 | -1.14 | 34.54 |
| | FI | -1.97 | 7.134 | .962 | -19.94 | 15.99 |
| FI | FD | 18.67* | 3.135 | .000 | 10.78 | 26.57 |
| | MID | 1.97 | 7.134 | .962 | -15.99 | 19.94 |

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

As was shown in Table III, the mean difference in field dependents and field independents was significant. In this regard, there was a difference between field dependents and their counterparts, field independents. Also, as it is obvious, the gender makes a difference. Therefore, it can be stated that the first hypothesis of the study, which assumed that field dependence/independence cognitive styles do not influence the EFL learners' lexical knowledge was rejected. Moreover, the findings supported the second hypothesis, which stated that interaction of gender does not affect the learners' knowledge of vocabulary.

The results of this study supported the evidence that males and females learn differently from each other (Grebb, 1999; Ebel, 1999; Cavanaugh, 2002). Furthermore, the findings are in conflict with what was carried out in this area by Yang (2006), who has found that learning styles are not the effective factors affecting learners' achievements, and maintains that the field-independent individuals do not differ significantly from their counterparts, field-dependent individuals.

## V. CONCLUSION

As individuals with different cognitive styles and gender might have different performance outcome in language learning, evaluating learners with regard to these learning characteristics and differentiating between them in reference to their lexical knowledge would lead to a more reliable assessment of their competence and consequently could result in more effective language teaching strategies and learning. In this regard, findings of this research could be interpreted as being supportive of the idea that the field-dependent/independent cognitive styles and gender differences could be considered as effective factors influencing the learners' knowledge of vocabulary in the field of second or foreign language acquisition. Nevertheless, there was no probable interaction between the students' cognitive styles of field dependence/independence and male or female regarding their vocabulary knowledge. Therefore, with regard to the obtained results and findings, understanding the effective role of students' cognitive aspects and gender will enable teachers and researchers to design appropriate materials and activities to help students enhance their lexical competence.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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# Educational Reform and Development of Information Literacy of College English Teachers

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*Abstract*—Information technology has changed almost all fields of our social life. The surging development of the information technology not only brings about many changes in to the education in modern time but also poses unprecedented challenges to the professional development of teachers. College English teachers are encouraged to have the ability to harness the power of information technology into innovated teaching and learning strategies. The reform of college English education cannot be implemented without enhancing the quality of teachers. This paper makes an analysis on the changed teaching environment that present college English teachers are faced by and puts forward that they should make efforts to develop their information literacy to adjust to the new environment.

*Index Terms*—educational reform, College English Teaching, information literacy development

## I. INTRODUCTION

As science and technology developing rapidly and vigorously, people have entered the age of information technology. There is no denying that information technology has come into all fields of our social life, and changed the ways of production, lifestyle and thinking. The speed of renewing knowledge is accelerated with high and new technology developing fast, which brings great impact and challenge to modern education. It provides newer teaching method, educational content and changes the instructional concept, accelerating the educational reform. With the English teaching reform deepening, colleges and universities are constructing the new teaching mode-the computer-assisted College English teaching mode. The advancement of the application of multi-media and network technology demands a higher teaching level of college English teachers. In China, there are numbers of College English teachers, whose growth and development is closely bound up with that of the country and society. The level of teachers' qualities directly takes effects on the efficiency of the college English instruction. What qualities the teachers should have and how can they improve their own qualities is a major task for them in the new teaching environment in the age of information technology. The introduction of the new teaching environment constitutes unprecedented opportunities and challenges for College English teachers. Under this background, the study on College English teachers' professional development has become our first priority.

As an emerging interest of recent studies, teacher development is starting to attract the attentions and efforts of many educators and researchers. The improved expertise in Information Technology of college English teachers can facilitate their development in English teaching performance, English professional knowledge, academic pursuit, career satisfaction, role change and other aspects of professional development.

## II. REFORMS OF COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING IN THE NEW ERA

The reforms of college English teaching in the new era is based on the modern information technology, particularly network technology, so that English language teaching and learning will be, to a certain extent, free from the constraint of time or place and make it possible for students to learn individualized and autonomous. This change calls for innovation in teaching methods and approaches, but more importantly, it calls for transformation in teaching philosophy.

In the modern society, the most important challenge that man faces is how to develop creativity. The educational requirements and opinions changed accordingly. Nations Educational, scientific and cultural Organization put forward that the objective of education in the new era should be learning how to study, learning how to cooperate, learning how to be creative and learning how to survive. The traditional knowledge-reserved talents are no longer needed whereas multi-skilled and creative talents who know how to acquire, apply and create knowledge are in high demand in the new age.

The modern information technology break the original organizing forms of learning, the "cramming" way of teaching has been washed out and multimedia and network bring new learning environment, in which teachers help students construct knowledge. People say that "Don't give others fish, but teach them how to fish." It is a specific reflection of

the lifelong education opinions to teach students how to study by themselves. It is also an objective request to improve the talents' quality. Modern educational technology needs to reform the present organizing forms of learning. It focuses on the direction to the students and it emphasizes the students' abilities of obtaining, grasping, researching and developing information by themselves.

With multimedia and Internet playing a supporting role in the organizing forms of education, English teaching and learning can really cross the traditional limitation of the time and space. All the students don't have to study according to the same schedule. It meets the students' respective needs of knowledge. Students can obtain much knowledge through Internet. Thus teaching activities are no longer confined to a certain place-classroom. Space and time for teaching and learning activities are greatly extended in the age of information technology.

Teaching methods are greatly changed and enriched compared with those in the traditional teaching environment. Before, English teachers usually present and impart knowledge through blackboard, chalk and a book. Students learn new knowledge through their visual sense and hearing. So when it comes to some complex and abstract teaching contents, students can only achieve limited comprehension through their groundless imagination. At this high developed age, the Internet provides us with fast, abundant and authentic information. The Internet technology, which influences people's life greatly, makes many tentative plans which can not be carried out in our traditional teaching come true. The digital environment of the Internet provides us with the rich context of language teaching and learning with all kinds of possibilities, including interactivity, collaboration and multilateral communication. Additionally, English teachers can make use of multimedia to combine words, sounds, pictures and video displays to conduct their teaching, which helps the students achieve vivid and all-sided experience of the language they are learning. Thus, how to make full use of the Internet to facilitate English teaching and learning has become a central issue for both English instructors and learners.

The roles and relationship between the teachers and students are greatly changed. The traditional education was based on knowledge instilling. In the traditional teaching setting, teachers could be described as knowledge givers and students were passive receivers. Teachers were in the dominant position and students were subordinate. This uneven relationship between teachers and students has disintegrated in the information age. English education today attaches more importance to the active participation and cooperation of students in language learning. In the ocean of knowledge and information, students are no longer passive subordinators and teachers are no longer dominators. Their relationship is based on equality and democracy in their joint pursuing of knowledge and exploration of information. Through their exchanges and collaboration, they achieve mutual understanding, mutual acknowledgement and mutual creation. As a result, an equal, democratic and open relationship is established between teachers and students in the new educational environment. The modern technology turns teacher into director and shifts the students' passive positions into active positions so that English teachers can take great advantage of students' autonomy and the learning motivation in improving their teaching quality.

Teachers' authority is greatly endangered in the modern teaching and learning environment. With the advance of educational informationization, the extensive accessibility to information through the Internet and the acceleration of information renovation has weakened the teachers' exclusive occupation of information. Students' English learning is no longer limited to the teachers' instructions and textbooks. They can obtain generous knowledge and relevant information from all sides with the aid of the Internet. So teachers' traditional authority is greatly challenged.

Hence, it's undoubted that English teachers' traditional roles can no longer meet the demand of the new features of education. Present college English teachers must spare no efforts to make changes in order to fit themselves to the new environment and further deepen the reforms in English teaching. Then comes to the question of what roles an English teacher should play under such circumstances and what measures they should take to adjust themselves to the changing society.

### III. COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHER'S ARE FACING NEW REQUIREMENTS

Confronted with the new environment, teachers should keep up with the fast changing society and bear this in mind that such circumstances endow us with new challenges as well as requirements.

A performer of class activities can no longer satisfy the need of classroom teaching in modern learning and teaching environment. Modern college English teacher should fulfill the duty of a designer and organizer of class activities. Designer is the most difficult and important role for a teacher today, which determines the objectives the students should strive for and whether the class activity is successfully fulfilled or not. Combining the requirements put forward by the teaching syllabus and students' practical situation, the teacher is responsible for planning the general tasks in terms of listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. According to the requirements of varied language skills, the teacher designs practical projects. Sometimes they strain their brains in selecting the most suitable and interesting materials.

A College English teacher is also responsible for organizing classroom activities in an orderly yet lively way. In the students-centered mode, students are the principal part and their enthusiasm and active participation are extremely crucial. Teachers are only organizers who direct class in a positive and effective way. In class the teacher creates the active atmosphere, gives students opportunities to express themselves and communicate freely, delivers them relevant information and gives them timely feedback so that the students know how to take part in the class activities and which part they should especially improve after class.

A College English teacher Change from a knowledge instiller to a guide in studying strategies. With the information technology developing and the renewing speed of knowledge accelerating, it's getting increasingly convenient and fast for students to get access to varieties of resources they need in every possible field through the World Wide Web. Self-development of individual depends more and more on the improvement of the capability to obtain information and study autonomously. The students have transferred their position from a passive "knowledge receiver" to an active "information explorer". English teachers may fail to meet the need of their students if they stick to the one-sided role of "knowledge instiller". They are also required to guide the students to make proper use of the new information technology and acquire desirable knowledge in their language learning. The previous teaching process becomes the process of guiding and directing. Therefore teachers shift their role from the former "actor" to a present "director" as they should recognize how to inspire students' enthusiasm for English study according to their respective intelligence and studying feature.

English teachers, as a guide, open up a vast stage of English learning for the students and indicates them the right direction by helping them adopt correct attitude towards English study, proper strategies of learning and the flexibility of inferring other things from one fact. Besides guiding the students to use the Internet resource properly, teachers spare certain space for the students' further exploration.

College English teachers should change their roles from an absolute class controller to a facilitator in English teaching and learning. What a teacher should try hard to do is not to tell the students the knowledge about the language and control absolutely their process of learning but to cultivate students' ability of achieving information and stimulate their activeness and initiative. Internet is an open environment, from which students can easily get access to a vast amount of information. Due to students' limited experience and knowledge level, they may feel at a loss when confronted with the complexity of the ocean of knowledge. English teachers need to be clear about the characteristics, contents and results of studying online, and then give the students proposals in making good use of web resource to benefit their English learning. The key to the role of a facilitator lies in motivating students instead of hindering or intervening students' free thinking. The teacher's function of a facilitator is to make students complete certain tasks smoothly and fruitfully by discussing questions, offering constructive suggestions instead of controlling absolutely their learning process.

College English teachers were strict curriculum followers in the traditional setting of English education. In the information technology-aided teaching environment, teachers are the main body engaged in curriculum development and teaching research. In this process, teachers are not only followers, but also developers and researchers. College English teachers need to take an active part in research, which is a process in which they examine their own educational practice closely and systematically using the techniques of research. In the position of a researcher, the teachers should judge and analyze teaching theories and various problems they come across in practice, then reflect on teaching, probe into the problems, conclude the accumulated experiences and form correct cognition. Teachers also need to take an active part in the theoretical research and practical exploration regarding teaching thoughts and methods to extend their classroom teaching. If they can act the role of researcher carefully and thoughtfully, as a result, they can improve their teaching effect in an all-round way.

In the society submerged in "information explosion", there are many channels through which students can get abundant knowledge and information about English learning. Learning is open-minded, individualized and of great creativity, which forms a real challenge to English teachers. In the traditional setting, a teacher is regarded as the symbol of authority whose teaching is based on the textbooks and personal experiences. Students try hard to understand and remember what they are taught. In this sense students shall never learn more than their teacher. They should gain new insights through restudying in the course preparation, activate their knowledge in the interactions with students, continuously renovate their knowledge and strengthen their own ability of learning. Only by constantly recharging themselves can they release enough energy to students. Only by continuously developing and fulfilling themselves can they adapt to the new requirements of college English teaching in the new era.

## IV. Necessity for Improving the Information Literacy of University English Teachers

Colleges and universities should make full use of multimedia and network technology, and introduce new and flexible teaching mode to improve the original situation of the single classroom teaching mode. New teaching mode with modern information technologies, particularly network technology, as the support can make English teaching effective, efficient and flexible in restricted time and place. College English teachers should be fully aware that information literacy is necessary for them to adapt to the modern college English teaching mode and make full use of abundant information resources. College English teachers should also spare no effort to promote their professional development, improve the quality of their English teaching and the quality of talent cultivation. The author believes that it is good timing to improve the information literacy of University English teachers. The development of their information competence is adaptable to the requirements for higher education in the information age. While judging a qualified English teacher, we should take into consideration whether the teacher has a modern thought and teaching concepts about education, whether he or she master the modern teaching methods and teaching means, whether he or she is skilled in the effective application of information technology and get access to the most teeming and felicitous collection of information resources.

## V.   Development of College English Teachers' Information Literacy

Information literacy is related to information technology skills, but has broader implications for the individual, the educational system, and for society. Information technology skills enable an individual to use computers, software applications, databases, and other technologies to achieve a wide variety of academic, work-related, and personal goals. Information literate individuals necessarily develop some technology skills.

