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Contents

REGULAR PAPERS

- | | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| Knowledge Construction and Negotiation of Leadership in Collaborative Talks among Multilingual Students
<i>Ruilan Zhao</i> | 1 |
| Learners' L1 Use in a Task-based Classroom: Learning Chinese as a Foreign Language from a Sociocultural Perspective
<i>Rui Bao and Xiangyun Du</i> | 12 |
| The Construct Validity of a Reading Test Based on Narrative Texts
<i>Godefroid B. Katalayi and Sivakumar Sivasubramaniam</i> | 21 |
| English Speakers Learning Spanish: Perception Issues Regarding Vowels and Stress
<i>Sofía Romanelli and Andrea C. Menegotto</i> | 30 |
| Relationship between Learners' German Language Communicative Abilities and Their Prior Performance in a National Ugandan Certificate Examination
<i>Samuel Sekiziyivu and Christopher Byalusago Mugimu</i> | 43 |
| Making Complaints—Proficiency Effects on Instructor- and Peer-directed Email Correspondence
<i>Chi-yin Hong</i> | 53 |
| Translating <i>Le Monde</i> and <i>El País</i> English Business Loan Terms into Arabic: A Corpus-based Analysis
<i>Mohamed M. Mostafa</i> | 61 |
| Competency of Teaching English in Indian Context: A Situational Analysis
<i>Baishalee Rajkhowa and Swarnalata Das</i> | 71 |
| Exploring the Harmony between Jordanian EFL Teachers' and Students' Beliefs about Vocabulary Learning Strategies
<i>Mohammad Abd Alhafeez Ali Ta'amneh</i> | 78 |
| Some Reflections on the Relationships between Bilingualism, Intelligence Quotient (IQ) and Error Making in Teaching of English as a Foreign Language in Mali
<i>Mamadou Gueye</i> | 85 |
| EFL Undergraduates' Awareness of Translation Errors in Their Everyday Environment
<i>Chin-Wen Chien</i> | 91 |
| Interactional Patterns in Face-to-face and Synchronous Computer-mediated Communication in Problem-based Learning Contexts
<i>Worasiri Boonsue, Anchalee Jansem, and Sirinan Srinaowaratt</i> | 99 |
-

Questioning Powers of the Students in the Class <i>Murni Mahmud</i>	111
The Impact of Linguistic Imperialism on Iranian EFL Learners' Home Culture Detachment <i>Mahshid Hejazi and Azar Hosseini Fatemi</i>	117
Graded English Series (GES)—A Possible Way Out for the Reform of the English Teaching in China <i>Tian Wang and Jianhe Xie</i>	123
The Impact of Undergraduate Students' Learning Preferences (VARK Model) on Their Language Achievement <i>Hessam Moayyeri</i>	132
Increasing Motivation at University Level: A Paradigm of Action Research <i>Illahi Bux Gopang, Abdul Fattah Soomro, and Faraz Ali Bughio</i>	140
The Impact of Group Formation Method (Student-selected vs. Teacher-assigned) on Group Dynamics and Group Outcome in EFL Creative Writing <i>Jaleh Hassaskhah and Hamideh Mozaffari</i>	147
Analysis of the Translators' Social and Psychological Trends from the Perspective of Intertextuality <i>Wenyiing Zhang and Nan Zhao</i>	157
The Comparative Impact of Visual Aids and Contextualization on Field-dependent and Field-independent EFL Learners' Vocabulary Retention <i>Behdokht Mall-Amiri and Masoomah Arabgol</i>	163
Discourse Mastery Based on Indonesian Language Teaching Skills of the Second Grade Students in Senior High School, Pangkep Regency <i>Paris, Ide Said, Akmal Hamsa, and Mahmudah</i>	172
The Impact of Attending EFL Classes on the Iranian Female Learners' Attributional Complexity <i>Nazanin Saryazdi and Azar Hosseini Fatemi</i>	179
An Empirical Study of Blog-assisted EFL Process Writing: Evidence from Chinese Non-English Majors <i>Haiyan Zhou</i>	189
The Influence of Concept Mapping on Reading Comprehension of Iranian English Students Employing Persuasive and Descriptive Texts <i>Vahideh Beydarani</i>	196
When Metaphors Cross Cultures <i>Maisarah M. Almirabi</i>	204
Exploring Flow Theory in TOEFL Texts: Expository and Argumentative Genre <i>Zeinab Azizi and Behzad Ghonsooly</i>	210
A Contrastive Analysis of Connotations of “蛇(<i>she</i>)” and “Snake” <i>Chen Chen and Xiaohui Shan</i>	216
On the Translation of Advertisements: A Comparative Study of English-Persian Verbal Metaphors <i>Shakiba Fadaee and Mahmood Hashemian</i>	225
Politeness in Buginese Language as a Social Status Symbol in Wajo Regency <i>Haerany Halim, Sjahrudin Kaseng, Zainuddin Taha, and Akmal Hamsa</i>	230

Knowledge Construction and Negotiation of Leadership in Collaborative Talks among Multilingual Students

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Abstract—This article examines multilingual students' collaborative talks in a TESOL graduate seminar. A group of multilingual students discussed an assigned reading on language awareness and teaching methodology. The group discussion was video recorded and analyzed using a micro-ethnographic discourse analysis approach. The study investigated how multilingual students constructed academic knowledge and learning tool in group work. The author argues that knowledge is socially constructed through collaboration and dialogues among students with different linguistic, sociocultural, and educational backgrounds. This study also examined how multilingual students negotiated leadership in collaborative talks. The more experienced student, who is the native English speaker, assumed leadership through active participation. The less experienced students, who are non-native English speakers tried to gain leadership using their native language and cultural knowledge. It suggests that multilingual students, particular non-native English speakers, should actively participate in academic knowledge construction and bring in their linguistic and cultural resources to the classroom.

Index Terms—classroom discourse, collaboration, group interaction, discourse analysis, knowledge construction, leadership, multilingual students, TESOL students

I. INTRODUCTION

Group work has become increasingly popular in higher education context (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 2007). As an alternative approach to teacher-centered instruction, collaborative learning has been integrated in graduate level courses in forms of group presentation (Leki, 2001), group discussion (Kim, 2006), and group writing (Storch, 2011). However, participating in oral discussion poses a great challenge to multilingual students, who have diverse linguistic and cultural background and different expectations of group interaction (Leki, 2001; Liu, 2001; Morita, 2004; Seloni, 2012). Thus it is worth exploring social interaction among multilingual students in group work. One important aspect pertinent to their social interaction is the power relationship when they construct knowledge in group work.

The theoretical standpoint of the study stems primarily from Gumperz's (1982) interactional sociolinguistics. Adopting a micro-ethnographic approach to the discourse analysis of classroom events (Bloome, Carter, Christian, Otto, & Shuart-Faris, 2005), this study examined the collaborative discourse of multilingual students in the field of TESOL, with an emphasis on how they constructed academic knowledge and negotiated leadership during a classroom group discussion. Collaborative discourse is conceptualized as a social process in which individuals work together to construct knowledge and learning tool by using language and other semiotic tools (Pea, 1993). The study is guided by the following questions:

- 1) How do multilingual students in TESOL construct academic knowledge as they participate in group discussion?
- 2) In relation to the construction of knowledge, how do multilingual students negotiate leadership with their peers?

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Social constructionism theory provides theoretical lens to view language-in-use in classroom. One important concept pertaining to the discussion about knowledge construction is Bakhtin's (1981) notion of utterance. Bakhtin made the distinction between an utterance and a sentence. He argued that each utterance is unrepeatable and unique in its context. An utterance is spoken by a certain person at a particular time and space and is addressed to a particular someone else. Therefore, the meaning of words in an utterance varies and depends on who speaks to whom, when, where, and how (Bloome et al., 2005). Voloshinov (1973) also emphasized this dialogical relationship of words in the utterances:

Word is a two-sided act. It is determined equally by *whose* word it is and *for whom* it is meant. As a word, it is precisely the product of the reciprocal relationship between speaker and listener, addresser and addressee. (p. 86, emphasis in original)

The above view toward the meaning of a word is important to understand knowledge construction. Voloshinov (1973) argued "[t]he word is implicated in literally each and every act or contact between people – in collaboration on the job, in ideological exchanges, in the chance contacts of ordinary life, in political relationship, and so on" (p. 19). From a

social constructionism perspective, meaning is negotiated and co-constructed among interlocutors in a social event. Therefore, knowledge is co-constructed through people acting and reacting to each other (Bloome et al., 2005; Erickson & Shultz, 1977), and through each and every reflection and refraction of reality (Voloshinov, 1973). Furthermore, Pea (1993) argued that “knowledge is commonly socially constructed, through collaborative efforts towards shared objectives or by dialogues and challenges brought about by differences in persons’ perspectives” (p. 48).

In a similar vein, Gergen (2009) proposed that social constructionism shifts the emphasis from individual learning to collaborative learning. He stated that such collaboration of knowledge construction underscores three important relationships: between teachers and students, among students and peers, and between classroom and the broader social contexts. This study is particularly interested in the relationship among peers and their joint effort to construct knowledge as a group. Social constructionism theory calls for a turn from monologic interaction to dialogic interaction in the classroom (Wells & Arauz, 2006). Such a shift highlights the important changes in classroom interaction. For instance, it expands the domain of students’ participation; it challenges initiation-response-evaluation (Mehan, 1985) pattern of classroom discourse.

Social constructionism theory also offers an alternative lens to examine leadership. According to Gergen (2009), leadership emerges from the way people interact and exists in the collaborative relations with others. In a classroom, when students work in groups on joint tasks, they are negotiating their relationship through discoursing with each other. Evans (1993) investigated peer-led literature discussions and the factors that influence the discourse and participation structures in such group work. Her study demonstrated that the group interactions were influenced by the power relationships among participants due to gender, social status, and ethnicity. Goatley, Brock, and Raphel (1995) studied small-group literature discussions of students with diverse linguistic, social, and cultural backgrounds. They examined the meaning construction of literary texts and the participation modes of those students in peer-led literature discussions. Their results showed that students assume different roles and responsibilities while negotiating their understanding of the texts with their peers. Some students assume leadership role by asking questions, offering statements, initiating new topics, directing the conversation, or accessing the floor. Other students acted more as participants rather than as leaders in the group. In the present study, factors including language, culture and academic experience are considered while examining the negotiation of leadership among multilingual students. These factors may influence the power relationship and the participation patterns of their interactions.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *The Classroom Context*

The study was conducted in a graduate seminar in a TESOL program at a large Midwestern university in the United States. The seminar was Foundations of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), which provided an overview of cognitive and linguistic aspects of SLA. The seminar was organized via lectures, group work, and student-led discussion. The particular classroom events being examined were student-led discussion of the assigned reading. Normally, there were approximately 15 students attending the seminar. For each lesson, two students took the role of facilitators and guided the discussion on a given topic. The rest of the class was divided into three groups with 3-4 members in each group. The classroom events usually consist of several steps:

- 1) Facilitators prepare an activity that organizes group discussion on a reading assignment;
- 2) Each group discusses the assigned reading and creates a graphic organizer to summarize the reading, highlight important concepts or raise questions;
- 3) Each group presents the graphic organizer to the whole class;
- 4) Facilitators summarize the whole discussion.

B. *The Broader Social Context*

The broader social context of the above classroom events has multiple layers (Bloome, Beierle, Grigorenko, & Goldman, 2009). To describe the social context, different layers represent “different levels of context that simultaneously constitute, and are constituted by, the levels above and below them” (Cole 1995, p. 108). In the macro-level institutional context, graduate students’ presentation skills and classroom participation are highly valued. In the meso-level classroom context, the teacher provides graduate students with learning opportunities to co-construct classroom discourse collaboratively. The micro-level context of lessons consists of various topics of SLA theory and research, which include age-related factors, cross-linguistic influence, cognition, language awareness etc.

C. *Data Collection*

Data were collected in ten consecutive weeks through videotaping, audio recording, photographing, classroom observation, and follow-up interview. The entire student-led discussion was video recorded. Each group’s collaborative talk was audio recorded separately. The artifacts (i.e. the graphic organizers on chart papers) generated during their collaboration were documented using a digital camera. In the meantime, the researcher observed the whole class and kept field notes. Interviews were conducted after class to get the participants’ emic perspectives of the classroom events. The corpus of data consist of 6 hours of video recording, 18 hours of audio recording, 9 copies of the graphic organizers, and 3 hours interviews with the focal participants.

The focal event was the group discussion on ‘language awareness (LA) and teaching methodology’ (Svalberg, 2007). This event happened in the middle of the semester. The larger corpus of data was used as a broader context to assist the interpretation of this chosen event (Bloome et al., 2009). Four students participated in the discussion. A summary of their profile is given in Table I. Before this focal event, all four participants were familiar with the expectation of group work and they had collaborated with each other in previous group discussions as well.

TABLE I.
THE PROFILE OF THE FOCAL PARTICIPANTS

Participant	Sam	Jenny	Sophia	Mina
Country of origin	America	South Korea	South Korea	Indonesia
First language	English	Korean	Korean	Indonesian
Additional language(s)	Chinese, Korean, Nepali	English	English	English
Gender	Male	Female	Female	Female
Academic experience	MA in TESOL, taught English in China, Nepal, and South Korea for six years	MA in TESOL, No substantial teaching experience	MA in TESOL, No substantial teaching experience	A visiting scholar for short term, taught English in Indonesia

This event was selected for two reasons. First, the discussion topic ‘language awareness and teaching methodology’ well represents the content of a TESOL graduate seminar. After screening the corpus of video and audio data, this literacy event was selected as a “representative case” of the literacy practices which Street (2000) defined as the “broader cultural conception of particular ways of thinking about and doing reading and writing in cultural contexts” (p. 22). Second, an alternative way to view literacy events is focusing on how interlocutors create meaning through acting and reacting to each other (Bloome et al., 2005). The selected literacy event demonstrated the action and reactions of group members at the level of face-to-face interaction.

D. Data Analysis

This study used a micro-ethnographic discourse analysis approach (Bloome et al. 2005). The classroom event was analyzed on a line-by-line, message-by-message basis. According to the analytic framework of Green and Wallat (1981), the unit of analysis in this study was a message unit which contains the smallest conversational meaning. The message unit was determined in a post hoc manner. The boundary of message units was segmented by considering the message context (Erickson & Shultz, 1977) and contextualization cues, including paralinguistic/prosodic cues and nonverbal cues (Gumperz, 1992). After parsing individual message units, the conversational functions or strategies of message units were identified (Bloome & Egan-Robertson, 1993; Green & Wallat, 1981).

After describing message units, the next step was to identify interactional units, which were defined as thematically tied message units based on conversational cohesion (Green & Wallat, 1981). Thus, message units formed interactional units with consideration of contextualization cues, context, and conversational cohesion. In this study, the 12-minute group interaction consisted of six interactional units. In addition to the contextual evidence, interview data were used to support the analysis.

IV. RESULTS

A. Description of the Focal Event

The group discussion begins with Sam’s demonstration of his understanding about the assigned reading. He introduces his own visual representation – a triangle consisting of learners, teaching, and languages at each corner. After displaying his knowledge of the article, Sam asks his peers’ opinions about the article. The other group members – Sophia, Jenny, and Mina – share their ideas. The four group members create a graphic organizer to represent their understanding of the article. The group first draws a school building with five floors representing five features of language teaching methodology. Second, they create a teacher holding the school building and identify several crucial language teaching techniques for the teacher. Afterward, the group attempts to make connections between teaching methodology and techniques. Finally, they build up a school-teacher image to present their shared knowledge about language awareness and language teaching. Fig. I represents the artifact that was created by the group during collaborative talks.

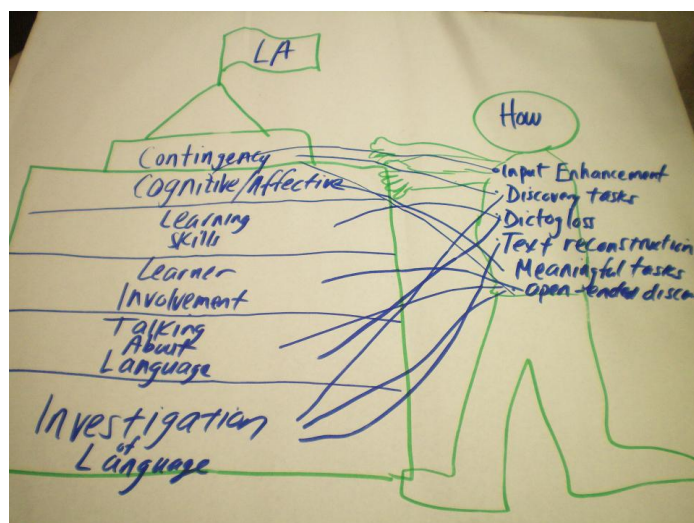


Figure 1. The graphic organizer created by the group

B. Construction of Academic Knowledge

Transcript 1: displaying understanding and knowledge

- 1 **Sam:** Mm | yeah so yeah to me
 2 The article even this particular section was about these three+
 3 (Pointing to his graphic organizer – the triangle)
 4 **Jenny:** I can see that yes
 5 **Sam:** XXXX that's how I visualize it
 6 Was just learners teaching and languages and
 7 How do you how do teachers raise the awareness of learners ↑
 8 **Jenny:** How do teachers XXXX
 9 **Sam:** Tech techniques
 10 And there was like the tenets
 11 The tenets being like the main parts of teaching SLA teaching
 12 And then what from the language
 13 What aspects of the language do we want to highlight ↑
 14 **Jenny:** Um-hum
 15 **Sam:** As teachers what aspects of the language do we want the learners to notice ↑
 16 **Jenny:** Um-hum
 17 **Sam:** So that was like you can break language into sounds words and morphemes=
 18 **Jenny:** =Linguistic features
 19 **Sam:** But there is also like the discourse genre features
 20 which could be reading writing speaking listening
 21 And then within reading and writing like writing you want them to notice
 22 Umm, different discourses in writing
 23 Is it academic ↑
 24 Is it poetry ↑
 25 Informal ↑ formal ↑
 26 **Sophia:** Um-hum
 27 **Sam:** Ah so I guess that that relates to you know these techniques
 28 So enhancing highlighting explicit teaching versus implicit teaching
 29 **Sophia:** Um-hum

Transcript 1 is the first interactional unit in which Sam displays his knowledge about the reading. At the beginning, he uses the phrase “to me” (line 1) to indicate his own interpretation of the article. Jenny responds to Sam’s initiation (line 4). In line 6, Sam states that the article is about “learners, teaching, and languages.” In the following lines, Sam positions the whole group as teachers by rephrasing the question “how do you” into “how do teachers”. According to the interview, Sam has six years teaching experience before coming into the graduate program. Currently he is teaching undergraduate courses in the same institution. Therefore, it is perhaps not surprising that he brings his teacher identity into the discussion. Later, he explicitly defines the whole group as teachers, for example, he uses the collective pronoun “we” and the phrase “as teachers” in line 15.

In the following conversation, Sam continues to discuss the aspects of teaching and languages. He talks about the tenets of SLA teaching (lines 9-11), different aspects of language (lines 13-15), linguistic features (lines 17-18),

discourse and genre features (lines 19-25), and finally teaching techniques (lines 27-28). Sam controls the floor most of the time, while other students constantly backchannel (e.g. um-hum) their engagement in the conversation. After Sam proposes that language can be categorized into different aspects, Jenny helps him describe these aspects as “linguistic features” in lines 17-18. Another issue worth noting is that Sam frequently uses interrogative sentences and raising intonation to provoke group members’ thoughts, which to some extent grants him the leadership role in the first segment of the interaction, for instance, in line 7, 13, 15, 23, 24, and 25.

In short, transcript 1 shows that in the process of displaying knowledge, Sam is not simply repeating what is in the article, but reconstructs the text by incorporating his understanding as a student and teacher. Learners can bring in their educational history and personal experience into the interpretation. Because of their diverse languages and cultural backgrounds, the group members may understand what counts as knowledge differently. In this interactional unit, Sam considers that personal understanding and experience are as important as the text itself when constructing academic knowledge. By displaying his conceptual understanding, he not only moves the group task forward but also actively engages in building academic knowledge. Other peers’ comprehension about knowledge construction will be explored in the next interactional unit.

Transcript 2: negotiating understanding and knowledge

- 30 **Sam:** Did you have ↑ what was your idea ↑
 31 Sophia: I |||
 32 **Sam:** What’s our time limit ↑
 33 **Facilitator:** About five more minutes
 34 **Sam:** Ok we were just XXXX
 35 **Sophia:** Actually it was long time along I read this article
 36 Yeah I just remove all other things
 37 In the third part
 38 I only focused on the five features
 39 **Sam:** Hmm |||
 40 *The group remains silent for 15 seconds then Sam speaks to Mina*
 41 **Sam:** So how are you thinking we could organize this ↑
 42 Did you have any idea as you are reading ↑
 43 **Mina:** Yes | I just got the copy
 44 **Sam:** You just got the copy
 45 Ok ok well, yeah it is a pretty lengthy article | so
 46 Jenny how did you organize it ↑
 47 **Jenny:** I used tables and XXXX
 48 I divided it as the cognitive part, educational part, social input, and political
 49 **Sam:** *Oh*
 50 **Jenny:** So it was different from yours but
 51 **Sam:** We could have two triangles
 52 **Jenny:** But mine | we are supposed to focus on one right ↑
 53 **Sam:** You said you have cognitive part =
 54 **Jenny:** = educational social and political
 55 But we are assigned to the educational one here
 56 **Sam:** Right ok
 57 **Jenny:** And from here I thought the principles for LA studies and methodology
 58 **Sam:** Um-hum
 59 **Jenny:** The short part that Sophia just mentioned the techniques
 60 And then about teachers’ LA
 61 How teachers are supposed to be aware of this and their teaching of the language
 62 **Sam:** Ok

In the second interactional unit represented in transcript 2, Sam initiates the negotiation of knowledge by asking a direct question to his peers. In line 30, Sam asks “what was your idea” which implies that knowledge includes personal idea or understanding. In line 31, Sophia takes the floor and tries to respond to Sam’s question. However, her response is interrupted by Sam’s side conversation with the facilitator (lines 32-34). Interestingly, it seems that Sam begins to establish the leadership role in the group by asking the facilitator the time limit for the task. In lines 35-38, Sophia continues to give her opinion. In line 38, Sophia states that she only focuses on the five features that are explicitly stated in the article without further justifying her ideas. This message shows that Sophia only considers what appear in the text count as knowledge, which is quite different from Sam’s viewpoint. This is followed by a long silence in line 40, which suggests that Sam expects more explanation from Sophia.

After the long pause, Sam turns to other peers to solicit their ideas. In the following two message units (lines 41 and 42), he first uses the collective pronoun “we” to signify the group relation; then he immediately asks Mina what her idea is. Again, this demonstrates that Sam considers personal understanding as an indispensable component of knowledge

construction. Nonetheless, Mina's response in line 43 implies that she has not finished reading the article thus she does not have much to contribute to the discussion. Interestingly, in line 45, Sam seems to mitigate the tension by saying "it is a pretty lengthy article" and using hedges such as "ok ok well." To some extent, his reaction can be interpreted as a face-saving act to sustain group interaction.

In line 46, Sam directly asks Jenny's opinion. In the next two message units (lines 47 and 48), Jenny explains that she divides the article into subsections and uses a table to organize the article. Sam's acknowledgement and paralinguistic cue (i.e. changing his pitch in line 49) show his interest in Jenny's response. Even though Jenny points out that her organization is different from his (line 50), Sam still tries to incorporate Jenny's idea by saying "we could have two triangles" in the following message, which can be seen as an instance of co-construction of knowledge. In lines 52 to 56, Jenny and Sam agree that they should focus on the educational part. Then Jenny continues talking about the "five features" that was mentioned earlier by Sophia in line 38. Here, aligning one's idea with a peer can be interpreted as another instance of co-construction of knowledge. At last, Jenny briefly explains the concept of teachers' language awareness in lines 60 and 61.

In summary, the group tries to integrate everybody's idea, as exemplified in lines 51 and 59. However, the three female students – Sophia, Jenny and Mina – provide limited understanding about the article. It might be because Sophia and Jenny lack teaching experience thus they do not incorporate their personal understanding. In the case of Mina, apparently she does not prepare the task well. In addition, transcript 2 shows some interesting findings regarding constructing leadership. Sam initiates the negotiation of understanding by asking direct questions to his peers three times (lines 30, 41, 42, and 46). Besides, he takes the responsibility of managing time for discussion (lines 32 to 34), which shows that he asserts his leadership through interactions with his peers.

Transcripts 1 and 2 demonstrate that knowledge is not static, and is socially constructed across multiple levels of context (i.e. the individual level, the classroom context, and the institutional context) and across learners' educational history (i.e., past experience, current status as graduate students, and dual roles as a student and teacher). Knowledge is also co-constructed by sharing different persons' perspectives, adding new values, juxtaposing upon each other's ideas, and offering explanation and critiques. However, the native speaker Sam who has more teaching experience participates deeply in building academic knowledge. In contrast, the other three non-native English speaking female students show quite limited engagement in constructing academic knowledge. In the next section, I will continue to explore how group members construct the graphic organizer through their collaborative discourse.

C. Creation of Graphic Organizer Using Metaphor

Transcript 3(a): creating the graphic organizer – part one

- 63 **Sam:** How about we draw a school
 64 **Sophia:** School ↑
 65 **Sam:** School ↓
 66 A school building and we can have five floors
 67 **Sophia:** Ah yeah yeah
 68 **Jenny:** Wow you are good
 69 **Sam:** Well I just saw your table
 70 So does anyone a good artist ↑
 71 Can you draw a school or just a building ↑
 72 *The group unfolds a chart paper on the desk*
 73 **Jenny:** A really big building
 74 **Sam:** Yeah and we can have like
 75 **Facilitator:** Wow school (*Facilitator thumbs up*)
 76 **Jenny:** It is his idea (*Pointing to Sam*)
 77 *Sophia picks up a blue marker and tries to draw a school*
 78 **Sam:** You must be a good artist
 79 **Sophia:** No no no no no
 80 **Sam:** You are Korean
 81 **Jenny:** What does that mean (*laughs*)
 82 **Sam:** Anytime I ask my students to do art work
 83 they would just create these brilliant [portraits]
 84 **Sophia:** [Right right right I'm not Korean (*laughs*)]
 85 *Sophia drops down the blue marker*

Transcripts 3(a) and 3(b) form the third interactional unit. It illustrates how the group attempts to construct the first half of the graphic organizer. In line 63, Sam makes a suggestion "how about we draw a school." Sophia immediately questions his suggestion using a raising intonation in line 64. However, Sam affirms his idea with a falling intonation in line 65. These two message units are quite interesting when looking at the prosodic cues (Gumperz, 1992). If Sophia's raising intonation was interpreted as a challenge to Sam's suggestion of drawing a school, Sam's confirmative intonation somewhat embodied his authoritative stance. In line 66, Sam justifies "we can have five floors" to represent the five features of teaching methodology. Thus he identifies a key metaphor to integrate different ideas. In the next two

lines, both Sophia and Jenny accept his suggestion. In addition, Sam uses the collective pronoun “we” twice (lines 63 and 66) to signify that the whole group is constructing this graphic organizer together. In lines 68 and 69, Sam integrates Jenny’s table into the graphic representation, which again shows that they are co-constructing the graphic organizer as a joint activity.

After the group agrees upon his suggestion, Sam first assigns the role to Sophia in lines 70 and 71. By using the interrogative sentence and a raising intonation “can you draw a school,” Sam positions himself as the leader. When the facilitator shows great interest in the graphic organizer through both verbal and nonverbal responses (i.e. “wow school” and thumbs up in line 75), Jenny acknowledges that “it is his idea” (line 76), which validates Sam’s leadership role. In line 77, Sophia’s non-verbal behavior indicates that she wants to take up the assigned role (i.e. picking up the marker). Subsequently, Sam validates her role by making a judgment “you must be a good artist.” However, Sophia dis-validates Sam’s comment by staying “no no no no no” in line 79. From lines 80 to 85, Sam encourages Sophia to continue drawing because he believes that Korean students are usually good at creating art work from his previous teaching experience. Sophia is indeed a Korean. By stating that “I’m not Korean” sarcastically in line 84, she resists the cultural ideology that Sam imposes on her. Later, the interview data reveal why Sophia gives up drawing the school building. At this moment, Sam intended to provide encouragement to Sophia by saying “you must be a good artist.” However, Sophia understood that she must draw a perfect picture for the whole group. Sophia said if Sam had not made such a comment, she probably would give a try. However, the great peer pressure made her give up drawing and resist the role assigned by Sam.

Transcript 3(b): creating the graphic organizer – part one continued

86 **Sam:** Can you visualize it ↑

87 **Jenny:** We can use this right ↑ (*Jenny picks up the green marker*)

88 **Sam:** Yes

89 *Jenny and Sophia speak in Korean while Jenny is drawing the rectangular*

90 **Jenny:** How do I draw this ↑

91 I’m not good at drawing

92 **Sophia:** Just draw it roughly

93 **Jenny:** No I must draw it well

94 **Jenny:** I’m sorry I don’t know

95 **Sam:** It’s the tower oh+ ↑

96 **Sophia:** LA is the flag

97 **Sam:** Yes there is gonna be a flag at the top

98 So should we have five floors ↑

99 **Jenny:** Yes

100 *Sam draws the five floors with the blue marker*

101 **Sam:** Kind of like a tower of learning

102 **Jenny:** Yep

Since Sophia gives up drawing, Sam asks Jenny whether she can visualize it. Once again, Sam assumes group leadership by assigning the role to another peer using an interrogative sentence in line 86. To avoid taking up the assigned role, Jenny does not respond to Sam’s question directly; instead she asks whether “we” could use a different color in line 87. Her response is intriguing in that she uses the collective pronoun “we” to emphasize that constructing the graphic organizer is a group endeavor.

In the following segment of the conversation, Jenny and Sophia switch to their native language. Lines 89 to 93 in the rectangular are literal translation from Korean to English. Their side conversation reveals that Jenny also feels that she has the responsibility to draw the organizer very well. As her native peer, Sophia encourages her to fulfill the task in a friendly way (line 92). Switching to their native language creates a secure and comfortable space for them to express their feelings. Thus linguistic and cultural knowledge are valuable resource for multilingual students in group work. Moreover, their code switching seems to resist the dominant discourse and cultural ideology imposed by Sam. In the following interaction, the whole group works collaboratively on constructing the graphic organizer. In line 98, Sam proposes to draw five floors representing the five tenets of teaching methodology, which is immediately recognized by Jenny. Finally, Sam creates the first half of the graphic organizer (see the left part of Fig. 1).

To sum up, transcripts 3(a) and 3(b) demonstrate that the group attempts to organize their ideas by creating a graphic organizer using a metaphor. Previous interactions exemplified in transcripts 1 and 2 have shown that Sam, Sophia, and Jenny all mentioned the five tenet/features of teaching methodology. In order to recognize this shared knowledge, they create an image of a school building with five floors which visually represent the five tenets of teaching methodology. Thus, the metaphor serves as a powerful and strategic tool for integrating different persons’ ideas. The process of creating such a guiding metaphor (Gergen, 2009) and assigning roles to draw the image underscores the power dynamics among these multilingual students. Particularly, the two Korean students – Jenny and Sophia – have challenged the assigned roles and cultural ideology imposed by Sam. They use their shared native language and culture to mitigate the tension in group task. It is also interesting to observe the difference of interactional pattern between two

Korean students and that among Korean and American students. The following discussion will further explore the negotiation of leadership among them.

D. Negotiation of Leadership

Transcript 4: reflection and refraction of knowledge

103 **Sam:** So tell me what are the five tenets

104 **Jenny:** Ongoing investigation

105 This is kind of the longest

106 of language as a dynamic phenomenon

107 **Sam:** OK (*Sam writes down "investigation of language" on the chart paper*)

108 **Jenny:** Ok we will do that

109 **Jenny:** Talking analytically about the language

110 **Sam:** Ok (*Sam writes down "talking about language"*)

111 **Jenny:** Then learner involvement

112 **Sam:** Learner involvement

113 (*Sam writes down "learner involvement"*)

114 **Jenny:** Learning skills for learner independence

115 **Sam:** Ok (*Sam writes down "learner skills"*)

116 **Facilitator:** Probably about three more minutes then we will start going around and presenting the graphic organizer

117 **Jenny:** And then both cognitive and affective

118 **Sam:** Cognitive and [affective

119 **Sophia:** [affective level

120 (*Sam writes down "cognitive/affective"*)

Transcript 4 represents the fourth interactional unit where the group begins to map their shared understanding of the article into the graphic organizer that they just created (see Fig. 1). In line 103, Sam initiates the interaction by using an imperative sentence "tell me what are the five tenets", which reinforces his leadership role. In the rest of the conversation, Jenny acts as an information provider (lines 104, 106, 109, 111, 114, 117). To some extent, Jenny assumes certain degree of authority by providing the information. However, in lines 107, 110, 115, Sam rephrases the terms and writes them down on the graphic organizer, which reinforces his authority as the leader. If Jenny's reporting was considered as the reflection of knowledge from the text, Sam's rephrasing could be interpreted as the refraction of knowledge. Thus, their collaboration indicates that knowledge is co-constructed through every reflection and refraction of reality (Voloshinov, 1973); it also highlights the power relationship in gaining authority over knowledge construction.