The rapid development of science and technology leads to the emergence of advanced teaching theory and teaching practice in the new era. It has great influence on English teaching from two aspects: it makes different demands on English teaching contents, objectives and methods and it offers English teaching better teaching conditions and technical support as well. Multimedia and network-aided teaching requires that teachers not only have adequate knowledge on a certain subject, but also are capable of operating modern technology to satisfy the needs of modern education. It is inevitable to study the quality of English teachers in the present study of higher education.

Teachers should renovate teaching concepts as quickly as possible as well as improve their comprehensive qualities. In the age of information technology, the educational paradigm needs to shift from highly teacher-centered instruction to student-centered learning. Such a shift would require students to take on greater initiative and responsibility to direct and manage their own learning as well as their educational, personal and professional development. This also poses a major challenge to English teachers to satisfy the desire of the students in their learning process. Teachers need to carry out continuous self-development to adapt to the changes and challenges.

The prevalence of computer and network in the age of information technology makes people fully aware of the great impacts brought about by "knowledge explosion" and "information explosion". With the advent of the information era and the promotion of quality education, English teaching environment has taken on new features and it has become imperative to re-analyze English teaching at college, which puts forward a higher demand on college English teachers. Teacher's roles of "present the truth, provide knowledge and solve problems" in the traditional setting are no longer adequate. Under this information technology circumstance, teachers should shift their traditional roles to be "class activities planner and organizer", "guide of studying strategies", "facilitator", "researcher", "lifelong learner" etc. to bring their functions into full play.

A teachers' educational concept is just like a teachers' guide. Teachers' role behaviors are the reflections of the roles they think they should play. Their teaching attitude, the choosing and application of teaching methods are under the guide of their teaching concept. Even their teaching principles and skills are controlled by teaching concept, too.

The quality of talents to cultivate is an essential matter either in traditional classrooms or in information technology-assisted classrooms. The knowledge economy, compared with agricultural or industrial economy, attaches more importance to constant knowledge renovation and the key to knowledge renovation is to have many highly-qualified, all-round–developed and creative talents. Therefore higher education should change emphasis from knowledgeable and application talents to creative talents, which is the requirement given by knowledge economy in the information and technology age. So teachers need to change their minds and exert themselves to adapt to the new requirements in the new situation.

Faced by the new requirements in the information technology age, English teachers should enhance internet awareness. Internet plays an important role in our English learning. Teachers should get fully aware of the advantages of online search. The capability of learning online has created a whole new range of possibilities for learners. In many cases, what the computer does seems truly magical. When students have access to the Internet, they can achieve all references relevant to a specific subject in a matter of minutes. The capability of automated information retrieval is indeed amazing. Computer can provide more opportunities for English learners to expose themselves to the target language and online search service increases the number of the sources available to find answers to their questions. Teachers should make students feel that their learning on the Internet is full of value. They should often tell the students to select those contents that are relevant to their lives and to the needs of the future use, and tell them the importance of using new technology in English study, instead of allowing them to rely on too much on the teachers. Teachers should promptly feedback the results of what the learners have completed about their learning task, which will help them to control and regulate their language skills acquisition. In the meantime, they should confirm and praise their achievement sincerely in time so that students can have the experience of success and confidence, and motivation can be enhanced in this way.

However, teachers should also pay attention to the limitations of online study as well. It is tempting to think of Internet-assisted learning device as an excellent tool, which will effortlessly unlock the mysteries of the universe. In fact, it is not true to think that this device can solve all the problems we meet in language teaching and learning. We must let students be aware that the majority of databases available are not always beneficial to them. The computer cannot pick out the good contents and reject the bad ones and online search has no quality control. Computers are tools, not creative thinkers. Therefore, as teachers they should be aware of this in order to do better in the "information explosion" age.

Learning to learn is the theme of the 21st century education. With the new epoch asking for higher level of teaching, some of them feel that their knowledge is limited because of the rapid development of the society. In this age of information technology, teachers should extent and explore the teaching resources, and the most convenient channel of information is the Internet. How to take advantage of the Internet and facilitate the normal teaching, in turn improve students ability of acquiring and processing information has become a hot issue for modern educators. It's advocated

that English teachers should take advantage of the Internet information to explore English resources. But many teachers found they could not adapt to the information technology-aided teaching because their ability of communicating online and their computer skills are not enough. Thus learning is very necessary for them. English teachers should try to grasp the technology of using mufti-media and Internet as a teaching tool to arouse students' learning motivation, and promote student's comprehension, boost up the facilitating effect of students' self-learning and prompt students to learn more effectively. Knowing about the new technique can help teachers make their teaching easier and better.

The development of the information literacy of college English teachers can help them establish the notion of "Learning is forever". The knowledge renovation is very important for teachers especially for language teachers. They should often learn more knowledge of different fields to enlarge their knowledge accumulation. And in the meantime, they should keep in touch with the newest knowledge and news in order to master the new teaching materials and impart updated knowledge. In a word, since the society is changing very fast every day, they have to learn forever. Learning forever can not only help teachers to make full use of the newest technology but also make it possible to give students fresh and rich knowledge.

## VI. SUMMARY

The reform of college English teaching provides a brilliant opportunity for teachers' professional development. They should seize it and constantly enrich, improve and develop themselves so as to meet the requirements of the times. The rapidly evolving information background has demonstrated an urgent need for education methods and practices to evolve and adapt accordingly. Information literacy is a key focus of educational institutions at all levels and in order to uphold this standard, institutions are promoting a commitment to lifelong learning and an ability to seek out and identify innovations that will be needed to keep pace with or outpace changes. To fulfill the epochal mission endowed, present English teachers should change their concept of education. Furthermore, it's urgent that college English teachers should pay more attention to students' expectations and spare no efforts to satisfy their needs in language learning to facilitate teaching effect. Entering the age of information technology, a successful English teacher should enhance Internet awareness and in the meantime be aware of the limitations of the Internet and try to grasp the new technology to aid their teaching. Last but not the least, establishing the notion of "Learning is forever" is of great importance for English teachers. Those are some approaches to realizing their demanded roles and also the guarantee for effective teaching in the information-based society.

I believe that with deeply comprehension of the new features of English teaching in the new era and constant efforts to adapt to the new educational environment, all the teachers today can successfully fulfill their proper roles and become competent college English teachers in the age of information technology.

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# The Frequent Administrations of English Tests and High School Students' Anxiety, Motivation, Feelings and Final Achievement Test Scores

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*Abstract*—**The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between the frequent administrations of English tests and students' motivation, anxiety, and feelings. It also aimed to explore the effect of frequent administrations of English tests on students' scores on final achievement tests. Three groups of participants with frequent, semi-frequent, and no English tests during the study year participated in this study. A questionnaire was used so that the relationship between the frequent administrations of English tests and students' motivation, anxiety, and feelings could be addressed. The results of the study indicated that the frequent administrations of English tests would not decrease students' anxiety to a high degree. The study also revealed that only %50 of the students believed that their motivation would be promoted through frequent administration of English tests. In addition, the students in those high schools with the frequent administration of English tests did not show any progress compared with scores of the English tests of their preceding school year. Surprisingly, the high school with no test during the school year indicated that students have made significant progress when their tests scores of the preceding and the year under scrutiny were compared.**

*Index Terms*—**anxiety, feelings, motivation, frequent testing**

## I. INTRODUCTION

Every educational system entails an evaluative section to see whether the particular learners have met the ends of that system. This evaluation could take several forms. One of the instruments to measure students' attainments during a course is through paper and pencil tests. According to Bachman (1990) " a test is a measurement instrument designed to elicit a specific sample of an individuals' behavior" (p.20).

Sometimes, tests are frequently used as an instrument to facilitate students' learning. The notion behind the frequent administrations of tests is spaced or distributed practice method of memorization which Dempster (1988) refers to as "spacing effect". Spacing effect states that taking several tests, each of them covering a particular part of the material with a specific distance leads to a better learning than taking a test that includes all the material at once.

The effect of testing on teaching and learning in an educational system is referred to as "backwash" or "washback". Huges (2003) defines "backwash" as "the effect of testing on teaching and learning" and asserts that this effect can be either positive or negative (P.53). In positive washback well-designed tests are used as beneficial teaching and learning activities which lead to positive teaching and learning processes. On the other, hand in negative washback, taking a test will lead to the narrowing of the content of a particular course. So, students will only study those parts of the material which are directly related to that test and this changes the curriculum in a negative way.

Studies conducted on the role of frequent administrations of tests have investigated several aspects of it. Some of the studies investigated the effect of frequent administrations of tests on students' scores (e.g., Shirvani, 2009; Momeni & Barinani, 2012; Gholami & Moradi Moghaddam, 2013). These studies usually consisted of one experimental group with the frequent administrations of tests and one control group without it. The results of all of the previously mentioned studies showed an improvement in students' scores for the group with frequent tests. However, there are some studies like Deck (1998) in which this improvement was not significant.

Some other studies investigated the role of feedback which is given based on students' performance on these frequent tests. One of these studies is Marcell (2008). This study indicated that quizzes lead to more questions and comments at the beginning of the class and this feedback helps students to diagnose their weaknesses.

Moreover, there are other studies like Zarei (2010) which revealed that tests lead to fewer absences from the class.

Tests can also lead to the long-term retention of the material presented in the class (Butler & Roediger, 2007).

With regard to the effect of frequent tests on students' anxiety and motivation, studies like Yamin (1988) showed that frequent tests lead to less anxiety. In addition Hancock's study showed that test-anxious students were less motivated, when they were placed in a high-evaluative situation.

As these the results of these studies shows, several advantages have been mentioned for the frequent administrations of tests. In spite of all of these advantages, there are some studies like Deck (1988), Hancock (2001), and Basol & Johanson's meta-analysis which indicated that frequent tests do not significantly affect students' motivation and scores significantly. So, more studies are needed to investigate such an effect.

There are many high schools in Iran which administer tests frequently as a part of their weekly program, and there are always opposing views on the role of these frequent tests in their syllabi. Students are always complaining about taking several tests during a school year and the anxiety which some of them experience before or during taking these frequent tests. There are some studies like Zarei (2010), Gholami & Moradi Moghaddam (2013) and Momeni & Barinani (2012) which investigated the effect of frequent administrations of English tests on EFL learners' scores on the next tests, but a study which investigates such an effect on students' anxiety, motivation, and feelings in a high school environment is rare. So, there seems to be a need to investigate the impact of such a pedagogical activity in high school classes. So, the first aim of this study was to examine whether the frequent administration of English tests made any significant difference on student's scores on their final achievement tests. The second aim was to investigate the relationship between the frequent administration of English tests and students' motivation, anxiety, and feelings.

## II. METHODOLOGY

**Research Questions**

Research questions are presented here:

1. Is there any relationship between the frequent administration of English tests and the level of anxiety in EFL learners at Isfahan high schools?

2. Is there any relationship between the frequent administration of English tests and the level of motivation in EFL learners at Isfahan high schools?

3. How do high school EFL learners feel about the frequent administration of English tests?

4. Does the frequent administration of English tests make any significant difference in the performance of EFL learners at Isfahan high schools on their final achievement tests?

**Design**

This study enjoys an ex-post-facto design. Also, this study intends to see how the frequency of test administration relates to students' anxiety, motivation, and feelings and whether it makes any difference in students' scores on final achievement tests.

**Participants**

The participants of this study consisted of six intact classes which were selected from three groups of high schools. The schools were categorized in terms of the number of times they administered English tests to their students during the year. The school groups were as follows: frequently administering English tests: Edalat (52 students) and Etrat Sepahan (16 students). Semi-frequently administering English tests: Imam Sadegh (43 students). 3. No English test administration: Shahid Kazemi (33 students). I only used the scores of the students in Shahid Kazemi high school and they did not complete the questionnaire. The total number of the students contributed to this study was therefore 144. Table 1 presents the specification of the participants in more details.

TABLE 1.
THE SPECIFICATION OF THE PARTICIPANTS OF THE STUDY

| High School | Number of Times English Tests Administered | Gender | Number | Year of High School |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Edalat | Frequently (7-10 tests during the year) | Female | 52 | Second Year |
| Etrat Sepahan | Frequently (7-10 tests during the year) | Female | 16 | Second Year |
| **Total** | **68** | | | |
| Imam Sadegh | Semi-Frequently (4-6 tests during the year) | Male | 43 | Second Year |
| **Total** | **43** | | | |
| Shahid Kazemi | No Test | Male | 33 | Second Year |
| **Total** | **33** | | | |
| **Total** | **144** | | | |

**Instruments**

The data for this study were collected in two ways: there was one questionnaire which was developed following a few interview sessions with one teacher and the students by the researcher. The scores of final achievement English tests in the second semester of the first and second year of high school were also used.

**Questionnaire**

In order to construct the questionnaire, three students from one private high school (Imam Sadegh) with semi-frequent administration of English tests in their second year of high school were interviewed. Also one English teacher from the same school was asked to participate in the interview sessions of the study. In these interviews the following questions were asked:

1. What do you think about taking frequent English tests during the term?
2. Express your feelings during taking these frequent English tests.
3. What effects do these frequent English tests have on the next tests and the final exam?
4. What is the effect of these frequent English tests on your motivation to study?

To avoid any misunderstanding, the questions were posed in Persian in all interview sessions. All the interview data were fully recorded, carefully transcribed, and analyzed so that the items of the questionnaire could be developed. These items were in relation to the frequency of test administration on the one side and the level of anxiety and motivation on the other.

According to the interviews with the students, three clusters of items were established for the questionnaire and then the questionnaire was given to three expert judges to decide whether the items of the questionnaire were related to those clusters. Table 2 shows the number of items in each cluster.