Transcript 5: creating the graphic organizer – part two

121 **Sam:** Now we need need a teacher

122 **Sophia:** Yeah teacher

123 **Sam:** Kind of building the school

124 Can you draw a human ↑

125 **Jenny:** This color↑ (*holding a green maker*)

126 **Sam:** Um-hum ↑

127 **Jenny:** With this color ↑ (*holding the green maker*)

128 **Sam:** Can you draw a human ↑

129 **Sophia:** *Human* ↑ Yeah

130 **Sam:** A big human

131 **Jenny:** Big big human

132 **Sophia:** Ah I see

133 **Jenny:** But with this color please ↓ (*handing the green maker to Sophia*)

134 *Sam laughs*

135 **Sophia:** Err in the body you would draw other things ↑

136 **Sam:** Oh I would just draw some ideas about his head

137 He got a lot of ideas

138 **Sophia:** So head ↑ =

139 **Sam:** = no no no just like here (*Pointing to a particular area to draw the head*)

140 **Sophia:** And body ↑

141 **Sam:** Yeah

142 And some arms holding up the school

143 **Sophia:** Oh+ I see

144 **Jenny:** Maybe you can draw it (*Jenny talks to Sam*)

145 **Sophia:** Yeah yeah

146 **Sam:** I'm really bad (*Sam laughs and starts drawing the human*)

147 **Jenny:** You do this at home right ↑

- 148 **Sam:** *Oh* yeah
 149 **Jenny:** Cool
 150 **Sam:** Arms here (*Sam draws the arms*)
 151 Mm looks like a Frankstein
 152 *All laugh*

In transcript 5, which is the fifth interactional unit, the group continues to construct the second half of the graphic organizer (see the right part of Fig. 1). In line 121, Sam proposes that “now we need a teacher”. Sophia validates his proposal in the next message unit. To further justify his proposal, Sam explains the relationship between the school metaphor and the teacher metaphor in line 123. From lines 124 to 130, similar interactional patterns are observed as those in transcripts 3(a) and 3(b). Sam assigns the role to Sophia rather than drawing the image by himself. But Sophia does not take up the role until Sam reassigns the role to her in line 128. However, even though Sophia responds to Sam’s question in line 129, the change of pitch shows her uncertainty. The interview data indicate that Sophia struggles with what Sam expects her to draw. In the next few lines (lines 135 to 143), she communicates with Sam on how to draw the teacher. Sam provides detailed instruction on where and how to draw the head and the body in lines 136, 137, 139 and 142. These lines show that Sam has already visualized the graphic organizer. The fact that Sam asks his peers to create the graphic organizer following his instruction embodies his leadership. Nonetheless, after realizing that Sam has the graphic organizer in his mind, Jenny in turn reassigns the role to Sam by saying “Maybe you can draw it” in line 144. In other words, Jenny challenges Sam’s leadership role.

The analysis of the above transcripts demonstrates that multilingual students negotiate what counts as knowledge and decide what information should be included in the graphic organizer. The cultural artifact generated during collaborative talks mediates their interaction. Through the co-construction of knowledge and learning tool, Sam assumes leadership role by initiating topics, asking questions, making proposals or suggestions, monitoring the progress of group task, and assigning roles to peers. His leadership is acknowledged and sometimes challenged by his peers. The other group members – Jenny and Sophia – utilized their linguistic and cultural resources to help each other complete the task. Their different interactional patterns in constructing knowledge and negotiating leadership are due to several factors: First, teaching experience has direct relevance to leadership in this collaborative discussion. Because Sam has considerably more teaching experience than the other multilingual students, he deeply engages in academic knowledge construction and becomes more dominant in leading the discussion. Second, the difference may also due to their English language proficiency. Comparison of the first and second transcripts shows that the native speaker – Sam elaborates his thoughts more deeply than the three non-native speakers. However Jenny and Sophia are able to use their native language and shared cultural understanding to support each other. Finally, leadership is also related to the participants’ level of preparedness for the discussion. The implications of these findings are discussed in the conclusion.

V. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

The study explored the collaborative talks among multilingual TESOL graduate students in a classroom group discussion. In current higher education context, collaborative learning is being valued and increasingly employed in graduate level courses. Thus, being able to interact with peers effectively and orchestrating the discussion collaboratively have become crucial components of graduate students’ academic development. With the aim of investigating the social interactions and power dynamics, researchers and educators need to understand what is happening in the group discussion. For instance, how do graduate students construct academic knowledge? How do they use mediating tools to facilitate their learning? How do they position themselves in relation to others in the context? What are the cultural meanings and significance of those social interactions?

This study tries to shed some light on the above-mentioned issues. It expands the understanding of interactional patterns in peer-led discussions from a social constructivism perspective, particularly with regard to social construction of knowledge and negotiation of leadership. It demonstrates that knowledge is socially constructed through collaboration and dialogues among students with diverse linguistic, sociocultural, and educational backgrounds. In fact, students’ language, culture, and educational history influence the roles and power relationship within small groups. Furthermore, these factors shape the interactional patterns and eventually impact on the knowledge constructed in the peer-led discussion.

The study suggests that multilingual students, particular non-native English speakers, should actively participate in academic knowledge construction and bring in their linguistic and cultural resources to the classroom. This study also raises a series of pedagogical questions for classroom education. For example, how do teachers organize group tasks where everybody can make a contribution? How do teachers design activities that enable all students to focus on academic knowledge construction? These questions are not restricted to graduate level teaching in the field of TESOL; they may apply to other levels of classroom education.

APPENDIX

Transcription Key	
↑	Raising intonation
↓	Falling intonation
XXXX	Undecipherable
=	Latching of successive talk
	Short pause
	Long pause
[Overlap utterance
[
Vowel+	Elongated vowel
Words	Pitch or style change
<i>Italic</i>	Nonverbal behaviors

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Learners' L1 Use in a Task-based Classroom: Learning Chinese as a Foreign Language from a Sociocultural Perspective

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Abstract—In the past two decades, strong theoretical and pedagogical arguments have been made advocating for task-based activities in the language-learning context. However, many teachers have been reluctant to incorporate task-based activities into their teaching practices due to concerns about learners' extensive L1 use and off-task talk. Informed by sociocultural theory, this study explored the extent to which L1s and their functions were used when performing tasks. The subjects were beginner-level lower-secondary school learners of Chinese. The data shows that learners have a high amount of L1 use, but with only a very small amount occurring for off-task talk across tasks. L1 use mainly occurred in learners' efforts to mediate completion of the tasks. The findings highlight the role of L1 in foreign language learning and suggest that L1 use is associated with a number of factors, such as task types, learners' proficiency, and learning context. Implications for language teachers and task designers are also discussed.

Index Terms—L1 use, task-based activities, Chinese as a foreign language, classroom context

I. INTRODUCTION

For both theoretical and pedagogical reasons, task-based activities have attracted much attention among language researchers and teachers. The assumptions underlying research have been mainly based on interactionist theory. This theory argues that task completion provides learners with opportunities to experience the target language through interactional adjustments such as negotiation meaning, feedback and modified output. These adjustments are central to language acquisition (Pica, 1994; Long, 1996; Mackey & Goo, 2007). Research in this line has mainly focused on examining how the occurrence and amount of these interactions is affected by tasks activities such as task type and task implementation (Gass & Varonis, 1985; Pica, Kanagy & Falodun, 1993; Adams, 2009). Pedagogically, task-featured activities have been widely used due to their reputation for increasing learners' participation, enhancing learners' confidence, and providing learners with more opportunities to speak L2 (Lopes, 2004; Tinker Sachs, 2007; Bao & Du, forthcoming).

Although theoretical and pedagogical arguments for task-featured activities appear to be very impressive, teachers remain reluctant to use them because research has revealed that learners, especially with lower levels of proficiency in L2, exhibit extensive L1 use and off-task talk while performing tasks (Li, 1998; Seedhouse, 1999; Bruton, 2005; Carless, 2008). The use of L1 seems paradoxical with the pedagogical argument for using tasks to increase L2 practice. Thus, minimizing or discouraging L1 use has been taken for granted as best practice during tasks completion, although some researchers have defended its legitimacy as a useful tool in foreign language acquisition (Cook, 2001; Butzkamm, 2003). However, recent research within the framework of sociocultural theory has provided a new perspective on L1 use, viewing it as a helpful tool in L2 acquisition. Research in this vein has reported that the use of L1 provides cognitive support with which learners analyze the target language, develop a joint understanding, and construct ways to complete tasks (Brooks & Donato, 1994; Swain & Lapkin, 1998; Antón & Dicañilla, 1999). These findings have provided insight with which to reconsider the role of L1 use in foreign language acquisition.

Nonetheless, most research of this type has been conducted in a controlled setting with non-beginner learners. Little is known about beginner learners' L1 use in the classroom context, especially with less commonly taught languages such as Chinese as a foreign language (CFL). One study conducted by Bao and Du (forthcoming) revealed that learners used L1 as one of their interactional strategies to complete the tasks. However, less attention has been paid to examining what exactly L1 functions during task completion by beginner-level learners in a classroom setting. The dearth of research on this area calls for further investigation to be done. The current study thus seeks to explore the following research questions:

- 1) To what extent is L1 used while beginner learners perform tasks?
- 2) How does the use of L1 function during task completion?

This study took place in a beginner-level CFL class in a lower secondary school. Video-recording was used to capture the process when learners performed tasks. Informed by sociocultural theory, the functions of the learners' L1 use during task completion was analyzed. The results of the current study are expected to enrich the implication of theoretical principles for classroom context and encourage CFL teachers to reconsider the use of tasks and learners' L1 in order to implement effective ways to improve classroom practice. In what follows, the basic principles of sociocultural theory and research on L1 use within this framework are briefly reviewed, after which a description of the current study is presented. Finally, the findings of this study are discussed.

II. SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY

The sociocultural theory applied here is heavily influenced by the work of Vygotsky (1981), who argues that the development of higher forms of human mental function is mediated. The mediation can be accomplished through using physical materials, interacting with others and using symbolic signs, with language being the most powerful sign (Vygotsky, 1978). Linguistic mediation (i.e., speaking) can occur externally, as verbal mediation when individuals interact with others (Lantolf, 2000), or internally, as private speech when an individual externalizes mental activity by speaking out loud to oneself. Through linguistic mediation, individuals obtain increasing conscious control over mental activity such as planning and problem-solving; over time, this control will lead individual to become self-regulated, one of the major features of higher forms of human mental function (Vygotsky, 1986).

Implicit in this view of foreign language acquisition is the suggestion that language itself becomes not only the learning object but also a mediated means to achieve this object. In other words, language use simultaneously constitutes the specific contents of communication and constructs the ways in which we control ourselves, coordinate our own actions or the actions of others, and regulate our consciousness to facilitate the communication (Brooks, Donato & McGlone, 1997). Through speaking, we mediate our reasoning process, alter our ways of thinking, and develop a mutual understanding of the communicated information in order for us to act and solve problems. Brooks et al. (1997) have indicated, "[as] speaking assists us in the real world to perform complicated tasks, speaking in the foreign language class supports the language learners in achieving control of the new language and the classroom pair-work task itself" (p.526). Thus, speaking comes to serve as both a communicative tool to accomplish social interaction and as a cognitive tool to manage our mental activity in regulating this interactional process. This viewpoint provides a new lens for examining the role of learners' L1 use in second/foreign language learning.

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Sociocultural Perspective of Speaking as a Cognitive Tool*

Recent research in the sociocultural perspective has explored the ways in which speaking is used as a cognitive tool in the language learning process. For example, Brooks and Donato (1994) examined the dialogue of secondary-level English-speaking learners of Spanish during a two-way information gap activity. The researchers found that learners' talk in L1 enabled them to initiate and sustain verbal discourse, establish a shared understanding, and construct a joint goal of the given tasks. They claimed that these talks mediated the learners' control of the emergent language and the procedure of tasks, and finally facilitated the learners' skills to improve as a result, although these L1 talk seemed irrelevant at first glance.

To gain an in-depth understanding of learners' talk during pair-work activity, Brooks et al. (1997) further examined the functional role of speaking in maintaining learners' participation during five similar jigsaw tasks performed by intermediate English-speaking learners of Spanish. The researchers reported that learners' discourse functioned as metacognitive talk (i.e., talk about the task) and metatalk (i.e., talk about talk) that increased their involvement in task completion. These functions enabled learners to comment on their on-going talk, reflect on their on-going activities, externalize emotional reactions to the tasks, and eventually develop control over their communication. Similar functions of speaking during task completion are also reported by Swain and Lapkin (1998), Guerrero and Villamil (2000), and Alley (2005).

The focus of the aforementioned studies was not typically on learners' L1 use, but these studies all pointed out the role of L1 use in developing learners' understandings of, and mediating their interaction in, the target language. As Brooks and Donato (1994) observed, L1 use is "a normal psycholinguistic process that facilitates L2 production and allows the learners both to initiate and sustain verbal interaction with one another" (p. 268).

B. *The Use of L1 In Second/Foreign Language Acquisition*

The role of L1 use in L2 learning has mainly been investigated from a perspective of language transfer or cross-linguistic influence (Ringbom, 1987). Recently, researchers have started to pay attention to the role of L1 use in learner-learner interaction during tasks (Brooks & Donato, 1994; Villamil & Guerrero, 1996; Brooks et al., 1997). For instance, Antón and Dicañilla (1999) explored the use of L1 in collaborative writing tasks carried out by adult English-speaking learners of Spanish as a foreign language. They found L1 use functioned as a critical psychological tool to provide learners with scaffolded help, establish and maintain intersubjectivity (Rommetveit, 1985), and externalize learners' inner speech in cognitively-demanding tasks. They concluded that these functions of L1 use were beneficial for lan-

guage learning since they enabled learners to construct collaborative talk that led them to successfully complete the tasks.

Alger á le la Colina and Garc á Mayo (2009) reported the use of L1 and its functions in the oral interaction of undergraduate EFL learners with low proficiency in the target language working in pairs while engaged in three collaborative tasks. Their data demonstrated that learners used L1 for two main purposes: metacognitive talk and metatalk. Moreover, the data revealed a very small amount of off-task talk in L1, which was ascribed to the participants being university students, as compared to the relatively more common L1 use by high school or grade 8 students reported by Swain & Lapkin (2000) and Alley (2005). Alger á le la Colina and Garc á Mayo concluded that, for low proficiency learners, L1 use enabled learners to discuss linguistic items and manage the tasks in a more direct and efficient way, and to transfer their metacognitive and social skills to the L2. The researchers further suggested that it would be desirable to provide learners with expressions or interjections in L2 that related to their mental efforts in L1 in order to allow them to have more casual interactions in the L2.

The research on L1 use has been primarily conducted in a foreign language context. Nonetheless, in an ESL context, Storch and Wigglesworth (2003) conducted a study exploring whether learners used their not-shared L1s as a mediating tool when performing a text reconstruction task and a short joint composition task. In this study, the researchers found a low amount of L1 use by learners, which was ascribed to the highly demanding academic context in which the learners were engaged in using L2. Through the interview, however, researchers found that the learners still perceived L1 use as a helpful tool. Participants claimed that L1 use allowed them to discuss the prompts and the structure of compositions in more depth, and thus to complete the tasks more easily. Some use of L1 even provided participants with unknown words more directly and effectively, and assisted learners in working at a higher level than could be achieved with the restrictive use of L2. The findings of this study reiterate the benefits of L1 use reported in a foreign language context (Alger á le la Colina & Garc á Mayo, 2009) and suggest further investigation on L1 use is greatly needed.

The use of L1 is widely discussed in immersion programs as well. Swain and Lapkin (2000), for example, examined L1 use by grade 8 French immersion students working in pairs on a dictogloss task and a jigsaw task. The researchers identified three functions of L1 use. First, learners used L1 to develop a joint understanding of the prompt and the instructions in the tasks, and to negotiate their collaboration throughout the tasks. L1 was also used to draw the learners' attention to vocabulary and forms emerging during task completion. Finally, L1 use built an interpersonal interaction between learners. Swain and Lapkin suggest that the appropriate use of L1 could promote L2 learning. Similarly, Behan and Turnbull (1997) examined L1 use by grade 7 French immersion students, concluding that "L1 use can both support and enhance L2 development, functioning simultaneously as an effective tool for dealing with cognitively demanding content" (p. 41). Similar benefits of L1 use are also reported in a Spanish immersion program (Cohen, 1994).

With all of this in mind, from a sociocultural perspective, L1 use has been shown to be a cognitive tool that creates a social space where learners support each other in successfully moving through the assigned tasks. Empirical research has also provided evidence on the benefits of L1 use for second/foreign language learning. However, most research has been conducted in a controlled setting with non-beginner learners. To widen our understanding of L1 use in language learning, the range of research should be extended to different groups of learners from various contexts, with special emphasis on observation in a classroom context. The current study was conducted against this backdrop.

IV. METHOD

A. Context

Influenced by the trend of globalization, learning CFL is becoming increasingly attractive in non-native speaking countries. In Denmark, the number of CFL learners has witnessed a dramatic increase as of late, especially in lower secondary local schools. These schools started CFL as a pilot course with the intention of increasing student interest. The courses were mainly filled by voluntary students from grades 7 or 8 attending in their after-school time, and were delivered by native-Chinese teachers who used English while teaching the class.

With the growing number of CFL learners, teachers encountered difficulty in enhancing learners' participation and increasing their opportunities to speak Chinese in the limited classroom time. In reaction to these challenges, task-focused activities were incorporated into these classes, as tasks are purported to be effective at increasing learners' participation by engaging them in using the target language. Experimental research has documented positive effects of this task implementation in CFL classes (Bao, 2012). However, teachers remain concerned over learners' extensive use of L1 during task completion (Bao & Du, forthcoming) because it seems paradoxical with the argument that task-based activities work to maximize L2 use. This study takes the above concern as its point of departure to investigate learners' L1 use during task completion in one of the CFL classes.

B. Participants

Some of the data from the eight participants was also utilized in an earlier study (Bao & Du, forthcoming). The students were in their second semester of CFL class during the spring semester of 2013. Three students were from grade 8 and the rest from grade 7. They met for ninety minutes once a week in their after-school time over a period of 9 weeks. No students had contact with Chinese-speaking individuals in their daily lives. In other words, they had no opportunity to use Chinese or receive input in Chinese outside of class, meaning they were positioned as beginning learners. As a

voluntary and interest-based class, participants were not required to have any formal assessment, such as an exam, of their learning outcomes.

C. The Tasks

Tasks have been defined and conducted differently across the existing literature. Tasks in this study were in line with the definition proposed by Samuda and Bygate (2008), who asserted that tasks should have some real-world connections and promote language use. In other words, tasks were used to engage learners to employ the target language in a communicative context. The researcher, who was also the teacher of the class, designed the tasks based on the contents of the available textbook. The tasks all incorporated form and vocabulary from the textbook and were carried out in pairs or groups. Before task performance, the teacher would explicitly instruct on the targeted form in front of the whole class. Thus, the tasks were used to consolidate learners' understanding and to promote learners' practical use of the target form and vocabulary in interaction with others.

D. Data Collection

Data was collected from January to mid-April 2013. During data collection, the teacher had difficulty establishing a fixed group due to participants' erratic attendance. As a result, Two self-selected groups were recorded of which were comprised two or three participants depending on task demands at the moment of data collection. A total of 9 videotapes were collected across the semester.

After viewing the recordings, videos 4, 6, and 7 were selected for this study because they had representatives of each of the task types used across the nine lessons. Tasks 1 and 2 have a restricted structure, using one target form, while Task 3 gives participants unrestricted freedom to select linguistic resources and make their own dialogues in the target language. The description of the three tasks was as follows:

1. Sentence construction task: requiring students to put mixed pieces of words into order according to the given sentences in English.
2. Information-gap task: requiring students to exchange information with each other to complete a given student's school schedule by using the fixed pattern in the target language.
3. Role-play: designing and displaying a conversation between international tourists and a waiter in a Danish restaurant.

E. Data Analysis

With the exception of poor quality on one group's recording during the role-play task in video 7, all other recordings from the three tasks were transcribed by a paid Danish assistant and rechecked by the first researcher. For the analysis, we identified L1 use as students spoke in Danish or contained phrases in Danish given our context. We evaluated the extent of L1 use as a percentage of the total turns in tasks. We then segmented L1 turns into episodes, incorporating ranges from one turn to several turns according to L1 function and codes that were simultaneously assigned to these episodes. Through iterative examination, these codes were merged into a category as a final theme. To check for the interrater reliability, the two authors independently coded one transcript for episode and L1 function. The interrater reliability was 84% and 86%, respectively. We solved disagreements through discussion as they occurred.

The coding revealed five roles of L1 played during task completion. Some of the roles were similar to those reported by previous studies (Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Alger á le la Colina & Garc á Mayo, 2009). Categories such as task clarification and task management were adopted from Storch and Wigglesworth (2003) but the specific items under these categories were more extensive in the present study:

1. Task management: organizing the activity, discussing strategies to deal with tasks, monitoring the procedures, re-focusing attention, asking for help, making suggestions.
2. Task clarification: discussing the content of the task, discussing how to carry the task out, clarifying the meaning in task instructions and prompts, analyzing the information in the task.
3. Attention to vocabulary: clarifying unclear vocabularies, searching for the unknown vocabulary, making explanations, translating.
4. Focusing on grammatical forms: explaining grammar, discussing uncertain grammatical structures.
5. Releasing affectivity: saving embarrassment, expressing frustration, giving praise to partners.

In order to gain a fuller understanding of L1 use, off-task talk that was unrelated to the task, such as casual talk, was coded as well. In the findings, each participant's name was replaced by the capital letter representing the first letter extracted from their Chinese surname. 'PP' represents all participants.

V. FINDINGS

The data analysis focused on presenting answers to the research questions: the extent of L1 use and the functions of L1 during task completion.

A. The Extent of L1 Use

The first research question inquired to what extent L1 was used while beginner learners performed tasks. The amount of L1 use was calculated by a percentage of the total turns. Table 1 displays the amount of L1 produced by each group across the tasks.

TABLE 1.
THE AMOUNT OF L1 USE ACROSS THREE TASKS

Tasks	L1 turns (%)	Total turns
<i>Sentence construction</i>		
Y-L-S	58%	84
O-J	29%	133
<i>Information-gap</i>		
Y-S	33%	143
O-J	32%	132
<i>Role-play</i>		
O-J-S	86%	120

As shown in table 1, learners generally had a high percentage of L1 use, with the highest percentage of L1 use, approximately 86%, taking place in the role-play task. In the information-gap task, the two pairs produced similar percentages of L1, approximately 32%. In the sentence-construction task, however, there was a remarkable difference between the two groups. One group of three learners produced the smallest amount of total turns but the second highest percentage of L1 use across tasks, approximately 58%. In contrast, another pair group produced the lowest percentage of L1 use across tasks, approximately 29%.

B. The Role of L1 during Task Completion

The second research question inquired as to how the use of L1 functioned during task completion. Qualitative analysis of the data identified five functions for L1 use. Table 2 displays the number of episodes related to each function across tasks. For comparison, the number of off-task episodes was also presented.

TABLE 2.
ROLE OF L1 USE AND THE NUMBER OF CORRESPONDENT EPISODES ACROSS TASKS

Tasks	Task management	Task clarification	Attention vocabulary	to Focusing on	Releasing affectivity	Off-task talk
<i>Sentence construction</i>						
Y-L-S	12	4	6	2	5	1
O-Y	18	3	6	0	2	0
<i>Information-gap</i>						
Y-S	11	2	10	1	3	3
O-Y	7	0	14	0	4	2
<i>Role-play</i>						
O-Y-S	12	9	8	2	0	0
<i>Total episodes</i>	60	18	44	5	14	6
<i>Total percentage</i>	40%	13%	30%	3%	10%	4%

As shown in table 2, L1 use predominantly fell under two functions: task management and attention to vocabulary. Between these two functions, participants most frequently made use of L1 for task management. The following example illustrates how participants managed the tasks by making suggestions and discussing task completion in L1.

Extract 1

L: Hvis det er den sidste, mon ikke det s åbare er dem alle sammen?

If it is the last one, I wonder if it isn't just them all?

Y: Jo, men I hvilken rækkefølge? "Tåmen" er det "deres"?

Yes, but in which order? "Tåmen" is that "theirs"?

S: Ja

yes

The next largest category of L1 use related to vocabulary attention, especially in the information-gap task in which the highest number of L1 episodes occurred. Most of these episodes related to searching for unknown words, while a few included making explanations about the vocabularies as in the extract below.

Extract 2

- S: xīngqī ... ja ja
xīngqī ... yes, yes
 Y: āh nej, xīngqī, xīngqī er sōndag
oh no, xīngqī, xīngqī is Sunday
 S: nej, xīngqī er dag, wǔ er hvorn ā
no, xīngqī is the day, wǔ is when
 Y: xīngqī wǔ er fredag
xīngqī wǔ, that is Friday

While 30% of L1 episodes dealt with vocabulary attention, only 3% across the tasks were related to grammatical issues. Nevertheless, this does not mean that learners produced entirely error-free utterances in the target language during task completion. This will be discussed in the next section.

In addition, 13% of L1 use for task clarification occurred in the role-play task. Participants began a discussion about the instructions of the task and continuously discussed the content of their dialogue throughout the task, as shown in extract 3.

Extract 3

- O: Er det ikke for 6 personer?
Isn't it for six people?
 J: S āer det for os alle sammen
Then it is all of us.
 S: (til den anden gruppe): kan vi ikke bare være sammen alle sammen s ā?
(to the other group): Can't we just all be together then?
 PP: Hvad?
What?
 O: Vi skal selv regne det ud
We have to figure it out ourselves.
 S: Men vi kan ikke være alle de roller selv
But we can't all play those roles.

In terms of releasing affectivity, fourteen L1 episodes were distributed evenly in the sentence construction and information-gap tasks. In these episodes, learners mainly released their frustration when they could not remember or find the appropriate words. However, in a few extracts, learners praised their partners' contributions. Extract 4 provides one example of this.

Extract 4

- S: Nej det er 'lille søster', s ādet er m āmei
No, it is 'younger sister', so it is m āmei
 Y: n āh ja, det er rigtigt – godt arbejde Krelle
Oh yes, that is correct. Good job, buddy

Surprisingly, only 4% of all L1 episodes were related to off-task talk. More interestingly, neither off-task talk nor affectivity releasing occurred in the role-play task.

VI. DISCUSSION

Firstly, the findings provide further evidence of the role of L1 in foreign language acquisition. The data shows that learners have a high amount of L1 use, but mostly for the purpose of mediating task completion. As shown in table 2, L1 was mainly used for task management and vocabulary attention, whereas a smaller amount of L1 was related to task clarification and affectivity expressions. Although L1 use functioned differently, these functions have collectively facilitated learners in clarifying the meaning and content of the task, discussing and organizing its procedures, expressing emotional reactions during the tasks, and establishing a joint understanding to "support and sustain their interaction" (Brooks et al., 1997, p.531). Brooks et al. (1997) referred to this kind of talk as "metacognitive talk", which was almost always conducted in L1 but may disappear as learners progress over time or develop practical expressions in the target language. Importantly, this metacognitive talk in L1 cognitively orients learners to increase control over the language and tasks, and eventually become self-regulated through verbal engagement in this meaning-making process.

L1 use also assisted learners in finding unknown words, clarifying and discussing these words, and explaining and analyzing them. In doing so, learners drew on their linguistic resources, reinforced their understanding of existing knowledge, and identified the gaps between their current language and the target language, all of which are of great value for language acquisition (Mackey & Goo, 2007). From this point of view, our findings shed light on the need for practical teachers to reevaluate learners' performance during tasks and to reconsider how to most productively apply the use of task-based activities in foreign language learning.

Secondly, our findings highlight the influence of task characteristics on L1 use. Unlike the results reported by Storch and Wigglesworth (2003), in which the majority of L1 was used for task clarification, the current study shows that learners demonstrated only 13% of L1 use for task clarification. This difference could be explained by the fact that the tasks used in Storch and Wigglesworth's study, such as the joint composition task, were more complicated than the

tasks performed in the current study. In addition to task complexity, task types also affected the extent of L1 use. As has been shown, the amount of L1 use differed across the three tasks. Learners in the role-play task produced a higher percentage of L1 use than those in the other two tasks. This may derive from the more restricted structure inherent in both the information-gap task and the sentence-construction task, which limited learners to L2 use more frequently than the role play task. Moreover, task types also elicited different kinds of L1 use. As the data shows, the information-gap task produced the highest number of L1 episodes on vocabulary attention, while the role-play task produced the highest L1 use for task clarification. These findings are consistent with the results reported by Alger *à* le la Colina and Garc *à* Mayo (2009), which revealed task-related variation in L1 use. These effects provide important insight for task designers when creating tasks for foreign language learners.

Thirdly, our findings suggest that in addition to task characteristics, a variety of other factors influence learners' L1 use. Compared with the lower use of L1 reported by Storch and Wigglesworth (2003), the current study indicates a high amount of L1 use across tasks. This difference could be attributed to the fact that participants in Storch and Wigglesworth's study were intermediate-level university students in a highly demanding academic context while participants in the current study were beginner-level lower-secondary school learners in a voluntary learning context. Furthermore, the data shows that the amount of L1 use varied considerably between the two groups in the sentence construction task: 58% was produced by three learners in one group and 29% produced by another pair group. These findings demonstrate that in addition to task characteristics, there may be other factors associated with learners' L1 use. As Swain and Lapkin (2000) argued, "task may be only a 'blueprint'" (p. 266); how to construct and carry the tasks out will be individually unique and dependent on a number of variables (Coughlan & Duff, 1994).

The researchers of the current study were surprised to find that there was only 4% off-task talk across the tasks. This small percentage of off-task talk was in remarkable contrast to the results reported by Swain and Lapkin (2000) and Alley (2005), which respectively identified 12% and 21% of off-task behavior. Alger *à* le la Colina and Garc *à* Mayo (2009) ascribed the difference between percentage of off-task talk in their own data and the higher percentage in Alley (2005) to the different ages of participants (Alger *à* le la Colina and Garc *à* Mayo's participants were university students, whereas Alley's study used high school students). It is clear, however, that this explanation cannot be applied to the current study. The participants here were lower-secondary school students, yet they demonstrated only a small percentage of off-task talk. It is clear that further research in this area is greatly needed.

This finding points to the overall complexity of the role of learners' L1 use during task completion. Given the context of this study, variables may include learners' proficiency level in Chinese, learners' ages, learners' attitudes toward Chinese learning, learners' motivation to participate in the CFL class, learners' perception of task activity, and learners' understanding about the intent in using tasks, etc. These variables, operating either independently or together, affect learners' performance during tasks. As Brooks and Donato (1994) stated, "tasks cannot be externally defined or classified on the basis of specific external task features despite our best efforts to do so" (p. 272). Thus, these other variables should be taken into account when designing or implementing tasks in a foreign language classroom.

Finally, this study has implications for language teachers using tasks for foreign language learning. In addition to the variables discussed above, it was striking that the data showed only 3% of L1 use related to grammatical forms across all tasks. It appeared, at first glance, that learners achieved total error-free output in the target language. However, in actuality, there were a number of instances in which learners merely ignored some non-target utterances, as shown in extract 5.

Extract 5 (Jakob is a character in the task)

J: Jakob you shénme?

What does Jakob has?

O: Eh, xīngqīSì Jakob yǒu eh dānmàiwén eh tǐyù wén

Oh Thursday Jakob has eh Danish class eh sport class

J: Dānmàiwén og hvad ellers?

Dānmàiwén and what else?

In this extract, O directly answered J's non-target question without any doubt. In contrast, J attended to the unclear word 'tǐyù wén' in O's response by sending a clarification check in the third line. This exchange exemplifies Seedhouse's (1999) argument that when performing tasks, learners might focus on the accomplishment of the task rather than the language used, especially when non-target utterances do not break the communication. This argument provides one potential explanation for the lower number of L1 episodes relating to grammatical issues in the current study. This argument also produces critical insight to the necessity for language teachers to ensure the accuracy of learners' utterances generated during task performance. Language teachers should be aware of the learners' language use and monitor them, training learners to correct each other during tasks or designing more grammar-related tasks in order to develop learners' accuracy in the target language.

Taken together, the findings show that learners have a high amount of L1 use but with good function during tasks. Although the use of L1 might be connected with a number of variables, its position as an instinctive process could make it beneficial for facilitating foreign language learning. Thus, rather than taking L1 use as a failure, as Butzkamm (2003) suggests, the beneficial role of L1 in foreign language learning should be acknowledged and language teachers should work with this instinctive process, putting it to good use rather than avoiding or resisting it.

VII. CONCLUSION

Taking sociocultural theory as a point of departure, this small-scale study explored beginner learners' L1 use when performing tasks in a classroom focusing on Chinese as a foreign language. The data shows that the use of L1 as a cognitive tool facilitates learners in clarifying the content and meaning of the task, establishing a joint goal, effectively moving the task along, and assisting each other in solving difficulties. L1 use also provided learners with cognitive support to retrieve words and assess grammatical forms in the target language. With the help of L1, beginner learners successfully and efficiently accomplished the assigned tasks, which they might not have been able to achieve without using L1. Although the data shows only a small percentage of off-task talk in L1, this study does not intend to encourage L1 instead of L2 use during tasks, rather, we suggest that L1 use should be acknowledged as an instinctive process that can facilitate learners' involvement in verbal interactional processes to accomplish the assignment. Our findings also suggest that the use and function of L1 is influenced by a variety of factors, which should be taken into account by language teachers and task designers in order to implement effective ways of promoting language learning.

This study has obvious limitations: the small sample size of learners and the two tasks' restricted structure in grammar focus and vocabulary practice. Additionally, the learners' perceptions of L1 use deserves further exploration. Therefore, further research should include more participants and different types of tasks. Future researchers should also utilize a wider range of assessment methods, such as observation and interviews, in order to expand our understanding of the role of L1 use in foreign language classrooms.

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The Construct Validity of a Reading Test Based on Narrative Texts

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Abstract—The study examines the construct validity of a reading test based on narrative texts. It aims to evaluate the extent to which the test tasks target the narrative macrostructure and microstructure elements in both the text passage and the test questions as well as the extent to which the order of test questions is sensitive to the narrative story line. The study uses 40 test items randomly selected from the DR Congo English state examination (ESE). The results indicate that the construct validity of the ESE based on narrative texts is threatened by the inclusion of a limited number of episodes in the narratives, the absence of some elements of episodic structure, the use of truncated narratives that fail to include coherence elements, the failure to examine all the critical aspects of the narrative construct, the inclusion of some test items that require examinees' abilities that are irrelevant to narrative story grammar, and the ordering of information requested by the test items that does not relate to the way information is ordered in the narratives.

Index Terms—construct validity, reading test, narrative texts, story grammar, narrative macrostructure, narrative microstructure

I. PREAMBLE

Text comprehension is an interaction between a reader and a text where the reader has to relate ideas from the text to his/her background knowledge in order to construct text meaning. A part of this interaction process requires that the reader understands text structure; that is, how the main ideas and details of the text are organized (Amer, 1992). The narrative text is one of the most familiar and most studied text structures. Narratives are stories that generally tell what happened. In language learning environment, these stories can be first-hand narratives about daily events, they can be retellings of previous experiences, or retold favourite tales, or again oral fantasy narratives (Paris, & Paris, 2003).

This paper investigates the construct validity of a reading test based on narrative texts. It draws on the theoretical underpinning from the story grammar model (Stein & Glenn, 1979) that proposes rules for describing the narrative features and that suggests that all narratives have a setting and an episodic structure meant to capture the general organizational pattern of a narrative (Trabasso & Nickels, 1992). The story grammar model premises that reader's knowledge of the narrative structural organization facilitates his/her comprehension of the narrative as this organization describes the story parts, the arrangement of these parts and how they are related (Mandler, 1980). Story grammar theorists argue that, since story grammar is an approach that attempts to construct consistent narrative features necessary for identifying the narrative parts and specifying how these parts are related (Mandler, 1980; Dymock, 2007), a story grammar facilitates narrative comprehension by describing the higher order structure that is used to encode, represent, and retrieve information from narratives (Ohtsuka & Brewer, 1992; Graesser, Singer, & Trabasso, 1994).

Although there are many different story grammars relating to different stories (see Mandler & Johnson, 1977; Rumelhart, 1975; Stein & Glenn, 1979; for example), it is generally agreed that a narrative begins with a setting and then progresses through the episodes where each episode consists of a goal statement for the main character, an attempt by the main character to reach the goal, an outcome of the attempt, and internal states that initiate the goal and express reactions (Gagarina, *et al.*, 2012).

The assessment of narrative comprehension

The assessment of narrative comprehension provides an opportunity to examine a wide range of students' abilities; including story structure, discourse features, and vocabulary and syntax (Gagarina, *et al.*, 2012). Research on the assessment of narrative comprehension recognizes the characteristic feature of narratives that consists of information at two levels: microstructure and macrostructure levels (Gagarina, *et al.*, 2012; Heilmann, Miller, & Nockerts, 2010). Microstructure analysis focuses on the linguistic structures used in the construction of coherent and cohesive discourse, while macrostructure analysis focuses on higher-order hierarchical organization that includes the story grammar components (Heilmann, Miller, & Nockerts, 2010). Studies that have explored the macrostructure and microstructure abilities underlying narrative comprehension (Gagarina, *et al.*, 2012; Liles, Duffy, Merritt, & Purcell, 1995) have hypothesized that, since narratives have a specific structural organization that is reflected in the narrative story grammar, students should be mindful of narrative schema in order to successfully attempt test tasks. The narrative schema, which

is the cognitive structure a reader creates when comprehending a story, is "an idealized internal representation of the parts of a typical story and the relationships among those parts" (Mandler & Johnson, 1977, p. 111). Therefore, in order to process a narrative and complete test tasks, students should be able to understand the main events of stories; including the setting, characters, and episodic structure. Furthermore, they should be able to understand characters' internal responses; including their mental processes, states, and experiences (Gagarina, *et al.*, 2012).

Studies that have investigated the narrative macrostructure elements in reading tests have examined students' ability to identify and/or understand the setting, the episodes and the internal state terms (Gagarina, *et al.*, 2012; Heilmann, Miller, & Nockerts, 2010). The setting provides information about the story time and place. The episodes provide the narrative story line, and each episode is marked by an initiating event (the problem or event that sets the story in motion), an attempt (goal-directed action characters take in response to the initiating event), and a consequence (the result of the characters' action). The internal state terms provide an awareness of physical and emotional cause-effect relationships necessary for recognizing characters' goals, the reasons for these goals and reactions following attempts to reach the goals (Hedberg & Westby, 1993; Gagarina, *et al.*, 2012). Briefly, in assessing narrative macrostructure elements, the students should be able to elicit the theory of mind/inferencing by their abilities to infer meaning about the story as a whole (Gagarina, *et al.*, 2012).

On the other hand, studies that have investigated the narrative microstructure have examined students' ability to identify and/or understand the linguistic structures that provide story actions, sequence and details; including adjectives, adverbs, and prepositions; as well as the linguistic markers of coherence; including transitions and connectives (Gagarina *et al.*, 2012; Heilmann, Miller, & Nockerts, 2010). Furthermore, these studies have investigated students' abilities to understand the narrative lexis and morpho-syntax (Gagarina, *et al.*, 2012). Such an assessment scope suggests that, in adopting the narrative macrostructure-microstructure framework, central to narrative comprehension is the ability to understand the narrative structure as well as the narrative language (Trabasso & Nickels, 1992).

However, studies that have adopted Kintsch and van Dijk (1978)'s model of text comprehension (Sheehan & Ginther, 2001; Shin, 2002; Kintsch, 1994; Gorin, 2005) have highlighted the sequencing of information in both the text and test questions as crucial to narrative assessment. Sheehan and Ginther (2001) reported that the location of relevant information within a narrative was associated with the difficulty of MC questions on the TOEFL- 2000 reading test. Shin (2002) found that students poorly performed on most test items that could not follow the story line of the narrative as such questions did not call for operations examinees were likely to use to construct narrative macrostructure. On their part, Kintsch (1994) and Gorin (2005) reported that changing the order in which the information in the narrative is presented impacted on the construction of coherent narrative representation, and this was found to increase the difficulty of test questions pertaining to the newly ordered information.

Although research insights suggest that the assessment of narrative comprehension should focus on both the microstructure and macrostructure abilities (Gagarina, *et al.*, 2012;), and that it should be sensitive to the ordering of information in both the text and the test tasks (Sheehan & Ginther, 2001; Kintsch, 1994; Gorin, 2005) so as to represent the underlying narrative discourse competence, there is an abject paucity of literature that incorporates these three aspects within a single validation framework. This study therefore aims to fill this gap. It is grounded in the assumption that narrative assessment validation should call for a widely drawn-up, integrative framework, which would include the macrostructure and microstructure elements in both the text and the test tasks and which is sensitive to the narrative story line.

The construct validity of reading tests based on narrative texts

This paper is underpinned by Messick's (1989, p. 41) modern conceptualization of validity as a unitary concept that consists of "an integrated evaluative judgment of the degree to which empirical evidence and theoretical rationale support the adequacy and appropriateness of inferences and actions based on test scores". It considers construct validity as an overarching concept that relates to the extent to which the inferences and decisions that are made on the basis of test scores are meaningful and appropriate (Kane, 2002, 2006). Therefore, in order to be meaningful and appropriate, scores on a reading test based on narrative texts must provide an indication of students' abilities to comprehend the narrative and reconstruct its story line. It is hoped that by using a wide-scoped, integrative framework that examines the macrostructure and microstructure elements of the narratives in both the text and the test questions, and that is sensitive to the narrative story line, we can better evaluate the extent to which students' scores provide information about their narrative comprehension abilities.

II. CONTEXT, AIM AND SIGNIFICANCE

The paper examines the construct validity of the DR Congo English state examination (ESE), a multiple-choice reading test administered to final year secondary school students as part of their certification. The ESE uses the conventional multiple-choice format where the student is required to choose one answer from five answers suggested.

Since the focus is on the reading texts based on narratives, the aim of this study is to evaluate the construct validity of the ESE within the epistemological stance that acknowledges the narrative story grammar as essential to narrative comprehension. More specifically, the study aims to evaluate the extent to which the ESE tasks target the narrative macrostructure and microstructure elements in both the text passage and the test questions as well as the extent to which the order of test questions is sensitive to the narrative story line.

By investigating the construct validity of the ESE based on narrative texts within this broader scope, the insights generated by this study can be gainfully deployed in the educational practice of reading assessment, and they can be used by reading assessment researchers to inform their validation studies.

The study therefore intends to answer these three research questions:

- To what extent are the ESE narratives structured around the critical elements of the narrative story grammar?
- To what extent do the ESE questions target the critical elements of the narrative story grammar?
- To what extent does the ordering of ESE test questions tap into the narrative story line?

III. METHOD

This study examines the content of test papers as an informed basis in order to evaluate the extent to which the ESE tasks target the narrative macrostructure and microstructure elements in both the text passage and the test questions as well as the extent to which the order of test questions is sensitive to the narrative story line.

Instrument

We randomly selected four test papers from the 2011 and 2012 ESE editions. Each test paper contained a narrative text whose length varied between 461-477 words; and it was followed by ten questions based on the comprehension of the narrative; making a total of 40 test items.

Framework for analysis

Gagarina, *et al.* (2012)'s framework of narrative analysis, grounded on Westby (1991)'s theoretical approach to narrative production and comprehension, serves as basis for evaluating the extent to which the narratives in the four test papers include the macrostructure and microstructure elements; and the extent to which the 40 test items target information relating to narrative macrostructure and microstructure elements.

In order to investigate the macrostructure elements in the four narratives, each narrative is analysed in terms of its story structure (time and place setting, episodic structure) and internal state terms used. Each episode is evaluated in terms of the initiating event (or story problem), the characters' goals, their attempts to reach the goal, the outcome of their attempts, and the reaction from the episode outcome. Furthermore, in order to investigate the internal states in the five narratives, the paper draws on research into the theory of mind that explains the mental and internal states attributed to the self and others (Lorusso, Galli, Libera, & Gagliardi, 2007). Therefore, the paper adopts Gagarina *et al.* (2012)'s taxonomy of internal state terms that include (a) emotive terms, (b) perceptual terms, (c) physiological terms, and (d) metacognitive terms.

In order to investigate the microstructure elements included in the five narratives, the paper builds on insights from Gagarina, *et al.* (2012)' framework of narrative production and comprehension, Kintsch's model of text comprehension (Kintsch, & van Dijk, 1978) and it examines (a) the density of the five narratives; including (i) the number of words included in each narrative, (ii) the average number of words in a sentence, (iii) the average number of sentences in paragraphs, (iv) the number of paragraphs and (v) the number of sentences included in the narrative; (b) the vocabulary load; (c) the syntactic complexity (the number of simple/compound/complex sentences), (d) the use of adverbs, adjectives and prepositions that help visualise the narrative story scene, and (e) the use of discourse coherence markers; including linguistic markers and connectives.

In order to investigate the extent to which the 40 test items target the macrostructure elements of the narrative story line, the four test papers are examined in terms of the number and percentage of test items that target information relating to (a) story structure; including the (i) setting (time and space), (ii) characters (their identification, emotions, personality and relationships), and (iii) episodes (Initiating event /story problem, goal, attempt/s, outcome and reaction), and (b) the internal state terms that assess examinees' ability to interpret physical and emotional cause-effect relationships that can reflect their ability to infer meaning about the story (Gagarina, *et al.*, 2012; Hedberg & Westby, 1993).

In order to investigate the extent to which the 40 test items target the microstructure elements of the narrative, the four test papers are examined in terms of the number and percentage of test items that target information relating to (a) the story scene descriptive elements; including (i) adjectives, (ii) adverbs and (iii) prepositions, (b) the understanding of the lexis, and (c) the use of coherence markers; including (i) transitions and (ii) connectives.

Finally, in order to investigate the extent to which the order of test items relates to the order of information in the narratives, the paper builds on Shin (2002)'s and Gorin (2005)'s methodological suggestions that consist of mapping the order of information in the text with the order of information in the test questions.

IV. ANALYSIS

Structure of the narratives

Test paper #1 [T1]

The narrative featured in this test paper starts with the opening sentence that sets up the story place (*At the rural market of Burungangu*) and time (*In 1997*), and introduces the major character (*Yasekuru*). Then the story progresses around two episodes. Episode 1 introduces the narrative problem (*Yet, she [Asha] stopped gaining weight and*

contracted one infection to another) that breaks the family stability and results in Asha's death (*At the age of three, Asha died from AIDS*). The initiating event in Episode 2 is about Kirongozi's sickness (*Kirongozi who was a taxi driver from Worobe to Elaka also began to get sick*), his death as the episode outcome (*One day he collapsed and was taken to Wango Medical Centre. [...] Yasekuru's husband of eight years died of Aids-related complications*) and the reaction of his wife Yasekuru (*"I have got HIV. I will not get married. I will not have any more children"*).

This narrative uses some words and expressions that indicate characters' states of mind. Emotive terms are used to signal a polarity between positive and negative emotions characterized in the stability of the family as a result of the birth of Asha (*Yasekuru and Kirongozi were overjoyed*) and the family disintegration as a result of Asha and Kirongozi death (*Her [Yasekuru] cheerful smile hides a tragic story*). However, the narrative does not include any perceptual terms, physiological terms and metacognitive terms.

With regards to density, this narrative is a relatively short text with 461 words, five short paragraphs with an average of three sentences per paragraph. The narrative is structured around a total of fifteen sentences, of which eleven (11) are simple sentences, three (3) are compound sentences and only (1) one complex sentence. Many words and expressions used may be understood through reader's knowledge of vocabulary or context clues (For example: *AIDS, HIV prevention, cheerful smile, tragic story, ... were overjoyed at the birth of their daughter, to be in good health, she stopped gaining weight*, etc.). The narrative uses some time adverbials to indicate time sequence (*In 1997, Yasekuru...; At the age of three, Asha died...; A few years later, Kirongozi...; Yasekuru now lives...*) and adjectives to provide a description of characters' physical appearances, emotions and personality (*She appears happy and healthy*). However, only one transitional construction is used (*A few years later, [...]*) to link paragraph #2 and paragraph #3, while the use of connectives is very limited (*Yet, she stopped gaining weight and contracted one infection to another*).

Test paper #2 [T2]

The narrative featured in this test paper starts with the opening sentence that sets up the story time (*That Wednesday morning*) and place (*along MABANGA ROAD over the National Commercial School's fence*). Then the story progresses around two episodes. Episode 1 introduces the major characters (students, police) and minor characters (passengers, Apolosa) and presents the narrative problem that consists of trouble between the students and the police (*facing the police, flocks of furious young men were feverishly throwing to their opponents any kind of harmful objects*), the outcome of this trouble on the traffic (*Some [taxi drivers] stopped abruptly. Passengers were puzzled and wondered whether they could continue their trip*) as well as the reaction by the police to restore order (*men in dark blue uniform were launching tears' gaz from their guns in order to disperse those crazy students*). In Episode 2, the narrator uses a flashback technique where he introduces the narrative main problem that relates to the students' leader who is beaten by a group of students from a neighbouring school (*the [...] students' leader was deadly beaten in one ladies' residential flat when he went to pay a visit to his girl-friend two days ago*); the goal of his mates to avenge him (*his mates might have promised to invade that school*); the different attempts made by the students to reach this goal (*[they] were feverishly throwing at their opponents any kind of harmful objects: pieces of stones, bricks, iron sticks*) and the reaction that ensued (*The Chief District of police then decided on the protection of the school from the revenge of the [...] students*).

Narrative 2 uses many words and expressions that describe characters' states of mind. Emotive terms are used to provide an indication of a troubled situation (*Passengers were puzzled / flocks of furious / those crazy students / the anger of their close neighbours*), and the consequences that ensued (*the lorry driver was mortally wounded / Apolosa was seriously injured / students' leader was deadly beaten*). Perceptual terms are used to visualise the intensity of the incident (*irritating black smoke / flocks of furious*), and the objects and people involved in the incident (*any kind of harmful objects / men in dark blue uniform*). Metacognitive terms are used to provide an indication of characters' state of mind (*Passengers wondered / students hardly stand the police presence / The Chief District of police then decided the protection of the school*).

Narrative 2 is a relatively short text that comprises 463 words used in three paragraphs with an average of five sentences per paragraph. The narrative is structured around a total of sixteen sentences, of which twelve (12) are simple sentences, two (2) are compound sentences and two (2) are complex sentences. Most words and phrases can be classified as part of students' active vocabulary (For example: *drivers, taxi buses, trip, police, crazy students, sexual abuses, residential flats, phone cells, golden jewelry, girl-friend*, etc.). Furthermore, the narrative includes adverbs, adjectives and prepositions that are associated to the description of story scene and event. More specifically, the descriptive adjectives are used to describe characters (*men in dark blue uniforms / flocks of furious young men / crazy students*); and the adverbials of manner are used to indicate the intensity of the story event and outcome (*A lorry [...] was badly damaged. Its driver was mortally wounded. Apolosa, [...], was seriously injured*). However, no linguistic markers of coherence are used; instead, short sentences are juxtaposed as in the following four choppy sentences (*A lorry bumped a tree and was badly damaged. Its driver was mortally wounded. APOLOSA, a well-known policeman, was seriously injured. One student died*). Furthermore, since there are few compound and complex sentences, the use of connectives is very limited.

Test paper #3 [T3]

The narrative featured in this test paper starts with the opening sentence that sets up the story time (*On April 18th at 9.15 hrs.*) and place (*on the corner of Mbala Avenue and Kitoko road*). Then the story progresses around a single

episode with the anonymous *I* narrator as a major character and three minor characters (*Mujinga, Mbela, Mafuta*). The initiating event is a car crash (*Mr. Mbela had crashed into the side door of the white Mazda belonging to Ms. Mujinga*). This crash results in an argument between the two women (*the two drivers had got out of their vehicles and were arguing noisily*), each woman attempting to accuse the other of careless driving (*Mr. Mbela had rudely accused Ms Mujinga of being careless and not signalling. Ms. Mujinga said she had signalled but she was upset*). However, since no damage is observed, the narrator calms down the two women and each of them continues on her way (*Since nobody was injured they continued on their way*).

The narrative uses some internal state terms that portray characters state of mind. The use of emotive terms (*Mr. Mbela had rudely accused Ms Mujinga / [Mr. Mujinga] she was upset*) provide the state of mind of the two women during the argument. The use of some perceptual terms (*I heard a loud crash / I saw two cars / I did not see the crash itself / her view may have been obscured by the row of trees*) provides the picture of the scene and how the crash occurred as well as the intensity of the incident. The use of metacognitive terms indicates how the characters perceived the crash (*I suspected [...] that / she [Ms Mujinga] admitted this was true / She [Mrs Mafuta] seemed to sympathize with Ms Mujinga*).

Narrative 3 is a relatively short text of 467 words used in five (5) short paragraphs with an average of three (3) sentences per paragraph. The narrative is structured around a total of fifteen (15) sentences, of which ten (10) are simple sentences, three (3) are compound sentences and two (2) are complex sentences. The text vocabulary is appropriate to the town context (*loud crash, not signalling, turn left at the traffic lights, driving to work, gave her own account of the accident, walking along the pavement, nobody was injured*) and it can be encoded through context from reader's background knowledge. The narrative includes very limited number of adverbs, adjectives and prepositions that can help visualize the story scene and event (*I was standing on the corner of Mbala Avenue and Kitoko road; I heard a loud crash; the two drivers were arguing noisily*). However, the narrative does not include any linguistic markers of coherence as the sentences are only juxtaposed, and the use of connectives is extremely limited.

Test paper #4 [T4]

The narrative featured in this test paper starts with the opening sentence that sets up the story time (*Once upon a time*) and story place (*a farm*). Then the story progresses around two episodes. Episode 1 introduces the two major characters (*the fox and the geese*) and the minor character (*the farmer*) and sets the story problem (*He [the fox] hadn't eaten for a long time, and he was just dying for a good meal*), the goal the fox wants to achieve (*So, he [the fox] went out of his wood*), and the attempt the fox makes to reach the goal (*He [the fox] walked towards a farm where he knew there were some geese, chicken and ducks*). Then the story presents the outcome when the fox meets the geese in the field (*In a field near the farm the fox came upon a flock of beautiful fat white geese*) and two reactions from the two antagonists, the fox, and the geese (*"I am going to eat you!" said the fox. The geese were terrified and they didn't know what to do*). The initiating event in episode 2 becomes clear when one goose tries to deceive the fox (*One of the geese [...] said "well, Mr Fox, you've got the better of us this time, you are going to eat us, we have no way of escape*) with a goal to ask the fox for a favour (*Can we [geese] please ask one last favour?*). In order to escape, the geese attempt to make much noise while praying so as to draw the attention of the farmer (*they [geese] say in very loud voices, and they opened their mouths and cackled and cackled as loudly as they could*), and this results in the farmer coming out with a gun (*The farmer [...] took his gun, [...] rushed down to the field*) and the fox running into the forest (*the fox saw the farmer and [...] ran away*).

The narrative makes use some emotive terms that indicate the state of mind of the geese when they were caught up by the fox (The geese were **terrified**) and the reaction of the fox when geese were saying their prayers (what a **terrible** noise!); perceptual terms (a flock of **beautiful fat white** geese / when the fox **heard** this / there he **saw** the fox), physiological terms (*The fox was very hungry / the fox ran into the forest as hungry as he had left*) and metacognitive terms (*he [the fox] knew there were some geese / they [the geese] didn't know what to do / he [the fox] was sure the geese couldn't get away / the fox sat and thought / The farmer knew something was wrong*).

Narrative 4 is a relatively short text that includes 477 words organized in three (3) paragraphs with an average of five (5) sentences per paragraph. The narrative is structured around a total of fifteen (15) sentences, of which nine (9) are simple sentences, four (4) are compound sentences and two (2) are complex sentences. The narrative contains many words and expressions that might appear familiar to them (*fox; geese; ducks; came upon; you've got the better of us this time; crackled/cracklings*). Furthermore, the narrative includes some prepositions that indicate the spacial organization of the story event (*The farmer [...] took his gun, rushed out of the farmhouse, rushed down to the field and there he saw the fox*); and adjectives that describe characters' physical appearances (*a flock of beautiful fat white geese*). However, no linguistic markers are used to create coherence between paragraphs, and the use of connectives is very limited as most sentences are simple sentences.

Information targeted by test items

Table 1 presents the information relating to the type of text information targeted by the 40 test items.

TABLE 1

Text information targeted by test items		T1	T2	T3	T4	Total	
A. Narrative macrostructure elements		N=10	N=10	N=10	N=10	N	%
A1. Story structure							
Setting	Time	0	0	1	0	1	2.5
	Space	0	0	0	1	1	2.5
	Sub-Total 1	2					5.0
Characters	Characters' identification	1	0	1	0	2	5.0
	Characters' emotions	1	1	0	0	2	5.0
	Characters' relationships	0	0	0	1	1	2.5
	Sub-Total 2	5					12.5
Story episodes	Initiating event (Story problem)	0	1	0	0	1	2.5
	Goal	0	0	1	0	1	2.5
	Attempt	0	1	0	0	1	2.5
	Outcome	0	1	0	0	1	2.5
	Reaction	0	1	0	1	2	5.0
	Sub-Total 3	6					15.0
Total N items story structure		2	5	3	3	13	32.5
A.2. Internal state terms		3	2	2	2	9	22.5
Total N items macrostructure elements		5	7	5	5	22	55.0
B. Narrative microstructure elements							
Story scene descriptive elements	Adjectives	0	0	1	0	1	2.5
	Adverbs	1	0	0	0	1	2.5
	Prepositions	0	0	0	1	1	2.5
Subtotal: Story scene descriptors		0	0	0	0	3	7.5
Lexis		1	0	1	0	2	5.0
Coherence markers	Linguistic markers	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
	Connectives	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
Subtotal: Coherence markers		0	0	0	0	0	0.0
Total N items microstructure elements		2	0	2	1	5	12.5
Total 1: N items related to story grammar		7	7	7	6	27	67.5
C. Questions not related to story grammar							
Identifying the text title		1	1	0	2	4	10.0
Identifying where a specific idea is located		1	0	0	1	2	5.0
Understanding grammar	Tag questions	1	0	1	0	2	5.0
	Pronouns and reference	0	2	1	0	3	7.5
	Verb use	0	0	1	1	2	5.0
Subtotal N items grammar		7					17.5
Total 2: N items not related to story grammar		3	3	3	4	13	32.5
TOTAL		10	10	10	10	40	100

From the information presented in this table, we wish to make the following observations:

(a) Of the 40 items included in the study sample, only 27 items (67.5%) tapped into the narrative story grammar while 13 items (32.5%) targeted text information that was irrelevant to the narrative story grammar. However, of the 27 items that tapped into the narrative story grammar, there were more items that targeted macrostructure elements (22; 55%) than those that targeted microstructure elements (5; 12.5%).

(b) Of the 22 items that targeted macrostructure elements, there were more items that targeted story structure (13; 32.5%) than those that targeted the internal state terms (9; 22.5%). Furthermore, the items that targeted story structure related to the story setting (2; 5%), characters' identification, emotions and relationships (5; 12.5%), and the episodic structure, including i) the story problem (1; 2.5%), ii) goal (1; 2.5%), iii) attempts (1; 2.5%), and iv) outcome (1; 2.5%).

(c) Of the five test items that targeted microstructure elements, three items (3; 7.5%) related to the story scene descriptive elements including i) adjectives (1; 2.5%), ii) adverbs (1; 2.5%), and iii) prepositions (1; 2.5%); two test items (2; 5%) related to the use of lexis; while no items (0; 0%) targeted coherence elements.

(d) Of the thirteen test items that did not tap into the narrative story grammar, there were four items targeting the identification of the text title (4; 10%), three items relating to the location of a specific idea in the text (2; 5%); and seven items targeting the general aspects of grammar (7; 17.5) including i) the use of tag questions, ii) pronouns and references, and iii) verbs.

Information order in the narratives and the test questions

Table 2 maps the information order in the four narratives and the 40 test questions.

TABLE 2:
INFORMATION ORDER IN THE NARRATIVES AND THE TEST QUESTIONS

	T1	T2	T3	T4
Question 1	P4	All text	S1	P3
Question 2	P2 & 3	P2	All text	All text
Question 3	P3, S3	P3, S2	P1, S4	P3, S5
Question 4	P4, S1	P1, S4	P2	P3, S3
Question 5	All text	P3, S3	P3	P2
Question 6	P2, S3	All text	P1	All text
Question 7	All text	All text	P1	P1, S3
Question 8	P2	All text	P4, S1	P2
Question 9	P1	P2	All text	P3
Question 10	All text	P2	All text	All text

T1=Test paper #1; T2=Test paper #2; T3=Test paper #3; T4=Test paper #4;
S1= Sentence #1; P1=Paragraph #1; P2=Paragraph #2, P3=Paragraph #3; P4=Paragraph #4

In light of the information presented in this, the following comments can be made:

In test paper 1, question #1 targeted information located in paragraph #4; question #2 targeted information located in paragraphs #2 and #3; question #3 targeted information located in paragraph #3; question #4 targeted information located in paragraph #4; question #5 targeted information in the whole text; question #6 targeted information located in paragraph #2; question #7 targeted information in the whole text; question #8 targeted information located in paragraph #2; question 9 targeted information located in the first paragraph; and finally question 10 targeted information scattered throughout the text.

In test paper 2, question #1 targeted information in the whole text; question #2 targeted information located in paragraph #2; question #3 targeted information located in paragraph #3; question #4 targeted information located in paragraph #1; question #5 targeted information located in paragraph #3; questions #6, #7 and #8 targeted information located in the whole text; and question 9 and question 10 targeted information located in the second paragraph.

In test paper 3, question #1 targeted information located in the opening sentence; question #2 targeted information in the whole text; question #3 targeted information located in paragraph #1; question #4 targeted information located in paragraph #2; question #5 targeted information in paragraph #3; question #6 targeted information located in paragraph #1; question #7 targeted information in paragraph #1; question #8 targeted information located in paragraph #4; and question 9 and question 10 targeted information spread through the whole text.

In test paper 4, question #1 targeted information located in paragraph #3; question #2 targeted information in the whole text; question #3 targeted information located in paragraph #3; question #4 targeted information located in paragraph #3; question #5 targeted information in paragraph #2; question #6 targeted information in the whole text; question #7 targeted information in paragraph #1; question #8 targeted information located in paragraph #2; question 9 targeted information in paragraph 3; and finally question 10 targeted information spread through the whole text.

V. DISCUSSION

This paper, as we have mentioned earlier, aimed to evaluate the extent to which the ESE tasks target the narrative macrostructure and microstructure elements in both the text passage and the test questions as well as the extent to which the order of test questions is sensitive to the narrative story grammar. The analysis of the content of the four test papers reveals that the structure of the four narratives is generally consistent with the basic features that characterize most narratives; suggesting that students' knowledge of the narrative structural organization can enable them to comprehend the narrative by identifying the different parts, the arrangement of these parts and how they are related (Mandler, 1980). However, although all the four narratives have a clear setting (space and time), with characters and an episodic structure; the analysis of the structure of the test papers reveals that the four narratives have a limited number of episodes with either one or two episodes. Besides, except for the narrative in test paper #4, the other narratives do not have all the five elements of an episode (initiating event, goal, attempts, outcome and reaction). Yet, the absence of some elements of episodic structure is likely to contribute to narrative complexity and pose comprehension problems (Gillam, Fargo, Petersen, & Clark, 2012) as examinees hardly construct a mental representation of the story characters, actions, and events (Graesser, Singer, & Trabasso, 1994).

Furthermore, the results indicate that, although limited in number, all the four narratives included emotion terms. However, except the narrative in test paper #4, the other narratives do not include one or some of other internal state terms; namely perceptual terms, metacognitive terms and physiological terms. This finding suggests that examinees may have difficulty to comprehend the narratives as they hardly understand characters' internal responses, including their mental processes, states, and experiences that are necessary for constructing narrative macrostructure (Gagarina, *et al.*, 2012) as examinees hardly perceive characters' states of mind that are necessary for interpreting characters' intentions and making inferences about aspects of stories (Westby, 2005).

From the structural complexity stance, although all the four narratives are relatively short and they include limited and accessible vocabulary so as to allow for normal processing, the use of story scene descriptive elements (adjectives, adverbs, and prepositions) necessary for visualising the story scene is extremely limited. Therefore, some examinees can find it difficult to comprehend these narratives as they hardly construct some representations of the story characters,

events, and actions (Zwaan, Langston, & Graesser, 1995). Furthermore, all the four narratives include many short simple sentences which are simply juxtaposed; with limited use of connectives and almost no use of transitions. Yet, a good narrative needs to be written in such a way that coherence relations are made explicit by linguistic markers in order to connect different text segments, such as cause-consequence, problem-solution, and chronological order (Graesser *et al.*, 2004). Therefore, the non-use of transitions and other linguistic signaling devices can be detrimental to comprehension as examinees hardly construct coherent representations and have no guiding cues necessary for understanding how ideas in one clause, sentence, and paragraph relate to the ideas in adjacent clauses, sentences, and paragraphs (Graesser *et al.*, 2004).

As to the issue of information targeted by test questions, the results reveal that, although the majority of items fairly target some aspects of the story grammar (story structure, internal state terms); there are some story grammar aspects that are less targeted (story scene descriptors) or simply ignored (linguistic markers of coherence). This prompts the issue of construct underrepresentation as the ESE fails to include some other critical aspects of the narrative construct; suggesting that examinees' scores on the test hardly reflect their comprehension of the narrative and their abilities to reconstruct the narrative story line (Katalayi, 2014). Furthermore, the results indicate that a relatively great number of test items target information irrelevant to narrative story grammar; therefore, this poses the issue of construct irrelevant variance on the ground that examinees' scores appear to be inflated with some variance as some items require abilities that are irrelevant to narrative comprehension (Katalayi, 2014).

Finally, regarding the information order in the text and test items, the results suggest a total mismatch of information order in the text and in the test questions. Yet, research (Sheehan & Ginther, 2001; Kintsch, 1994; Gorin, 2005) suggests that the sequencing of information in both the text and test questions is crucial to the validity of narrative assessment as examinees generally perform poorly on most test items that do not follow the story line of the text (Gorin, 2005), and the mismatch of the order of information in the text and test items can impact on the construction of coherent text representation and increase the difficulty of test questions (Kintsch, 1994; Gorin, 2005).

VI. CONCLUSION

Generally, the four narratives are well structured; they give an indication of some awareness of narrative structural organization on the part of ESE constructors. However, the quality of the narratives is hampered by the inclusion of a limited number of episodes, the absence of some elements of episodic structure, and the use of truncated narratives that fail to include coherence elements. Therefore, in order to enhance its construct validity, the ESE constructors need to ensure that the narratives include an acceptable number of episodes that use most episodic structure elements. Besides, the narratives need to include as many internal state terms as possible as well as many story scene descriptive elements (adjectives, adverbs, and prepositions) necessary for understanding characters' internal responses (Gagarina, *et al.*, 2012) and visualise the story scene and event (Kintsch, 1994).

Regarding the information targeted by the ESE items, we are inclined to conclude that the two issues that weaken the validity of the five tests are the failure to examine all the critical aspects of the narrative construct, and the inclusion of some test items that require examinees' abilities that are irrelevant to narrative story grammar. Therefore, we suggest that the ESE based on narrative texts be designed in such a way to include tasks that tap into the narrative story grammar so as to generate scores that reveal the actual comprehension of narratives.

Finally, regarding the order of information in the text and test questions, we are inclined to conclude that the order of information requested by the test items does not relate to the way information is ordered in the narratives. Therefore, the construct validity of the ESE based on narratives appears to be threatened by the mismatch of information order in both the text and the test items. We therefore suggest that the ESE based on narrative texts be adjusted so as to relate the order of the test questions to the order of the text information so as to reflect the story line used by the writer to construct the story.

In sum, we need to emphasize that validity is about the meanings and interpretations assigned to test scores (Messick, 1989; Kane, 2002). Therefore, by adopting an integrative validation framework that includes the macrostructure and microstructure elements in both the text and the test tasks and that highlights the way information requested in the test questions relates to the ordering of information in the text, students' scores on reading tests based on narratives can provide a sound indication of their relationship to three relevant narrative constructs; including the quality of narratives, the quality of test items in terms of the kind of text information they target, and the ordering of the test items in relation to the narrative story line.

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English Speakers Learning Spanish: Perception Issues Regarding Vowels and Stress

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Abstract—The present pilot study examines both the perception of Spanish vowels /a, e, o/ in word – final position and the perception of final and penultimate stress of words ending in those vowels by beginner American English learners of Spanish. Seventeen English speakers and seven native Spanish speakers participated in this study. The English speakers were exposed to 90 hours of Spanish lessons during a three-week course in Mar del Plata, Argentina, a Spanish speaking country. Participants' perception was assessed by pretest and posttest, which consisted of identification tasks with nonce words. The study yielded these results: (a) native English-speaking participants perceived Spanish vowels like native Spanish-speaking participants after a three-week language course; (b) Initially, English speakers received lower scores in the perception of stress than did Spanish speakers who served as a comparison (control) group; (c) Three weeks after exposure to the language, the English speaking students performed like Spanish speakers in the perception of penultimate stress but not in the perception of final stress. The article concludes that vowel perception is not a problem for English speakers learning Spanish while the perception of stress contrasts is a difficult challenge. More emphasis should be given to stress perception in Spanish programs for English speakers, as stress contrasts, together with vowels, are key to interpreting the meaning of a verb in the Spanish verbal morphology system.