TABLE 2.
THE NUMBER OF ITEMS FOR EACH OF THE CLUSTERS OF QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

| Item Specification | Number of Item |
|---|---|
| 1.The effect of frequent administration of English tests on anxiety | 1, 3, 7, 10, 11, 12, 13, 17 |
| 2.The effect of frequent administration of English tests on motivation | 2, 8, 14, 6 |
| 3. Students' feelings with regard to the frequent administration of English tests | 4, 5, 9, 15, 16, 18, 19, 20 |
| **Total** | **20** |

**Final Achievement Tests**

In order to measure whether the frequent administration of English tests made any significant difference in students' scores on their final achievement tests in the second year of high school, the scores of the students on their final achievement tests in the second semester of their first and second year of high school were used.

**Pilot Study**

In order to deal with issues like appropriateness of the instrument, timing, reliability, and ambiguity of items, the questionnaire was piloted with a group of high school students parallel to the participants of the study.

**Appropriateness of the Instrument**

Before the pilot study, some consultation with one professor with Ph.D. degree in applied linguistics from university of Isfahan and two English teachers with B.A degree in English language from two private high schools in Isfahan was done and based on this consultation, some modifications in the items were made.

**Timing**

The questionnaire was piloted with a group of 20 high school students which were parallel to the subjects in the study. It took 15 minutes for the students to complete the questionnaire.

**Reliability**

The pilot study produced a reliability of .798 which is relatively acceptable.

**Ambiguity of Items**

Some students experienced some difficulty with the heading of the questionnaire and they did not know what kind of tests it means. Based on what students said, some modifications in the heading of the questionnaire were made.

**Procedure for the Analysis of the Instruments**

In order to answer the first, second, and third questions, a Likert scale was used for the options of the questionnaire. Note that in all of the tables of the next chapter, SA stands for strongly agree, A for agree, SD for strongly disagree, and D for disagree. In the analysis, the numbers 4,3,0,2 and 1 were assigned to strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree respectively. The column related to mean in each table indicates the mean of these numbers for each item. For items 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, and 15 which were negative, the assignment of these numbers was reverse. The percentage of each of the options of the questionnaire for each item was also shown.

In order to investigate whether the frequent administration of English tests made any significant difference in students' scores on their final achievement tests, the scores of the students on their final achievement tests in the second semester of their first and second year of high school were used to see whether the frequent administration of English tests in the second year of high school made any difference in students' scores based on their scores in the first year of high school.

## III. DATA ANALYSIS

**Research Questions**
**Question One**

Is there any relationship between the frequent administration of English tests and the level of anxiety in EFL learners at Isfahan high schools?

Table 3 shows the mean of the total score of the boys' questionnaire. According to the procedure used to assign numbers to each of the options of the questionnaire, when someone chooses the option "strongly agree" for all of the items, the total score of that person is 80.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE TOTAL SCORE OF THE BOYS' QUESTIONNAIRE

|  | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| SUM | 43 | 5.00 | 64.00 | 42.2093 | 11.19430 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 43 |  |  |  |  |

As the table 3 shows, the mean of the total score of the boys' questionnaire was 42.20. It shows a degree of agreement with the frequent administration of English tests which is neither low nor high.

Table 4 also shows the mean of the total score of the girls' questionnaire.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE TOTAL SCORE OF THE GIRLS' QUESTIONNAIRE

|  | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| SUM | 68 | 22.00 | 62.00 | 39.3382 | 9.04320 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 68 |  |  |  |  |

As the table 4 shows, the mean of the total score of the girls' questionnaire was 39.33. Like the boys' questionnaire, it shows a degree of agreement with the frequent administration of English tests which is neither low nor high.

Table 5 shows the mean of the degree of agreement or disagreement with items related to the factors which either increase students' anxiety or decrease it.

TABLE 5.
THE MEAN SCORE FOR THE PERCENTAGE OF AGREEMENT OR DISAGREEMENT WITH ANXIETY ITEMS

|  | SA+A | | SD+D | | Mean | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | Boys | Girls | Boys | Girls | Boys | Girls |
| Factors that increase the anxiety of the students | %67.42 | %65.05 | %13.2 | %9.92 | 1.73 | 1.71 |
| Factors that decrease the anxiety of the students | %61.8 | %69.15 | %16.85 | %13.6 | 3.10 | 3.08 |

As the table 5 shows, the mean of the degree of agreement with the factors which decrease students' anxiety was 61.8 for the boys and %69.15 for the girls. Also, the mean of the degree of agreement with the factors that increase students' anxiety was %67.42 for the boys and %65.05 for the girls.

Table 6 shows the degree of agreement or disagreement with items which were related to anxiety.

TABLE 6.
THE PERCENTAGE OF AGREEMENT OR DISAGREEMENT WITH ANXIETY ITEMS

|  | SA+A | | SD+D | | Mean | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | Boys | Girls | Boys | Girls | Boys | Girls |
| 1. These tests will make me less anxious on the next tests and the final achievement test. | %58.2 | %50.1 | %27.9 | %25.0 | 2.75 | 2.76 |
| 3. Studying more before the test will make me less anxious during taking a test. | %79.1 | %80.9 | %11.6 | %10.3 | 3.17 | 3.20 |
| 7. Knowing that the scores of these tests will enter my report card will increase my anxiety. | %88.4 | %80.9 | %2.3 | %2.9 | 1.33 | 1.35 |
| 10. Getting a low score on one test will increase my anxiety on the next tests. | %74.4 | %79.4 | %14.0 | %7.4 | 1.81 | 1.69 |
| 11. The probability of the existence of subtle points on the test will increase my anxiety. | %69.7 | %63.2 | %18.6 | %11.8 | 1.97 | 1.69 |
| 12. The feeling of competition which arises from these tests will increase my anxiety. | %37.2 | %36.7 | %27.9 | %17.6 | 2.20 | 2.12 |
| 13. Getting a high score on these tests will decrease my anxiety on the next tests and the final exam. | %74.4 | %91.2 | %9.3 | %0 | 3.22 | 3.40 |
| 17. Providing the answers of these tests will decrease my anxiety on the next tests and the final exam. | %53.5 | %54.4 | %18.6 | %19.1 | 2.83 | 2.96 |

Eight items in this questionnaire were related to anxiety which were examined in both girls and boys (Table 6).

Item 1 in this questionnaire was specifically related to question one. As the table 6 shows, %58.2 of the boys and %50.1 of the girls agreed that these tests would decrease their anxiety on the next tests and the final achievement test and %27.9 of the boys and %25 of the girls disagreed with this item which is relatively considerable. This degree of disagreement shows that these tests did not decrease the anxiety of a large number of the students on the next tests and for some students the feeling of anxiety always existed. With regard to the factors which increase the anxiety of the students on the next tests and the final exam, 88.4 of the boys and %80.9 of the girls agreed with the item stating,

knowing that the scores of the tests would enter my report card would increase my anxiety, and this factor received the greatest degree of agreement. Also, %74.4 of the boys and %79.4 of the girls agreed that getting a low score on one test would increase their anxiety on the next tests. In addition %69.7 of the boys and %63.2 of the girls agreed that the probability of the existence of subtle points on the test would increase their anxiety. Moreover, %37.2 of the boys and %36.7 of the girls agreed that the feeling of competition which might arise from these tests would increase their anxiety which was the lowest degree of agreement among all the questionnaire items.

There were also three other items in this questionnaire which considered the effect of factors which decrease the anxiety of the students. One of these factors was studying more before the test; %79.1 of the boys and %80.9 of the girls agreed that this factor would decrease their anxiety, which shows that more study was an important factor in decreasing students' anxiety. Also, %53.5 of the boys and %54.4 of the girls agreed that providing the answers of the tests would decrease their anxiety on the next tests and the final exam which was the lowest degree of agreement among these factors. In addition %74.4 of the boys and %91.2 of the girls agreed that getting a high score on one test would decrease their anxiety on the next tests.

To sum up, only about half of the students believed that these frequent tests would decrease their anxiety on the next tests.

**Question Two**

Is there any relationship between the frequent administration of English tests and the level of motivation in EFL learners at Isfahan high schools?

As the table 7 shows, the mean of the degree of agreement with the factors which increase students' motivation to study was %56.97 for the boys and %43.4 for the girls and it was not that much high.

TABLE 7.
THE PERCENTAGE OF AGREEMENT OR DISAGREEMENT WITH MOTIVATION ITEMS

|  | SA+A | | SD+D | | Mean | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | Boys | Girls | Boys | Girls | Boys | Girls |
| 2. These tests will make me more motivated to study. | %67.4 | %54.4 | %18.6 | %25 | 2.78 | 2.72 |
| 6. The feeling of competition which may arise from these tests will make me exert more effort in my study. | %55.9 | %55.9 | %18.6 | %20.6 | 2.72 | 2.98 |
| 8. Knowing that the scores of these tests will enter my report card will make me more motivated to study. | %48.8 | %22.1 | %30.2 | % 44.1 | 2.52 | 2.20 |
| 14. Getting a low score on one test will make me more motivated to study for the next tests. | %55.8 | %41.2 | %23.3 | %22.1 | 2.79 | 2.72 |
| Mean | %56.97 | %43.4 | %22.67 | %27.95 | 2.70 | 2.65 |

Four items in this questionnaire were related to motivation.

Item 2 in the questionnaire was specifically related to question two and the three other items were related to the factors which increase the motivation of the students to study.

As the table 7 shows, %67.4 of the boys and %54.4 of the girls agreed that these tests would make them more motivated to study. Also %18.6 of the boys and %25 of the girls disagreed with this item. Like the previous question, this degree of agreement shows that frequent tests were motivating for about half of the students.

Regarding the factors which increase students' motivation to study, %48.8 of the boys and %22.1 of the girls agreed that knowing that the scores of these frequent tests would enter their report card would increase their motivation to study and %55.8 of the boys and %41.2 of the girls agreed that getting a low score on one test would increase their motivation to study.

Also, %55.9 of the boys and %55.9 of the girls agreed that the feeling of competition which might arise from these tests, would increase their motivation to study.

To conclude, more than half of the boys and about half of the girls believed that these frequent tests would make them more motivated to study.

**Question Three**

How do EFL learners feel about the frequent administration of English tests?

Table 8 shows the degree of agreement or disagreement with the items which were related to the positive feelings of the students about tests.

TABLE 8.
THE PERCENTAGE OF AGREEMENT OR DISAGREEMENT WITH THE ITEMS ABOUT THE POSITIVE FEELINGS OF THE STUDENTS ABOUT FREQUENT TESTS

| | SA+A | | SD+D | | Mean | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Boys | Girls | Boys | Girls | Boys | Girls |
| 4. These tests will help me to remember the material for a longer time. | %67.5 | %69.1 | %4.6 | %5.9 | 3.22 | 3.21 |
| 5. These tests will create a feeling of competition in me. | %51.2 | %51.5 | %18.6 | %27.9 | 2.67 | 2.92 |
| 18. These tests will help me to become aware of my weaknesses. | %72.1 | %75 | %16.3 | %5.9 | 3.15 | 3.21 |
| 19. These tests will help me to become of aware of those parts of the book which are important for the final exam. | %72.1 | %77.9 | %14.0 | %4.4 | 3.05 | 3.17 |
| 20. By taking these tests, I will need less study for the final exam. | %69.8 | %39.7 | %12.03 | %29.4 | 2.91 | 2.46 |
| 16. Providing the answers of these tests will help my learning. | %67.5 | %69.1 | %4.7 | %7.4 | 3.22 | 3.11 |
| Mean | %66.7 | %63.71 | %15.16 | %13.48 | 3.03 | 3.01 |

The mean of the degree of agreement with the items which considered the positive feelings of the students about tests was %66.7 for the boys and %63.71 for the girls (Table 8).

Five items in the questionnaire were related to the positive feelings of the students about tests. As the table 4.6 shows, %67.5 of the boys and %69.1 of the girls agreed that these tests would help them to remember the material for a longer time. Also, %51.2 of the boys and %51.5 of the girls agreed that frequent tests would create a feeling of competition in them which shows these tests did not create that much competition in the students. In addition, %72.1 of the boys and %75 of the girls believed that frequent tests would help them to become aware of their weaknesses. Moreover, %72.1 of the boys and %77.9 of the girls agreed that frequent tests would help them to become aware of those parts of the book which were important for the final achievement test. Needing less study for the final achievement test was another positive feeling of the students which received %69.8 degree of agreement by the boys and %39.7 by the girls which shows regardless of the number of the tests, girls always studied much for the final achievement test. Finally, %67.5 of the boys and %69.1 of the girls agreed that providing the answers of these tests would help their learning.

Table 9 shows the degree of agreement and disagreement with the items which were related to the negative feelings of the students about tests.

TABLE 9.
THE PERCENTAGE OF AGREEMENT OR DISAGREEMENT WITH THE ITEMS ABOUT THE NEGATIVE FEELINGS OF THE STUDENTS ABOUT FREQUENT TESTS

| | SA+A | | SD+D | | Mean | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Boys | Girls | Boys | Girls | Boys | Girls |
| 9. Taking several tests during a week will create some problems for other tests. | %95.3 | %82.3 | %2.3 | %7.4 | 1.19 | 1.49 |
| 15. I am under the pressure of my parents to study for these tests. | %51.2 | %42.7 | %30.3 | %36.7 | 2.20 | 2.53 |
| Mean | %73.25 | %62.5 | %16.3 | %22.05 | 1.69 | 2.01 |

To sum up, more than half of the boys and girls agreed with the positive and negative feelings which these tests might create for them.

As the table 9 shows, the mean of the degree of agreement with the factors which were related to the negative feelings of the students about frequent tests was %73.25 for the boys and %62.5 for the girls.

There were also two items which considered the negative feelings of the students about frequent tests. In one of these items, %95.3 of the boys and %82.3 of the girls agreed that taking several tests during a week would create some problems for other tests which was a large number. Also, %51.2 of the boys and %42.7 of the girls believed that they were under the pressure of their parents to study for these tests which shows parents did not create that much pressure for their students to study for these tests.

**Question Four**

Does the frequent administration of English tests make any significant difference in the performance of EFL learners at Isfahan high schools on their final achievement tests?

To answer this question the difference between students' scores on the final achievement tests in the second semester of their first and second year of high school in three groups of high schools with frequent administration of English tests, semi-frequent administration of English tests, and no English test during the year was computed.

First the difference between students' scores in two high schools with frequent administration of English tests was computed.

TABLE 10.
T-TEST FOR FINAL ACHIEVEMENT TESTS 1 AND 2 IN TWO HIGH SCHOOLS WITH THE FREQUENT ADMINISTRATION OF ENGLISH TESTS.

| | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| Final Test 1 | 73.490 | 66 | .000 | 18.52612 | 18.0228 | 19.0294 |
| Final Test 2 | 58.087 | 66 | .000 | 17.76493 | 17.1543 | 18.3755 |

P < .05

As the table 10 shows, the difference between students' scores on their final achievement tests in the second semester of their first and second year of high school was significant.

TABLE 11.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR FINAL ACHIEVEMENT TESTS 1 AND 2

| | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Final Test 1 | 67 | 18.5261 | 2.06345 | .25209 |
| Final Test 2 | 67 | 17.7649 | 2.50336 | .30583 |

But, as the table 11 shows, the students did not make any progress from the first year to the second year and the mean of the students' scores in their second year of high school was lower than the mean of the students' scores in their second year of high school.

The next category was one high school with semi-frequent administration of English tests. Table 12 shows the result of T-Test for this group of the participants.

TABLE 12.
T-TEST FOR FINAL ACHIEVEMENT TESTS 1 AND 2 IN ONE HIGH SCHOOL WITH SEMI-FREQUENT ADMINISTRATION OF ENGLISH TESTS

| | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| Final Test 1 | 276.277 | 42 | .000 | 19.57558 | 19.4326 | 19.7186 |
| Final Test 2 | 110.548 | 42 | .000 | 18.91279 | 18.5675 | 19.2580 |

P < .05

As the table 12 shows, the difference between students' scores on the final achievement tests in the second semester of their first and second year of high school was significant.

TABLE 13.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR FINAL ACHIEVEMENT TESTS 1 AND 2 IN ONE HIGH SCHOOL WITH SEMI-FREQUENT ADMINISTRATION OF ENGLISH TESTS

| | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Final Test 1 | 43 | 19.5756 | .46463 | .07085 |
| Final Test 2 | 43 | 18.9128 | 1.12187 | .17108 |

But, again as the table 13 shows, there was no improvement in students' performance from the first year to the second year and the mean of the students' scores on the final achievement test 2 was lower than the final achievement test 1.

Finally, table 14 shows, the result of T-Test for students' scores on their final achievement tests in the second semester of their first and second year of high school in one high school without any test during the second year.

TABLE 14.
T-TEST FOR FINAL ACHIEVEMENT TESTS 1 & 2 IN ONE HIGH SCHOOL WITH NO TEST

| | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| Final Test 1 | 16.266 | 32 | .000 | 12.42424 | 10.8684 | 13.9801 |
| Final Test 2 | 18.802 | 32 | .000 | 13.49242 | 12.0307 | 14.9542 |

P < .05

As the table 14 shows, the difference between students' scores on the final achievement tests in the second semester of their first and second year of high school was significant.

TABLE15.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR FINAL ACHIEVEMENT TESTS 1 & 2 IN ONE HIGH SCHOOL WITH NO TEST

|  | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Final Test 1 | 33 | 12.4242 | 4.38770 | .76380 |
| Final Test 2 | 33 | 13.4924 | 4.12239 | .71762 |

As the table 15 shows, the mean of the students' scores on the final achievement test 2 was surprisingly higher than the mean of the students' scores on the final achievement test 1 and the students showed some progress in their scores in the second year compared with the first year.

## IV. DISCUSSION

**Question One**

Is there any relationship between the frequent administration of English tests and the level of anxiety in EFL learners at Isfahan high schools?

The analysis of the questionnaire revealed that about half of the boys and girls agreed that frequent tests would decrease their anxiety on the next tests and about one-third of them disagreed with it. This anxiety would increase to a high degree due to the factors such as knowing that the tests scores would enter students' report card and getting a low score on the previous tests. Also, half of the students believed that the probability of the existence of subtle points on the test would increase their anxiety. One of the justifications which can be given for such a finding is what students expressed in their interviews. They said that these tests might somehow lower their anxiety on the next tests, but taking a test would always bring some degree of anxiety for them. As, about half of the students believed that frequent test would decrease their anxiety on the next tests, the findings are in line with both the findings of Yamin (1988) which revealed that the group with frequent tests experienced less anxiety and also with the findings of Hancock (2001) which indicated high-evaluative situations led to more anxiety.

**Question Two**

Is there any relationship between the frequent administration of English tests and the level of motivation in EFL learners at Isfahan high schools?

Like the previous question frequent tests would increase students' motivation to study for more than half of the boys and about half of the girls. About half of the boys and less than half of the girls agreed that knowing that the scores of these tests would enter their report card and getting a low score on the previous tests would increase their motivation to study. This high degree of disagreement was perhaps due to this fact that it was not important for the students to take several tests during the term. For some students the time which they devoted to study was just the night before the exam, regardless of the number of the tests they took. As frequent tests increased the motivation of half of the students, this finding is in line with both the findings of William Deck (1998) which revealed that there was no difference between the study hours of those who took monthly tests and those with weekly tests and also with the findings of Hancock (2001) which showed that a high-evaluative condition led to less motivation.

**Question Three**

How do EFL learners feel about the frequent administration of English tests?

With regard to the items which were related to students' feelings, a high percentage of the boys and girls agreed that the frequent administration of English tests would help them to become aware of their weaknesses and also become aware of those parts of the book which were important for the final exam. Moreover, more than half of the boys and girls agreed that providing the answers of these tests would help their learning and these tests would help them to remember the material for a longer time. Also, about half of the boys and less than half of the girls agreed that by taking these tests, they would need less study for the final exam. In addition about half of the boys agreed that these tests would create a feeling of competition in them, but the degree of disagreement with the two last items was relatively high with respect to other items. Regarding the negative feelings of the students about frequent tests, a high percentage of them believed that taking several tests during a week would create some problems for other tests. In addition, being under the pressure of the parents to study for these tests was also another negative feeling which these tests may create for the students and it received the agreement of about half of the boys and less than half of the girls. The high percentage of disagreement by both boys and girls showed that parents were not that much concerned about these tests.

**Question Four**

Does the frequent administration of English tests make any significant difference in the performance of EFL learners at Isfahan high schools on their final achievement tests?

As the results showed, for those high schools with frequent and semi-frequent administration of English tests, the difference between students' scores on their final achievement tests of their first and second year of high school was significant but, the mean of the students' scores in their second year of high school was lower than their first year of high school and surprisingly higher for the high school without the frequent administration of English tests. So, as the analysis revealed, the students did not make any progress on their final achievement tests due to the frequent administration of English tests. These results are in contrast with studies like Shirvani (2009), Momeni & Barinani (2012), Gholami & Moradi Moghaddam (2013), Zarei (2010), Butler & Roediger (2007), Yamin (1988), Dustin (1971),

and Phelp's meta-analysis (2011) which showed that frequent tests led to a significant improvement in students' scores and in line with those studies like William Deck (1998), Dineen, Taylor & Stephens (2010), and Basol's & Johanson's meta-analysis (2009) which indicated that frequent tests did not lead to a significant improvement in students' scores.

## V. CONCLUSION

Based on the above discussion some concluding remarks are drawn. As the results indicated, the frequent administration of English tests did not lead to an improvement in students' scores on their final achievement tests and surprisingly, as the study showed, the students without the frequent administration of English tests showed some progress in their final achievement tests' scores. In addition, frequent tests did not decrease the anxiety of a high percentage of the students and some degree of anxiety always existed in the students before or during taking a test. Moreover, frequent tests increased the motivation of about half of the students and they did not always lead to an increase in study hours. Finally, with respect to students' feelings about these tests, a high percentage of the students believed that these frequent tests would help them to become aware of their weaknesses and those parts of the book which are important for the final exam and also, taking several tests during a weak would create some problems for other tests.

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# An Analysis of English and Chinese Numerical Idioms Sharing the Equivalent Connotations[*]

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*Abstract*—**This paper, based on the analysis of English and Chinese numerical idioms which share the equivalent or similar connotative meaning, according to the different corresponding relationship between the expressive means and expressive forms, are divided into four groups. The expressive means are classified in terms of rhetorical device of English and Chinese numerical idioms and considered mainly from vehicle. Because the rhetorical device mainly used in number and numerical idiom is metaphor, and as the cultural backgrounds are different, the metaphorical image varies a lot. Sometimes, the same image is endowed different emotional colors in different countries and used in different occasions. Metaphorical images in English and Chinese numerical idioms are also reflections of the historical traditions, lifestyles, values, moral standards and customs in languages.**

*Index Terms*—**English, Chinese, numetical idiom, connotation**

## I. INTRODUCTION

Connotative meaning is the reflection of essential attribute and image of the phenomenon of the outside world in semantics. It reflects the people's subjective attitudes and emotions, which is closely related to the national cultural background (Zhao & Jiang, 2003). When expressing the same semantics, there exist similarities or identities in different languages, that is, the forms of expression are the same or similar. Idioms, sharing the equivalent or similar expressions and connotations, can be perceived from the literal meaning directly. There are still some other numerical idioms in English and Chinese having the equivalent or similar connotative meaning but differing in expressive means and expressive forms. So we can find that the essential differences between English and Chinese numerical idioms are not the content expressed by them, but the expressive forms and expressive means.

## II. RHETORICAL DEVICES OF THE NUMBERS IN ENGLISH AND CHINESE IDIOMS

Numbers are usually used to indicate exact number and amount, its notable feature is the accuracy of expression of concept. In the practical language use, numbers are always used to express abstract rather than concrete concept. In English some numbers have two kinds of applications: on the one hand, they are pure accurate numbers and have the feature of accuracy; on the other hand, they may be used as fuzzy ones to express the amount that is not so exact and have the feature of fuzziness. For example, "hundred, thousand, million" means "large amount of", but how much or how many, it is not clear. That is what we call fuzzy numbers. This kind of semantic ambiguity endows certain numbers with rhetorical functions, thus they are often used in the rhetorical devices such as hyperbole, metaphor, metonymy, euphemism and so on. Numbers are the important aids to characters. Usually, they are inseparable from various types of articles in describing quantity, degree, frequency, scale, level of things and other aspects. Exact numbers can express something more accurately and powerfully. Therefore, numerical idioms have the rhetorical features such as analogy, exaggeration and euphemism. If they are used appropriately, the language will become more powerful and efficient.

First, let us have a brief look at some rhetorical devices of the numbers in English and Chinese idioms.

**Metaphor**

Metaphor is a figure of speech in which an expression is used to refer to something that it does not literally denote in order to suggest a similarity. Unlike simile, metaphors state that something is something else, which has no "like" or "as" in the comparison. Metaphor is or was also occasionally used to denote rhetorical figures of speech that achieve their effects via association, comparison or resemblance (e.g. antithesis, hyperbole, metonymy and simile, which are then all considered types of metaphor). Aristotle used both this sense and the regular, current sense above. It is often used to make the writing more interesting or entertaining.

In some cases, the numbers used in numerical idioms often lose their specific meaning and evolve into the meaning associated with something or possessing the similar characteristics of something. For example: "a hundred to one" (very likely or pretty sure); "a fall between too stool" (fail to obtain anything at last); "be like two peas in a pod" (much like).

**Hyperbole**

Hyperbole is a figure of speech that uses an exaggerated or extravagant statement to evoke strong feelings or create a

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strong emotional response. As a figure of speech it is not intended to be taken literally and is frequently used for humor. Hyperbole is an exaggeration to create emphasis or effect. As a literary device, hyperbole is often used in poetry, and is frequently encountered in casual speech. An example of hyperbole is "The bag weighed a ton". Here it helps to make the point that the bag was very heavy, although it is not probable that it would actually weigh a ton.

Exaggerated numbers could "win more with fewer" and have a more vivid, intuitive effect. English numbers such as "hundred, thousand, million, nine, ten and twenty" are used for exaggeration. For example: "one in a thousand" (choosing one from one hundred); "a nine day's wonder" (good things or sights disappear soon after their brilliant appearance).

### Metonymy

Metonymy is a figure of speech used in rhetoric in which a thing or concept is not called by its own name, but by the name of something intimately associated with that thing or concept. For instance, "Westminster" is used as a metonym (an instance of metonymy) for the Parliament of the United Kingdom, because it is located there.

Metonymy works by the contiguity (association) between two concepts. When it is used, it does not typically wish to transfer qualities from one referent to another as they do with metaphor. Thus, metonymy works by calling up a domain of usage and an array of associations. Metonymy can also refer to the rhetorical strategy of describing something indirectly by referring to things contiguous to it, in either time or space.