Index Terms— perception, vowels, stress, Spanish

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Why Vowel Endings and Stress Matter When Teaching Spanish

Vowel sounds in Spanish are crucial for the distinction of person- number and tense in verb endings. The linguistic competence in Spanish that teachers aim to develop in students crucially implies appropriate management of person- number and tense features, which are carried out mainly by stressed or unstressed vowels in the last two syllables of each verb.

Spanish vowels /a, e, o/ have a communicative load that is essential for identifying tense and mood in 1st and 3rd person singular verb endings: *toma* (3rd sg. present indicative), *tome* (1st and 3rd sg present subjunctive), *tomo* (1st sg. present indicative), *tomara* (1st and 3rd person imperfect subjunctive), *tomaré* (1st future indicative).

Besides, stress also operates functionally on /a-e-o/ to differentiate person, tense and mood features in otherwise identical verb forms: *toma* (3rd sg. present) vs. *tomá* (2nd sg. imperative), *tomara* (1st and 3rd sg. imperfect subjunctive) vs. *tomará* (3rd sg. future indicative), *tome* (1st and 3rd sg present subjunctive) vs. *tomé* (1st sg preterite indicative), *tomare* (1st and 3rd sg future subjunctive) vs. *tomaré* (1st sg. future indicative), *tomo* (1st sg. present indicative) vs. *tomó* (3rd sg preterite).

Spanish being a pro-drop language (Zagona, 1988), i.e. a language that preserves the optionality of subject pronouns (Green, 1990, p. 245), the foreign student should learn to rely on verb endings and not on pronouns to identify the subject. Vowel endings and stress matter when teaching Spanish because every 1st and 3rd person singular verb form in Spanish but *es* ends in a vowel, independently of tense or mood. Vowel endings have different meanings whether stressed or unstressed.

B. Vowels in Spanish and English

The vowel systems of Spanish and English differ significantly. English has a relatively crowded vowel system in comparison to the Spanish vowel inventory: 11-12 nonrhotic vowels /i:, ɪ, e¹, ə, ɛ, æ:, ɑ:, ʌ, ɔ:, ɒ, u, ʊ:/ that vary in height (four levels) (Quilis & Fernández, 1982) and backness (front versus back), and two rhotic vowels /ɝ, ɜ:/ and three true diphthongs /aɪ, oɪ, aʊ/. In many dialects of American English, “the distinction between /ɑ:, ɔ:/ has been neutralized to a low, slightly rounded /ɒ:/” (Nishi, Strange, Akahane-Yamada, Kubo & Trent-Brown, 2008, p. 577). Spanish, in contrast, has only 5 monophthongs /i, e, a, o, u/ (Navarro Tomás, 1966; Quilis & Fernández, 1982; RAE, 2011; Schwegler, Kempff, & Ameal-Guerra, 2010) which vary in three levels of height (close/high, mid, open/low), and

fourteen diphthongs /ai, ei, oi, au, eu, ou, ja, je, jo, ju, wa, we, wi, wo/ (Alarcos Llorach, 1983; Quilis & Fernández, 1982).

The first part of English long vowels /e^l/ and /o^u/, is closer to the Spanish vowels /e/ and /o/ than any other monophthong from the English system, and may lead to interference or transfer (García de las Bayonas, 2004). Though there are some Spanish and English vowels in the same slots of Figure 1, it should not be assumed that they are the exact same sounds in both perception and production; Spanish and English vowels differ in their quality.

Figure 1. English and Spanish (Between Brackets) Vowels Classified in Terms of Openness and Backness (Adapted from ANAE, 2006, p. 13; García de las Bayonas, 2004, p. 11; IPA, 2005; Vergun, 2006, p. 24)

(F2)	Front	Central	Back
(F1)			
Close/High	i [i] ɪ		u [u] ʊ
Close/High-Mid	e ^l [e]	ə	o ^u [o]
Open/Low-Mid	ɛ æ	ɜ	ʌ ɔ
Open/Low		[a]	ɑ

C. Stress in Spanish and English

Both English and Spanish are frequently classified as free stress (unpredictable, lexically specified) languages (Altmann, 2006; Saalfeld, 2012) but in fact, they could be placed somewhere in between as having partially lexical and partially phonological stress (Kijak, 2009).

Altmann (2006) justifies the classification of English and Spanish within non-predictable stress languages by stating that the phonological shape of a word alone could not determine the position of stress within a word in any of the languages. In both English and Spanish, stress is contrastive (i.e. it is used to make lexical distinctions), and therefore, it is encoded in the phonological representation of each word.

In Spanish, vowels are given their full quality either when stressed or unstressed, contrary to English where the stressing of vowels in one syllable is systematically accompanied by vowel reduction in one or more surrounding syllables (Tyler & Cutler, 2009). These differences may have consequences in the way English speakers process stress in Spanish.

In terms of frequency of occurrence, stress in Spanish falls on the penultimate syllable of vowel-final words and on the final syllable of consonant-final words (Green, 1990; Navarro Tomás, 1957; RAE, 2012), but this rule applies only to nonverbs. Verb stress, however, is morphologically governed, i.e. predictable from the number/person features of the subject or from the tense/mood/aspect features of some verb form but not from its phonological properties. For example, penultimate stress is the norm for 1st and 3rd person singular present tense forms (*lloro* 'I cry'), and final stress is the norm for 1st and 3rd person singular of regular past tense forms (*lloró* 'I cried'), and strong irregular past tense forms have penultimate stress as the norm (*hice* 'I did').

Based on frequency facts, the most common stress pattern in English, just like in Spanish, is stress on the penultimate syllable (Clopper, 2002; Murphy & Kandil, 2004). The main difference between both languages regarding stress is that in English it is not used to signal contrasts within verb forms but to signal noun-verb and noun-adjective contrasts such as *import* / *import* and *content* / *content*.

D. Predicting Phonological Difficulties Regarding Vowel Endings

Theories of L2 speech learning like the Speech Learning Model (SLM, Flege 1988, 1995, 2003), and the Second Language Linguistic Perception Model (L2LP, Escudero, 2005) posit that at the initial state of L2 learning, L2 sounds are perceived through the L1 speech perception system which interferes with the development of L2 sound categories. Both models predict difficulty in both perception and production experienced by L2 adult learners depending on whether *new* or *similar* sounds are involved. However, the predictions that these models make for those learning scenarios are different.

SLM (Flege, 1995) hypothesizes that a *new* sound (very different from any L1 category) will not be perceptually assimilated to any L1 category and eventually an L2 category will be created. He posits that L2 learners will not face major difficulties when perceiving *new* L2 sounds. However, SLM claims that if there are insufficient perceived

differences between an L2 sound and the closest L1 sound (*similar* sounds), then the L2 sound will be treated as equivalent to the L1. The L1 and the L2 will be combined as a *diaphone*, a single category used for both sounds which has properties of the L1 and the L2. This learning scenario may lead to perception and production difficulties.

In contrast to SLM's predictions, L2LP hypothesizes that *new* sounds will be more difficult to perceive than *similar* sounds because of the number and nature of the learning tasks that learners have to perform. According to the L2LP (Escudero, 2005), in the *similar* L2 learning scenario, the learner equates two L2 phonemes with two L1 phonemes. However, if two L2 sounds are equated to one L1 sound, the learner faces a *new* learning scenario. Unlike the *new* scenario, L2 learners faced with a *subset* scenario use part of their existing L1 categories (i.e. a *subset* of the L1 vowels) in their L2. The *subset* scenario was addressed in Escudero & Boersma (2002) as *multiple category assimilation* (MCA) but in L2LP Escudero (2005) refers to it as the "*subset* L2 perception scenario" (p. 204).

According to both the SLM and the L2LP, Spanish and English /e/ and /o/ would be considered *similar* sounds. These sounds have been treated as similar sounds across languages in Bradlow's study (1995). Similarly, English speakers were reported to assimilate Spanish /e/ and /o/ to English /e^ɪ/ and /o^ʊ/ in Morrison's (2003) study though in a following study he considered Spanish /e/ to be a subset sound, assimilated to some instances of English /ɛ/ and some instances of English /ɪ/ (Morrison, 2006).

Models differ in relation to the low vowel. In terms of the SLM, Spanish low central /a/ would be a *new* sound for English speakers because they have a low front vowel /æ/ and a low back vowel /ɑ/ but no low central vowel, as described by Bradlow (1995). In contrast, L2LP would not consider Spanish /a/ a *new* sound for English speakers because this model assumes that in this scenario the speakers' L1 has fewer categories than the L2. The opposite to the *new* learning scenario is the *subset* scenario, which is true for English speakers as their L1 has more sounds than the target language. In this case, Spanish /a/ would be assimilated to two or more English sounds, /æ + ʌ + ɒ + ɛ/, through *multiple-category assimilation* (MCA, Escudero & Boersma, 2002), as shown in Morrison's study (2003).

Considering that both models make different predictions in relation to the target vowels, in this study we will attempt to test them. We hypothesize with SLM that *similar* vowels like Spanish /e/ and /o/ and English /e^ɪ/ and /o^ʊ/ would pose the most difficult challenge to English speakers while the *new* Spanish low central vowel /a/ would not be problematic for them. If so, English speakers learning Spanish will fail to hear crucial grammatical features: those related to the e/o difference in verb endings.

E. Predicting Phonological Difficulties Regarding Stress

It remains uncertain which stress properties of the native language actually affect L2 acquisition. Two theory-independent stress perception models have been proposed to predict learners' stress perception performance, based on their L1 stress systems. Both models were tested with learners with different L1s.

The Stress Deafness Model (SDF, Dupoux et al. 2001, Pepperkamp & Dupoux 2002) predicts that the rate of success in perceiving stress differences in a language decreases with increasing regularity (predictability) of stress assignment in the L1. The more regular the L1 stress system is, the more difficulties learners would have in perceiving stress contrasts in a language. Dupoux et al. (2001) found that native speakers of French, in contrast to those of Spanish, showed stress 'deafness', i.e. had difficulties in discriminating stress contrasts. In French, stress is non-contrastive (predictable). In Spanish, however, stress is used to make lexical contrasts (unpredictable). Pepperkamp & Dupoux (2002) examined three other languages with non-contrastive stress and different degrees of stress regularity, Finnish, Hungarian and Polish, and proposed a *stress deafness* hierarchy, classifying languages from Class I (major difficulties in distinguishing stress contrasts) to Class IV (almost no problems distinguishing stress contrasts).

It is worth noticing, however, that the Stress Deafness Model accounts only for learner's general perception ability, and thus, does not make specific predictions about L2 acquisition (Altmann, 2006). Moreover, it fails to consider (phonologically) unpredictable stress languages (i.e. English and Spanish) or non-stress languages (i.e. Chinese and Japanese).

The Stress Typology Model (STM, Vogel, 2000; Altmann & Vogel, 2002), expands on the SDM as it not only includes predictable stress languages, but also unpredictable stress languages and non-stress languages. The STM predicts different degrees of difficulty regarding the acquisition of primary word stress in a certain L2 by speakers of different L1s. This model classifies languages into two categories: stress languages and non-stress languages. Within these categories, stress languages are further divided into predictable and unpredictable categories, and non-stress languages are divided into pitch and non-pitch languages. Speakers of non-stress L1s (i.e. Chinese and Korean) are expected to best perceive L2 stress because there are no L1 stress setting parameters (stress properties) that could interfere with L2 acquisition (i.e. in STM's words, non-stress languages have negative (no) L1 stress setting parameters). Speakers of predictable stress languages (regular stress assignment) (i.e. Arabic and French) will have more problems perceiving the location of stress than unpredictable languages (i.e. Spanish and English) and non-stress languages.

So, assuming the STM's predictions for stress perception, no problem is predicted for English and Spanish. That is, English speakers should perform like Spanish native speakers because Spanish and English share the same stress parameters (properties) (Altmann, 2006, p. 39).

II. THE CURRENT STUDY

The present study investigates both the perception of Spanish vowels /a, e, o/ in word – final position and the perception of final and penultimate stress by beginner American English learners of Spanish, and explores whether beginner learners improve their perception accuracy of vowel and stress contrasts after 90 hours of a Spanish course in the Programa Mar del Plata, Argentina.

The Programa Mar del Plata (Cortés & Menegotto, 2000; Menegotto, 1999, 2005, 2007) is a three-week immersion Spanish language program addressed to young adult students who are supposed to fulfill in three weeks the requirements of two regular courses from an American university (Span 201 and 202) carried out at the Universidad Nacional de Mar del Plata (UNMDP). Students are exposed to 60 hours of in class Spanish language interactions among themselves and with the native teacher and 30 hours of ‘real world’ outside classroom natural interactions with native speakers¹.

The general research questions are:

1. Do English speakers succeed in perceiving Spanish vowels like native speakers?
2. Do English speakers succeed in perceiving Spanish stress like native speakers?
3. Are the 90 hours course load of exposure to Spanish enough to improve students’ vowel and stress perception?

III. METHOD

Perceptual identification tests at the beginning and at the end of the Programa were carried out to answer these questions. A group of American students and a group of native Argentinian speakers participated in this study. Participants’ perception was assessed by a test administered together with the placement tests on the first day of the Program (the pretest) and repeated with the final exams on the last one (the posttest). The test consisted of identification tasks with nonce words.

A. Participants

The participants were 17 American English speakers (4 male, 13 female) and seven Spanish speakers (2 male, 5 female) (Table 1). All English speakers were enrolled in the Programa Mar del Plata, Argentina, and were students of several colleges located in New York City. They had to fulfill the requirements of either SPAN 102, 201 or 202.

The test was administered to all students but learners who spoke a first language other than English were not included in the data analysis. The learners’ average age was 22.6 years. They were all born in the United States; 13 were born in New York. They all began to learn Spanish either in high school or college. Seven learners had prior knowledge of a third language, mostly French, but also Italian, Portuguese and Polish. The control group was seven Argentinians who spoke River Plate Spanish as L1. They had an average age of 27.4 years at the time of testing, and were born in the city where this study was conducted. Neither of the speakers in this study reported any speech or hearing problem.

B. Pretest and Posttest

English and Spanish speakers performed the same test on day 1 (first day at the University, though not first day in Argentina), from now on pretest, and on day 21 (last day of the Program), after 90 hours and three week of project work and Spanish lessons, from now on posttest.

The test consisted of 42 three-alternative forced choice perceptual identification tasks. They were expected to select the trisyllabic nonce words they heard, naturally produced by a female Argentinian contrasting /a, e, o/ in stressed and unstressed word final position. Nonce or non-existent words were used in the perception task as done in several other perception studies (Altmann, 2006; Bullock & Lord, 2003; Dupoux et al., 2001; Kijak, 2009; Pepperkamp & Dupoux, 2002) to avoid a possible effect of familiarity with a real word, or of memorized information regarding the stress location in a lexical item. The test included 42 triplets that differed only in the final vowel and/or stress. Learners heard a target word and checked the answer on their working sheet, for example (1) SEMAPA – (2) SEMAPÁ – (3) SEMAPO.

The 42 non-existent test items did not violate phonotactic constraints of Spanish, and therefore, could be novel words in Spanish. Word-final stressed and unstressed /a, e, o/ appeared twice in each of the three possible triplet word positions in the task, first, second and third. Moreover, each of the three vowels appeared three times in combination with the other two unstressed and stressed vowels (a–o, a–ó, a–e, a–é; o–a, o–á, o–e, o–é; e–a, e–á, e–o, e–ó) after the

¹ Mar del Plata is a main touristic spot in Argentina, well known because of the wonderful beaches crowded with young people and its amazing night life together with entertainment facilities for the whole family. So the Program was designed to both warrant the student’s learning the language and their experiencing the life of the city. The syllabus is based on project work with TAs. TAs are students of Language Arts from Universidad Nacional de Mar del Plata, native speakers of Spanish, who work with the foreign students every afternoon to give them guidance and help in the process of achieving their projects. Foreign students are grouped in teams of 3 to 5 people and assigned a TA, who will help them to develop weekly projects. Project work is a language learning and cultural experience carried out partially outside the classroom which offers the learner an opportunity to take a certain responsibility for their own learning, settle their own objectives for the project and the end-product to be achieved. Project work is carried out during afternoons, while the 4 hour morning classes offer the communicative and grammatical content needed to carry out the project. (Menegotto, 1999; 2005, 2007, Cortés & Menegotto 2000).

following consonants /p, t, k, s, f, r/ (36 stimuli). Within the triplets six distractors were included ending in unstressed and stressed /ɪ, u/.

Soundfiles for the perception test were recorded with Audacity 1.2.6 and downsampled (22050HZ).

The test was carried out in the language lab of the Faculty of Humanities at UNMdP. After the perceptual test, a questionnaire was administered to the participants to collect basic sociolinguistic information. Participants were selected based on the information on the questionnaire.

In the current identification tasks, learners were forced to identify the target vowel against two other possibilities, a task that may be more challenging to the listener than the discrimination task adopted in previous L2 studies discussed earlier. Identification tasks are believed to be more effective in aiding learners to form L2 categories than the discrimination tasks (Jamieson & Morosan, 1886, 1989).

C. Data Analysis

To score the perception tasks, it was first determined if a participant responded correctly or incorrectly to each word, that is, whether (1) the target vowel was perceived; (2) stress was indicated on the syllable that was stressed at the stimuli.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS Inc. version 20.0.0) was used to examine the data. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used. Statistical procedures included (1) independent sample T tests to compare pre and post-test differences in mean percentage correct identification scores between English and Spanish groups, (2) paired T tests to assess improvement from pretest to posttest after three weeks of exposure to L2 Spanish. To investigate whether the listeners perceived vowels and stress differently, the English and Spanish groups' correct identification scores were broken down to three individual vowels (i.e. /a, e, o/) and to two individual stress patterns (i.e. final and penultimate stress). Then, the groups' identification scores on final and penultimate stress were subdivided into the three individual vowels. A significance level of 0.05 was used for all inferential statistics. Mean percentage correct identification scores were converted to arcsine values.

The Spanish native speakers completed the perception task once, so the same data were used to compare learners' pretest results and posttest results.

IV. RESULTS

A. Results on Vowel Perception

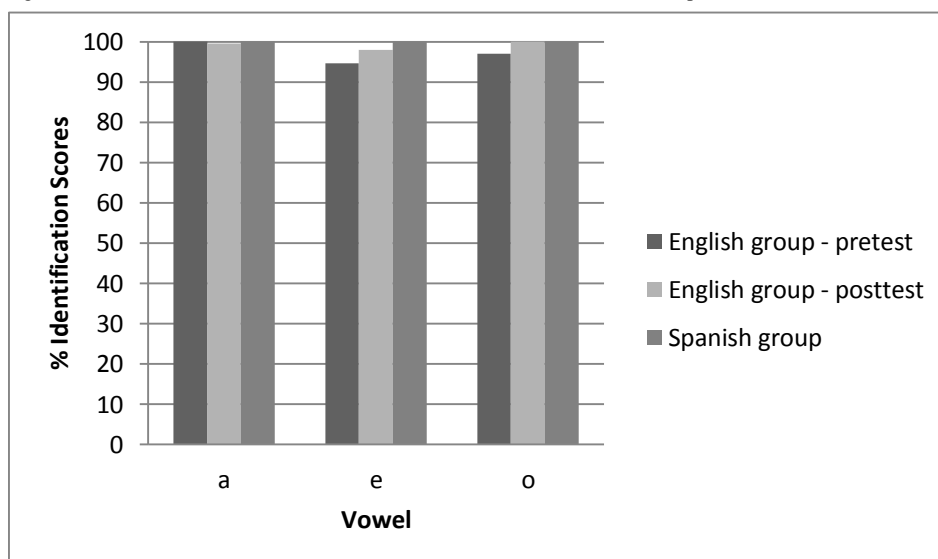
Pretest and Posttest

Overall results. The pretest mean percentage correct identification scores by each group were 97% for the English group and 100% for the Spanish group. The independent sample *t*-test performed to compare mean correct identification scores between the English and the Spanish groups yielded a significant difference between the groups $t(16.000)=4.484$, $p=.000$. These results indicate that, overall, the English group was less accurate than the Spanish group in the perceptual identification of Spanish vowels. In fact, even though there was a statistically significant difference between the groups, 76,5% of subjects identified Spanish vowels with a 97% or more accuracy, indicating that the English learners were actually highly accurate in the perception of vowels.

Posttest results showed no significant difference between the groups on the perception of vowels $t(16.000)=1.826$, $p=.087$. Overall, the mean percentage correct identification scores were 99% for the English group and 100% for the Spanish group. With some exposure to the L2, the English speakers could perform like the Spanish speakers in vowel perception.

Individual vowels. The pretest and posttest mean scores for each group on each vowel are presented in Figure 2. The groups differed in the perceptual identification of /e/ $t(16.000)=3.290$, $p=.006$, and /o/ $t(16.000)=2.530$, $p=.022$. However, the English and the Spanish speakers did not show differences in their performance on the perception of Spanish /a/ at the outset of the study. The fact that there is no significant difference in the perception of vowels in the posttest renders redundant the analysis of individual vowels.

Figure 2. Pretest and Posttest Mean Correct Identification Scores of the Three Spanish Vowels for Each Group



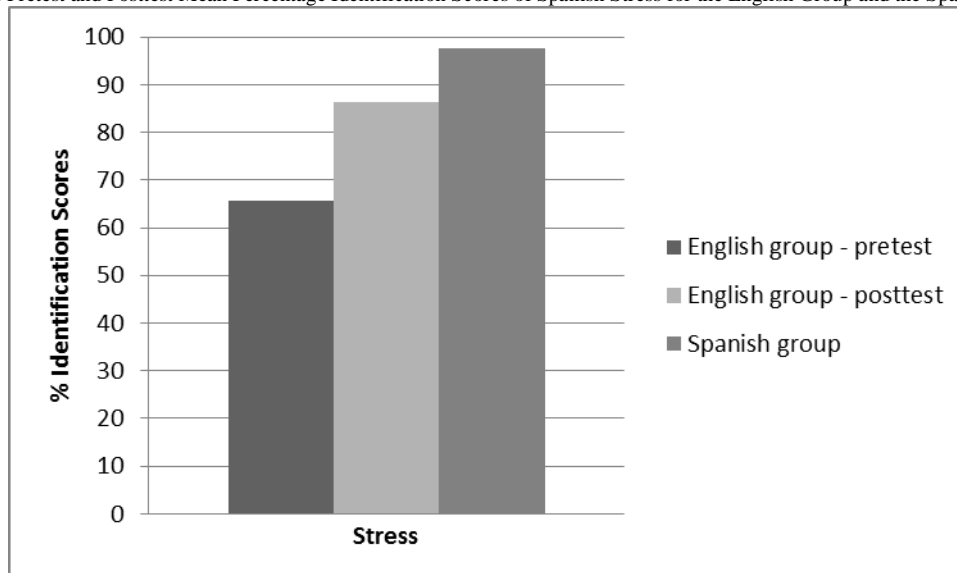
B. Results on Stress Perception

Pretest and Posttest

Overall results. The mean percentage correct identification scores of Spanish stress in the pretest and the posttest for the English and the Spanish groups are presented in Figure 3. The independent *t*-test performed to compare perceptual identification of stress between the English and the Spanish groups in the pretest revealed a significant difference between the groups $t(22)=8.315$, $p=.000$. This result indicates that at the outset of the experiment the English speakers displayed a poor performance in the perceptual identification of stress.

Overall, the identification scores were 86% for English speakers and 98% for Spanish speakers in the posttest. The results after three weeks of exposure to Spanish revealed a significant difference between the English group and the Spanish group $t(22)=2.587$, $p=.017$ in the perception of stress. Even after three weeks of exposure to the target language, the English speakers could not perceive stress contrasts in Spanish like native speakers.

Figure 3. Pretest and Posttest Mean Percentage Identification Scores of Spanish Stress for the English Group and the Spanish Group

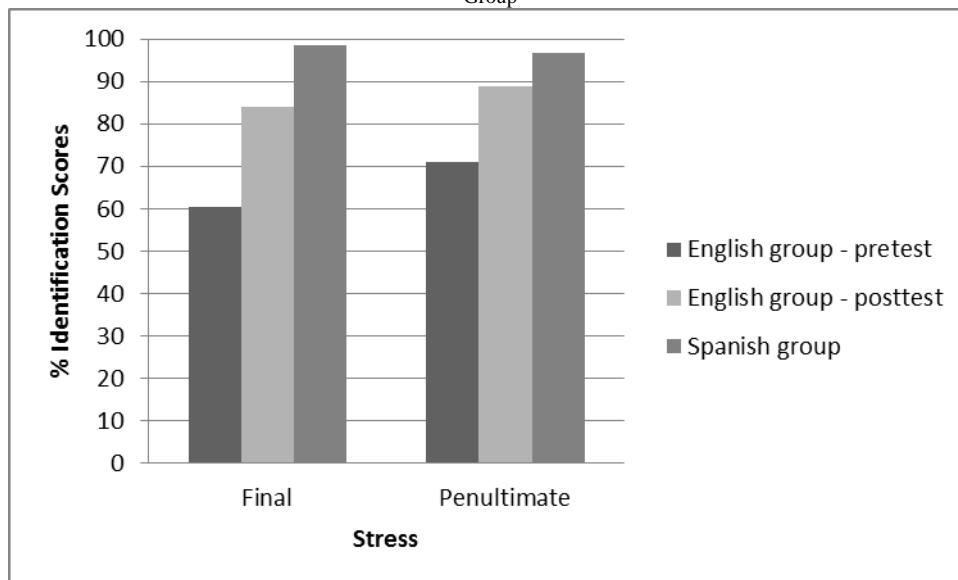


Individual stress patterns. The mean scores for each group on each stress pattern in the pretest and the posttest are presented in Figure 4. A significant difference between the English group and the Spanish group in the perceptual identification of both final stress $t(22)=8.763$, $p=.000$, and penultimate stress $t(22)=3.689$, $p=.001$, was found at the outset of the study.

However, the results after three weeks indicated a significant difference between the English and the Spanish groups in the identification of final stress $t(22)=3.172$, $p=.004$, but no significant difference in the identification of penultimate

stress $t(22)=1.555$, $p=.134$. Contrary to what happened with vowels, even after being immersed in the Spanish language for some weeks, English speakers did not identify final stress in a native-like manner. English speakers, however, reached native levels of accuracy in the perception of penultimate stress after exposure to the target language.

Figure 4. Pretest and Posttest Mean Percentage Identification Scores of Spanish Final and Penultimate Stress for the English Group and the Spanish Group

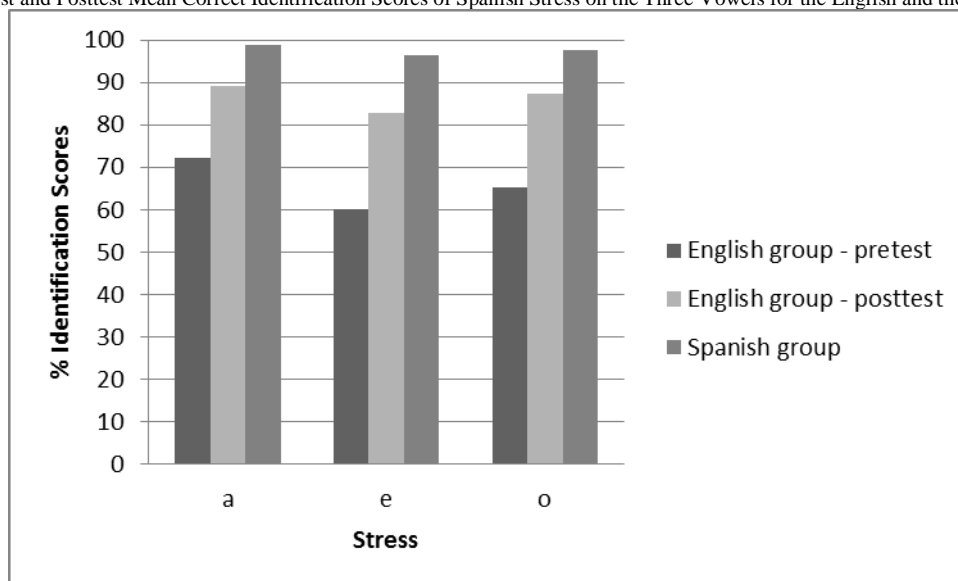


C. Results on Stress and Vowel Perception

Pretest and Posttest

Overall results. The tests performed on the perception of stress on each of the three word-final vowels in the pretest and the posttest (Figure 5) revealed a significant difference between the groups for each of the three word-final vowels at the outset of the experiment: /a/ $t(21.956)=5.948$, $p=.000$, /e/ $t(7.561)=8.705$, $p=.000$, and /o/ $t(22)=5.882$, $p=.000$. Similarly, the analysis yielded a significant difference between the groups in the perception of stress for each of the three vowels after three weeks of exposure to Spanish: /a/ $t(22)=2.681$, $p=.014$, /e/ $t(22)=2.101$, $p=.047$, and /o/ $t(22)=2.378$, $p=.026$. Overall, these results indicate that even after 90 hours of exposure to Spanish, the English speakers could not handle stress contrast on vowels /a, e, o/ like Spanish native speakers.

Figure 5. Pretest and Posttest Mean Correct Identification Scores of Spanish Stress on the Three Vowels for the English and the Spanish Groups



Individual results. The test for final stress across vowels yielded a significant difference between the groups on the three vowels in the pretest: /a/ $t(16.000)=5.650$, $p=.000$, /e/ $t(22)=4.262$, $p=.000$, and /o/ $t(22)=4.976$, $p=.000$ (Figure 6). The same behavior was found for penultimate stress on the individual vowels: /a/ $t(21.275)=3.309$, $p=.003$, /e/

$t(22)=3.281$, $p=.003$, and $/o/$ $t(22)=2.696$, $p=.013$ (Figure 7). Results on both final and penultimate stress show that English speakers performed poorly across each of the three vowels in comparison to the Spanish speakers at the onset of the experiment.

Figure 6. Pretest and Posttest Mean Correct Identification Scores of Spanish Final Stress on Each Individual Vowel for the English and the Spanish Groups

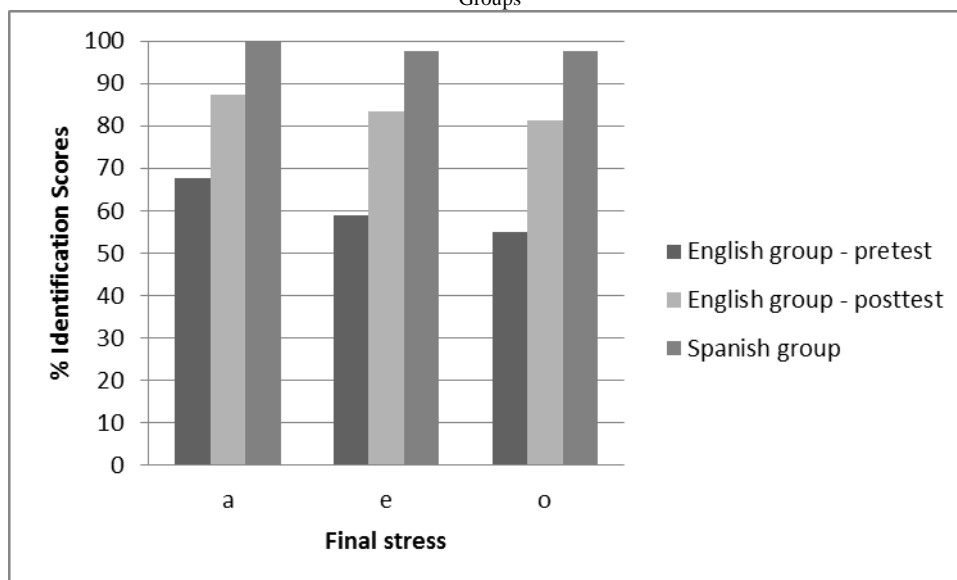
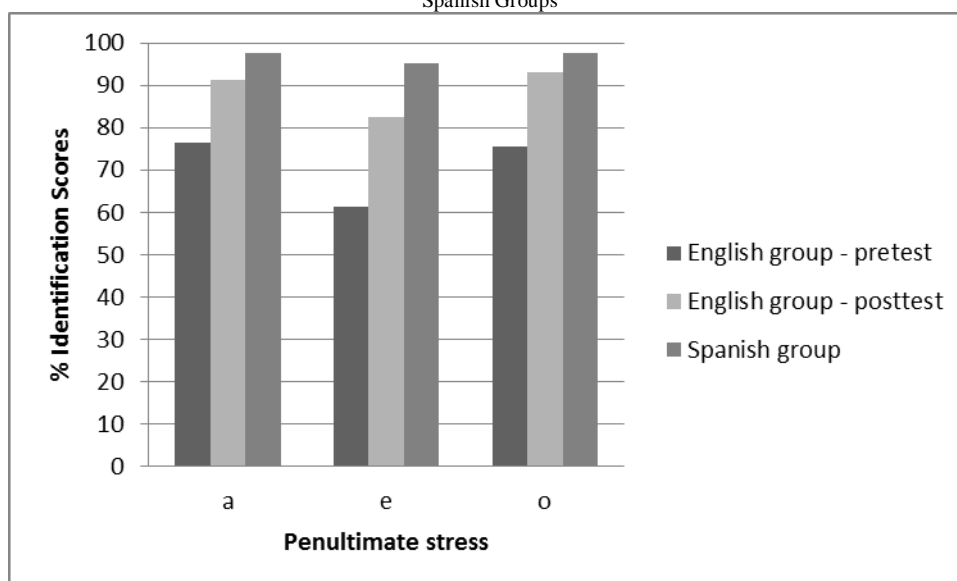


Figure 7. Pretest and Posttest Mean Correct Identification Scores of Spanish Penultimate Stress on Each Individual Vowel for the English and the Spanish Groups



The posttest analysis revealed different results for final and penultimate stress. The t -tests on final stress yielded a significant difference between the groups for each vowel: $/a/$ $t(16.000)=4.515$, $p=.000$, $/e/$ $t(19.627)=2.803$, $p=.011$, and $/o/$ $t(21.189)=2.579$, $p=.017$ (Figure 7). Unlike final stress, the results on penultimate stress showed no significant difference for any of the three vowels between the groups: $/a/$ $t(18.188)=1.352$, $p=.193$, $/e/$ $t(17.347)=1.741$, $p=.099$, and $/o/$ $t(22)=.669$, $p=.511$ (Figure 7). These results reveal that English listeners showed difficulties in the perceptual identification of final stress on the three Spanish vowels. Even after several weeks of exposure to the target language, the English listeners still perceived final stress in a non-native like manner. However, they did learn to perceive penultimate stress across vowels in word-final position like Spanish native speakers.