In digitization times, more and more numbers become popular in slang expressions. For example, five by five (very short and overweight figure); five-and-ten (the store in which cheap goods are sold). In Chinese metonymy, the target persons or things are replaced by something associated closely with them. For example, in the Chinese idiom "si4[1] mian4 ba1 fang1" (all sides), the Chinese character "si4" (four) and "ba1" (eight) refers to all directions.

### Euphemism

Euphemism is a substitution for an expression that may offend or suggest something unpleasant to the receiver, using instead an agreeable or less offensive expression, or to make it less troublesome for the speaker. Some euphemisms are intended to amuse, while others are created to mislead. Here are some examples: "four eyes" (shortsighted); "five fingers" (stealer); "three hands" (stealer) and so on.

### Repetition

Repetition is the simple repeating of a word within a sentence or a poetical line in order to emphasize. This is such a common literary device that it is almost never even noted as a figure of speech. There are also some examples in both English and Chinese idioms. For example: "twenty and twenty" (a huge number of something that can not be counted); "qian1 qian1 wan4 wan4" (tens of thousands); "san1 san1 liang3 liang3" (twos and threes).

### Contrast

An author writes contrast when he or she describes the difference(s) between two or more entities or between two sides of the same thing. As a kind of rhetorical devices, "contrast" in English is the same as "dui4 zhao4" (contrast) in Chinese. Take some English numerical idioms for example: "Two sparrows on one ear of corn make an ill agreement"; "Three Stooges is a great space"; ect.

### III. CLASSIFICATION OF NUMERICAL IDIOMS BASED ON THE EXPRESSIVE STRUCTURES AND MEANS

The greatest differences in terms of figures of speech of English and Chinese due to cultural differences—different people of the same world have different angles of view or perspectives, which will produce different vehicles that are used to image similar phenomenon. Therefore, the following part will be discussed mainly on the basis of the differences of vehicles in Metaphors.

*A. Numerical Idioms with Equivalent Expressive Structures and Means*

Numerical idioms, sharing the same or similar expressions and connotations, can be perceived from the literal meaning directly.

1. Adoption of the same number

The contents expressed by both English and Chinese numerical idioms are equivalent, the expressive means and structures are quite corresponding, and the numbers chosen are the same. We name such correspondence as semantical correspondence of both English and Chinese numerical idioms. In English, the idioms sharing the equivalent structure and meaning rarely exist, but there are still some. For example:

(1) Four-eyes

si4 (four) yan3 (eyes) er

Because people have the same physiological characteristics, one will wear eye-glasses if he is myopia. The person wearing eye-glasses just like having four eyes, so both idioms in English and Chinese are used to express the person who is wearing eye-glasses, and they are considered as an impolite expression.

(2) Second hand

er4 (second) shou3 (hand)

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[1] In this article, for the purpose of an easier and labor-saving intercultural communication, all the Chinese characters are represented by their pronunciations, that is, Chinese "pinyin". The numbers from 1 to 4 stand for the four kinds of Chinese tones.

The idiom "second hand" is used to express the meaning that something has already been used and worn. The corresponding Chinese form is "er4 shou3". Compared with the new-bought goods, "second-hand" refers to the goods that have been bought once or twice. Now it can be used to refer to things that are not got directly. Sometimes it refers to the news, or service, meaning not being the latest. Recently there are more and more words using "second-hand", then some new meanings come into being. For example, "second-hand smoking"/ er4 shou3[2] (second-hand) yan1 (smoking) (smell the smoke from the smoking person), "second-hand fragrance"/ er4 shou3 (second-hand) xiang1 (fragrance) (meaning the fragrance is too strong that the people around feel uncomfortable). These are summaries of people's common life experience.

There are some other examples of numerical idioms that have the equivalent or similar meanings, such as "nine to five/ zhao1 jiu3 (nine) wan3 wu3 (five)", "one ray of hope/ yi1 (one) xian4 xi1 wang4", "He that will thrive must rise at five/ wu3 (five) geng1 qi3 chuang2, bai3 shi4 xing1 wang4", "in at one ear and out at another/ yi1 zhi1 (one) er3 duo1 jin4, yi1 zhi1 (another) er3 duo1 chu1" and so on.

As we all know, human being has many same or similar experiences no matter what kind of nationality or skin he has, and no matter where he lives. They have the similar life necessities, lifestyles, thoughts and feelings. These similarities determine that the expressive contents, structures and means are very similar, or even the same.

2. Adoption of the different number

The contents expressed by both English and Chinese numerical idioms are equivalent, the expressive means and structures are quite corresponding, but the difference lies in the choice of the numbers.

(3) Six of one and half a dozen of the other

ban4 (half) jin1 ba1 (eight) liang3 (half a catty and eight taels)

This means six is the same to half a dozen. This is originated from duodecimal system. Duodecimal system was brought by Dane when it conquered England and is used still nowadays. From the numerical idiom we can find Dane's custom: because one dozen is twelve, a half dozen is six. So the idiom both in English and Chinese is very similar. In ancient China, one catty is sixteen taels, one tael is a star, and sixteen taels are sixteen stars. They are consisted of Triones, Southern Dipper, and the three gods of fortune, prosperity and longevity. If the sellers give the customers enough, the scale will reach the three gods of fortune, prosperity and longevity (Ma, 2004). So 8 taels is half a catty. Afterwards this word evolved into the meaning that the weight is the same among strength, ability and authority. We should pay attention that Chinese "ban4 jin1 ba1 liang3" is always used to express derogatory meaning.

(4) Five-and-dime store

liang3 (two) yuan2 dian4 (the store where the goods are sold only at the price of two yuan)

In English "five-and-dime store" is the store in which cheap goods are sold. In "five-and-dime", "five" refers to "five cents", dime refers to "ten cents". "Five-and-dime store" in America just like some stores in which goods are sold at 8 yuan or 10 yuan in Hong Kong. In such a store, the goods are sold at 5 cents or 10 cents, so this kind of stores is called "five and dime store", or "five-and-ten store". At present, there are "liang3 yuan2 dian4" in many cities in China. "liang3 yuan2 dian4" means the price of the goods is two yuan, or the goods are very cheap. Ordinary people think the goods in this kind of stores are very valuable, so they will not buy one only. The same kind of stores named in different ways reflects the different national mentalities. Chinese people don't want to be considered stingy, five cents, one jiao maybe too tiny. So although there are coins of five cents, one jiao, the sellers will never name their stores as "5cents 1 jiao store". The Chinese like even number, so "two yuan" is chosen to show the goods are quite valuable. On the contrary, The English nation has pragmatic mentality, "five-and-dime store" tells people: this store offer real benefits to customers. Although the goods in "five-and-dime store" cost more than five cents and one dime, this expression is still used until today. So the different numbers used to express the same concept are related to the nation's mentality.

(5) One in a thousand

bai3 (hundred) li3 tiao1 yi1 (choosing one from one hundred)

From the literal meaning, "one in a thousand" means "choosing one from a thousand", which actually refers to excellent people or thing. In English the idiom can be expressed as "one in a million". In Chinese it is expressed as "bai3 li3 tiao1 yi1" (choosing one from one hundred).The two idioms choose different numbers, but they can express the same meaning of "extraordinary". In the two numerical idioms, no matter "bai3" (hundred) in Chinese and "thousand" in English, they are all of exaggeration, not concrete. One point should be noticed is that Chinese "bai3" (hundred) is expressed in English "thousand", in which the degree of exaggeration is higher than that in Chinese. This actually reflects the different modes of thinking. The Chinese advocate moderation whereas the English nations intend to create something new and original.

When this happens in language, larger numbers are chosen for exaggeration.

The same examples include "one and only/ first and last/ du2 yi1 wu2 er4 (two)"; "think twice before you leap/ san1 (three) si1 er2 hou4 xing2"; "It's the first step that is troublesome/ wan4 (ten thousands) shi4 kai1 tou2 nan2"and so on.

*B.   Numerical Idioms with Equivalent Expressive Structures but Different Expressive Means*

On the basis of the equivalence of connotative meaning, the expressional structures are corresponding, but the expressive means are different.

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[2]  Here the two characters together with an underline are regarded as a whole in meaning.

1. Adoption of the same number

The contents expressed by both English and Chinese numerical idioms are equivalent, the expressive structures and the chosen numbers are quite corresponding, but the difference lies in the different expressive means. For example:

(6) two strings to one's bow

liang3 (two) shou3 zhun3 bei4 (two kinds of preparations)

"Two strings to one's bow" and "a second string to one's bow" refer to the meaning that the English longbow men all have the second string to change the first one when it is broken. Even the common archer also takes another bow for preparation (Zhuang, 2002). Therefore, people often use the two idioms to compare "two kinds of preparations". (This means if the first try loses, there is still the other method). This idiom comes into being from life experience. The Chinese numerical idiom "liang3 shou3 zhun3 bei4" is originated from the slogan "yi1 ke1 hong2 xin1, liang3 shou3 zhun3 bei4" before Chinese Culture Revolution. "yi1 ke1 hong2 xin1" means the ideal of revolution to climb onto the peak of culture and science in order to realize the socialist modernization. "liang3 shou3 zhun3 bei4" refers to: one choice is to pass the university entrance examination, the other choice is to study by oneself at home if lose. Afterwards, this idiom is considered as "two kinds of preparations", that is, two different solutions. This Chinese numerical idiom is an extension of the historical cultural background of our nation's special period.

(7) One rotten apple spoils the whole barrel

yi1 (one) ke1 lao3 shu3 shi3 huai4 le yi1 guo1 (whole) zhou1

From the literal meaning, the idiom "rotten apple" means the apple is rotten; the extended meaning refers to a bad guy, individual who brings disgrace to his group. The sentence means, one bad guy will give the whole group bad effect. In Chinese idiom "Yi1 (one) ke1 lao3 shu3 shi3 huai4 le yi1 guo1 zhou1", the mouse's stool is compared to the thing that will damage the whole group, and the bad influence to the group is stressed. Because of the different life experiences of both nations, the two idioms describe the tenors through similar association and express the same meaning by using different vehicles.

(8) a straw shows which way the wind blows

yi1 (one) ye4 zhi1 qiu1 (we know the upcoming of the autumn from a piece of leaf)

The literal meaning of the idiom "a straw shows which way the wind blows" is that from one straw we know the direction of the wind. That means we can expect the future of something or the trend of something from details. The idiom "yi1 ye4 zhi1 qiu1" means one may know the autumn is coming from a falling leaf. In the two idioms, "a straw" and "ye4" (a leaf) all mean details. The number "a" and "one" are cognates sharing the same meaning, which are coincide with the Chinese number "yi1". Because of different experiences, the two idioms use "wind" and "qiu1" (autumn) to refer to the near future.

(9) Seven Stars

Bei3 dou3 qi1 (seven) xing1 (the stars' name)

The numerical idiom "seven stars" is originated from Greek mythology, Athoras and Pulitzer had seven daughters. They became seven stars after they died, which formed "seven stars". This numerical idiom is associated with Greek mythology. In Chinese, the idiom "Bei3 dou3 qi1 xing1" derived from the observation of the astronomical phenomena of the seven stars in the sky. "dou3" was an ancient measuring tool. This tool is made of board in a form of a square object with a handle with the top mouth slightly larger than the bottom. The shape of the seven stars in the sky is just like that of "dou3", and then the numerical idiom is used to express "Seven Stars."

There are similar examples, such as "It' s along story/ yi1 (one) yan2 nan2 jin4" (one can not tell a story from one sentence); "birds of a feather/of a kind/ yi1 (one) qiu1 zhi1 he2" (refer to the same kind of persons, often have negative meaning); "three women and a goose make a market/ san1 (three) ge4 nv3 ren2 yi1 (one) tai2 xi4" (three women are adequate to give a piece of opera); "one boy is a boy, two boys half a boy, three boys no boy/ "yi1 (one) ge4 he2 shang4 tiao1 shui3 chi1, liang3 (two) ge4 he2 shang4 tai2 shui3 chi1, san1 (three) ge4 he2 shang4 mei2 shui3 chi1" (one monk carries water by himself, two monks carry water together, three monks do nothing) and so on.

2. Adoption of the Different Number

The contents expressed by both English and Chinese numerical idioms are equivalent, the expressive structures are quite corresponding, but the difference lies in the different expressive means and the choice of numbers. For example:

(10) in for a penny, in for a pound

yi1 bu4 zuo4, er4 (two) bu4 xiu1 (you will never stop if you start to do something)

The two idioms have the meaning of "Once we have started, we must carry on to the end". The literal meaning of "in for a penny, in for a pound" is betting against a penny is the same to betting against one dollar. Actually it means if you start to do one small thing, you should continue to do it. This idiom has the meaning "you'd better do something no matter how hard it is" or "no matter what difficulties you may face, you should see through". The focus is on "never stop half way". The Chinese idiom "yi1 bu4 zuo4, er4 bu4 xiu1" means once you start to do something, you'd better do it until to the end. The focus of this idiom is on "never stop". This is a summary of the armed rebellion of Zhang guangzui which had no ending in Chinese history.

(11) Two heads are better than one.

san1 (three) ge4 chou4 pi2 jiang4 ding3 ge4 zhu1 ge3 liang4 (three cordwainers have the same talents to Zhu Geliang)

The two idioms are all proverbs which indicate two heads are better than one. Actually it means you'd better ask for other people's advice and accept other people's help when you are in trouble. Here the number "two" is imaginary, means "many". This idiom is just a summary of simple living experience. The Chinese numerical idiom "san1 ge4 chou4 pi2 jiang4 ding3 ge4 zhu1 ge3 liang4" is full of the color of Chinese culture. As we all know, Zhu Geliang, who was a famous person in Chinese history, is a symbol of wisdom in Chinese culture. But most English and American people may not know who he was and what the relationship between "chou4 pi2 jiang4" (three cordwainers) and him is. In this idiom cordwainer means common people. The number "three" is imaginary, means "many". This proverb means although what cordwainer does is simple work, but if many cordwainers cooperate with each other, they will have many solutions, and their ability is stronger than Zhu ge liang. So if people are in trouble, there are many solutions to the problems if they discuss together.