D. Effects of Exposure to L2 Spanish

Vowel Perception

The paired t -test performed for the English speaker group on vowel perception performance to assess improvement from pretest to posttest, yielded a significant difference between the pretest and the posttest, indicating a general improvement in vowel identification accuracy $t(16)=2.583$, $p=.020$.

The group's perceptual identification scores were broken down to three individual vowels. The *t*-tests carried out on each individual vowel showed significant improvement from pretest to posttest solely for vowel /o/ $t(16)=2.530$, $p=.022$. It is important to note that there was no improvement on vowel /a/ because the group's mean identification score was the same in both the pretest and the posttest; they displayed 100% accuracy.

Stress Perception

The *t*-test revealed that English speakers improved in the perception of stress over time $t(16)=6.672$, $p=.000$. Significant improvement was found in the identification of both final stress $t(16)=4.383$, $p=.000$, and penultimate stress $t(16)=2.618$, $p=.019$ from pretest to posttest (final: 60% vs. 84%, penultimate: 71% vs. 89%), indicating that exposure to the target language brought about improvement in stress perception.

Vowel and Stress Perception

English speakers improved in their perception of stress over time on each of the vowels: /a/ $t(16)=4.099$, $p=.001$, /e/ $t(16)=4.935$, $p=.000$, and /o/ $t(16)=5.664$, $p=.000$.

The analysis of both final and penultimate stress yielded a significant improvement from pretest to posttest in the perceptual identification of final stress on the three vowels: /a/ $t(16)=2.353$, $p=.032$, /e/ $t(16)=2.304$, $p=.035$, and /o/ $t(16)=3.250$, $p=.005$. Similarly, the *t*-tests revealed a significant improvement over time on the perception of penultimate stress on word-final vowels: /a/ $t(16)=2.637$, $p=.018$, /e/ $t(16)=3.293$, $p=.005$, and /o/ $t(16)=3.589$, $p=.002$. The results displayed indicated that three weeks living and studying in a Spanish speaking country brought about improvement in both stress patterns on each of the three vowels at the initial stage of learning.

V. DISCUSSION

Findings in the present study show that English learners perceived Spanish vowels and stress differently.

At the outset of the experiment, the English speakers showed difficulties in the perceptual identification of /e, o/. As predicted by the SLM, similar vowels like Spanish /e, o/ and English /e^l, o^u/ posed difficulties to the L2 learner; the similar but not identical L1 vowels seemed to interfere with the perceptual identification of L2 vowels. It is possible that the adult English speakers perceived Spanish vowels in terms of similar English vowels that are phonetically similar to Spanish ones, thus blocking the formation of accurate Spanish categories, as Morrison (2003)'s results suggest. However, an acoustic analysis would be needed to better assess our speculation on how English vowels are mapped onto Spanish vowels.

In relation to the perception of Spanish /a/ by English speakers, our results support SLM in contrast to the L2LP hypothesis: English speakers showed native levels of perceptual accuracy for Spanish /a/ both in the pretest and the posttest.

Even though the English native speakers in the present study showed some difficulties in the perceptual identification of Spanish /e, o/ at the beginning of the experiment, vowel perception was not proved to be a serious problem. The English speakers perceived all three vowels in a native-like fashion after 90 hours of exposure to the language.

While the ability to perceive L2 vowels might not have been a serious problem for English learners of Spanish in the current study, the perception of stress was a central issue. It was observed in the pretest that English speakers had difficulties in perceiving both final and penultimate stress. Our results did not support the predictions made by the Stress Typology Model: non-predictable stress languages like English and Spanish should have no difficulties in perceiving stress contrasts. Similarly, our findings did not confirm Altmann's (2006) in the reverse scenario i.e. English speakers perceiving Spanish stress contrasts. In her study, Spanish speakers did not have problems in perceiving stress contrasts in English, and in fact, they performed like English speakers. English speakers learning Spanish, however, did have problems identifying stress, proving that English speakers and Spanish speakers perceive stress contrasts differently, supporting the results found in Kijak's (2009) perception experiment. Experiments reported by Cutler & Pasveer (2006) testing the role of stress information in word-recognition by native speakers of English, German, Dutch and Spanish (Cooper, Cutler & Wales, 2002; Cutler & Van Donselaar, 2001; Cutler, Norris & Sebastián-Gallés, 2004; Soto-Faraco, Sebastián-Gallés & Cutler, 2001; Van Donselaar, Koster & Cutler, 2005) found significant differences in the way English speakers exploited stress information in word-recognition. English speakers differed from the speakers of the other three languages in that they made much less use of stress cues: in Dutch, German and Spanish stress information reduces considerably the number of candidate words activated in word recognition, while in English it does not. Lexical stress is more useful in spoken-word recognition in Spanish than in English, and consequently, English speakers pay less attention to stress in general which would explain their poor performance in comparison to Spanish speakers².

The transfer of an L1 stress pattern or the generalization of the rule of penultimate stress in Spanish could explain the difficulties that English speakers encountered in the perception of final stress. Either the L1 stress pattern interfered in the perception of L2 stress or English speakers generalized the rule of Spanish penultimate stress valid for most vowel ending words except verbs to all cases in which words ended in a vowel. So they may be treating stress as fixed

² For further evidence on the use of lexical stress in word recognition read Cooper, Cutler & Wales, 2002; Cutler, Wales, Cooper & Janssen, 2007.

and not optional. They failed to notice that Spanish speakers do stress word-final syllables ending in a vowel to signal past tense or mood contrasts.

Another question to be answered is why English speakers in this experiment encountered difficulties in the perception of penultimate stress. Soto-Faraco, Sebastián-Gallés & Cutler (2001) addressed the role of suprasegmental and segmental information in the activation of spoken words and found that in Spanish, both are employed in exactly the same way in word activation. Similarly, Cutler (1986) analyzing cross-modal associate priming experiments with minimal stress pairs in English (*trusty- trustee*) argued that suprasegmental differences between minimal stress pairs were useless in constraining lexical activation. She found that suprasegmental information in English is redundant because differences in stress nearly always involve differences in vowel quality, and thus, listeners gain little from paying attention to suprasegmentals in word recognition.

Thus, in English, segmental information outweighs suprasegmental information in lexical activation and miss-stressing in English has no inhibitory effect unless it results in an alteration of vowel quality (Bond & Small, 1983; Cutler & Clifton, 1984; Slowiczek, 1991; Small, Simon & Goldberg, 1988). English listeners' judgements of stress in English were reported to be mainly determined by vowel quality rather than by any suprasegmental cue (Fear, Cutler & Butterfield, 1995).

In Spanish, vowels are given their full quality either when stressed or unstressed, contrary to English where the stressing of vowels in one syllable is systematically accompanied by vowel reduction in one or more surrounding syllables (Tyler & Cutler, 2009). These differences may have consequences in the way English speakers process stress in Spanish. If they transfer this processing practice to Spanish, it would be useless because Spanish vowels do not suffer vowel quality changes neither in stressed nor in unstressed syllables.

Cutler (2009, p. 3522) distinguishes three syllable types in English: "stressed with a full vowel (common), unstressed with a reduced vowel (common) and unstressed but with a full vowel (rare)." This latter case would be of interest for the present study as English speakers had a hard time perceiving penultimate stress, i.e. they perceived Spanish word final unstressed syllables with full vowel as a word final stressed syllable with full vowel. Fear, Cutler & Butterfield (1995) studied the production and perception of syllables in English, which varied in vowel quality (full, reduced) and stress, by native English speakers. The authors found that listeners made a distinction between stressed and reduced vowels, grouping unstressed unreduced vowels (i.e. full vowels in unstressed syllables) by preference with stressed vowels. This preference could be observed in the present study, as English learners treated word-final unstressed vowels (which are always full in Spanish) as stressed.

The results of the posttest showed that English speakers learned to perceive penultimate stress like Spanish native speakers while they continued identifying final stress inaccurately. Though learners' perceptual accuracy of both stress patterns improved significantly after 90 hours of exposure to Spanish, more hours of exposure might be necessary for final stress to be perceived in a native-like manner. English listeners in the present study showed a clear tendency to perceive final stress as penultimate stress in accordance with the stress assignment in their L1. Exposure to Spanish alone might not be enough to help the English speakers identify final stress accurately. Future studies need to assess whether targeted training on stress contrasts would bring about enough improvement on the perception of final stress so as to help English speakers perceive this stress pattern like Spanish native speakers.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

As every teacher hopes, learners improved in their perception from pretest to posttest. After 90 hours of exposure to Spanish over a three-week course, English speakers significantly improved in both vowel and stress perception. Exposure was more effective for vowel than for stress perception as English speakers could not perceive final stress in Spanish in a native-like manner.

As predicted by Flege's SLM, vowel perception difficulties did not appear for /a/, which is a new sound for English speakers learning Spanish. Though scarce, perception difficulties appear when L1 and L2 vowels are similar, as is the case for English /e¹, o^u/ and Spanish /e, o/.

However, stress seems to be a major problem for English speakers learning Spanish, in contrast to the predictions made by the STM (Vogel, 2000; Altmann & Vogel, 2002). The English speakers performed poorly in the perception of both final and penultimate stress across the three Spanish vowels when compared to the Spanish speakers. Though they significantly improved in both stress patterns after the three-week Program, English speakers did not reach a native like command of final stress. Stress on the final syllable of a word was the most difficult to identify, in accordance with their L1 stress assignment.

Though 90 hours and three weeks of exposure seem enough to achieve native like perception of vowels in word-final position, it seems that the English speakers might benefit from targeted training on stress contrasts to improve their stress perception.

There are some major limitations that need to be acknowledged and addressed regarding the present study. First, results need to be replicated with a larger number of learners and with different language levels, to check after how many hours of exposure to the language stress perception improvement reaches native like command, if ever. Second, future research needs also to examine whether strictly perceptual or morphologically redundant training has any effect

on stress perception: would training with nonce words have any effect on stress perception of real words or should training with verb contrasts facilitate stress perception?

The issue is by no means minor. In the Spanish verbal morphology system, vowel and stress are key to interpreting the meaning of a verb.

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Relationship between Learners' German Language Communicative Abilities and Their Prior Performance in a National Ugandan Certificate Examination

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Abstract—This article presents research draws on the Communicative Approach to understand the connection between learners' German language communicative abilities (GLCA) and their prior performance in German examinations. The purpose of the research was to establish whether a relationship existed between learners' prior performance in Uganda Certificate of Education (UCE) German examinations and their performance on a GLCA testing tool. A correlational research design was used in this study. Findings indicated a significant relationship between learners' prior performance on the UCE examination and their performance on the GLCA. Indeed, learners that performed better in the UCE examinations were also more likely to perform equally well on GLCA. It was concluded that during the process of preparing learners for UCE German examination, they acquired some basic competencies required to modestly communicate in real-life situations. However, students lacked several other vital competencies that they needed to perform better in more challenging higher level communicative situations outside the classroom. Therefore, it was recommended that teachers of German be provided with a variety of authentic resources that could be used to enhance the teaching and assessing of German in real-life-related communicative contexts.

Index Terms—assessment, communicative approach, German language, language proficiency, language-in-action, authentic resources

I. INTRODUCTION

Current developments in utilizing alternative language teaching and testing approaches to enhance the teaching of languages as well as learning outcomes is a common practice. Therefore, the use of the communicative approach in language teaching and testing, as one of the approaches, has also gained great importance and popularity in recent years due to its emphasis on the ability of learners to communicate in the target language in real-life situations. The theoretical basis of this article is the interactive view of language, which considers language as a communicative tool, whose main use is to build up and maintain social relations between people. Therefore, learners not only need to know the grammar and vocabulary of the language but most importantly they need to know the rules for using them in a wide range of communicative contexts. In this regard, the **Communicative Approach (CA)** to testing is based on the works of several scholars like Hymes (1972), Chomsky (1965), Madsen (1983), Brown (1987), and Canale and Swain (1980) among others. Canale and Swain (1980) categorized communicative competence into three key components namely; grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence. It is worth noting that Canale's (1983) model was so well refined to include discourse competence, among other competencies, which gives a complete representation of communicative competence. Therefore, this study of German language teaching and testing in Uganda draws on the Canale (1983) model of communicative competence to identify the constructs of learners' German language communicative abilities (GLCA), upon which the testing of language competence was based. However, although it is presumed that the essence of learning a language is to be able to use the acquired language abilities effectively for purposes of communication, this may not be the case for learners of German in secondary schools in Uganda. This is understandable given that German penetration as a language is virtually minimal in Uganda, with very few people who can fluently speak German. In fact, it is a widely accepted fact by the teachers of German in Uganda that most of their learners are unable to engage in meaningful real-life communications and interactions, even though they may have performed well in both classroom tests and national public examinations. Therefore, it is not uncommon for learners of German in Uganda, who score very good grades in both classroom tests and national public examinations at ordinary level certificate (UCE) to fail to demonstrate reasonable real-life German language communicative competences, especially in situations where they are required to draw on and apply holistic language competences of listening, reading, writing and oral communicative abilities. This is consistent with the Communicative Approach.

Communicative Approach Model

Communicative approach assumes two purposes of learning a language namely; (1) learning the language to learn it and (2) learning the language to use it. Thus, our conceptualization of communicative language abilities is embedded within the works of different scholars who emphasize various ways of determining the language competence of a learner. According to Stevick (1982, p. 12) “We cannot observe competence completely. We can only make guesses about it on the basis of samples of performance.” This implies that the examiner simply observes a small part of the learner’s total competence and leaves most of the latent competence unobserved. Therefore, assessment of learners’ communicative ability is an issue that requires careful, well guided preparation, and consideration. Bachman (1990, p. 9) contends that “One of the most important and persistent problems in language testing is that of defining language ability in such a way that we can be sure that the test methods we use will elicit language test performance that is characteristic of language performance in non-test situations.” This implies that whenever a test of communicative language ability is being designed, the teacher should start by defining the context in which the learner is required to use the language. The teacher, therefore, works on the assumption that the learner will be able to produce the kind of language required in the specified context. However, given that the German language is not commonly used in Uganda, defining the context of its use is quite problematic and therefore the indicators of German language proficiency is likely to be a very complex process. It is also important to note that knowing enough grammar and vocabulary does not necessarily mean that one can use such tools effectively in real-life situation. Furthermore, Fahrhady (1982, p. 44) contends that “Language proficiency is one of the most poorly defined concepts in the field of language testing”.

Defining Language Proficiency

Nevertheless, in spite of differing theoretical views as to its definition, a general issue on which many scholars seem to agree is that the focus of proficiency tests is on the learners’ ability to use language. Fahrhady (1982) defines language proficiency as being the learners’ ability to use the language for real-life. Consequently, several definitions of communicative language testing have been advanced by several scholars: Albers and Bolton (1995, p. 48) note that:

Im kommunikativen Deutschunterricht sollen die Schülerinnen und Schüler lernen, das Gelernte (Lexik, Syntax usw.) möglichst rasch auf Kommunikationssituationen des Alltags anzuwenden. Dieses Ziel müssen also auch die Tests bzw. die Prüfungen widerspiegeln. Wenn dies nicht der Fall ist, dann sind die Tests nicht valide und erlauben keine Aussagen über den Lernerfolg in Bezug auf die Lernziele.

What we learn from Albers et al is that learners must quickly transfer whatever they have learnt into real-life communication situations. They advocate that if tests are to be deemed valid measures of a learning process, they must reflect the objective of using that language in real-life situations.

Assessment of Language-in-action

Therefore, there is need for German tests and examinations to reflect this communicative language objective. In a related instance, according to Miyata-Boddy and Langham (2000, p. 75) “Communicative language testing is intended to provide the tester with information about the testee’s ability to perform in the target language in certain context-specific tasks”. Context-specific tasks are those tasks that require completion given to a specified situation or condition. Kitao and Kitao (1996, p. 1) also assert that:

Communicative language tests are intended to be a measure how the testees are able to use language in real-life situations. In testing productive abilities, emphasis is placed on appropriateness rather than on ability to form grammatically correct sentences. In testing receptive abilities, emphasis is placed on understanding the communicative intent of the speaker or writer rather than on picking out specific details.

Kitao and Kitao (1996, p. 2) concluded that “Tests intended to test communicative language are judged, then, on the extent to which they simulate real-life communicative situations rather than on how reliable the results are.” In this case, the relative importance of validity as opposed to reliability in the case of tests of communicative language competence is stressed. Because communicative language tests are used with the goal of measuring language learners’ ability to take part in acts of communication or to use language in real-life situations, they achieve this at the expense of reliability. Nonetheless, it is necessary, prior to the assessment of learners’ communicative abilities, to clearly define the tasks of communication required for the success of language use in real-life situations. In this regard, Spolsky (1989 p. 140), also noted that,

Language tests involve measuring a subject’s knowledge of, and proficiency in the use of a language. A theory of communicative competence is a theory of the nature of such knowledge and proficiency. One cannot develop sound language tests without a method of defining what it means to know a language, for until you have decided what you are measuring, you cannot claim to have measured it.

Regarding Spolsky’s argument, it is evident that there is no common definition of language proficiency, on the contrary, different language learning environments have different definitions of what it means to know a language. Therefore, the belief that knowledge of grammar was tantamount to being proficient in the language was out of question as far as communicative language testing was concerned. Fahrhady (1982) argued that,

‘Teaching and testing linguistic forms without paying attention to how these forms are actually used was not sufficient... [in fact] functional or pragmatic competence tests should be concerned with degrees of linguistic, socio-cultural, and communicative ability (strategic competence) of the examinees in order to diagnose a learner’s difficulties in particular language areas.’

Fahrhady (1982), further demonstrated that functional proficiency tests were superior to existing discrete-point and integrative tests. Similarly, Gumperz (1982, p. 209) argued that, “learners must not only be linguistically competent but also communicatively competent, by having appropriate linguistic knowledge and related communicative conventions that speakers must have to create and sustain conversational cooperation.” Indeed, Gumperz (1982) is of a similar view that language testing must involve, in addition to linguistic forms, also the testing of real-life communicative use of the language. However, in order to be able to design relevant tests of learners’ communicative abilities, teachers inevitably need to involve authentic tasks which portray a real-life situation.

Communicative language testing

Weir (1990) also points out that, inauthentic tasks may interfere with the measurement of constructs which we seek. “Tests of communicative language ability should be as direct as possible (with an attempt to reflect the ‘real-life’ situation) and tasks candidates have to perform should involve realistic discourse processing”. Weir (1990, p. 12) further advocates for the use of genuine texts and that care should be taken regarding the determination of the task, task length and its processing in real time. According to Weir (1990, p. 86), test tasks in a communicative language testing should reflect real-life language use in terms of the number of interlocutors, their status and familiarity, a realistic purpose for the task, and appropriate setting, and operation under normal time constraints.

According to Weir (1990), if tests fulfilled the above mentioned qualities, they would be taken to be tests of communicative language competence. However, Neuner, Kruger, & Grever (1990 p. 15) pointed out that:

Es gibt keine “kommunikativen Übungen” als solche; entscheidend ist die Zwecksetzung von Übungen im Hinblick auf die Entwicklung von Kommunikationsfähigkeit.

Neuner, et.al. (Neuner et al., 1990) argued that tests can only be taken to be communicative based on the purpose of the exercises with regard to the development of communicative abilities. This implies that though most test tasks may be those that require the language learners to exhibit their ability to use the language in the way it is used in a natural setting; as such, the whole test will not necessarily be termed as being a test of communicative language ability.

In fact, this is in line with Coombe & Hubley (2007, p. 7) who pointed out that language learners are motivated to perform when they are faced with tasks that reflect real world situations and contexts. Therefore, good testing or assessment should strive to use formats and tasks that mirror the types of situations in which learners would authentically use the target language. Hence, in order to motivate learners to master the language, teachers ought to, whenever possible, attempt to use authentic materials in testing language abilities. Nunan (1989) also indicates that teachers, while designing activities, should consider holistically all language abilities, co-jointly as they interact with each other in natural behaviour, for in real-life as in the classroom, given that most tasks of any complexity involve more than one macro language ability.

Similarly, Olaofe (1994) quotes Davis (1990) who summarised a good language communicative test as,

One that tests communicative abilities and not only grammatical competence, it tests the ability to meet target language needs; it tests performance in a range of situations; it tests for particular objectives; and it controls as all tests must, the necessary requirements of reliability and feasibility... a communicative test must at the same time be broad-based and narrowly focussed... communicative testing like communicative teaching, must be context-based and cannot be generalised from one of the idealised situations.

What we learn from Davis’ (1990) submission is that, a balanced approach to designing communicative language tests is vital, and care must be taken to take into consideration such aspects like language needs of the learner and the context under which the testing is to take place. The test should also not neglect the cardinal principles of good testing which include validity and reliability among others. The validity of a test is considered to be the degree to which the test measures what it claims to measure. Reliability, on the other hand refers to the extent to which a test gives results that are consistent.

Importance of Authenticity of Resources

Apparently, many other scholars also emphasize the importance of authenticity of resources and tasks while designing communicative language tests (Buck, 1998; Oller, 1983; Richards & Rodgers, 1987; VanPatten, 1998; Wesche & Skehan, 2005). They further agree that grammar should be contextualised so as to reflect the fact that grammar should be acquired through communication and not that communication is as a result of knowing grammar.

In fact, Salmani-Nodoushan (2002) also noted that the assessment of learners’ progress has generally continued to focus almost exclusively on control of vocabulary and grammatical structures, thus representing only linguistic competence. To compound this challenge, even further, many classroom activities, and most testing procedures, tend to focus on manipulation of foreign language forms, while minimising attention to social function and meaning.

Salmani-Nodoushan (2002) also contends that communication cannot take place in the absence of structure, or grammar, a set of shared assumptions about how language works, along with a willingness of participants to cooperate in the negotiation of meaning. Sauvignon further quotes research findings of Lightbown and Spada (1990); Ellis (1997) as overwhelmingly supporting the integration of form-focussed exercises and meaning focussed experience. That grammar is important; and learners seem to focus better on grammar when it relates to their communicative needs and experiences.

An important observation is that in testing communicative performance, test items should measure how well learners are able to engage in meaningful, purposeful, and authentic communicative tasks. Learners must have a good

performance linguistically and communicatively. That is, they must have a good command of the key components of language involved in communication. The best exams in this communicative era, according to Madsen (1983) are those that combine the various sub abilities necessary for the exchange of oral and written ideas. He asserts that communicative tests need to measure more than isolated language abilities, to comprehensively indicate how well a person can function in another language.

Similarly Harrison (1983, pp. 77-85) argues that “A test type does not become communicative by simply mixing in a dash of reality: it is communicative because of the use made of it, and if it cannot be used to represent communicative purpose, it cannot be a communicative test”. However, Phan (2008) observed that “It is not certain if test makers can guarantee that learners who perform well in a test in class are also able to do well outside the classroom in a real-life situation. One reason for this is that real-life is characterized by unpredictability.” Designing language tests that reflect unpredictability in language use poses a great challenge that is not well understood.

In the same vein, Hughes (2003) wrote that, “current theories no longer assume that language is primarily about structures (e.g. at the levels of syntax), requiring different types of isolated language components; on the contrary language tends to be viewed as a way of carrying out functions or communicating meanings, therefore relevant test measurements show what learners can do with language.” Similarly, Brown (2005, p. 21) suggests five requirements for setting up a communicative test; meaningful communication, authentic situation, unpredictable language input, creative language output, and integrated language skill that should be observed.

II. RESEARCH QUESTION

This study explored the relationship between learners’ prior performance on German UCE and their GLCA competences. The following question guided this research “To what extent *was there any relationship between prior performance on German UCE examinations and learners’ GLCA?*”

III. METHODOLOGY

The data referred to in this article was collected based on a correlational research design which sought to explore the relationship between learners’ German communicative language abilities, and their prior performance in a standard national examination (UCE). The study was undertaken in seven secondary schools in Uganda, where German language is taught as one of the subjects on the curriculum. The sample of participants was composed of 52 students, who had studied German for four years.

Concerning sex distribution, there were more female respondents (33) than male respondents (19). The reason as to why there were more female learners than male was because of the categorization of schools as “mixed”, “girls only” and “boys only”. This sample was taken from 7 schools, 3 of which were categorized as “mixed”, another 3 as “girls only” and only 1 as a “boys only” school. Therefore, the chances of having more girls than boys in the study were higher.

Furthermore, the age distribution of the learners fell between the ages of 17 and 19 with the majority of them (71.2%) being at the age of 18. The fact that learners belonged to the same age group implied that they had similar language experience and therefore the differences in their language output was not necessarily due to their experiences caused by age.

In order to carry out the investigations, two sets of test results were required namely; results from a National Ugandan Certificate examination (UCE) and results from a test of German language communicative abilities (GLCA). The National Examinations Board is responsible for examining learners of German language, who have completed a 4 year-course at the Ordinary level (O-Level) that leads to the award of the “Uganda Certificate of Education” (UCE). The UCE German examination tested for candidates’ abilities in German grammar, reading comprehension, listening comprehension, composition writing and speaking.

On the other hand, the GLCA was a testing tool based on the principles of communicative language competence. The GLCA was administered to determine learners’ performance on communicative abilities of German language and enable its comparison with prior performance on the UCE. The justification for the choice of the “Modelltest Start Deutsch 2” was based on the fact that it was a follow-up test on the lessons presented in the course book by Funk, Kuhn, and Demme (Funk, Kuhn, & Demme, 2006) which was designed with the aim of developing learners’ communicative competence in German. For this reason and the fact that “Modelltest Start Deutsch 2” tests all the four abilities of language, it can be deduced that it could be an effective test of learners’ communicative competence in German.

Additionally, in order to ensure reliability of the GLCA testing tool, instructions were clearly formulated and an example was provided prior to the beginning of every new task, which helped to make the tasks clearer to all examinees. However, examiner’s variability, especially in the oral test and the writing of the test which required largely subjective responses, posed the biggest threat to test reliability. In order to reduce examiner’s variability, meticulous instructions were given to examiners on how to administer the testing tool and a detailed marking guide was provided. Besides, all examiners were experienced graduate teachers of German language.

IV. RESULTS & ANALYSIS

Data obtained from the two sets of assessment tools (GLCA and UCE) were analyzed using SPSS computer software program to perform correlational procedures to generate descriptive and inferential statistics. This was done by computing the correlation coefficient using the Pearson product moment formula. The correlation coefficients were used to determine the significance of the correlation by a T- test and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

The data presented in this section addresses the hypothesis that “There is no significant relationship between the prior performance on German UCE examination and learners’ German language communicative ability”. The salient results generated from the correlation and ANOVA between performance in GLCA and UCE are summarized in Table 1 through Table 9.

TABLE 1:
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERFORMANCE ON GLCA AND UCE

Results		GLCA	UCE
GLCA	Pearson Correlation	1	0.417(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.003
	N	48	48
UCE	Pearson Correlation	0.417(*)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.003	
	N	48	52

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Results in Table 1 showed that at 5% level of significance, there is a significant relationship ($r = 0.417$, p – value = 0.003) between the performance on GLCA and prior performance on UCE. Therefore, results clearly indicate that a student who performed better at UCE was also more likely to perform better on the GLCA. This result also implied that in the process of preparing learners to successfully take the final UCE examinations, many important basic abilities and aspects of German language needed for purposes of communication are also acquired. However, this could not fully explain why some learners seemed to lack the ability to freely communicate in all the four language abilities i.e. speaking, listening, reading and writing. Therefore, it was found necessary to investigate the relative contribution of each of the four language abilities to the learners’ performance on the GLCA and UCE.

As such, the GLCA testing tool was used to measure the four language abilities (i.e. speaking, listening, reading, and writing). The correlation between the score in each of the four language abilities and UCE was computed using Pearson Product Moment technique. The correlation coefficient was taken to be significant when the p –value was less than 0.05 of significance level. The results are summarized in Table 2:

TABLE 2:
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SCORES IN UCE AND SCORES IN THE DIFFERENT LANGUAGE ABILITIES OF GLCA

GLCA abilities	No. of learners	UCE/GLCA	
		Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)
Speaking ability	52	0.385(*)	0.005
Listening ability	49	0.363(*)	0.010
Reading ability	50	0.301(*)	0.034
Writing ability	50	0.250	0.080

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Looking at the correlation coefficients, the results showed that there was a significant positive correlation between *Grade obtained at UCE* and *Total mark obtained for the GLCA in speaking ability* ($r = 0.385$, p – value = 0.005), *listening ability* ($r = 0.363$, p – value = 0.010), and *reading abilities* ($r = 0.301$, p – value = 0.034). The results revealed that the higher the grade at UCE, the higher the likelihood (chance) of obtaining a higher total mark in the speaking ability, listening ability and reading ability. However, the relationship between performance in both UCE and *GLCA on writing ability* was not significant ($r = 0.250$, p – value = 0.080). The results indicated that in the case of the writing abilities, high performance at UCE did not necessarily mean a high performance on the writing ability on the GLCA testing tool. This finding seems to suggest that much as the learners performed well at UCE and also at GLCA, their ability to communicate in the real-life situation using the writing ability may not have been ably tackled during the process of instruction. In order to further explain the relative contribution of the indicators of the writing ability and the other abilities, a further analysis of learners’ performance was carried out. Table 3 shows scores in the different language abilities and their contribution on the GLCA.

TABLE 3:
SCORES IN THE DIFFERENT LANGUAGE ABILITIES AND THEIR CONTRIBUTION TO THE GLCA ABILITY

Abilities	No. of learners	Mean score	Std. Deviation	F– value	P – values
Speaking	52	5.10	0.16	9.515	<0.001
Listening	49	3.77	1.24	8.602	<.001
Reading	50	3.84	0.9	6.383	0.002
Writing	52	6.56	0.25	20.285	<.001

To find out if there were any differences in the scores on individual indicators of Speaking, Listening, Reading and Writing abilities respectively, an Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was carried out at 5% level of significance. The result

was interpreted to be statistically significant if the p – value computed was less than the 0.05 level of significance, implying a varying contribution of the individual indicators to performance in the language abilities. The results are summarized in Table 4:

TABLE 4:
ANOVA RESULTS

Abilities	F – value	P – values
Speaking	9.515	<0.001
Listening	8.602	<.001
Reading	6.383	0.002
Writing	20.285	<.001

Results in table 4 show that all the p– values were less than the 5% level of significance. This result implied that there were variations in the contribution of the different indicators of each language ability to performance on GLCA. Consequently, there was need to find out which indicators contributed more than the others. The difference in the contribution of each indicator to GLCA performance in the respective language ability was accomplished using the paired sample t-test at 5 percent significance level and the narration of the analysis are presented in sections that follow.

Speaking ability

Speaking ability was measured based on four indicators namely; “*ability to introduce oneself and respond to personal questions*”, “*ability to ask questions and respond to questions concerning daily routine*”, “*ability to get involved in a free conversation*”, and “*ability to control the use of speech acts, grammar and vocabulary in a conversation*”.

Results showed that learners performed differently in the different indicators of the speaking ability. In particular, on the average, the indicator “*ability to introduce oneself and respond to personal questions*” was the best performed while the “*ability to control the use of speech acts, grammar and vocabulary in a conversation*” was the least performed.

To determine whether the differences were due to chance or otherwise, a paired T test was carried out. Table 5 shows the paired sample T test of the scores in speaking ability.

TABLE 5:
PAIRED SAMPLE T TEST OF THE SCORES IN SPEAKING ABILITY

Indicators of speaking abilities	Paired Speaking abilities	T	Sig. (2- tailed)
1. Ability to introduce oneself and respond to personal questions	1 and 2	1.518	0.135
2. Ability to ask questions and respond to questions concerning daily routine	1 and 3	0.814	0.420
	1 and 4	4.374	<.001
3. Ability to get involved in a free conversation	2 and 3	0.227	0.822
4. Ability to control the use of speech acts, grammar and vocabulary in a conversation	2 and 4	- 3.813	<.001
	3 and 4	3.713	0.001

The result is interpreted to be statistically significant if the p–value is less than 0.05 the level of significance, implying varying contributions of the different indicators to performance in the speaking ability. Results in Table 5 show that all the p–values were less than the 5% level of significance. This implies that even though there was a difference in the performance in the different indicators of speaking especially in “*ability to control the use of speech acts, grammar and vocabulary in a conversation*” where learners performed worst compared to the other indicators, this difference in the mean performance were simply due to chance and therefore performance in speaking ability can be equally attributed to all of them.

Listening ability

Three indicators of listening ability namely; *the ability to listen to and understand a telephone exchange*, *the ability to listen to and understand radio announcements*, and *the ability to listen for detail from an extended text*, were scored each out of 5. Then the mean and standard deviations of each was computed.

Results showed that learners performed differently in the different indicators of listening. Scores indicate that the indicator “*ability to listen for detail from an extended text*” was best performed, followed by “*ability to listen to and understand radio announcements*” while the sub ability “*ability to listen to and understand a telephone exchange*” was least performed.

To determine whether the differences were due to chance or otherwise, a paired T test was carried out. The results are summarized in Table 6.

TABLE 6:
PAIRED SAMPLE T TEST OF THE SCORES IN LISTENING ABILITY

Indicators of listening ability	Paired listening abilities	T	Sig. (2 - tailed)
1. Ability to listen to and understand a telephone exchange	1 and 2	- 2.496	0.016
2. Ability to listen to & understand radio announcements	1 and 3	- 5.296	<.001
3. Ability to listen for detail from an extended text	2 and 3	- 3.087	0.003

The result is interpreted to be statistically significant if the p-value is less than 0.05 the level of significance, implying varying contribution of different indicators of listening ability to performance. The results showed that all the p-values were less than 5% level of significance indicating that they were not statistically significant. This implies that the differences in the mean performance between the different indicators of the listening ability were simply due to chance and therefore performance in the listening ability can be equally attributed to all of them.

Reading ability

Three indicators of reading ability, namely; *“the ability to read for details and understand an authentic newspaper advertisement”*, *“the ability to read selectively from a prose text from the internet”*, and *“the ability to read for gist by matching advertisements to situations”*, were each scored out of 5. Then, the mean and standard deviation of each was computed.

Results show that learners performed differently in the different indicators of reading. The mean scores show that the indicator *“ability to read for gist by matching advertisements to situations”* was best performed, followed by *“ability to read selectively from a prose text from the internet”*, while the indicator *“ability to read for details and understand an authentic newspaper advertisement”* was least performed.

To determine whether the differences were by chance or otherwise, a paired T test was carried out. The results are summarized in Table 7:

TABLE 7:
PAIRED SAMPLE T TEST OF THE SCORES IN READING ABILITY

Indicators of reading ability	Paired reading abilities	T	Sig. (2 - tailed)
1. Ability to read for details and understand an authentic newspaper advertisement	1 and 2	- 0.935	0.354
2. Ability to read selectively from a prose text from the internet	1 and 3	- 4.177	<.001
3. Ability to read for gist by matching advertisements to situations	2 and 3	- 2.493	0.016

The result is interpreted to be statistically significant if the p-value is less than 0.05 the level of significance, implying that the contribution of the various indicators of Reading ability were unequal. Results showed that all the p-values were less than 5 percent level of significance indicating that they were not statistically significant. This implies that, although learners performed better in Reading 3 than in Reading 1 and 2 which were performed “equally” well, the differences in the mean performance between the different indicators of the reading ability were simply due to chance and therefore it can be equally attributed to all of them.

Writing ability

Three indicators of writing ability were tested and, each was scored out of 9 and the mean and standard deviation of each was computed. Results showed that learners performed differently in the different indicators of writing. In particular, on the average, the indicator *ability to fill a form* was the best performed, followed by *ability to select a suitable communicative structure of the written text*, and then the *ability to intelligibly carry out a writing task* was the least performed. To determine whether the differences were due to chance or otherwise, a paired T test was carried out. The results are summarized in Table 8.

TABLE 8:
PAIRED SAMPLE T TEST OF THE SCORES IN WRITING ABILITY

Indicators of writing ability	Paired writing abilities	T	Sig. (2 - tailed)
1. Ability to fill a form	1 and 2	- 7.447	<.001
2. Ability to intelligibly carry out a writing task	1 and 3	3.605	0.001
3. Ability to select a suitable communicative structure of the written text	2 and 3	- 3.030	0.004

The result is interpreted to be statistically significant if the p-value is less than the 0.05 level of significance, implying varying contribution of the various indicators of writing ability. Results showed that all the p-values were less than the 5% level of significance indicating that they were not statistically significant. The results implied that, although learners performed differently in the various indicators of writing ability, the differences in the mean performance between the different indicators of the reading ability were simply due to chance and therefore it can be equally attributed to all of them.

The contribution of language abilities to the total performance on GLCA

An Analysis of the Variance model was computed to determine whether the different language abilities contribute differently to GLCA.

Results in Table 9 showed that learners performed differently in the different abilities of language. There was no significant difference between the performances in *“listening ability”* and *“reading ability”*. However, the scores in these language abilities were lower than the scores in *“speaking ability”* but better than the scores in *“writing ability”*.

In order to identify which language abilities contribute more or less to the performance in GLCA, a paired sample T test of the scores in the language abilities was carried out. The results are summarized in Table 9.

TABLE 9:
PAIRED SAMPLE T TEST OF THE SCORES IN LANGUAGE ABILITIES

Language abilities	Paired language abilities	T	Sig. (2 - tailed)
1. Speaking ability	1 and 2	3.903	<.001
2. Listening ability	1 and 3	4.535	<.001
3. Reading ability	1 and 4	8.881	<.001
4. Writing ability	2 and 3	- 0.356	0.723
	2 and 4	2.572	0.013
	3 and 4	3.323	0.002

The result is interpreted to be statistically significant if the p-value is less than the 0.05 level of significance, implying differences in contribution by the language abilities. Results in Table 9 show that there is a significant relationship between performances in the different language abilities, i.e. there is a significant relationship between performance in speaking and listening, speaking and reading, speaking and writing, listening and reading, listening and writing, as well as speaking and writing respectively. This implies that in the cases given above, a good performance in one ability implied that the learner was able to perform similarly well in the other ability. However, results indicate that the performance between the listening and the reading abilities was not significant. This implies that the good performance in listening did not necessarily mean that one would perform well in the reading ability.

V. DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was to establish whether there was any relationship between prior performance on UCE and performance GLCA assessment tool. Overall, the findings indicate a significant linear relationship between the total mark obtained in the GLCA and mark obtained at UCE implying that performance on UCE significantly predicted performance on GLCA. This finding contradicts the earlier assertion that learners who happen to be good performers in UCE may not necessarily be able to communicate well in real-life German communicative situations.

A further investigation of the relationship between scores in UCE and scores in the different language abilities of GLCA revealed a statistically significant relationship between the UCE marks and the total mark in the speaking ability, listening ability and reading ability respectively, indicating that the higher the performance at UCE the better the performance on the three language abilities on the GLCA testing tool.

On the contrary however, the results indicated that the relationship between UCE marks and the writing abilities was no statistically significant, indicating that a high performance at UCE did not necessarily mean a high performance on the writing ability on the GLCA assessment tool. This finding is in line with Kitao's (1996) argument that, "If you decide to test writing in a controlled way and in a way that can be graded objectively, you must do so in a way that does not necessarily reflect how the writing is used in the real world."

After the ANOVA results had revealed that there were variations in the contribution of the different indicators of language ability to performance in that particular language ability, there was need to find out which indicators contributed more than the others. A paired sample t-test at 5% significance level revealed the differences in the contribution of each indicator to performance in the respective language abilities. The paired sample t-test results indicate that, for all the four language abilities, the differences in the mean performance between the different indicators and the respective language ability were not statistically significant; implying that performance in that particular language ability can be equally attributed to all of its indicators.

The aim of this study was to establish whether there was any relationship between performance on UCE and GLCA testing tool. Overall, the findings suggest that performance on UCE significantly predicted performance on GLCA. This contradicts the earlier assertion that learners who may appear to be good performers in Ugandan tests may not necessarily be able to communicate well in real-life German communicative situations.

Testing of learners' German language abilities, therefore, if it has to involve the use of language in the real world must involve such forms of exercises that reflect the way language is put to use in the real world situation. The implication of this is that the teacher has to be aware of the ways in which the language s/he is assessing can be put to use (communicative competence), and accordingly develop a testing model which is suitable to the existing situation.

VI. CONCLUSION

The findings of this study revealed a positive relationship between learners' prior performance on UCE and GLCA in particular on the abilities of listening, reading and speaking. This implies that a learner performing better on UCE was also more likely to perform well on GLCA aforementioned language abilities. On the other hand, there was a negative relationship between learners' prior performance on UCE and GLCA on the writing abilities. A further analysis of the contribution of each of the four language abilities to learners' performance in the GLCA revealed a significant relationship between performance in the speaking and the listening ability, speaking and the reading ability, speaking and the writing ability, listening and the reading ability, listening and the writing ability, and speaking and the writing ability. This implies that a good performance in each one ability meant that the learner was able to perform similarly well in the other ability. This *research* makes its *contribution* by exposing gaps in the way testing of learners' GLCA is carried out in a Ugandan situation where German is not widely spoken and where there are very few opportunities, if

any, for learners to practice the use of German outside the classroom environment, and where the environment is characterized by factors that do not favor communicative language teaching and testing.

Finally results suggest that much as the teachers of German in Uganda have to take into consideration the needs and expectations of the final examination, they have to ensure that testing serves the communicative needs of their learners. This implies that teachers need to constantly make analysis of the communicative needs of their learners, and that all testing must be contextualized in terms of why, where, and for what purpose they are being undertaken. Consequently, teacher training institutions need to emphasize the requirements for communicative language testing and train teachers in the design and administration of communicative language tests.

Similarly, Uganda National Examinations Board (UNEB) must reform its German language examinations so as to measure for candidates' communicative language abilities needed in the real life situation. In case of tests of reading and listening comprehension, texts need to be got from authentic sources that reflect the use of the German language in real-life situation. These may include sources like television, e.g. talk shows, news programs, advertisements etc. or from radio e.g. news, weather reports, etc. Listening texts should be recorded by native speakers of the German language with a clearly well-articulated speech and a moderate speed. Similarly, tasks for the writing ability tests should be formulated in such a way that they provide more information about the context of writing, i.e. the recipient and the purpose of the text. Appropriate text types are: letters, applications, and post cards among others. Instead of testing learners to write a picture story, learners should be introduced to writing tasks that reflect a purpose as it is in real-life communication such as letter writing, and filling forms.

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Making Complaints—Proficiency Effects on Instructor- and Peer-directed Email Correspondence*

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Abstract—Computer-mediated communication tools have allowed users to interact across geographical and temporal borders. Among them, emails are extensively used for communicative, pedagogical, and social purposes, but relatively little research attention has been paid to the social interaction or speech styles in them. This study explored complaint strategies and discourse features, focusing on supportive moves and internal modifiers, of instructor- and peer-directed emails produced by English learners of low and intermediate levels, with each group being consisted of twenty-two participants. The results showed that the two groups were similar in complaint strategies used towards the instructor and peers by preferring explicit complaints and also in the production of significantly more supportive moves and downgraders towards the instructor to reduce the face threat. Nonetheless, justification, preferred by the intermediate learners as a supportive move, offered a legitimate stance to complain and appeared to make emails more appropriate and more effective to appease the addressee's unhappiness than the sole use of formulaic expressions of politeness, utilized most often by the low learners. This study suggested that whereas the low learners were still at the first phase of the interlanguage development characterized by the use of simple formulas, the intermediate learners had slightly moved forward.

Index Terms—complaints, email, strategy, supportive moves, internal modifiers, severity, status

I. INTRODUCTION

With the widespread popularity of the internet, computer-mediated communication (CMC) tools have enabled users to interact across geographical and temporal borders. CMC can be either synchronous, which requires users' real-time, immediate responses, or asynchronous, where delayed responses and non-real-time interactions are allowed. Emails, an asynchronous CMC mode, are extensively used and sometimes are preferred to face-to-face interactions (Canary, Cody, & Manusov, 2000; Duran, Kelly, & Keaten, 2005). They are also often utilized in academic settings both for pedagogical functions of promoting learners' participation, communication, and writing fluency, and for communicative functions of making announcements, appointments, and even the students' offer of excuses for late work (Duran, et al., 2005).

In addition, emails serve the social function of maintaining interpersonal relationships (e.g. Baron, 1998; Bloch, 2002; Johnson, Haigh, Becker, Craig, & Wigley, 2008), which can be achieved via various strategies, especially those emphasizing common ground, reciprocity, and cooperation (Vinagre, 2008). However, this essential social aim of emails can be at risk when a face-threatening act, which threatens the email recipient's wants for personal freedom or desire to be appreciated, is involved, but emails at the same time can serve as a channel to mediate the anxiety of communicating (Kelly, Keaten, & Finch, 2004) and may allow these acts to be produced with more comfort and ease than face-to-face interactions. The double-edged characteristics make the email senders' face-threatening acts worth investigating. However, current CMC research is mainly task-based that explores issues regarding cost, efficiency, and productivity (Cutler, 1996), and little attention has been given to its impacts on the social interaction or speech styles, leaving a niche for further research. Though Hong (2012a) has initially addressed this issue based on a preliminary study, more in-depth explorations and discussions are needed.

Features of Email Correspondence

Emails are a type of asynchronous computer-mediated communication (CMC) tool. Due to their capacity of allowing delayed responses, writers can, at their own pace, take all of the concerns into consideration and concentrate on planning and structuring a socially appropriate email before sending emails (Walther, 1996). Emails could be particularly advantageous for conflictive interactions since they enable users to carefully phrase messages, manage emotion, and have a better control over time and space (Shapiro & Allen, 2001) and mitigate confrontations that might be caused. Being text-based with few contextual cues of vocal inflection, gestures, and facial expressions, which generally convey social meaning such as the sender's attitudes towards recipient (Murray, 1995), email writers need to employ politeness strategies to assure the cooperative interaction (Smith, 2003). Some researchers have also claimed

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that emails can be beneficial for second language (L2) learners as they provide ample opportunities to interact, negotiate meaning with authentic recipients by carefully-planned expressions (Gaer, 1999) and select between formal and informal language forms appropriate for the rhetorical contexts (Bloch, 2002). They also offer an alternative communication channel for students, who do not appreciate face-to-face interactions, to communicate with instructors and peers (Warschauer, 1999) and thus level the barriers between teachers and students in traditional classrooms (Hawisher & Moran, 1993).

Despite the communicative and pedagogical benefits, there exist concerns for the informality of the language being used in emails. A major challenge still results from the lack of paralinguistic or contextual cues. Because of the invisibility of the recipient, email writers could not obtain contextual cues and therefore are likely to ignore their obligation to behave following the social conventions and majority judgments (Smilowitz, Compton & Flint, 1988). For instance, Duran et al.'s (2005) study showed that professors commonly received students' emails with poor grammatical content, inadequate punctuation, and informal tone, reflecting that speed and efficiency take precedence over appropriateness. Baron (2001) has also indicated students' tendency towards informality by regarding it as a trend.

Undesired directness might be another product of emails. As Cameron (2003) has pointed out that that communication in general is increasingly characterized by a "preference for directness over indirectness" (p. 29), this tendency can be prominent with emails because of their de-individuation, which makes the writers prioritize efficiency regardless of the recipient's status or social distance (Sussman & Sproull, 1999). The directness can be particularly problematic with L2 learners, whose email experience has been mostly among peers and equals, when they correspond with higher-status email recipients even if they tend to conform to traditional power routines in face-to-face encounters (Drake, Yuthas, & Dillard, 2000). Participants' status differences may become obscured owing to the absence of social context cues (Baron, 1984), leading to language that lacks status congruence (Herring, 2002; Sproull & Kiesler, 1986, 1991) and socially inappropriate emails.

Research on Face-threatening Acts in Email

While many email studies examine the discourse, such as strategy use and functions (e.g. Bloch, 2002; Duran, et al., 2005; Johnson, et al., 2008; Vinagre, 2008), few have addressed email writers' specific acts, which are quite often collected through the use of discourse completion tasks, i.e. an open-ended questionnaire providing situational cues for the respondents. However, as email correspondence grows in popularity, speech acts, particularly face-threatening acts that might risk the recipient's face, should be explored as they frequently occur in emails and might result in misunderstandings and confrontations.

Requests, among types of speech acts, have received some interests from researchers of emails. Requests are a face-threatening act, requiring a person to do something that s/he may be reluctant to do and thus risking her/his negative face (Brown & Levinson, 1987) by violating the wants to be free from imposition. In general, empirical studies (e.g. Biesenbach-Lucas, 2006a, 2006b) have suggested that students write more formal emails to professors despite the general impression that their email messages are characterized by informality with poor syntax and abbreviations. Focusing on L2 learners, Lee (2004) examined request strategies in emails sent by Chinese learners of English to their teachers, who were traditionally regarded as authority, and found that the learners preferred direct requests while they mitigated the face threat and showed respect by linguistic politeness devices. Similar findings were reported in Chen's (2006) longitudinal study, which viewed the preferences for direct forms of requests as a means to make messages urgent so as to receive attention.

Cross-cultural differences also emerge in requestive emails. Chen's (2001) study of American and Taiwanese graduate students' requestive emails to faculty revealed that the two groups shared similar preferences for using strategies of query preparatory and want statements, but their difference lay in directness levels and amounts of lexico-syntactic politeness features. Biesenbach-Lucas (2007), who examined requestive emails sent by native and non-native English speaking graduate students to faculty, has reported that native speakers demonstrated greater resources in creating polite messages than nonnative speakers, whose directness may result from lack of experiences and uncertainty about email etiquette because typically email appropriateness is not explicitly taught. Therefore, Shetzer and Warschauer (2000) have placed strong emphasis on developing L2 learners' pragmatic competence, i.e. ability to relate utterances to the communicative goals and to the features of the language use setting (Bachman & Palmer, 1996), for CMC, including the ability to perform speech acts by appropriate strategies. It would be essential for instructors to realize learners' difficulty in composing socially appropriate emails and then integrate email etiquette into instruction, whether it is explicit or implicit.

In spite of existing studies on requestive emails, rare studies examined other face-threatening acts in emails. Complaints, a speaker's expressions of grievances (Clyne, 1994), may also be carried out via emails. They can risk the addressee's positive face because they are performed when a person's behavior is considered problematic and threatens the desire to be appreciated (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Similar to requests, some contextual variables might influence the speaker's decision on the directness of complaints, for instance, the complainer's and the complaine'e's status differences and familiarity levels. Therefore, different strategies (e.g. Olshtain & Weinbach, 1993) and various external and internal mitigative linguistic devices (e.g. Trosborg, 1995) may be employed depending on how direct the speakers intend to be. With the growing emphasis on email etiquette, to realize complaints through strategies and mitigative devices with due attention to contextual variables appears to be crucial in determining the success of email exchanges

because they can minimize the risk of a communication breakdown resulting from linguistic or cultural misunderstandings, especially in a context where non-verbal communication is reduced to emoticons and punctuation marks.

Since almost none of the previous research addressed complaint emails, they become the target of the present study, with the focus on Chinese learners of English of two proficiency levels. The research questions are:

1. What are the differences between complaint strategies and discourse features in emails written by low and intermediate learners?
2. What are the differences of complaint strategies used towards instructors and peers produced by low and intermediate learners?

II. METHODOLOGY

Participants

Forty-four English learners, who were college students in Taiwan, participated in this study. They were either low or intermediate level of English proficiency, defined according to their performances in a simulated paper-based TOEFL test prior to the email exchanges of this study. The subjects were categorized into the low group if their scores were lower than 420 while those whose scores were higher than 450 were regarded as having an intermediate level of proficiency¹.

Procedures

In this study, the participants wrote complaint emails—two to the instructor, i.e. the researcher, and two to the peers. In peer-directed emails, each proficiency group was divided into two sub-groups, with one group complaining and the other responding² in the first two exchanges and switching roles in the other two. There were six topics, as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
THE SIX SCENARIO TOPICS³

Scenario number	Email recipient	Scenario topic
1	instructor	Your paper's grade was much lower than you expected.
2	instructor	Your late assignment was rejected whereas another student's was accepted.
3	peer	Your partner doesn't do anything for the project.
4	peer	Your classmate is always at least 30-minute late for meetings.
5	peer	Your classmate often borrows your stuff and never returns it.
6	peer	Your classmate never does assignments and always wants to copy yours.

Coding Scheme and Statistical Analysis

The coding of this study involved the complaint strategies and discourse features, which focused on supportive moves and internal modifiers (lexical repertoire) used to modify the intensity of complaints. The coding of the complaint strategies included hints, indirect requests for repair, disapproval, direct requests for repair, explicit complaints, and accusations, which are defined and exemplified as follows.

(1) Hint:

The complainer avoids explicit mention of the offensive event to evade confrontations.

E.g. "So, I think that "Good credit makes future loans easier." (I18, Email 5)⁴

(2) Indirect request for repair:

The complainer may request for remedial actions or demand that the offensive behavior never occur again. Indirect requests may take the form of "Would you do X".

E.g. "Would you please check my presentation again or give some advice?" (I1, Email1)

¹ If the subjects had passed equivalent proficiency tests, such as TOEIC and General English Proficiency Test (GEPT), a national English proficiency test in Taiwan, they could be exempt from the pre-test. The highest score for the low group and the lowest score for the intermediate group were 500 and 550, respectively. With regard to GEPT, subjects who had passed beginning and intermediate levels of the test were assigned to the two groups accordingly.

² Although leaving unanalyzed, the email replies from peers were still produced to make email-exchange tasks authentic.

³ The scenarios are adapted from Hong (2012b).

⁴ The examples for the strategies are selected from the data of the present study. The parenthesis at the end indicates the source of the example, with *I* or *B* referring to the intermediate or the low group followed by the code number of the subject.

TABLE 2
DEFINITIONS AND EXAMPLES OF SUPPORTIVE MOVES

Supportive Move	Definition & Example
Self-introduction	The complainer introduces himself/herself. E.g. "I am your English writing's student, Winnie." (B4, Email 1)
Preparator	It "prepares" the speech act by utterances that break the ground or warn the complainees that a complaint is forthcoming. E.g. "I have a question need to ask you." (I13, Email 2)
Recognition of responsibility/ fault	It reflects that the complainer's awareness of the responsibilities for the offence. E.g. "I know is my fault to hand this assignment late." (B7, Email 2)
Expression of politeness	The complainer expresses politeness by apologizing or showing appreciation. E.g. "I am very sorry for my late assignment." (B3, Email 2)
Expression of empathy	The complainer shows understandings of how the complainees feels or finds excuses for the complainees. E.g. "Therefore, when you refused my late assignment, I can totally understand." (I15, Email 2)
Promise for future actions	The complainer promises some remedial actions. E.g. "If I know the promble(m) of my paper I will correct it soon and remember it." (B15, Email 1)
Offer of help	The complainer shows willingness to help solve problems. E.g. "When you do not come to school you do not know homework, I can tell you how to do." (I13, Email 6)
Justification	It legitimatizes the complaint with reasons and explanations. E.g. "The PSP is so expensive and it my birthday present. Therefore that PSP is very important to me. Because you are my best friend, so I can lent the PSP for you." (I16, Email 5)

(3) Disapproval:

The complainer voices unhappiness vaguely to sound like general annoyance, but s/he has made it clear that a violation has occurred.

E.g. "I was very angry at that time." (I3, Email 2)

(4) Direct request for repair:

This strategy has similar functions as (2) but with a higher severity level. It can take the form of imperatives or statements such as "you must/should do X!"

E.g. "Have a little team spirit, please." (B11, Email 3)

(5) Explicit complaint:

The complainer explicitly expresses complaints by references either to the offense or to the complainees, but no sanctions are included.

E.g. "Why you accepted his late assignment but rejected mine." (B4, Email 2)

(6) Accusation:

In addition to explicit complaints, this strategy connotes potential sanctions.

E.g. "If the whisper is real, I will tell the dean to complain." (I3, Email 2)

In addition to complaint strategies, the participants used a variety of supportive moves, including preparators, self-introductions, recognition of responsibility/ fault, expressions of politeness, expressions of empathy, promises for future actions, offer of help, and justification, defined and exemplified in Table 2. Internal modifiers were also produced, including upgraders and downgraders (Trosborg, 1995), with the former increasing the intensity of the complaint and the latter reducing the face threat to make the complaint polite. The upgraders included intensifiers (e.g. *so*, *very*), overstaters (e.g. *all*, *every*, *always*), and commitment upgraders (e.g. *I'm sure*, *I'm certain*) whereas the downgraders were consisted of downtoners (e.g. *perhaps*, *a little bit*), subjectivizers (e.g. *I think*, *I am afraid*), appealers (e.g. *ok*, *don't you think?*), and politeness markers (e.g. *please*).

The complaint strategies were categorized by two coders, and the inter-rater reliability of the coding of emails sent to the instructor and the peers was .86 and .87, respectively⁵. Then, the strategies used by two proficiency groups and the impacts of the variable of status on the learners' complaint emails were analyzed by Chi-square. The two groups' overall use of supportive moves and internal modifiers were also processed by Chi-square analyses.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Both groups used all of the six complaint strategies, including hints, indirect requests for repair, disapproval, direct requests for repair, explicit complaints, and accusations. Among all of the strategies, explicit complaints were most oft-used by both groups (low: 43%; intermediate: 42%), and no significant inter-group differences were found between the two groups' strategy use ($\chi^2 = 6.148$, $p > .05$) or that in emails sent to either type of the recipients (instructor: $\chi^2 = 3.756$, $p > .05$; peer: $\chi^2 = 5.196$, $p > .05$). As indicated in Table 3, the addressee's status also did not seem to cause significant intra-group differences in the two group's strategy preferences.

Moreover, the two groups were similar in terms of supportive moves and internal modifiers with only slight differences. Table 4 reveals that they used the same range of the moves to addressees of two status types, with the low group utilizing expressions of politeness (28%) most often and the intermediate group choosing justification (34%). The

⁵ Twenty percent (Cohen, 1960) of the emails sent to the instructor and the peers were randomly selected for the inter-rater reliability test.

same preference was revealed in the two groups' emails to the instructor, but in peer-directed emails, preparators were most preferred (low: 36%; intermediate: 40%). A higher level of homogeneity was found in the two groups' use of internal modifiers (see Table 5), with subjectivizers (low: 47%; intermediate: 49%) and intensifiers (low: 56%; intermediate: 63%) being most preferred by both groups among downgraders and upgraders, respectively. They were also both inclined to use significantly more supportive moves (low: $\chi^2 = 31.164$, $p < .001$; intermediate: $\chi^2 = 26.444$, $p < .001$) and downgraders (low: $\chi^2 = 10.499$, $p < .01$; intermediate: $\chi^2 = 6.963$, $p < .01$) to the instructors than to the peers.

TABLE 3
THE TWO LEARNER GROUPS' FREQUENCY OF STRATEGY USE IN EMAILS TO INSTRUCTORS AND PEERS

Strategy	Low			Intermediate		
	Instructor	Peer	Total	Instructor	Peer	Total
Hint	5 (3%)	10 (5%)	15 (4%)	1 (1%)	5 (3%)	6 (2%)
Indirect Request	33 (22%)	46 (24%)	52 (15%)	42 (26%)	36 (20%)	54 (16%)
Disapproval	29 (19%)	23 (12%)	79 (23%)	29 (18%)	25 (14%)	78 (23%)
Direct Request	16 (11%)	22 (12%)	38 (11%)	19 (12%)	33 (18%)	52 (15%)
Explicit Complaint	67 (44%)	80 (42%)	147 (43%)	68 (42%)	76 (41%)	144 (42%)
Accusation	2 (1%)	10 (5%)	12 (4%)	2 (1%)	9 (5%)	11 (3%)
Total	152 (100%)	191 (100%)	343 (100%)	161 (100%)	184 (100%)	345 (100%)
Chi-square	$\chi^2 = 7.592$, $p > .05$			$\chi^2 = 10.607$, $p > .05$		

Note. The percentage is indicated in the parenthesis.

As statistic analyses yielded no significant differences between the low and intermediate learners' use of complaint strategies, supportive moves, and internal modifiers in emails, it seems to suggest that the subjects' proficiency difference did not contribute to complaint emails in terms of face-threatening levels. The obscured proficiency differences might have been related to the asynchronicity of emails, which allow writers time to plan the content and select among expressions of different degrees of formality and directness. Therefore, despite their proficiency levels, learners can search within linguistic repertoire at disposal and spend as much time wording and structuring as is needed, and therefore the influences of proficiency can be diminished.

TABLE 4
THE TWO GROUPS' FREQUENCY OF SUPPORTIVE MOVES IN EMAILS TO INSTRUCTORS AND PEERS

Moves	Low			Intermediate		
	Instructor	Peer	Total	Instructor	Peer	Total
Preparator	9 (11%)	17 (36%)	26 (20%)	7 (9%)	18 (40%)	25 (20%)
Self-introduction	9 (11%)	1 (2%)	10 (8%)	7 (9%)	0 (0%)	7 (6%)
Recognition of responsibility	7 (8%)	0 (0%)	7 (5%)	5 (6%)	0 (0%)	5 (4%)
Expression of politeness	28 (34%)	9 (19%)	37 (28%)	22 (27%)	5 (11%)	27 (22%)
Expression of empathy	5 (6%)	1 (2%)	6 (5%)	1 (1%)	0 (0%)	1 (1%)
Promise for future actions	4 (5%)	1 (2%)	5 (4%)	7 (9%)	0 (0%)	7 (6%)
Offer of help	0 (0%)	8 (17%)	8 (6%)	0 (0%)	4 (9%)	4 (3%)
Justification	19 (23%)	6 (13%)	25 (19%)	28 (35%)	15 (33%)	43 (34%)
Others	2 (2%)	4 (9%)	6 (5%)	3 (4%)	3 (7%)	6 (5%)
Total	83 (100%)	47 (100%)	130 (100%)	80 (100%)	45 (100%)	125 (100%)
Chi-square	$\chi^2 = 31.164$, $p < .001$			$\chi^2 = 26.444$, $p < .001$		

In spite of the general similarity, inter-group differences are discernible in indirect requests towards recipients of the two status types. Complaint strategies, which did not explicitly voice the offence or unhappiness towards the complaine and were thus milder in terms of severity, included hints, indirect requests, and disapproval. It seems reasonable to assume that the less severe strategies would be preferred with instructors, who had authoritative status, whereas the severer strategies would be used more frequently with peers. While the both groups' complaint emails were in general consistent with this assumption, exceptions were found in the two groups' use of hints and the low learners' indirect requests. It may be explainable that both groups used more hints with peers, who shared more information for interpreting hints than instructors. However, the low learners' use of more indirect requests towards the peers was

contradictory to the assumption whereas their intermediate counterparts showed an opposite tendency, reflecting the low learners' relative instability in terms of conducting face-threatening acts, particularly when superiors were involved.

TABLE 5
TYPES AND FREQUENCY OF THE INTERNAL MODIFIERS

Internal modifier	Email type	Low			Intermediate		
		Instructor	Peer	Total	Instructor	Peer	Total
Downgrader							
downtoner		12 (12%)	4 (5%)	16 (9%)	11 (11%)	10 (14%)	21 (12%)
Subjectivizer		42 (41%)	41 (56%)	83 (47%)	48 (47%)	37 (51%)	85 (49%)
Appealer		0 (0%)	3 (4%)	3 (2%)	1 (1)	9 (13%)	10 (6%)
Politeness		48 (47%)	25 (34%)	73 (42%)	42 (41%)	16 (22%)	58 (33%)
Marker		102 (100%)	73 (100%)	175 (100%)	102 (100%)	72 (100%)	174 (100%)
Upgrader							
Intensifier		56 (88%)	33 (35%)	89 (56%)	59 (79%)	47 (50%)	106 (63%)
Overstater		6 (9%)	58 (62%)	64 (41%)	16 (21%)	45 (48%)	61 (36%)
Commitment		2 (3%)	3 (3%)	5 (3%)	0 (0%)	2 (2%)	2 (1%)
upgrader		64 (100%)	94 (100%)	158 (100%)	75 (100%)	94 (100%)	169 (100%)
Chi-square		$\chi^2 = 10.499, p < .01$			$\chi^2 = 6.963, p < .01$		

On the other hand, the asynchronicity seems to connote the email sender's higher level of indirectness and politeness, with the intention to reduce the face threat caused by the complaint. Nonetheless, the explicit complaint, which was direct and severe in comparison with the other strategies, was most frequently used in both groups' emails and therefore contradicts the assumed positive association between emails and indirectness. This tendency might be accountable from the nature of emails. Different from face-to-face interaction, which allows hints and silence, email writers have a specific purpose to elaborate to cue the recipient about the offence, leading to their use of explicit complaints, and etiquette can only be conveyed through supportive moves or internal modifiers. Therefore, unlike the findings of previous studies based on other elicitation tasks such as the written discourse completion task and role-plays (e.g. Chen, 2006; Hong, 2009), the learners of the present study preferred explicit complaints rather than requests or other milder strategies despite the high severity.

The learners' directness also accorded with the tendency reported in the literature. Although many interlanguage speech act studies centered on advanced learners' behaviors, few studies, which have classified low and intermediate learners as low-level learners, have suggested that they not only use a limited variety of politeness strategies with little sensitivity being shown (Scarcella, 1979; Walters, 1979) but also are unable to act in socially appropriate ways though they might have no difficulty in performing the illocutionary meaning (Tanaka, 1988). In addition to the relative easiness of the direct form of complaints, which directly map the propositional meaning and the linguistic form, Biesenbach-Lucas (2007) has suggested that learners are direct because they lack experiences of writing polite emails and are uncertain about email etiquette. The directness may also reflect their attempt to make the recipient feel the emails important and urgent (Chen, 2006) and also inclinations to prioritize efficiency (Cameron, 2003).

Despite similarities in complaint strategies, inter-group differences were found in the learners' use of supportive moves. The intermediate learners' preference for justification mirrors their emphasis on giving themselves a legitimate stance to complain. This might be more effective in terms of appeasing the addressee's unhappiness than the sole use of formulaic expressions. In contrast, the low learners' reliance on expressions of gratitude, mostly conventionalized formula "thanks/ thank you" (81%), reveals their limitations in the semantic repertoire for more sophisticated supportive moves. This finding corresponds to Ellis's (1994) three phases of the interlanguage development, which has indicated that learners at the earliest phase are characterized by the use of simple formulas, suggesting that the low learners were still at the first phase of the interlanguage development whereas the intermediate learners had slightly moved forward. Such evidence was also found in the low learners' tendency to use conventionalized politeness markers, including "please", "sorry", as the downgraders in their emails to the instructor while subjectivizers were the most oft-used downgraders in the intermediate learners' emails sent to both types of recipients⁶.

Significant intra-group differences in the complaint strategies used in emails sent to recipients of the two different status types were not found in this study. This echoed with Trosborg's (1995) study, which indicated that the learners did not adjust their performance sufficiently to meet contextual requirements, those of dominance (higher social status) in particular. It is most likely because of the reduced effects of contextual cues, which convey social meaning, in emails (Baron, 1984; Murray, 1995; Smilowitz, Compton, & Flint, 1988). The senders might have felt less obligated to

⁶ In the low learners' emails to the peers, subjectivizers were also the most oft-used downgraders.

conform to traditional power routines that are generally found in face-to-face encounters (Drake, Yuthas, & Dillard, 2000), leading to language that lacks status congruence (Herring, 2002; Sproull & Kiesler, 1986, 1991) and socially inappropriate emails.

However, the learner groups' use of supportive moves and internal modifiers seemed to have exhibited status influences to a certain degree. Different from Trosborg (1995), who contended that the learners failed to provide supportive moves for complaints, both groups of the present study employed more supportive moves and downgraders when complaining to the instructor than to the peers. Further, more than half of both groups' emails directed to the instructor began with supportive moves, which avoided directly raising the offence right at the beginning of the email. Comparatively, the frequency of using supportive moves to begin the email sent to the peers was lower, demonstrating that the learners' awareness of the recipients' status types was reflected in productions of face-threatening acts through external and internal modifications.

IV. CONCLUSION

Due to the increasing popularity of e-communication, more research studies are needed for better understandings of the users' speech behaviors online so as to offer instruction on net etiquette to L2 learners, who could benefit much from online cross-cultural communication. The present study, addressing the use of complaint strategies and the discourse features, sheds light on how low and intermediate English learners conducted face-threatening acts through emails. Different from other elicitation instruments, emails are a communication mode that learners might use in daily life, thus bringing the collected data closer to genuine acts. The results show that there were no significant inter-group differences in learners' use of complaint strategies, supportive moves, and internal modifiers, but subtle differences found in the two groups' preferences for supportive moves distinguished their interlanguage development. On the other hand, though the email recipient's social status did not lead to intra-group differences in learners' strategy use, significant differences were found in supportive moves and internal modifiers, which reflected their adjustments of the politeness level.