(12) ride Bayard of ten toes

zuo4 <u>shi2 yi1</u> (eleven) lu4 che1 (take number11 bus)

The idiom "ride Bayard of ten toes" is an expression of jocosity, meaning going on foot. Here "Bayard" is the Pegasus of Romantic period, so "Bayard of ten toes" refers to a horse with two feet. Horse was the main vehicle of the early English people, then it was used for entertainment. So horse refers to every aspect of life, and sometimes refers to people. But in the Chinese culture it refers to the talented person not the common one, so misunderstanding will arise. Here "Bayard of ten toes" refers to people, so riding by such horse means walking on foot. In Chinese, the idiom "zuo4 shi2 yi1 lu4 che1" also refers to "going on foot", because two legs just like the number "11". This reflects that Han nationality is very good at making jocosity.

(13) five fingers

san1 (three) zhi1 shou3 (three hands)

"Five fingers" refers to stealer, because one film named "five fingers" tells a story about a big stealer. This film was very popular before and after the year 1950. Thus the "five fingers" came into being. In Chinese "san1 zhi1 shou3" is known by everyone, which refers to stealer. In Chinese there is an original character pronounced as "pa2" used to refers to "san1 zhi1 shou3" (three hands), which means stealer who often steal other people's belongings. This character "pa2" and the Chinese idiom "san1 zhi1 shou3" reflect the richness of both Han nationality and the imaginable thinking of Chinese characters.

(14) It takes two to tango.

yi1 (one) ge4 ba1 zhang3 pai1 bu4 xiang3 (one palm makes no sound)

Basically speaking, the lack of the understanding of "tango" in Chinese culture easily causes the misunderstanding of the English numerical idiom "it takes two to tango". Maybe we think from the literal meaning, tango should be danced by two persons, from which unison should be analogized. But it is not the fact. First, Tango is usually danced by a man and a woman. The bold and straightforward feature of man and the flirtatiousnes of woman constitute the tremendous tension of tango. The moral "temptation, erotic" of this idiom is easy for people to think of its homophony tangle. "it takes two to tango" actually uses the partial tone of "tangle". The whole idiom actually is created from the English idiom "It takes two to make a quarrel". The meaning is that if two persons quarrel with each other, the mistake is not one's but that of the two. This meaning comes from people's entertainment in English culture. The literal meaning of Chinese idiom "yi1 ge4 ba1 zhang3 pai1 bu4 xiang3" is that one cannot make sound if just flap one palm in the air. Flap both palms will make sound. Here the palm refers to people. This means conflict is not just made from one side. Both sides take responsibility. This idiom comes from the people's experience of life.

The similar examples are "the whole nine yards/ yi1 (one) ju3 cheng2 gong1" (succeed at last); "An eye finds more truth than two ears/ bai3 wen2 bu4 ru2 yi1 jian4" (seeing is better than hearing); "Rome was not built in one day./ bing1dong4 san1 chi3 fei1 yi1 ri4 zhi1 han2" (the ice frozen for three feet is not because the cold weather lasts for one day); "Once bitten, twice shy/ yi1 zhao1 bei4 she2 yao3, shi2 nian2 pa4 jing3 sheng2" (people will be afraid of rope if once bit by a snake)and so on.

*C.  Numerical Idioms with Different Expressive Structures but Equivalent Expressive Means*

On the basis of the equivalence of connotative meaning, the expressive structures are different, but the expressional means are corresponding.

1. Adoption of the Same Number

The contents expressed by both English and Chinese numerical idioms are equivalent, the choice of numbers and the expressive means are quite corresponding, but the difference lies in the different expressive structures. For example:

(15) hundred and hundred

chang2 ming4 bai3 (hundred) sui4 (live for one hundred years)

The idiom "hundred and hundred" is a fine blessing, means continuing living for another one hundred years. So this blessing is imaginary, not definite without limitation of life span. But in ancient china, it was so difficult to live long. So the idiom "chang2 ming4 bai3 sui4" (live for one hundred years) means "living for a long time". The two numerical idioms in both England and China all reflect the ideal of living for a long time from ancient times.

(16) second to none

shou3 qu1 yi4 (one) zhi3 (the thumb bends)

The meaning of the idiom "second to none" refers to the best one, not worse than anybody else. In the Chinese idiom

"shou3 qu1 yi4 zhi3", "shou3" means the first. This idiom means if one counts something by using fingers, he has to bend the thumb, which refers to the first one. The extending meaning also refers to the best one. The two numerical idioms reflect the differences of the thinking mode of people between Chinese and Western countries. The Chinese culture forms a thinking mode that stresses the intuitive intention, which experiences, feels and grasps the object through intuition. The western people emphasize a thinking mode that stresses analysis of and is biased towards abstract things.

(17) A penny saved is a penny gained.

sheng3 yi1 (one) fen1 shi4 yi1 (one) fen1 (a cent saved is a cent earned)

The literal meaning of the idiom "A penny saved is a penny gained" is that saving a penny means gaining a penny, that is, saving money is very clever. Do not look down up small amount of money. The Chinese numerical idiom "sheng3 yi1 fen1 shi4 yi1 fen1" means all money come from saving. Because our monetary unit is different, in English the smallest monetary unit "penny" is used whereas in Chinese "cent" is used. Although the two numerical idioms does not equate in structure, from the two idioms we can see both English and Chinese people like saving.

The similar examples are " be of one heart and one mind /of one mind/ yi1 (one) xin1 yi1 (one) yi1 (one heart one mind); "five by five/ wu3 (five) duan3 shen1 cai2" (squat); one's every move/ yi1 (one) ju3 yi1 (one) dong4 (the movement and activity); "make the best of both world /have things both ways/ liang3 (two) quan2 qi2 mei3" (consider every aspect perfectly)and so on..

2. Adoption of the Different Number

The contents expressed by both English and Chinese numerical idioms are equivalent, the expressive means are quite corresponding, but the difference lies in the different expressive structures and the choice of numbers. For example:

(18) one foot in the grave

ban4 (half) jie2 ru4 tu3 (half the body has been buried in the earth)

The idiom "one foot in the grave" is mostly translated as "one foot has already been in the grave", of which the metaphoric meaning is very clear. It has humorous style, means "near to death" and "cannot live for a long time". This idiom initially related to the figure Charon in ancient Greek myths. He is the god who could carry the revenants from the Styx to the hell (Zhuang, 2002). The idiom "with one foot in Charon's ferryboat" lately changed into the present numerical idiom "one foot in the grave". In Chinese the idiom "ban4 jie2 ru4 tu3" means half of the body has already been in the earth indicating the person will die soon. The two idioms respectively use "one foot "and "ban4 jie2 shen1 zi" to refer to the people's physical condition. The two idioms all use vivid rhetorical device of metonymy. This reflects that both Chinese and English nations have the habit to refer to the whole by using the part.

(19) crack up (flatter / honor / praise) to the nines

shi2 (ten) quan2 shi2 mei3 (very perfect)

In English cultural tradition, the number "nine" is one of "God Numbers" in people's minds. For Westerners, "nine" has symbolic meaning of "Divinity" and "sacred thing to peak". The first meaning of "Nine" is its self-multiplier of "three". "Nine" is the symbol of truth in Hebraic culture, and represents the absolute order of all things in Christianity. "Nine" is a mysterious spirit figure in religion. We often find the number "nine" in ancient Greek mythology. In addition, according to British superstition cats have nine lives, so the number "nine" means strong vitality. And many rental contracts are set 99 years. Compared with Chinese, "nine" does not have the meaning the supreme and honor , but it also presents "many", "perfect", "happy", "long" and others. At the same times, according to numerology, "three" is "Trinity" and on behalf of a perfect whole, "six" is two times of "three" and "shuang1 chong2 wan2 mei3" (the perfect dual), and "nine" is three times of "three" and "Duo1 chong2 wan2 mei3" (many aspects are perfect). The phrases of "Crack up (flatter / honor / praise) to the nines" is born and also means perfect. The numerical idiom reflects a specific meaning of "nine" in myth and religion. The Chinese culture regards "shi2" as a symbol of perfection originating from its grapheme. *Shuo Wen Jie Zi* (a Dictionary of Chinese Hieroglyphics and Words) explains the two strokes of "shi2" respectively, "the horizontal stroke representing east and west, the vertical stroke representing south and north, four directions and their centers are all present." So "shi1" symbolizes totality, completeness, perfection and summit. Meanwhile, "shi2" is a figure of earth with Yin attribute. Dong Zhongshu summarized Yin and Yang (the two opposing principles in nature), three talents (heaven, earth and people) and five elements (wood, fire, earth, metal and water) as "shi2 da 4 tian1 shu4"(ten predestinate figures) according to the theory of harmony between man and nature. Meanwhile "shi2" is a figure of heavenly stems, playing an important role of conversion and progression in Chinese calendrical system. Nevertheless, the figure "shi2" bears the closest relations to ten-figure arithmetic, and the concept of decimal system has filtered deep into people's minds. "shi2" has become the figure of extremity, indicating totality, completeness and ultimacy.

(20) Every Tom, Dick and Harry

zhang1 san1 (three) li3 si4 (four) (two common names of Chinese people)

Here "Tom, Dick and Harry" are the most common names in English, generally refer to common people, like "zhang1 san1, li3 si4, wang2 er4" (most common Chinese people's names). But in usage, this expression has the sense of defiance, especially refers to "very very plain, without doing any important thing." Because "zhang1" and "li3" are the most commonly used family name, in order to give example easily, the familiar family names and numbers are selected together to refer to the entire part. So "zhang1 san1 li3 si4" are supposed names, generally refer to some

common people. The two idioms all have strong color of nation.

There are some other similar examples, such as "be of two minds/ san1 (three) xin1 er4 yi4", "in one or two words/ san1 (three) yan2 liang3 yu3", "twenty and twenty times/ san1 (three) fan1 wu3 (five) ci4", "leave no stone unturned/ qian1 (thousand) fang1 bai3 (hundred) ji4", "One barking dog sets the whole street barking./ yi1 quan3 fei4 ying3, bai3 (hundred) quan3 fei4 sheng1)" and so on.

*D.    Numerical Idioms with Different Expressive Structures and Means*

On the basis of the equivalence of connotative meaning, numerical idioms have the differences not only in the expressive structure, but also in the expressive means.

1. Adoption of the Same Number

The contents expressed by both English and Chinese numerical idioms are equivalent, the expressive means and structures are not corresponding, the sameness lies in the adoption of the same number. For example:

(21) as poor as a church mouse

yi1 (one) pin2 ru2 xi3 (as poor as being washed)

The idiom "as poor as a church mouse" has something to do with the religion believed by Westerners, in which the churches are the places where the followers take religious activities and devoutly worship. Surely nobody eats there and there is no food cupboard. Thus the churches are quiet with solemn. Therefore, it is absolutely impossible to find something to eat for mice in churches. A church mouse is very poor, so the idiom "as poor as a church mouse" comes into being, which is used to describe extremely poverty (Zhuang, 2002). "yi1 pin2 ru2 xi3" refers to the situation that someone is poor like being washed with water without owing a penny, which is the performance of the visual image thinking emphasized by the Chinese nation.

(22) A 1, A-one

tian1 zi4 di4 yi1 (No.1) hao4 (first-rate)

Loyd's Register of Shipping, which is established in England in 1760, has published *Lloyd's Shipping Yearbook*, which proposes the tonnage and grade of the merchant ships registered. The levels of hull quality are indicated with alphabetical order, and the merits of equipment are shown with numbers. The ships classified as the first level and grade are set A1. Dickens, who was a famous British writer, firstly applied A1 to any thing and people in 1837 to symbolize "first-class" or "excellent". A1 is considered as A-1, A-one (Zhuang, 2002). In the past, the Chinese used to show the order with *Thousand Characters* in which "Tian" (heaven) is the first word of the sentence "World yuen wong (tian1 di4 xuan2 huang2)". It refer to first or the first number in grade one, and represents the highest, biggest or strongest. So "A-one" means "No. one", that is, A1 in present sort (Ma, 2004).

(23) hang by a hair / thread

qian1 jun1 yi2 (one) fa4 (thousand "Jun" were hung with one hair)

The idiom of "hang by a hair / thread" refers to the scabbard sword tied with a thin thread (or mane) above the head and will fall down anytime. According to literal meaning, the translation of the idiom is hanging with a thin thread (or horse's mane) to show "at risk" or "shaky". The numerical idiom has correspondence with Greek legend, in which Dionysius, who was a tyrant king of city-state of Syracuse in Sicily Island, gave a warning to Damocles that the kings were on the thrones, but they also feared every day and the loss of life may be imminent at any time. So the meaning has no difference with the idiom "qian1 jun1 yi2 fa4" in Chinese. "Jun" was an ancient unit of weight, one "Jun" have thirty "Jin" in Chinese. The idiom that thousand "Jun" were hung with one hair, was shown that the situation was extremely emergent or very critical, which is used to present that the people or something are at risk. This kind of idioms is the summary of the real experience in daily life.

There are some, like "fall between two stools / liang2 (two) tou2 luo4 kong1", "not know one end of sth. from the other / yi1 (one) qiao4 bu4 tong1", "play second fiddle / er2 (second) ba3 shou3", "with one mouth / yi1 (one) kou3 tong2 ci2", etc.