As grammatical competence has often been dominated in planning for English instruction, email etiquette has hardly received due pedagogical attention. Nevertheless, the present study shows that the severity level of the learners' preferred complaint strategies in the emails was rather high, illuminating the needs of integrating the development of learners' pragmatic competence, especially when face-threatening acts are involved in online environments (Sykes, 2005), into the instruction and the curriculum by raising learners' ability to perform speech acts and to use appropriate strategies (Shetzer & Warschauer, 2000). However, this study only centered on low and intermediate learners' complaint emails without extending to those of higher-level learners, whose expressions of email etiquette involving face threats can be differentiated from the present findings. Thus, future studies can include advanced learners' and even native English speakers' complaint emails for comparisons for a fuller picture of face-threatening acts in CMC.

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Translating *Le Monde* and *El País* English Business Loan Terms into Arabic: A Corpus-based Analysis

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Abstract—A major trend in corpus linguistics has been the use of highly specialized corpora to achieve several different purposes, including teaching technical writing, language learning, and teaching translation techniques. This study aims to design and use corpora in order to aid translators master the translation of English business terms used routinely in *Le Monde* and *El País* into Arabic. The *Le Monde* corpus included 456,122 words, while the *El País* corpus included 874,687. Corpora satisfied several rigorous criteria such as authorship, topic, genre and register. Since translators need a variety of reference sources in order to come up with quality translations, concordance, collocation, and word cluster analyses were performed to reveal how different language patterns are used in their usual contexts. We found that corpora might help translators in navigating across various possibilities of terminologies and expressions, which have to be first decoded prior to being re-coded into the target language. Corpora examples also make the target text more successful in cross-cultural communication contexts.

Index Terms—corpus linguistics, translation studies, business terms, concordance, collocation, word clusters

I. INTRODUCTION

Computer technology plays a central role in the study of vocabulary, lexicography and translation. In fact as long ago as 1980s, a leading linguist noted that computers ability to store and scan very long texts “provides a close-to-objective basis on which language patterns can be observed” (Sinclair, 1984, p. 3). He also noted that computational linguistics evidence provided by concordances, for example, is quite superior to any other traditional method. Thus, as soon as translators make full use of this evidence, “it will be impossible to go back to a reliance on pre-computational techniques” (Sinclair, 1985, p. 87). In a similar vein, Chapelle (2001, p. 38) argued that computer technology has resulted in what one can describe as a “corpus revolution.” By using computers in extracting and analyzing meaningful data from general and specialized corpora, corpus linguistics can contribute to the field of translation by performing important tasks such as determining collocations, word clusters, sub-categorizations, and validating linguistic hypotheses (Miangah, 2012). Corpus-based discourse analysis can also raise new research questions, remove bias, and identify linguistic norms and outliers (Baker, 2006).

A major trend in corpus linguistics has been the use of highly specialized corpora to achieve several different purposes, including teaching technical writing (Noguchi, 2004), language learning (Miangah, 2012), and teaching translation techniques (Frankenberg-Garcia, 2012). Thus, by using modern computer technology in translation, semantic and linguistic biases may be corrected. For example, if we examine the two verbs “quake” and “quiver”, which belong to the same semantic class “shake” in two widely-used dictionaries such as the COBUILD and the Longman, we find that both dictionaries claim that the two verbs are intransitive. However, the entry for “quake” in the Oxford dictionary is intransitive, while the same dictionary lists “quiver” as a transitive verb. To solve this dilemma, Atkins and Levin (1995) used a very large English corpus comprising more than 50 million words and were able to detect possible uses of both verbs in transitive forms such as “it quaked her bowels” and “...quivering its wings.” Thus, by using a large enough corpus it seems possible to correct for traditional dictionaries’ errors and to provide evidence for accurate entries (McEnery and Wilson, 1996).

Computer-assisted technology may also be used also to detect nuances or shades of meaning. For example, Nelson (2005) used a specialized English corpus to investigate the usage of two terms often used interchangeably: “global” and “international. The author found that there are clear differences in usage as the word “global” often collocated with terms such as “business activities”, while the word “international” collocated usually with terms such as “companies and institutions.” This contrasted with the word “local” which collocated with a large number of non-business words. The author concluded that while the three words share the same semantic class, the word “local” collocated significantly with a distinctly non-business activity. Probably one of the major contributions of computer technologies to translation studies has been the creation of what is called “open-ended monitor corpus”, which allows translators to keep track of new words entering the language, words changing their usual meaning across time, or the balance of word usage based on factors such as formality, genre, etc. Thus the ability to use computer software to detect collocation and

word clusters/bundles rather than the word at the individual level means that it is now possible to systematically investigate how phrases and words collocate and how such collocations change over time (Castejon, 2012).

This study aims to design and use corpora in order to aid translators master the translation of English business terms used routinely in *Le Monde* and *El País* into Arabic. Although there are several specialized dictionaries in the field of business, the concordance produced through the analysis of an electronic corpus shows the translator how a term or an expression is actually used within a particular context. Hultsijn (1992) argued that, compared to consulting a dictionary, a corpus typically calls for deeper processing which, in turn, enhances the learning process. We believe that by doing this, the corpus designed can be used as a complementary resource that allows translators to make judicious use of certain business terms. Thus, translators might use this corpus to verify or reject the use of particular word meanings given in a dictionary.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Corpora and translation studies started to emerge in the 1980s. It is generally acknowledged that Gellerstam's (1986) study is the first to use a corpus-based translation approach (Zanettin, 2012, p. 12). In Gellerstam's (1986) seminal work original words distribution of English adverbials were compared to their corresponding translations in Swedish. Laviosa (2002) noted that since the publication of this work, corpus-based translation studies have flourished as a distinct body of research spanning both theoretical and descriptive levels. In a similar vein, Olohan (2004) argued that the use of corpora as a research tool in translation studies has created a new stream of research into the field of translation. In fact several translation aspects have been investigated using corpus-based translation approaches. For example, the translation universals hypothesis, which argues that there are invariant features that characterize all translated texts irrespective of source language and translation direction, has been tested using corpora approaches (e.g., Becher, 2010; Jantunen, 2002). Corpus-based studies have also examined translators' styles and words choice motivations (Saldanha, 2011). Corpus-based interpretation studies have investigated areas such as hesitation and disfluencies (Straniero-Sergio & Falbo, 2012).

The simplification hypothesis, the assumption that linguistic patterns in a corpus of translations are much simpler than a corpus of comparable texts in the same language, was also extensively investigated. For example, Laviosa (1997, 1998) found that the range of vocabulary or lexical variety and the information load or lexical density are both lower in translations corpora. This study has also been replicated in several languages, including Spanish (Corpas-Pastor, 2008) and Chinese (Xiao, He, & Yue, 2010). The normalization/conventionalization hypothesis, which argues that original corpora include more creative linguistic patterns compared to comparable translated corpora, has also been investigated extensively in the literature. For example, several authors found that translated texts in a corpus tend to conform to target language rather than source language patterns and norms. This results in producing more conventional rather than creative target strings (e.g., Kenny, 2000; Puurtinen, 2003). However, the underrepresentation hypothesis, which argues that unique elements in language tended to be underrepresented in translation, was less investigated. For example, Tirkkonen-Condit (2005) studied the use of the particle "kin" in a corpus of texts translated into Finnish against a comparable corpus of texts written in Finnish across five different genres. The author found that the frequency of the particle "kin" is significantly lower in Finnish translations compared to original texts.

Several studies have recently attempted to detect "translators' fingerprints" based on corpus analysis. For example, Wang and Li (2012) investigated translator's style based on a corpus including Chinese translations of Joyce's *Ulysses*. The authors argued that translators normally leave some traces of lexical idiosyncrasies that may be detected by analyzing translation corpora. In a similar vein, Li, Zhang and Liu (2011) studied different corpora representing English translations of *Hongloumeng*- one of the greatest classical Chinese novels. The authors were able to detect stylistic differences among different translators of the same novel. These differences were attributed to differences in translators' socio-political, cultural and ideological perspectives. Rybicki and Heydel (2013) used stylometry and stylistics methods based on most-frequent-word frequencies to identify different translators of the same text. The authors used a corpus of Polish translations of English novels to determine the point (the chapter) in which one translator took over from the other. Based on a corpus including 144 texts of 133, 159 words representing letters written by Vincent van Gogh and by his brother Theo, Forsyth and Lam (Forthcoming) investigated whether authorial discriminability is preserved by translators when translating the letters from the original French into English. The authors found that much of the stylistic authenticity between the two brothers was preserved in the English translations. A similar study has recently investigated author discriminability between the Holy Quran and prophet's *hadith*/statements. A computer-assisted corpus analysis revealed that the two texts cannot be written/translated by the same "author" (Sayoud, 2012).

From this brief review we find that although numerous studies have attempted to assess the role played by corpora in translation studies, virtually no studies have focused on examining corpus-based translation into Arabic. Notable exceptions include Alharbi and Swales (2011) who used corpora to investigate English and Arabic translations of abstracts in bilingual academic journals and Merakshi and Rogers (2013) who used a corpus of Arabic and English texts of *Scientific American* to investigate the translation of culturally-bound metaphors into Arabic. In this study we aim to fill this literature gap by empirically designing corpora that might help Arabic translators master the translation of English business terms used routinely in *Le Monde* and *El País*.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Corpus

Since the major task of any translator is to develop a true mapping of words, a balanced corpus is nowadays essential in translation studies (Cermak, 2010). Following Le Poder's (2012) study, we investigated a corpus of English business terms appearing both in the French newspaper *Le Monde* and the Spanish newspaper *El País* from January 2007 to December 2010. We selected a random sample of 20 terms listed in the author's study and built our corpus around them. Table 1 shows a summary of corpora used in this study. It should be noted that corpora created for the purpose of investigating the translation process, generally known in the literature as "translation-driven corpora, can be monolingual or bilingual as well as comparable or parallel (Zanettin, 2012).

TABLE 1.
CORPORA SUMMARIES

Newspaper Size	<i>Le Monde</i> Word tokens = 456, 122 Word types = 27, 137	<i>El País</i> Word tokens = 874, 687 Word types = 38, 341
Number of texts	751 articles	1441 articles
Medium	Written	Written
Subject	Business	Business
Authorship	Texts written by experts	Texts written by experts
Language	English*	English*
Publication date	1 January 2007 – 31 December 2010	1 January 2007 – 31 December 2010

Note: *We examined only English business loan words that appeared in the French daily newspaper *Le Monde* and in the Spanish daily newspaper *El País* between January 2007 and December 2010.

The vast amount of electronic texts available on the newspapers' web sites facilitated the creation of our corpora in a relatively short time. The *Le Monde* corpus included 456, 122 words, while the *El País* corpus included 874, 687. Corpora satisfied several rigorous criteria such as authorship, topic, genre and register (Biber, 1993). Thematically, the articles included in the corpora included areas as diverse as markets, enterprises, stock exchanges, consumption, employment, public accounts, etc. It should be noted that both the French newspaper *Le Monde* and the Spanish newspaper *El País* are characterized by frequent contributions from economists who write in a sophisticated, yet accessible language for non-specialists. We used a newspaper-based corpus since it is argued that, compared to other translation modalities, journalistic translation has changed the most by the advent of the Internet (Bielsa and Bassnett, 2009). In fact such corpora have been used in several studies, including Lobanova, Kleij and Spenader (2010) who investigated the definition of antonyms using three Dutch daily newspapers and Jones (2002) who used the British newspaper *The Independent* to build a corpus of 55,411 sentences to investigate the functions of synonyms and antonyms in context. Tse (2003) used a corpus including 514, 691 words based on three British newspapers, namely *The Independent*, *the Guardian* and *The Daily Telegraph*, to investigate theoretical factors determining the use or omission of the definite article preceding multi-word organization names. Similarly, Baroni and Bernardini (2006) used a two-million-word Italian newspapers' corpus to study the language properties of the "translationese".

B. Procedures

Having compiled the corpora in French and Spanish, we turned to preparing the texts for analysis. The texts original html format was changed into plain text format compatible with the text analysis software packages used. Following Le Poder (2012), the Clip Cache Plus software was initially used to eliminate photos, graphs and tables. This is a necessary step that must be conducted before using the text analysis packages. To conduct the quantitative analysis part of this study we used AntConc 3.3.5 (Anthony, 2012), QDA Miner 4.1.3 (Provalis Research, 2013), the Signature Stylometric System (Millican, 2003), and the R Stylo package 0.5.2 (Eder, Rybicki, & Kestemont, 2013). These software packages were used for coding and analyzing textual data. The packages were selected because of their extensive tools that can be used to identify hidden patterns in textual data because they include powerful concordance and frequency generators. Cluster of words and lexical bundle analyses can also be performed using these packages.

IV. RESULTS

A. Quantitative Data Analysis

Statistical analyses for business English terms in corpora were conducted using both R and Excel Data Analysis software packages. Table 2 presents descriptive statistics results for both the *Le Monde* and *El País* corpora. From this table we see that the mean for English business terms used in the *El País* corpus is much higher than the mean in the *Le Monde* corpus. This is to be expected given well-known French tendency to preserve the French language. However, a t-test reveals no significant differences between corpora. In fact we found a strong positive correlation between both corpora ($r = 0.88$, $p < 0.001$). Finally, we conducted both a sentence length and a word length analysis for both corpora. For example, from figure 1 we see that the majority of sentences in the *Le Monde* corpus range from 10 to 20 words.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF BUSINESS ENGLISH TERMS IN CORPORA

	Le Monde	El País
Minimum	3.00	1.00
First Quartile	7.75	7.25
Median	17.00	43.50
Mean	76.35	144.10
Third Quartile	41.75	81.00
Standard Deviation	154.17	260.36
Maximum	530.00	974.00

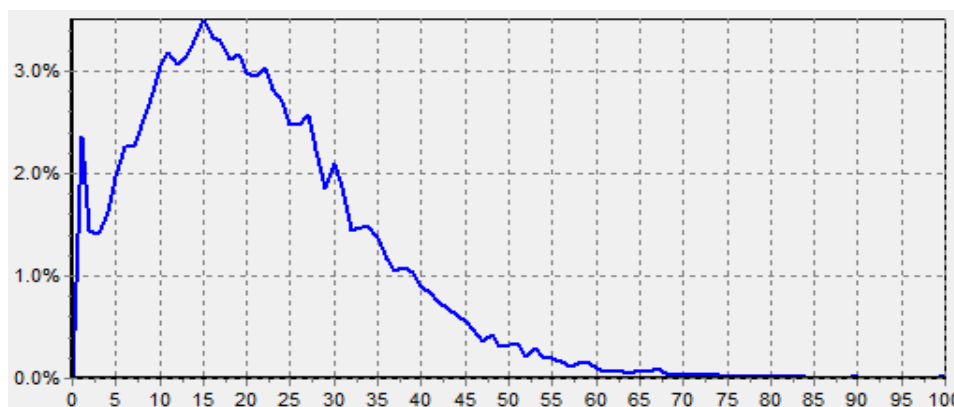


Figure 1. The *Le Monde* Corpus sentence lengths. X-axis represents the number of words in a sentence and Y-axis represents frequency. The figure shows more or less a Gaussian distribution with some oscillations.

B. Frequency and Alphabetical Lists

A useful first step in analyzing a corpus is to generate a word list. Analyzing frequency of appearance or simply the incremental count of appearance of particular words or phrases might provide insights into a particular topic. In fact O'Leary (2011) argues that despite the simplicity of such approach, it can be used to predict characteristics of the topic analyzed. In a similar vein, Barlow (2004, p. 207) argued that generating word lists represent "the most radical transformation of a text used in linguistic analysis." Word lists generated are very useful since they highlight which words occur frequently in the corpus and, therefore, merit further investigation.

Three English business terms dominate the distribution of the twenty terms selected [Subprime(s), Hedge fund(s), and Swap(s)]. Such terms might be characterized by different meanings depending on the context in which they are used. An implication here for translators might be to consult several examples to clarify the different patterns of the use. It should be noted that word frequency lists are generally much more useful than alphabetical order lists since the latter results generally in producing a list of function words (such as *le*, *la*, *les*) that do not really tell us much about the essence of the corpus. However, a closer look at such function words may lead in some cases to the discovery of some interesting patterns (Romer & Wulff, 2010). To gain more insights into the word lists, the generated list should be compared to a general reference corpus that is usually much larger and more general. Such comparison results in determining "keyness" values. A high keyness value is given if a word occurs significantly more in a selected corpus than it would be expected to occur in the reference corpus. We did not do this comparison since we focus only on the English terms used within French and Spanish specialized corpora. From the word lists a type to token ratio may be computed in order to determine the lexical variety in the corpus against a general corpus. However, Kenny (2001) argued that this index is extremely sensitive to text and corpus length.

C. Concordances

A concordance represents accurately and explicitly the different language patterns used in usual contexts. Barnbrook (1996, p. 65) argued that the major aim of a concordance is to "place each word back in its original context, so that the details of its use and behavior can be properly examined". KWIK, or key word in context, is usually the format used to present a specific term. Figure 2 represents three examples of concordances produced for the terms "stress test", "double dib" and "outsourcing". As can be seen from this figure, the search word is displayed in the middle of the screen, while the context is displayed left and right of it. The use of computer software saves a lot of time going back and forth across the corpus to determine the relevant context of a particular term. The search word is also known as the "node" and the concordance is read vertically not horizontally. The phraseological patterns and the contextualized meaning(s) of a particular word can be determined by looking at the context words to the left and to the right of the node. From this figure we see that the term "subprime" is usually associated with the word "mortgage" and translated into French as "crédit hypothécaire" or "credit immobilier" since these two words are the most frequently associated with the node "subprime(s)". The term may be translated into Arabic as "الرهن العقاري". Thus, such a piece of information is in fact very important since it provides us with a great insight into (1) the syntactic contexts in which the

node occurs, (2) the semantic properties of the node's syntactic companions, and (3) the membership of the node in classes of semantically similar words (Atkins, Fillmore, & Johnson, 2003). Figure 6 shows concordance for three more terms. Similar conclusions may be obtained from studying examples in this figure.

Stress Test KWIK	
H#	KWIC
1	ns. Les chiffres de la FHFA résultent d'une " étude de résistance " (stress test) menée en fonction de trois simulations prenant en compte l'évolution
2	nière ", analyse M. Green. Les autorités organisent ce mois-ci un " stress test " pour mesurer la capacité de résistance du système bancaire chinois
3	ésultats des tests de résistance des 91 grandes banques, les fameux " stress test ", publiés vendredi. Ils apprécient aussi la décision, dévoilée mar
4	blication prochaine des tests de résistance aux situations extrêmes - stress test - imposés à 91 banques européennes a convaincu les intervenants de sc
5	ics les résultats des tests de résistance aux chocs financiers, les " stress test ", auxquels elle soumet en ce moment ses banques. Demandée depuis de
6	ur toutes les grandes enseignes européennes un test de résistance - " stress test " - et d'en publier les résultats avant la fin juillet. Histoire de p
7	Rodriguez Zapatero, le premier ministre espagnol. Techniquement un " stress test " consiste à simuler la résistance d'une banque à un choc majeur - ré
8	d'en tirer des leçons. Bien que les régulateurs aient déjà réalisé un stress test à l'échelle européenne au printemps 2009, les paramètres ne sont touj
9	e européenne (BCE) annoncent désormais que les résultats d'un nouveau stress test seront mis à disposition du public. Toutefois, avant de passer à cett
10	'actifs financiers de la zone euro, montrent des signes de repli. Un stress test des banques européennes pourrait restaurer la confiance dans le systè
11	s banques à la profitabilité est trop rapide pour être crédible. Le " stress test ", auquel ont été soumis les établissements américains pour mesurer l
12	mée pour traverser la crise. Le pays se classe 44e sur 57, selon le " stress test " élaboré par l'IMD, école de management de Lausanne (Suisse). Ce pal
13	MD (sur la base des résultats économiques 2008), ne sont que 28e au " stress test ". Ce pays est jugé mal armé pour l'avenir " en raison de l'ampleur d
14	a régulation et de son système de santé ", explique M. Garelli. Le " stress test " n'intègre pas de critères relatifs à la nature des plans de relance
15	du secteur financier américain. Quelques jours avant les résultats du stress test , l'audit public de résistance et de résilience des banques de Wall St
16	un bilan de santé insuffisant lors des simulations sur leur solidité (stress test). Par ailleurs, le taux des obligations d'Etat se révèle insensible a
17	llars. La banque précise qu'elle attendra, pour cela, le résultat du stress test , un test de résistance des banques américaines effectué par Washingtc
Double dip KWIK	
H#	KWIC
1	l'économie mondiale ne se sont pas concrétisés : il n'y a pas eu de " double dip " aux Etats-Unis - c'est-à-dire de double récession -, pas (encore) d
2	ale - et grâce au stimulus fiscal, le risque d'une double récession - double dip - d'ici un an s'est éloigné. Mais des millions de ménages vont encor
3	es sous peu ". La banque centrale américaine écarte le risque d'un " double dip ", une nouvelle récession, mais s'inquiète d'une croissance trop moll
4	riches contre tout optimisme prématuré. Sans évoquer le spectre d'un " double dip ", le retour à une croissance négative, elle prévoit un second semest
5	l est moins déprimé qu'auparavant. " Les investisseurs redoutaient un " double dip ", une rechute brutale de l'économie en Occident. Finalement, ils réali
6	tudes que connaît la conjoncture économique mondiale pour prédire un " double dip ", une rechute ", explique Pierre-Antoine Dusoulier, président de Saxo
7	mique : molle et incertaine. Et si le scénario cauchemardesque d'un " double dip ", une double récession, aux Etats-Unis semble écarté par les investi
8	le pas. La croissance s'essoufflerait alors vite, et le risque d'un " double dip " - d'une rechute de l'activité - deviendrait réel. Avec un taux de c
9	astreux. Les investisseurs écartent ainsi peu à peu le spectre du " double dip ", celui d'un scénario où l'économie américaine traverserait une doub
10	roissance de la zone euro en 2010 et 2011, rejetant le spectre d'un " double dip ", d'une double récession. Selon la BCE, la croissance du produit int
11	pliques. Faut-il craindre comme l'évoquent certains économistes un " double dip ", une nouvelle récession ? On peut le craindre. Mais le scénario d'
12	à un tel phénomène. Et si l'on ignore sa probabilité, le risque d'un " double dip " n'est pas à écarter. La Fed a des marges de manoeuvre étroites pour s
13	la conviction que les Etats-Unis ne sont plus à l'abri du redoutable " double dip ", une double récession. Depuis quelques semaines, les indices ne font
14	es, estimant que les Etats-Unis ne sont dorénavant plus à l'abri d'un " double dip ", une double récession. Dans un entretien au Monde, Michel Aglietta, une
15	d'emblée cette semaine les questions macroéconomiques trop sérieuses, double dip , ratio de dettes et spreads de taux. On évoquera plutôt des thèmes qu
16	redevient négative en fin d'année. Autrement dit, le scénario d'un " double dip ", d'une double récession, n'est plus improbable. Or ce qui affecte
17	prédit la crise des subprimes, ne cessait d'évoquer le spectre d'un " double dip " : à savoir une profonde rechute de l'économie, où une récession suc
Outsourcing KWIK	
H#	KWIC
1	n'allons pas jusqu'à l'implémentation de systèmes d'information ou l' outsourcing - externalisation - de certaines activités, indique Jean-Pierre Letar
2	valeur ajoutée outre-Rhin. Notamment à cause d'un fort recours à l'" outsourcing ", en d'autres termes l'externalisation d'une partie de l'industrie v
3	e la paie qui ont d'abord été confiées à des prestataires, mais cet " outsourcing " (" externalisation ") concerne désormais des processus plus complex
4	rs de l'externalisation de centres de contacts et du business process outsourcing . Rajeev Suri, directeur de la division services de Nokia Siemens, a
5	es Capgemini. Il prévoyait de réduire d'environ 250 postes l'activité outsourcing (sous-traitance informatique ou administrative), via des départs volo
6	e Swiss Post Solutions, un des leaders mondiaux de " business process outsourcing ", qui emploie plus de 4 000 personnes en Europe et plus de 500 en Fr
7	plémentaires via une offre publique d'achat. En se positionnant sur l' outsourcing dans les télécommunications, le patron de Mahindra & Mahindra, Anand
8	ot qui désigne cet avantage comparatif indien pour " Business Process Outsourcing " (gestion à distance des processus d'entreprises). INQUIETUDE DE M.
9	ce modèle a enfanté une autre vague, celle du KPO (Knowledge Process Outsourcing) qui marque une ascension dans la chaîne de la valeur ajoutée. Les "
10	travail, salaires, stratégie industrielle s'appuyant largement sur l' outsourcing). Les exportateurs français ne sauraient répondre durablement à la con
11	iens concepts de délocalisation - offshoring - et d'externalisation - outsourcing - n'ont plus de sens. - ... - Le business global est partout. Les pro
12	il n'émane pas de la police mais de la société European municipality outsourcing (EMO), filiale de l'entreprise de recouvrement de créances italienne
13	'infogérance, mot barbare par lequel on traduit BPO (business process outsourcing), désigne le secteur du support téléphonique après-vente et du traite
14	tir, tout comme les sociétés de service informatique proposant de l'" outsourcing " (de la sous-traitance informatique ou administrative), leurs grands
15	fonctionnement : les contrefacteurs ont recours à l'externalisation (outsourcing) et aux délocalisations afin de réduire les coûts de production, et p
16	à leurs cabinets comptables, furent ici étonnamment pionnières. Cet " outsourcing " peut être aussi interne, avec des fonctions RH déléguées aux respon
17	intellectuelle " externalisés " - la pratique du " Knowledge Process Outsourcing " (KPO). " Nous avons l'avantage d'avoir été les premiers à occuper c

Figure 2. KWIK concordance examples taken from The *Le Monde* Corpus.

Concordance analysis reveals not only what words combine with other words but also where they occur in a text and how they are distributed across different texts in a specific corpus. This type of analysis reveals whether a particular term has a preference to occur at the beginning, at the end, or with no specific preference in a specific text. This analysis is conducted via a concordance plot. Since concordances are normalized, each bar in a certain barcode represents an occurrence of a term in a text. For example, the term "stress test" in this figure seems not to be evenly distributed as there is high concentration around the middle and no occurrences towards the end.

Thus a concordance plot may be a useful tool to show not only "how often a search term appears in a corpus of data, but also where and in what distribution" (Anthony, 2004).

D. Collocations and Word Clusters

Extracting concordances leads to the next logical step which is analyzing co-occurred words to the left and to the right of the node or the target word. This helps in identifying collocations or word associations. This is an important step since the translator is essentially a text producer and needs to know how words are used and how words associate with other words (Tagnin & Teixeira, 2012). Das (2012, p. 325) defines a collocation as “a set of words occurring together more often than by chance in a corpus.” Although this term is defined in the literature in a variety of ways, the common denominator refers to some sort of “syntagmatic relationship between words” (Walker, 2011). The contextual span for the search or the window of words both sides of the node is determined by the researcher. However, based on a paper by Sinclair and Jones (1974), a span of four words on either side is commonly used in the literature (e.g., O'Halloran, 2007). Frequency or statistical significance approaches may be used to rank collocations for different positions within a cut-off span. We found from the mutual information/t-score analysis that words such as “test”, “tests”, and “fameux” collocate significantly with the term “stress test”. Any collocate with a t-score > 1.96 is statistically significant at the alpha level 0.05. Thus the combination of such significant terms with the node or target word is not the result of chance. An alternative way to detect collocations is known as the n-grams, where n usually varies between two and five words (Anthony, 2004). This method is also known as the “lexical bundles” method (Biber, Conrad, & Cortes, 2004). These bundles represent frequently juxtaposed items “which do not usually constitute semantic units in themselves” (Peters, Jones, Smith, Winchester-Seeto, Middledorp, & Petocz, 2006). We found that the most frequently occurring three-word lexical bundles are “milliards de dollars”, “milliard d'euros”, and “aux Etats Unis.” Collocations and lexical bundles may also be visualized graphically using proximity plots. Figures 8 and 9 show proximity plots for the terms “subprime” and “swap/swaps”, respectively.

For example, We found that the English business term “subprime” is associated with French terms such as “credits”, “risqué”, “hypothécaire”, and “immobilier”. Thus, this term may be translated as “crédit hypothécaire” or “credit immobilier” or as “الرهن العقاري” in Arabic.

We used multidimensional scaling (MDS) to investigate the relationships in our corpora. MDS is a statistical technique used in order to visually detect complex patterns in high-dimensional datasets (Borg & Groenen, 1997). We found that the sub-corpora representing the terms “High Frequency Trading” and “bluechips” lie far away from the bulk of the data and might be regarded as outliers. This might be the result of very technical terms used in such sub-corpora since it is well-known that the more specialized the text, the greater the difference it exhibits in terms of terminological sources (Tagnin & Teixeira, 2012). For such texts the meaning might be inferred from the observation of several authentic examples in the corpus since in such cases the mere use of correct terminology does not guarantee in itself a good translation (Byrne, 2006).

Finally, to cluster sub-corpora, we used the Ward's method which produces a set clusters based on proximity of sub-corpora. This allowed us to detect which sub-corpora were the most similar. Finally, we conducted a Delta-normalized bootstrapped cluster analysis (Hoover, 2004) to produce a consensus tree showing distances between texts included in the *Le Monde* sub-corpora. A bootstrap consensus tree was constructed based on the similarity between sequences of most-frequent-word frequencies (MFW) in each sub-corpus. Bootstrapping has shown to alleviate several problems attributed to the original Delta-normalized method (Smith & Aldridge, 2011; Burrows, 2002). Following Rybicki and Heydel (2013), MFW varied between 100-1000, culling set at 100% (only words appearing in each sub-corpora are used in the analysis), and personal pronouns are excluded in order to avoid possible false attributions. We found that texts such as “subprime” and “stress test” are grouped together. Similarly, texts such as “hedge funds” and “swap” are grouped together. These texts might include similar terminologies and thus the translator might use the same translation strategy in translating them.

V. CORPUS-BASED TRANSLATION EXAMPLES

One of the most important characteristics of corpus-based studies is the large number of authentic examples generated. Several authors have found that corpus-based examples help with language comprehension and translation (e.g., Laufer, 1993; Frankenberg-Garcia, 2012). This is because corpus-based examples generally provide added value to the core meaning expressed by traditional dictionaries (Al-Ajmi, 2008). In this section we present some examples extracted from the *Le Monde* and *El País* corpora.

A. *Le Monde* Corpus

«Et si le scénario cauchemardesque d'un " **double dip** ", une double récession, aux Etats-Unis semble écarté par les investisseurs, depuis un peu plus d'une semaine, ces derniers ont trouvé d'autres motifs de stress. »

"وان بدأ أن المستثمرين يستبعدون تحقق سيناريو **الكساد المزدوج** الكارثي في الولايات المتحدة ، فإن هؤلاء قد وجدوا ، منذ ما ينيف قليلا عن أسبوع ، أسبابا أخرى تدعو للقلق."

«Jean-Claude Trichet, président de la Banque centrale européenne (BCE), a révisé à la hausse, jeudi 2 septembre, les prévisions de croissance de la zone euro en 2010 et 2011, rejetant le spectre d'un " **double dip** ", d'une double récession. »

"وكان جان-كلود تريشيه ، رئيس البنك المركزي الأوروبي ، قد أعاد - على نحو أعلى - تقييم تكهنات النمو في منطقة اليورو بين عامي 2010 و 2011 ، مستبعدا شبح **الكساد المزدوج**."

« De fait, les grands dangers qui planaient sur l'économie mondiale ne se sont pas concrétisés : il n'y a pas eu de " **double dip** " aux Etats-Unis - c'est-à-dire de double récession -, pas (encore) d'écèlement de la zone euro, ni d'atterrissage violent de l'économie chinoise »

"والواقع أن المخاطر الكبيرة التي تحدد بالإقتصاد العالمي لم تقع ، فلم يحدث **كساد مزدوج** في الولايات المتحدة ، ولم ينفرط عقد منطقة اليورو ، كما أن الإقتصاد الصيني لم يتعرض لهزة عنيفة."

« La banque précise qu'elle attendra, pour cela, le résultat du **stress test**, un test de résistance des banques américaines effectué par Washington. »

" وذكر المصرف أنه لذلك سوف ينتظر نتائج **إختبار التحمل** ، وهو إختبار تنتهجه واشنطن بغية تحديد مدى قدرة المصارف الأمريكية على التحمل."

« Le Wall Street Journal affirme, mardi 7 septembre, que les résultats des tests de résistance - " **stress tests** " - des banques européennes " ont sous-estimé les montants de titres de dette publique potentiellement risqués détenus par certains établissements ". »

"وقد ذكرت صحيفة الـوول ستريت في عددها الصادر في 7 سبتمبر أن نتائج **إختبارات التحمل** الخاصة بالبنوك الأوروبية قد قللت من قيمة الدين العام المحفوف بالمخاطر لدى بعض المؤسسات."

« La Commission de régulation bancaire chinoise a ordonné aux établissements de crédit du pays de réaliser des " **stress tests** " pour évaluer leur résistance à une diminution de moitié des prix de l'immobilier de logement dans les plus grandes villes. »

" وقد طلبت هيئة التشريع المصرفي الصينية من مؤسسات الإئتمان في البلاد إجراء **إختبارات تحمل** ، لتقييم قدرتها على التحمل في حالة انخفاض أسعار العقارات في المدن الكبيرة إلى النصف."

« En fait, pendant la crise, les directions des deux constructeurs ont eu les yeux rivés sur le free **cash flow**, le flux de trésorerie disponible. »

"والواقع أن كلتا الشركتين قد وضعتا نصب أعينهما إبان الأزمة التركيز على **التدفق النقدي** المتاح."

« L'entreprise reste une étonnante poule aux œufs d'or : au deuxième trimestre, elle a dégagé un **cash-flow** (flux de trésorerie) opérationnel de près de 9 milliards de dollars. »

"لكن الشركة كانت كالدجاجة المدهشة التي تبيض ذهباً ، ففي الربع الثاني تمكنت من تحقيق **تدفق نقدي** تشغيلي بلغ زهاء 9 مليار دولار."

« La crise financière provoquée cet écart par la chute du crédit hypothécaire à risque américain (**subprime**) n'est pas finie. »

"إن الأزمة التي حدثت هذا الصيف بفعل تدهور **الرهن العقاري** المحفوف بالمخاطر في الولايات المتحدة لم تصل إلى نهايتها بعد."