2. Adoption of the Different Number

The contents expressed by both English and Chinese numerical idioms are equivalent, but the expressive means, structures and the adoption of the number are different. For example:

(24) nine days' wonder

tan2 hua1 yi1 (one) xian4 (good things or sights disappear soon after their brilliant appearance)

"Nine days' wonder" is generally defined as "the things which incur much attention in a short time is forgotten immediately, or "the night-blooming cereus". But according to literal translation, it represents "nine-hit wonders". There is a history with nine days to express a moment. "Nine days' wonder" is said to be derived from an ancient Roman custom. When there were abnormal phenomena in nature, Romans would regard it as an ominous sign. In order to do with disasters, Catholic Church always held a religious prayer ceremony that lasted for nine days. But no body would talk about it when the ceremony was over. So based on the Western customs, "nine days' wonder" means rare things, or a prominent man during a specific time who disappears after his influential presence (Zhuang, 2002). In Chinese, the number idiom "tan2 hua1 yi1 xian4" is born from the special case of night-blooming cereus. When the flowers are blooming, the spendthrift slowly tilts, and the purple cloak gradually opens, then the big flowers with more than 20 petals which are white just like snow bloom. When blooming, the petals and stamens are quivering with dazzling beauty. But the flowers last for only 3-4 hours, then the corolla will close and finally quickly wither away. So the idiom implies

that the good things or sights disappear soon after their brilliant appearance.

(25) in seven-leagued boots

yi1 ri4 qian1 (thousand) li3 (very fast)

The idiom "in seven-league(d) boots" is related to the ancient folk tales of United Kingdom. It is said that a pair of God boots could walk Seven Li, which is about 21 miles a foot. Therefore, the idiom is applied to represent a very fast speed. The Chinese idiom is related to common life experience, "yi1 ri4 qian1 li3" means the horse run fast and can run a thousand Li in a day, which now describes a person who makes a big progress very quickly or a thing that has a rapid development. In this case, the rhetorical device of exaggeration is employed.

(26) in two shakes of a lamb's tail

yi1 (one) tan2 zhi3 jian1 (time goes by immediately)

Lambs and other animals always shake their tails before running. It is said that the time spent on two shakes of their tails is less than that of many other animals' one shake of tail. The idiom "in two shakes of a lamb's tail" comes from the characteristic of the lamb. With literal translation, it refers to the moment of the lamb's tail shaking twice. Generally, it is used for figurative meaning which only means "soon or immediate". It is believed that the idiom "in two shakes of a lamb's tail" might be expanded from its synonymous phrase "in two shakes" which preciously appeared in the English language and might derive from the gambling with dice-throwing. Originally it is written as "in two shakes of a dice box" (Zhuang, 2002). Because Britain is a country abundant in sheep which is its pillar industry, the British have more observation of sheep and application to idioms. "yi1 tan2 zhi3 jian1" is originally used in Buddhism language in China, which means "sixty years have passed when one figure shakes". The time of finger shaking implies the very short moment. Because China is a big Buddhist country and the Buddhist teachings enjoy popular support, many numerical idioms cited are associated with this aspect.

(27) At sixes and sevens

luan4 qi1 ba1 (eight) zao1 (be in a mess)

The idiom "At sixes and sevens" is a common verbal phrase and has a long history. It is generally believed that it is relevant to dice-throwing which is a gambling jargon. The shape of dice is a cube and the numbers of points on each surface of which are from one to six. However, it is said that the highest number of point should be more in Middle Ages. There are six points and seven points. So thirteen points are ideal, which is possible with six and seven point together. But it is difficult. The people, who were upset or in confusion, would try to make a bet. The idiom "at sixes and sevens" is firstly used to express the meaning "only to stake at the highest point (that is, six or seven points)" or "random bet", then represents "upset mind", and finally deduces the implication of "mess", "disagree", etc (Zhuang, 2002). Chinese often use the idiom "luan4 qi1 ba1 zao1" to describe the things disorganized and difficult to do with. The idiom is related to historical events. There was a "Rebellion of Seven States" under the domination of Emperor Wen in Western Han Dynasty, Which is the origin of the expression "Qi luan". Under the domination of Emperor Si Mayan in the early years of Western Jin Dynasty, there was a "Riot of Eight Royal Highness", which lasted much longer than "Rebellion of Seven States" and seriously weakened the dominant power of Western Jin Dynasty. People suffered more severe disasters as well. So we call it "Ba zao" (Ma, 2004). Hereafter, the idiom "luan4 qi1 ba1 zao1" is produced by associating the two events, which means "the situation without order" or "be in a mess".

(28) Behind the eight ball

si4 (four) mian4 chu3 ge1 (critical environment or isolated distress)

The idiom "Behind the eightball" is related to the game "billiards" which has various forms and names. There is game "rotation" named Kelly pool, which requires player to shot 15 balls into the bags in numerical order. The player will lose points if the any ball hit the black eightball. So when the cue ball or the one which should be hit lies just behind the eightball, the player will be at a disadvantage and it is difficult to win. Accordingly, the idiom "behind the eightball" means "in a bad situation", "distress" or "frustrated" (Zhuang, 2002). "si4 mian4 chu3 ge1" is a piece of Chinese allusion, which describes the situation of being attacked on all sides and isolated without any help. The story was about Xiang Yu, who heard the Chu's songs all around and felt surprised and frustrated, committed suicide because of failure at last. Since then, the people described the situation suffered whole attacks, critical environment or isolated distress with this idiom.

There are similar examples, such as "hit / knock for six / dang1 tou2 yi1 (one) bang4", "chuck up the bunch of five / liang3 (two) tui3 yi1 shen1", "with a grain of salt / ban4 (half) xin4 ban4 yi2", "a close call / jiu3 (nine) si3 yi1 sheng1" and so on.

## IV. CONCLUSION

The comparison and contrast between English and Chinese idioms reveals two points: universality and individuality. The universal implications in English and Chinese idioms stem from our agreements on the universality that exists in mankind himself and the external conditions on which he relies, and even in the social and cultural backgrounds of human beings. The universality of English and Chinese idioms is reflected in the shared attributes of English and Chinese rhetoric. But different nations have different living circumstances, material cultures, social cultures, religious cultures and historical development as well as varied thinking modes in perceptions and preferences so that they observe and experience all the happenings of the realistic world from different perspectives in different ways and form

their distinctive viewpoints and perceptions. This kind of national individuality determines the distinct characteristics of numerical idioms. The individualities of English and Chinese numerical idioms are given display in the asymmetrical phenomena in English and Chinese imagery of rhetoric.

The national cultural characteristics displayed in English and Chinese numerical idioms with equivalent connotations stem from their respective cultures including their distinct histories, thinking modes, religious beliefs, customs, social constitution, values, living styles, etc. The differences are reflected not only in the numerical idioms, but also in their rhetoric. Different religious beliefs have bestowed strong national individuality on the implications of some numbers. In terms of culture, the west has long been influenced by religions while our country has been under feudal rule for quite a long time. Different implications of numerical idioms also arose from different perceptions that the ancestors of different regions obtained on same things in their practical cognitive process throughout human history. Naturally these idioms contain different images, reflect different cultural values and become the fruits of wisdom accumulated in a nation's life experience, history and culture. In terms of different living styles, people's perceptions are indispensable from their own observation and daily life experiences, which can find display in the fact that all perceptions begin with mankind self-recognition. Human beings firstly took the experiences of their own body as the basis, speculated a scene and composed a picture, an image schema providing a basis for abstract thinking and constituting a chief medium for comprehending abstract concepts and conducting abstract thinking. Therefore, the English and Chinese numerical idioms with equivalent connotations have adopted diverse expressive forms and rhetorical devices.

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# The Effect of Transcribing on Beginning Learners' Dictation

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*Abstract*—In its undulating trend through the history of language teaching, dictation has been used as a tool in both teaching and testing. It has been employed as a tool for either helping learners with some language skills/sub-skills or testing their language proficiency. Considering that dictation tests tap learners' overall language proficiency, it is logical to think that improving learners ability in taking dictation improves their language proficiency. In this study we have considered dictation as an end, have proposed transcribing as a technique to improve it, and have examined the effect of transcribing on dictation. Thirty one elementary female learners participated in this study. The findings of the study show that transcribing has a significant positive effect on learners' dictation. Therefore, we recommend transcribing exercise as one of the techniques to help elementary learners improve their language proficiency.

*Index Terms*—dictation, transcribing, elementary EFL learners

## I. INTRODUCTION

Dictation can be used both as a useful device in testing and a helpful activity for learning (Morris, 1983; Sawyer & Silver, 1961). It can also be employed as a teaching device (Whitaker 1976). Dictation was firstly associated with the Grammar Translation Method and was neglected with the dominance of Audiolingual Method in the 1960s. However, it regained popularity later because a) it highly correlates with tests of overall language proficiency and b) it tests language as a whole as opposed to testing language components in isolation.

To date, dictation has been used either as a tool to improve language skills, especially the listening skill, or as a device to measure language improvement. (P. Habibi; Nemati; & S. Habibi, 2012; Jafarpur & Yamini, 1993; Celce-Murcia, 1996; Gilbert, 1996; Davis, 1995; Rost, 1991). In other words, it has been used as a means to other ends not as an end itself. As mentioned earlier, the ability in taking dictation correlates directly with overall language proficiency. Therefore, we can conclude that considering dictation as an end and trying to improve it contributes not only to the improvement of a single language skill or sub-skill, but also to overall language proficiency. But the question is: How to improve dictation?

There have been, to the best of our knowledge, almost no attempts to find valid ways to improve dictation. Since the input (aural), the output (written), and the process in both dictation and transcribing are almost the same, transcribing seems to be a valid way to practice and improve dictation ability. Hence, this study tries to find if transcribing influences learners' dictation-taking ability.

In short, unlike previous studies, in this study we consider dictation as an end and examine the effect of transcribing exercise on it. To this end, we try to answer the following question:

1. Does transcribing have a significant effect on elementary EFL learners' dictation ability?

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### Definition of dictation

Dictation is the activity of writing down what is orally said or read. Richards and Schmidt (2002, p. 157) have defined dictation as

a technique used in both language teaching and language testing in which a passage is read aloud to students or test takers, with pauses during which they must try to write down what they have heard as accurately as possible.

Davis and Rinvolucri (2002) have also defined dictation as decoding sounds in aural input and then recoding them in writing.

### History of dictation

Influenced by changing attitudes in the area of language teaching, dictation has waxed and waned in popularity throughout the history of language teaching. It is closely associated with Grammar Translation Method. By the

emergence of Natural Method, using dictation declined since this method gives more weight to oral skills of listening and speaking while teaching reading and writing is discouraged.

The sharpest decline in using dictation occurred in the 1960s by the development of Audiolingual Method (Brown, 2007). The proponents of this method, in which language is basically seen as speech not writing, "either directly attacked it [dictation] or tacitly rejected it by failing to make any mention of it whatsoever" (Stansfield, 1985, p. 124). This opposition against dictation was mainly because of its failure to test components of language in isolation. Throughout the sixties, dictation was ignored due to the dominance of Audiolingual Method.

Dictation regained legitimacy in 1970 when search for integrative measures of language proficiency began. Different varieties of dictation have continued to be used as a valid device in teaching and testing since then.

### Different types of dictation

Dictation has been used in different forms. In fact, the base form of dictation is standard dictation and other forms have emerged to compensate for its shortcomings. They include partial dictation, elicited imitation, dicto-comp, and dictation with competing noise (Farhady, Ja'farpur, & Birjandi, 2007).

Partial dictation seems to be the best of all types of dictation, especially for the purpose of this study. In standard dictation the passage is usually played for three times. In the first and third times, the passage is read at normal speech rate without any pauses. The second time, however, includes pauses in order to allow time for the test-takers to write what they hear (Jafarpur & Yamini, 1993). Partial dictation is deemed to be a better measure than standard dictation on the grounds that in partial dictation the second reading which is deviant from real-life discourse can be discarded. Moreover, it is more economical and more natural (Johansson as cited in Cai, 2013) and needs less subjective judgment on the part of rater (Oller, 1979).

Partial dictation, in this study, is also preferred to elicited imitation since elicited imitation takes too much time to administer. Partial dictation also seems to be a more appropriate measure for beginners than dicto-comp and dictation with competing noise (Farhady, Ja'farpur, &Birjandi, 2007). Therefore, in this study partial dictation has been used as the measurement tool.

### Controversy over dictation

### Dictation as a testing device

Dictation as a device in both testing and teaching has been controversial in the area of SLA.

From a testing point of view, dictation is widely known as a measure of overall language proficiency. However, it has met a lot of opposition. Lado (1961), for example, believes that dictation is not a good device to measure any aspect of language on the grounds that everything is dictated to test takers. Harris (1969, p 5) considered dictation as an 'uneconomical' and 'imprecise' testing device. Believing that it tended to test many interrelated elements at the same time, Rivers (1968) accepted dictation as a teaching device but not as a testing device. Dictation was also considered as a complicated technique which was of little use in real life activity (Bennett, 1968).

This disapproval of dictation may have been the result of inadequacies of the psychological and linguistic theories which were used as the basis of language teaching methods in the 1950s and 1960s. Based on structural linguistics which was dominant then, language is broken down to its component parts and each part is taught and tested in isolation. According to 2ehaviourism, learning involves habit formation. This is achieved in language learning through oral practice. Consequently, dictation which integrated different skills especially listening and writing with less emphasis on speaking was rejected (Jafarpur & Yamini, 1993).

Regarding language skills, dictation has been mostly used for assessing listening. Despite the above-mentioned disadvantages, its advantages speak well for the inclusion of dictation among the possibilities for assessing listening comprehension. It is easy to construct, administer, and score in a well-established scoring system (Irvine, Atai, and Oller, 1974).

In spite of oppositions, dictation as a testing device has enjoyed some support. Advocates of dictation as a testing device contend that it is a good measure of language proficiency, inasmuch as it highly correlates with other integrative language proficiency tests such as TOEFL and cloze (Oller 1971; Irvine, Atai, Oller, 1974, Jafarpur and Yamini, 1993). Oller (1971), for example, contends that dictation "seems to be the best single measure of the totality of English language skills being tested" (p. 255).

### Dictation as a teaching device

Regarding the teaching value of dictation, a few believe that it is not of help to the improvement of learners' proficiency. Cartledge (1968) believes that dictation cannot be considered as a teaching device. It can only provide learners with some practice in oral comprehension. Similarly, Jafarpur and Yamini (1993) have questioned the effectiveness of dictation as a teaching device.

On the other hand, proponents of dictation advocate it as a useful teaching device which can help learners improve some aspects of their language proficiency. Dictation has been proved to be a valuable device to improve learners' listening comprehension (Sawyer and Silver, 1961; Finocchiaro, 1969; Oller, 1971; Pappas, 1977). Oller and Streiff (1975) believe that dictation invokes learners' internalized expectancy grammar. It also makes learners listen attentively, trains them in distinguishing sounds and converting spoken language to written language. Acknowledging the testing function of dictation, Morris (1983) views dictation as a learning activity which helps learners in listening and writing more accurately as well as in reinforcing grammar and vocabulary. Whitaker (1976) claims that "… wherever aural

comprehension is prized, together with literacy and ability to read the FL [Foreign Language], dictation may be found to be both profitable for teaching, and valid for testing" (p. 92). Valette (1964) also believes that dictation helps learners in language learning by invoking their awareness of the written language. Lambert (1986) and Kelly (1992) believe that the combination of input from two channels, eye and ear, is more effective for second language comprehension and memory than one-channel inputs. Jafarpur and Yamini (1993) also consider dictation as a dual-access processing model which "…allows the language learner to both comprehend and produce the language in the context of meaningful discourse" (p. 360).

### Validity of dictation

Dictation is a valid technique to measure language proficiency (Kaga 1991; Farhady and Malekpour, 1997), although it may be inconsistent with current research and theory on communicative competence. It is believed that language proficiency consists of several interrelated components, not just one language component which can be measured by dictation (Bachman & Palmer 1981, 1982). Using dictation is also incompatible with the theoretical perspectives on second language proficiency provided by Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1981). These emphasize the importance of language for communication in real life. In contrast, dictation requires a verbatim recall and taking down of what is auditorily presented, an activity which is rarely related to daily communication.

In answer to the above-mentioned contradictions Fouly and Cziko (1985, p. 556) stated:

The theoretical basis of the dictation procedure as a measure of language proficiency lies not in any superficial similarity to "real" language use, but rather is grounded in the similar types of knowledge [expectancy grammar] and psychological processes believed to underlie both language use and dictation test performance (p. 556).

Validity of dictation has also been questioned by those critics who believe that dictation measures lower-order skills rather than higher-order ones (Alderson, 1978). However, some believe that successful performance in dictation entails using both lower and higher order abilities (Oller, 1979, Cohen, 1980). Cai (2013), for example, compared partial dictation and gap-filling on summaries which is believed to measure more higher order skills. He concluded that "partial dictation measures the same construct as test forms believed to measure more higher-order abilities" (p. 177).

## III. METHOD

### Participants

A total of 31 elementary female learners aged between 14 and 16 participated in this study. The participants, who were attending TICE English Language School in Sabzevar, Iran, were randomly assigned to control (N=15) and experimental (N=16) groups. The class met for 27 sessions of two hours. Both groups were conducted by the same instructor who was also the first researcher.

The subjects had learned English through print in the formal educational system of Iran which puts more emphasis on the written mode of language, especially reading, at the expense of the spoken mode. Consequently, the language spoken in the subjects' schools was their native language, Farsi. Their only exposure to spoken English in school has been limited to listening to either their non-native teachers reading a passage or a tape/CD recorded by non-native speakers. They were chosen because they represented a block of elementary learners whose familiarity with spoken English was limited, what the nature of this study demands.

### Instrument

A partial dictation test was prepared by the first researcher to serve as the instrument of the study. It was mainly chosen and adopted from the participants' course book, *"Top Notch Fundamentals"* (Saslow & Asher, 2012) and an additional book, *"Tactics for Listening"* by Richards (2010). The latter provides some partial dictation exercises for each unit. The level and content of the book corresponds to those of the participants' course book.

After selecting the dictations, the deleted words were checked to determine if they had been covered during the term and if they were familiar for the learners. Some deletions were replaced and some words were deleted. In deleting the words, the following points were taken into account:

1. The words to be deleted were mostly content words.
2. They were chosen in a way that they could not be easily guessed by the test-takers from the context.
3. Most of the blanks started at the second sentence.
4. For each blank only one word was deleted.

The number of deleted words and syllables for each section of the test is presented in Table1.

TABLE 1
NUMBER OF DELETED WORDS AND SYLLABLES FOR THE PARTIAL DICTATION TEST

|  | Dictation 1 | Dictation 2 | Dictation 3 | Dictation 4 | Dictation 5 | Dictation 6 | total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Deleted words | 2 | 7 | 8 | 8 | 9 | 5 | 39 |
| Deleted syllables | 3 | 8 | 10 | 11 | 13 | 13 | 58 |

Altogether, there were 58 syllables (39 words) deleted. The dictations were ordered based on their level of difficulty with the easiest one at the beginning and the hardest one at the end of the test.

The test consisted of six conversations. Dictation 1, with only two words deleted, was a conversation about giving directions and served as warm-up. Dictation 2 was a conversation in which two people were greeting. In Dictation 3

THEORY AND PRACTICE IN LANGUAGE STUDIES

dates and months were deleted and in Dictation 4 the deleted words were related to clothing. The blanks of Dictation 5 were related to family and jobs. The last section, Dictation 6, presented a conversation in which words relevant to occupations and places were deleted.

After the test was ready, it was reviewed by two qualified teachers of the same book for appropriacy of level, relevance of content, and familiarity of the deleted words for the learners. After being judged to have face and content validity, the test was examined for reliability. The Cronbach's alpha reliability of the test was found to be .84.

### Procedure

#### Scoring procedure

After the data were collected, the exam papers were scored. To ensure consistency in scoring, the papers were scored by two raters according to pre-established scoring rules. When contradictions in scoring appeared, the raters discussed the issues to reach an agreement.

The following rules were used in scoring the partial dictation test:

1. Based on Farhady and Malekpour's recommendation (1997), syllable was considered as unit of scoring. Therefore, each syllable written correctly was given a point. For example, the word *receptionist* received four points, one for each syllable while the word *great* was given only one point since it has only one syllable. The word *going* which was spelled as *doing* by some participants received only one point since only the second syllable was written correctly.

2. Spelling errors, based on Brown (2004), were ignored as long as the words seemed to have been heard correctly. An example was the word *phone* which was written as *phon* by some test-takers. However, if a test-taker wrote a word with different meaning and spelling but same pronunciation (homophone) instead of the original word, it was not given any score. Some examples of this type of error were: writing *have* instead of *how*, *leave* instead of *live*, and *were* instead of *wear*.

3. Grammatical errors such as *can* instead of *can't* were considered as errors and given no point on the grounds that they had not been heard correctly.

4. Illegible (difficult and impossible to read) words and additional words not in the original text were given no points.

#### The experiment

Although the participants were judged to be homogeneous by the placement test of the institute, to ensure it further, they were also given a standardized partial dictation test at the onset of the study. The test revealed that the learners of the two groups were homogeneous. Since the participants were not familiar with the nature of spoken-based classes, starting the experiment was delayed in order for them to gain some experience of such classes. Consequently, they took the pretest on the sixth session.

After the sixth session, the experiment, which took 20 sessions, started. During the experiment, transcribing exercise was assigned to the experimental group as their homework. They were required to transcribe the listening sections and the videos of each unit of their course book (the script of these parts were not available for the students). Supplementary materials of the same topic and level were also chosen from "*Tactics for Listening*".

Each session, learners' homework was checked at the beginning of the class. The teacher randomly called one student at a time to read her transcription aloud while others were supposed to check their transcriptions. If the reader made a mistake, other students corrected her. If a mistake went unnoticed by the learners, the teacher would play that part for the learners and would ask them to listen carefully in order to catch what they had missed. If the learners failed to do so, the teacher himself would provide the correct word(s) for them.

The homework of the control group consisted of only listening to/watching the same files as the experimental group without any transcribing. At the onset of each session, the participants were randomly asked some questions from their homework. Each session every student answered at least one question.

After 20 sessions, the learners sat the partial dictation posttest in Session 26. First, the subjects listened to the teacher's instructions on how to do the test. Then they listened to each conversation twice before moving on to the next one. There was a pause of 15 seconds after each playing. While listening to the audio, the students read an incomplete transcript of the recording with 39 blanks to fill in.

Then the papers were scored by the same raters who had scored the pretest and according to the same rules used in scoring the pretest. The data were finally ready for the next step, data analysis.

#### Data analysis

The data collected through the instrument of the study underwent several statistical analyses. First, Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Shapiro–Wilk tests of normality were employed to examine if the data followed a normal distribution. Then Levene's test was used to test homogeneity of variances in the two groups. The results of these test revealed that the data were parametric. In other words, they had normal distribution and homogenous variances. Therefore, an independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare the means of the two groups after the intervention.

## IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A cursory examination of the descriptive statistics, which is presented in Table 2, indicated a difference between the means of the two groups. However, further analysis was needed to determine whether the differences were significant or not.

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TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PARTIAL DICTATION POSTTEST

| | Group | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Error | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Dictation posttests | Experimental | 16 | 36 | 52 | 43.87 | 1.16 | 4.67 |
| | Control | 15 | 22 | 46 | 35.00 | 1.70 | 6.59 |

Since the data collected through the instrument were parametric, an independent samples *t* test was employed to see whether the observed difference between the two groups was statistically significant or not. The results of this test are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3
RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES t TEST FOR PARTIAL DICTATION POSTTEST

| | | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% CI LL | UL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Dictation | Equal variances assumed | 4.34 | 29 | .00 | 8.87 | 2.04 | 4.69 | 13.05 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | 4.30 | 25.10 | .00 | 8.87 | 2.06 | 4.62 | 13.12 |

Based upon these test results, the difference between the dictation ability of the experimental and control groups was statistically significant. This indicates that transcribing has had a positive effect on the dictation ability of the experimental group. The effect size for this analysis ($d = 1.71$) was found to exceed Cohen's (1988) convention for a large effect ($d = .80$).

As mentioned in the Section 1 of this study, dictation is usually treated as a device to achieve purposes such as improving listening and writing abilities. Since dictation integrates different skills and sub-skills, finding a technique which helps improving dictation is helping to the improvement of more than one area of language. Finding such a skill seems to be necessary because, based on the teaching experience of the researchers, when learners practice for a dictation test, they usually look at the words/sentences to be dictated and write them down several times. This does not seem to be a valid practice since the input provided by this type of practice is different from that of the test they are preparing for. That is, in the traditional way of practicing for dictation, the input is visual. However, in dictation test the input is aural. Because of similar types of input, procedure, and output in transcribing and dictation, transcribing seems to be a valid technique to improve dictation.

Considering the positive effect of transcribing on dictation, EFL teachers' of elementary levels are advised to include transcribing exercise as one of the techniques at their proposal to develop elementary EFL leaners' overall language proficiency. Learners are also advised to use transcribing when they prepare for a dictation test.

## V. CONCLUSION

Dictation has been mostly used either as a holistic measure of language proficiency or as a means to help learners develop different language skills and sub-skills. Accepting these functions of dictation entails accepting that a technique which improves dictation also helps developing overall language proficiency. This study proposed transcribing and examined its effect on novice learners' ability in taking dictation. The results show that transcribing has a positive effect on learners' dictation ability. Therefore, teachers are recommended to assign transcribing exercise as homework. Moreover, considering similar procedures of dictation and transcribing, learners are encouraged to use transcribing in order to prepare for a dictation test.

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# Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

## Aims and Scope

**Theory and Practice in Language Studies (TPLS)** is a peer-reviewed international journal dedicated to promoting scholarly exchange among teachers and researchers in the field of language studies. The journal is published monthly.

*TPLS* carries original, full-length articles and short research notes that reflect the latest developments and advances in both theoretical and practical aspects of language teaching and learning. We particularly encourage articles that share an interdisciplinary orientation, articles that bridge the gap between theory and practice, and articles in new and emerging areas of research that reflect the challenges faced today.

*Areas of interest include*: language education, language teaching methodologies, language acquisition, bilingualism, literacy, language representation, language assessment, language education policies, applied linguistics, as well as language studies and other related disciplines: psychology, linguistics, pragmatics, cognitive science, neuroscience, ethnography, sociolinguistics, sociology, and anthropology, literature, phonetics, phonology, and morphology.

## Special Issue Guidelines

Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 10 to 15 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
- Review process for the selection and rejection of papers
- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
  - o Submission of extended version
  - o Notification of acceptance
  - o Final submission due
  - o Time to deliver final package to the publisher

If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
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*(Contents Continued from Back Cover)*