« La crise des prêts hypothécaires américains (**subprime** mortgage) ne devrait avoir qu'un " impact limité sur l'économie réelle " et provoquera un " ralentissement modéré " de l'économie américaine, a estimé mercredi 12 septembre, l'économiste en chef du Fonds monétaire international (FMI), Simon Johnson. Le Fonds a toutefois indiqué qu'il allait réviser à la baisse ses prévisions pour tenir compte de la crise. »

"وقد صرح سايمون جونسون ، وهو خبير إقتصادي بصندوق النقد الدولي ، يوم الأربعاء 12 سبتمبر ، بأن أزمة **الرهن العقاري** الأمريكي لن يكون لها إلا تأثير محدود على الإقتصاد الحقيقي ، مضيفاً أنه قد ينجم عنها "تباطؤ معتدل" في الإقتصاد الأمريكي."

« Les leçons de l'effondrement du fonds spéculatif - **hedge fund** - en 1998, n'avaient pas été tirées. »

" والواقع أن الدروس الناتجة عن انهيار **صناديق التحوط** أو صناديق المضاربة في عام 1998 لم يتم استخلاصها بعد."

« En général, les fonds souverains choisissent de placer leur argent dans des " **blue chips** " - valeurs de grandes entreprises jugées peu risquées - . »

"وبشكل عام فإن الصناديق السيادية عادة ما تفضل وضع نقودها في شكل **أسهم في شركات رائدة** معروفة بمخاطرها المنخفضة."

« A l'inverse des fonds d'investissement traditionnels, les **feeder funds** ne gèrent pas un portefeuille diversifié. Il s'agit d'intermédiaires qui délèguent la gestion des fonds collectés auprès des grosses fortunes et d'institutions à des conseillers en investissements. »

"وعلى خلاف صناديق الإستثمار التقليدية ، فإن **صناديق الدعم** لا تدبر محافظ إستثمار متنوعة ، فمثل هذه الصناديق تلعب في العادة دور الوسيط حيث تقوم بعملية تفويض إدارة الأموال ، التي يتم تجميعها من خلال مؤسسات كبرى ، إلى إستشاريين في الإستثمار."

« Notamment à cause d'un fort recours à l'" **outsourcing** " , en d'autres termes l'externalisation d'une partie de l'industrie vers l'Europe de l'Est et les pays émergents. »

"وعلى وجه الخصوص بسبب اللجوء المكثف **للاستعانة بالمصادر الخارجية** ، فإنه تم اللجوء لذلك في دول أوروبا الشرقية وفي الدول الصاعدة."

B. El País corpus

« La inquietud sobre el excesivo poder de los **fondos especulativos**, conocidos como **hedge funds**, fue uno de los temas estrella de la reunión de los ministros de Economía de los Veintisiete celebrada ayer en Berlín. » (30 April 2007).

" كان القلق بشأن السطوة المتزايدة لصناديق المضاربة ، التي يطلق عليها اسم **صناديق التحوط** ، أحد المواضيع الرئيسية على جدول اجتماع وزراء مالية دول الإتحاد الأوروبي الذي انعقد في برلين أمس."

"Entonces descubrimos la existencia de un segundo sistema financiero que obtiene beneficios de miles de millones de dólares para los directivos de los hedge funds y también para los grandes bancos." (26 September 2010).

"ثم اكتشفنا وجود نظام مصرفي آخر يدر آلاف البلايين من الدولارات على مديري صناديق التحوط ، وعلى البنوك الكبيرة."

"El éxito de los «hedge funds» (fondos de alto riesgo) se basa en gran parte en la desregulación de que gozan, subrayó el vicepresidente, quien indicó que, 'para no matar la gallina de los huevos de oro'..." (21 April 2007).

"ويعزى نجاح صناديق التحوط إلى حد كبير إلى تخفيف القيود التشريعية على حد ذكر نائب الرئيس الذي أضاف أنه يتعين علينا "ألا نقتل الدجاجة التي تبيض ذهباً"

"Pero esa batalla puede tener consecuencias en la Unión Europea. «Hasta ahora no ha habido grandes diferencias entre la cincuentena de propuestas que han salido de Estados Unidos y de Europa: los caminos seguidos son parecidos en hedge funds [fondos especulativos].» (3 May 2010).

"لكن هذه المعركة قد يكون لها تداعياتها على الاتحاد الأوروبي ، فحتى الآن لا توجد فروق كبيرة بين المشاريع الخمسين التي

قدمتها الولايات المتحدة ، وتلك التي قدمتها أوروبا ، فكلها تتبع نفس الطرق التي تنتهجها صناديق التحوط..."

"El Banco de España hace meses que está realizando exámenes exhaustivos a las tripas financieras de las cajas, no muy alejados de los llamados stress test , que la Reserva Federal realiza a los mayores bancos de Estados Unidos." (18 September 2009).

"وقد أجرى البنك المركزي الإسباني على مدى عدة شهور عددا من الاختبارات المالية الشاملة على المؤسسات المالية ،

باستخدام ما يعرف باختبار القدرة على التحمل ، وهو ما يطبقه بنك الاحتياطي الفدرالي على البنوك الرئيسية بالولايات المتحدة "

"Para romper esta situación, el Gobierno español pidió a la UE que acelere la publicación de las pruebas de resistencia o stress test de la banca." (4 July 2010).

"ولمعالجة هذا الموقف ، طلبت الحكومة الإسبانية من الاتحاد الأوروبي الإسراع بنشر نتائج اختبارات القدرة على التحمل

للمصارف."

"Fueron incapaces de detectar la enfermedad de las subprime y otorgaron la máxima calificación a entidades que se desplomaron con el huracán financiero." (18 September 2010)

"لم يتمكنوا من اكتشاف مخاطر مرض الرهن العقاري ، ومنحوا تصانيف إئتمانية عالية لمؤسسات انهارت بعد ذلك تحت

وطأة الإعصار المالي."

"Desde noviembre de 2008, cuando la tasa de referencia era del 16,75%, el país ha venido realizando sucesivos recortes que le han apeado del ranking de los países europeos con mayores tipos." (2 December 2009).

"ومنذ نوفمبر 2008 عندما كان المعدل المعياري هو 16.75% ، كانت الدولة تجري عمليات تخفيض متتالية أدت إلى تراجع

التصنيف الائتماني بين الدول الأوروبية التي تتمتع بمعدلات أعلى مقارنة بنا ."

"Entre estos tipos de contratos están los famosos credit default swaps [...] o seguros contra impago de deuda, un mercado altamente especulativo." (2 May 2010).

"ومن بين هذه الأنواع من العقود عقود التبادل الدائنة وهي بمثابة تأمين ضد التخلف عن سداد الديون في سوق يتسم

بالمضاربة العالية."

"... también quiere realizar una auditor á limitada o due diligence que durará unas tres semanas desde la puesta a su disposición de la documentación requerida." (18 March 2007).

"ويتطلب ذلك أيضاً إجراء مراجعة محدودة تستمر لحوالي ثلاثة أسابيع يتم احتسابها ابتداء من وقت توافر المستندات

المطلوبة."

"Juan Ignacio Crespo, de Thomson Reuters, asegura que eso no supondrá una recaída en la recesión -la famosa double dip -, al menos por ahora." (29 August 2010)

"ونذكر خوان اجناسيو كريسيو ، من شركة تومسون رويترز ، أنه لا يتوقع حدوث كساد مزدوج على الأقل في الوقت الراهن."

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Computer technology plays a central role in the study of vocabulary and translation. By using computers in extracting and analyzing meaningful data from general and specialized corpora, corpus linguistics can contribute to the field of translation by performing important tasks such as determining collocations, word clusters, sub-categorizations, and validating linguistic hypotheses. In fact corpora play a major role in every aspect of translation studies, including theoretical, descriptive, contrastive, and teaching (Laviosa, 2011). In this study we used French and Spanish corpora of *Le Monde* and *El País* daily newspapers to investigate English business terms translations. Our corpora satisfied several rigorous criteria such as authorship, topic, genre and register. We argue that using these corpora might help translators understand the context in which English business terminology is used. Specifically, we claim that our corpus-based analysis might help in (1) building better dictionary entries regarding the English business terms used in *Le Monde* and *El País* daily newspapers, (2) compensate for the poor representation of such terms in a traditional dictionary, and (3) obtain context-specific information about syntactic and semantic usage of the terms used in *Le Monde* and *El País* corpora.

In fact the corpora used in this study might be exploited by translators in several ways. For example, translators can refer to the target corpus for finding information related to collocations. In fact adjectives that collocate with nouns have been proven to be very useful in understanding the context (e.g. Miangah, 2012). Translators also can use corpora in order to verify selection of a particular word or phrase based on other tools. Thus, corpora can be used to find out the

most appropriate equivalent of specific terms in target language for which other translation tools such as dictionaries suggest unsuitable translations. For example, Boulton (2012) presents an excellent example showing the limitations of traditional dictionaries compared to corpora. The French sentence «Je suis paralysé entre **le brûlot** et la chanson d'amour. » The author found that with careless usage of dictionary, "**le brûlot**" may be translated as "fire ship", "pamphlet", or "gnat". However, based on a large corpus, the author shows that the most appropriate translation is "revolutionary", "rebel", or "protest". This is a type of a song for which the French singer Renaud is famous for. All these possible translations are found in the corpus used.

Thus, since the translator is basically a text producer, he or she should be able to determine how words are used and how they associate with other words in a specific context. In fact Wright (1993, p. 70) emphasizes this fact by arguing that "documents must speak 'the language' of the target audience and should resemble other texts produced within that particular language community and subject domain. These considerations frequently require that translators move beyond merely correct strategies in terms of lexical and grammatical content in order to account for stylistically appropriate solutions."

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Competency of Teaching English in Indian Context: A Situational Analysis

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Abstract—Teachers and educationists today are struggling to innovate and develop new methods as well as techniques of teaching English that can optimize and achieve the teaching and learning objectives. Secondary English language learners especially face major difficulties in acquiring proficiency in using the English language. The modern trend in education and the complex nature in teaching and learning have made the role of the teacher more challenging. This new role does not only involve the mere transmission of knowledge to the students but it also involves looking at the problems associated with learning and instruction in English. Secondary Education is a vital stage where education is given to the children of age group 14 to 16 years. In the Secondary level, the basic aim of teaching English language is to enable the students to develop the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing English language. Teachers all over the country are not clear about the aim of teaching English. While the demand of improving the proficiency of the language increases on one hand, the competency and capacity building of the English teachers also needs a complete revamp on the other. Problems regarding the teaching method have also been discussed from time to time by different Commissions. But in most Indian schools the suggestions have not been implemented in a true manner. This work is an attempt to throw light on the English teaching methods in order to develop the teaching strategies and competencies of English teachers in the Secondary level.

Index Terms—methods of teaching English, skills in English and teaching competence

I. INTRODUCTION

Secondary Education is a vital stage in the overall scheme of educational training and its importance can never be belittled although the emphasis upon its aims and purposes has varied from time to time. This is the stage where education is given to the children of age group 14 to 16 years. In the Secondary level, the basic aim of teaching English language is to enable the students to develop the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing English language. However, the Secondary English language learners especially face major difficulties in acquiring proficiency in using the English language. Problems regarding the teaching method have also been discussed from time to time by different Commissions and many have given some suggestions also. But in most Indian schools these suggestions are not implemented in a true manner.

In India, however, a high percentage of school leavers leave the precincts of school as ignorant of English usage as they were when they entered the school first. Teaching of English is in a chaotic state today. The modern trend in education and the complex nature in teaching and learning have made the role of the teacher more challenging. This new role does not only just involve the mere transmission of knowledge and information to the students but it also involves looking at the problems associated with learning and instruction in English. While the demand of improving the proficiency of the language increases on the one hand, the quality of English language teaching in our state run schools, more particularly in rural schools, presents an abysmal picture.

Various factors varying from place to place and situation to situation do exist and create difficulties in a teaching learning situation. Unmanageable student numbers, poor classroom conditions, poor motivation, lack of teaching competence, lack of support from home and society, pressure from unwieldy syllabus in other subjects, too many languages to be studied at the same time, unhealthy attitude of the school authorities in many case may lead to a decline in the standard of teaching English language teaching in schools. Besides, there are also certain teacher oriented factors that also lead to poor English language learning.

Teachers all over the country are not clear about the aim of teaching English. They divide the time table into reading, writing, composition, translation and grammar and are satisfied as long as the students are kept busy and they do not get any trouble from the school authorities. It drives home the fact that in general, students are not found to be competent in English because of the language skill development in students is not found to be up to mark. However, a good pedagogy can certainly provide optimal learning objectives for the children. It can lead to a positive impact on students in terms of knowledge comprehension, practical skill and presentation skill.

In the process of learning and teaching, a method of teaching is very important. It is a tool in the hands of the teacher. Some of the English language teaching methods are the Grammar Translation Method, Bilingual Method, Direct Method, Audio-Lingual method, Natural Method, Phonetic Method, Communication Language Teaching Method (CLT), Total Physical Response Method and Immersion Programmes.

There are, in general, four language skills, each based upon the modality of emphasis. These are the Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing skills (LSRW). Medgyes (1986) observed that teaching a language aims at helping the learner acquire the skill of using the target language as an effective communicative tool.

Competence is the degree of accomplishment of an objective with respect to quality and time. Competence based education is an approach to instruction that aims to teach each student the basic knowledge, skills, attitudes and values essential to competencies. Melinda (2004) found that the pragmatic competence can be developed in the classroom through a range of situations and activities. He believed that the pragmatic rules that are different from or non-existent in the students' first language need to be given emphasis.

The need for an eclectic approach:

At present, teachers of English around the world prefer some form of communicative teaching and learning, rather than the audio-lingual method and its derivatives. However, we must remember that a successful TESOL teacher should not be necessarily biased in favour of one method or another. He/she should be first of all should be competent in and comfortable with the methods he/she wants to use. The teacher could also select different teaching strategies from different methods, and blend them to suit the needs of his/her materials and students.

It is important that the students are given ample opportunities to practice English in the class as well as outside the classroom, even as it is important for them to have time and freedom to digest, reflect and analyze what has been exposed to them. Maley and Duff (1978) argued that drama can also overcome the student's resistance to learning a second language.

The whole notion of the teacher as the disseminator of knowledge has undergone a tremendous change today. While in the old scenario, the teacher was the only dispenser of knowledge, in the new scenario, the teacher has become the facilitator. The teacher who employs knowledge in the classroom guides the students about the information to be assessed and interacted with. "The teacher is no longer the sage on the stage but the guide on the side". A teacher can be called competent only if he has the competence in his teaching i.e. has teaching competence.

Statement of the problem:

The basic problem undertaken for investigation in the present study is to examine the various methods of teaching English used by the Secondary School teachers and whether they have sound knowledge about the methods of teaching the subject, so that they can claim themselves to be competent. Hence, the study has been entitled as "Competency of teaching English in Indian context: A Situational Analysis".

Objectives of the study:

The objectives of the present study are as follows:

- 1) To examine the academic and the professional qualification of the English teachers at Secondary level.
- 2) To study the methods and skills used by the English teachers in classroom situation.
- 3) To examine the competencies required of a teacher teaching English and how the competencies identified varied with the demographic variables of teachers i.e. (age, sex and educational qualifications) and with the contextual variables (urban and rural) of teachers.
- 4) To study the methods of teaching English Method at the Teacher Education Institutes (TEI).

Research questions of the study:

The following research questions as per the objectives have been formulated for the study:

- 1) What are the academic and professional qualifications of English teachers teaching in the Secondary Schools?
- 2) Do the English teachers use appropriate methods and skills to teach English to the Secondary School students?
- 3) Whether the competencies of the Secondary School teachers vary-
 - a) Between male and female teachers?
 - b) Between urban and rural teachers?
 - c) Among teachers of different age levels (5 levels)?
 - d) Among teachers of different educational qualification (4 levels)?
- 4) Do the teachers of the Teacher Education Institutes use the right method to teach the English Method to the student teachers?

Delimitations of the study:

The present study has been delimited to the Secondary School teachers teaching English in Assam. The study considers teachers below the age group of 55 years. The study also considers teachers teaching English Method in the Teacher Education Institutes of Assam, India.

II. METHODOLOGY

The present study has been carried out with the help of Evaluative Survey Method. The target is not only to evaluate the problem of the study but also to point out in which direction the object of the study can be improved.

In the present study, triangulation has also been used to find out the convergent and the divergent findings of the collected data. According to Jick (1979) in order to increase the validity, strength and interpretative potential of a study, decrease investigator's biases and to provide multiple perspectives to a research work, triangulation should be used.

Sample of the Study:

For the present study, the investigator had selected 54 teachers from 20 Secondary Schools teaching the English subject using stratified random sampling technique. The sample of the teachers would give a clear picture of the methods and skills used by the teachers for teaching English in India. Again, 8 teachers teaching English in four Government and four Non- government Teacher Education Institutes were selected for study.

Tools for the Study:

The investigator had made use of an observation schedule and a questionnaire for teachers teaching English in the Secondary Schools. An interview schedule for the teachers teaching English Method in the Teacher Education Institutes was also used to collect the relevant data.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The data gathered by the investigator has been analysed and the results have been summarized in a logical order in relation to the objectives of the study.

a) ACADEMIC QUALIFICATION OF THE ENGLISH TEACHERS:

- Among the 28 teachers in the selected 10 rural secondary schools, only 5 teachers have a B.Ed. degree. Remaining 23 teachers are graduates without a professional degree.
- Out of 26 teachers selected from the urban Secondary schools, 9 teachers are Graduates, 11 teachers are Graduates with B.Ed. degree, 3 teachers have a Post Graduate degree without a professional degree and only 3 teachers have a Post Graduate degree with B.Ed.

b) METHODS AND SKILLS USED FOR TEACHING ENGLISH BY THE SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS:

- All the teachers used mother tongue in the class.
- The writing skill was given more stress than speaking and reading skills.
- Students were passive listeners.
- Deductive method was used to teach grammar.
- 83% in urban and 89% in rural areas used the Translation Method to teach English.
- Majority of the teachers never used Teaching Learning Material (TLM) in the class.
- The teachers used the mother tongue in the class because it was a common language which the pupils and teachers know.
- Only 15% of the rural teachers and 30% of the urban teachers planned their lessons.
- Majority of the teachers felt that A-V aids were not required to teach English.
- While teaching listening skills, the teachers were found to be active speakers. The students were passive listeners.
- While teaching speaking skills, the students wanted more opportunities to speak in the class. The teacher is the only speaker in the class.
- While teaching reading skills, the students wanted more opportunities to read. The teachers used to read in the class.
- While teaching writing skills, it was observed that though the teachers helped the students to write summaries and paragraphs, the students were less interested to write.
- Majority of the teachers said that the schools do not provide Teaching Learning Materials to the English teachers.
- Teachers sometimes or never gave home assignments to the students.
- The most frequent errors made by the students were in grammar and vocabulary. Majority of the students disliked grammar. Students were found to have problems in the use of verbs and in the construction of sentences. Deductive method was used to teach grammar.
- The activities conducted by the English teachers were debates and extempore speeches. The debates and extempore speeches were conducted in the mother tongue of the students.
- The teachers gave feedback to the students by marking or through a generalized talk. Giving feedback was not observed in the class.
- Teachers were found to use the school library for books. However, the students did not have an access to the library.
- The students were evaluated through Half Yearly and Annual Examinations. Very less number of weekly/monthly tests was conducted by the teacher. No activity was undertaken by the English teacher in the class.
- No teacher of any age group used Teaching Learning Materials (TLM).
- All the teachers' pronunciation and fluency needed to be improved.
- Teachers of age group 30-40 years needed to improve while those between 40-50 years were satisfactory in the use of vocabulary.
- Teachers of age group 30-40 years were poor while those between 40-55 years are found to be satisfactory in grammar and usage.

Findings on Triangulation:

Convergent findings:

- The teachers used the Translation Method in the class.
- The teachers used the mother tongue in the class because it is a common language which the pupils and teachers knew.
- Only 15% of the rural teachers and 30% of the urban teachers planned their lessons.
- Majority of the teachers felt that A-V aids were not required to teach English.
- While teaching listening skills, the teachers were found to be active speakers. The students were passive listeners.
- While teaching speaking skills, the students wanted more opportunities to speak in the class. The teacher was the only speaker in the class.
- While teaching reading skills, the students wanted more opportunities to read. The teachers used to read in the class.
- While teaching writing skills, it is observed that though the teachers helped the students to write summaries and paragraphs, the students were less interested to write.
- Majority of the teachers said that the schools did not provide Teaching Learning Materials (TLM) to the English teachers.
- Teachers sometimes or never gave home assignments to the students.
- The most frequent errors made by the students were in grammar and vocabulary. Majority of the students disliked grammar. Students were found to have problems in the use of verbs and in the construction of sentences. Deductive method was used to teach grammar.

Divergent findings:

- The activities conducted by the English teachers were debates and extempore speeches. The debates and extempore speeches were conducted in the mother tongue of the students.
- The teachers gave feedback to the students by marking or through a generalized talk. Giving feedback was not observed in the class.
- Teachers were found to use the school library for books. However, the students did not have an access to the library.
- The students were evaluated mainly through Half Yearly and Annual Examinations. Very less number of weekly/monthly tests were conducted by the teacher. No activity was undertaken by the English teacher in the class.

Discussion on the findings based on Triangulation:

- Since the teachers used the Translation Method in the class, the students never got an opportunity to listen to or speak in English.
- Writing is given more stress than listening, speaking or reading skills.
- Students never got an opportunity to converse in English in the class.
- TLM facilitates both teaching and learning but no teacher was observed to use TLM in the class.
- Planning of lessons leads to quality teaching but very less number of teachers are found to plan their lessons beforehand.
- A-V aids help teachers to support their teaching but teachers think that A-V aids are not necessary for teaching English.
- Students can be encouraged by many ways other than by only marking them or through a generalized talk.
- Grammar can be taught through many interesting activities. It can be taught in context by the teachers.
- Debates and extempore speeches which are conducted in mother tongue can be conducted in English in order to improve the proficiency of the students in the language.
- Home assignments are essential as it makes the students regular in their studies.
- Reading habit of the students can be developed through libraries.
- Students should be evaluated continuously through continuous and comprehensive evaluation.

c) COMPETENCY OF TEACHING ENGLISH BY THE SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS:

Competency based on knowledge: Age (Urban Areas)

- No teacher of any age group used TLM.
- All the teachers' pronunciation and fluency needed to be improved.
- Teachers of age group 30-40 years needed to improve while those between 40-50 years are satisfactory in the use of vocabulary.
- Teachers of age group 30-40 years were poor while those between 40-55 years were found to be satisfactory in grammar and usage.

Competency based on knowledge: Sex (Urban Areas)

- Both male and female teachers never used TLM in the class.
- Both male and female teachers needed to improve their fluency and pronunciation.
- They were never observed to explain the theme before starting the chapter.

Competency based on knowledge: Educational qualification (Urban Areas)

- Graduates, Graduates with B.Ed, Post graduates and Postgraduates with B.Ed never used TLM in the class.

- Post graduate teachers were satisfactory in grammar and usage.
- Post graduate teachers with B.Ed were satisfactory in using understandable vocabulary in the class.
- Pronunciation and fluency of Graduates and Graduates with B.Ed needed to improve.

Competency based on knowledge: Age (Rural Areas)

- No teacher used TLM.
- Teachers of age group 30-40 years are poor; 40-45 need to improve while those between 45-55 years were satisfactory in grammar and usage.
- The teachers of 30-40 years need to improve while those in between 40-55 years were satisfactory in using understandable vocabulary in the class.
- No teacher is found to possess good pronunciation and fluency.
- No teacher engaged the students in pair/ group work; engaged the students in a dialogue, or related the subject with other subjects.

Competency based on knowledge: Sex (Rural Areas)

- Only 5% of the male teachers were satisfactory while 50% of the female teachers needed to improve in using understandable vocabulary in the class.
- Both male and female teachers were satisfactory in guiding the students to write summary on their own.
- Male teachers needed to improve while the female teachers were poor in grammar and usage.
- No male or female teacher was found to use TLM in the class.

Competency based on knowledge: Educational qualification (Rural Areas)

- The Graduate and Graduates with B.Ed needed to improve in grammar and usage.
- The Graduates needed to improve; Graduates with B.Ed were satisfactory in using understandable vocabulary in the class.
- The Graduate teachers were poor while the Graduates with B.Ed needed to improve their pronunciation and fluency.
- No teacher was seen to engage the students in pair/ group work.

Competency based on profession: Age (Urban Areas)

- Teachers of age group 30-40 years were satisfactory while those between 40-45 years needed to improve in taking interest in his/her profession.
- Teachers of age 30-40 years needed to improve while in between 40-50 years had satisfactory command over the content of the subject.
- Teachers of 30-35 years were poor; 35-40 years needed to improve while those in between 40-45 years were satisfactory for coming well prepared to the class.
- The teachers were not observed to motivate, checked home assignments, arranged the sitting arrangement or gave individual attention to the students.
- No teacher planned lessons beforehand. They were also found to be poor in their awareness of the Secondary School Curriculum.

Competency based on profession: Sex (Urban areas)

- Both male and female teachers needed to improve in taking interest in his/her profession.
- Male teachers needed to improve while female teachers were satisfactory over the content of the subject.
- Both male and female teachers needed to improve in coming well prepared to the class.
- No teacher was observed to present the lessons through interesting activities.
- No teacher planned their lessons. They were also found to be poor in their awareness of the Secondary School Curriculum.
- No teacher used movements or gestures or evaluated the student well in the class. They did not give individual attention to the students.

Competency based on profession: Educational qualification (Urban Areas)

- The Graduates, Graduates with B.Ed and Post graduates were satisfactory in taking interest in his/her own profession.
- The Graduates and Graduates with B.Ed needed to improve while Post graduates and Post graduates with B.Ed have satisfactory command over the content of the subject.
- No teacher was found to present the lessons through interesting activities.
- The Graduates needed to improve, Graduates with B.Ed and Post graduates were satisfactory while Post graduates with B.Ed were good in coming well prepared to the class.
- No teacher planned their lessons. They were also found to be poor in their awareness of the Secondary School Curriculum.
- No teacher used movements or gestures or evaluated the student well in the class. They did not give individual attention to the students.

Competency based on profession: Age (Rural Areas)

- The teachers of age group 30-40 years needed to improve in taking interest in his/her own profession.

- The teachers of 30-45 years needed to improve while 45-55 years had satisfactory command over the content of the subject.

- The teachers of 30-40 years needed to improve for coming well prepared to the class. While teachers of 40-55 years were satisfactory in coming well prepared to the class.

- No teacher is seen to motivate, corrected home assignments, arranged the sitting arrangement, used movement and gestures or gave individual attention to the students.

- No teacher planned lessons.

- All teachers were found to be poor in their awareness of the Secondary School Curriculum.

Competency based on profession: Sex (Rural Areas)

- Both male and female teachers needed to improve in taking interest in his/ her own profession.

- The male and the female teachers needed to improve in their command over the content of the subject.

- Both male and the female teachers needed to improve in coming well prepared to the class.

- No teacher planned lessons.

- No teacher is seen to motivate, gave home assignments, arranged the sitting arrangement, used movement and gestures or gave individual attention to the students.

- All teachers were found to be poor in their awareness of the Secondary School Curriculum.

Competency based on profession: Educational qualification (Rural Areas)

- The Graduates and Graduates with B.Ed needed to improve in taking interest in his/her own profession.

- The Graduates needed to improve while the Graduates with B.Ed had satisfactory command over the content of the subject. Both graduates and Graduates with B.Ed needed to improve for coming well prepared to the class.

- No teacher was seen to motivate, corrected home assignments, arranged the sitting arrangement, used movement and gestures or gave individual attention to the students.

- No teacher planned lessons.

- All teachers were found to be poor in their awareness of the Secondary School Curriculum.

d) METHODS OF TEACHING ENGLISH METHOD AT THE TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTES (TEI):

- Only 2% of the Non- government and 8% of the Government TEI used Direct Method to teach English.

- The TEI used Bilingual and Translation Method for teaching English.

- Classroom teaching was based on lecture/ discussion and assignments.

- Majority of the TEI spent the classroom teaching on writing skills.

- Only 8% of the Govt. and 3% of the Non-govt. TEI conducted micro-teaching.

- TEIs spent less classroom hours on pair/group work or on storytelling.

- Govt. and Non-govt. TEI used charts, models and flash cards as teaching aids.

- Teachers in Govt. TEI planned their lessons while those of Non govt. TEI did not plan their lessons.

- Student teachers would follow the Bilingual Method of teaching in their respective schools.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The discussion on the findings has been provided based on the objectives and is followed by the conclusion.

- The teacher needs to understand fully the different aims of teaching English.

- The teachers of English should be given training for the improvement of their own English.

- Sometimes a picture is worth a thousand words and this is particularly true when English is taught as a second language.

- Mostly speaking practice in the classroom should be done in pairs and in groups with students interacting with each other.

- The examination system can be improved keeping in mind the aims of teaching English in India.

- There should be correlation of the subject matter with other subjects and life situations.

- The teaching- learning process can be made student-centered.

- Planning of the lessons before teaching makes the method of teaching systematic.

- Since teachers are the most important component in school education, it is necessary to continuously upgrade the quality of teachers through in –service educational programmes and a variety of other measures apart from pre-service qualifying programme for teacher training viz. B.Ed.

- Careful state level planning will be necessary for ensuring adequate number of trained teachers and their continuous enrichment and improvement.

- Teachers should be trained in English teaching methods under in-service intensive training programme.

- Teacher Education Institutes should conduct training for the teachers using ICT tools.

V. CONCLUSION

The teacher of English today is faced with a wide variety of teaching methods like the Grammar Translation Method, Direct Method, Bilingual Method, Audio-lingual method etc. No method can be intrinsically good or bad; it is either effectively used or not effectively used. Thus, every method needs to be tailored to the local situation and the content of teaching. The teachers of English should use a combination of different methods to teach English. In this regard, the Teacher Education Institutes can develop the resources in the form of audio-visual aids and handbooks of micro lessons related to core teaching skills in the context of Indian classrooms and teaching-learning situations. A change is called for in the present approach to English language teaching because in the prevailing practice even after seven to eight years of formal English teaching, the students as a whole find it extremely difficult to actually use the language in normal communication, whether in the spoken or written mode. The language teacher, therefore, needs the right attitude to language learning and teaching, rather than a formal method. Gautam (1977) argued that in order for a particular classroom methods of instruction to succeed, certain minimum essential pre-requisites by way of understanding and attitudes on the part of the teachers and students are to be adequately met, in addition to the administrative/physical inputs such as size of the class, facilities of A-V aids, number of periods allotted to the teaching of English and so on. Dornyei and Thurell (1991) recommended some novel approaches to get the learners to interact. One of them is to practice "nonsense dialogues that consist of entirely of fillers; they may use the names of cities, for e.g. as content words." This is a good way of getting students to get rid of shyness and inhibitions in the first place, so that they can interact with ease in the classroom. There is also need for greater attention to be given to the training of English teachers, both through pre-service and in-service training programmes for training up professionals since "doing the same things with a different awareness seems to make a bigger difference than doing different things with the same awareness." The Teacher Education Institutes should also conduct training of the English teachers using ICT tools because it aids to improve student learning and teaching methodology. Upadhyaya (2006) argued that teachers training programme was found considerably effective in the improvement of self-concept of the pupil teachers irrespective of sex and type of institution.

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Exploring the Harmony between Jordanian EFL Teachers' and Students' Beliefs about Vocabulary Learning Strategies

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Abstract—The present study aimed to explore the harmony between teachers' and students' beliefs about strategies used in learning English vocabulary. The sample consisted of 133 EFL teachers and 306 ninth grade students in Irbid Third Directorate of Education during the academic year 2013-2014 who responded to the questionnaires. Two questionnaires were designed for this study, one for teachers and the other for students. Each questionnaire has fifty items about vocabulary learning strategies under five main categories. Results showed that there was a harmony between teachers' and students' beliefs about the process of teaching and learning vocabulary concerning rote learning, using multimedia using technology and dictionary and asking for help. However, there was no harmony between their beliefs about the process of teaching and learning vocabulary regarding guessing and contextualization.

Index Terms—teachers' beliefs, harmony, students' beliefs, vocabulary, vocabulary learning strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Beliefs are assumptions about the world and oneself held by individuals based on their experiences or external authorities (Athos and Gabbra, 1978). They act as strong filters of reality because they shape the way they perceive things (Arnold, 1999). They differ according to their importance to individuals, and the more important the belief is, the more difficult it is to be changed. Therefore, if a central belief is changed, other beliefs within a person's belief system are affected (Rokeach, 1986).

Teachers are highly influenced by their beliefs, values and views of the world. Teachers' beliefs and attitudes are important concepts in understanding their thought processes, instructional practices, and change in learning to teach (Williams and Burden 1997: 76). Their beliefs, therefore, are important considerations in conducting teacher education designed to help teachers develop their thinking and practices (Zheng, 2009). Moreover, teachers' beliefs play a critical role in shaping instruction because there is a lack of consensus about the best practice based on objective evidence (Feiman-Nemser and Floden, 1983). Teachers' beliefs also influence their perception and judgment, their classroom practices, and their improvements in classroom teaching practices and educational programs (Johnson, 1994).

Language learners' expectations are influenced and shaped by their beliefs. These expectations influence how learners respond to a new environment. They guide them in their conceptualizations of language learning and influence the approaches used to learn vocabulary (White 1999). Learners' beliefs play a critical role in choosing appropriate strategies needed to learn a foreign language (Oxford, 1994).

Understanding the role of learners' and teachers' beliefs may play a major role in learning and teaching experience, and have a reflective influence on learning behavior, as well as learning outcomes. Indeed, research shows that having positive and realistic beliefs increase learners' motivation and decrease frustration, and anxiety (Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005). Therefore, we can conclude that an awareness of teachers' and learners' beliefs is central to the language-classroom pedagogy.

A. Statement of the Problem

Investigating the relationship between EFL teachers' and learners' beliefs about the process of teaching and learning vocabulary give important data to the English context. Their beliefs are very important in learning and teaching English language.

The researcher notes that learners have problems in using English vocabulary items appropriately in their learning. This could be a result of misconception between teachers' and students' beliefs about the process of teaching and learning vocabulary items. Such misconception may result in poor educational outcomes. The present study will explore the harmony between teachers and students' beliefs about vocabulary learning strategies. This study attempts to answer the following questions:

- 1-What are the Jordanian Teachers' beliefs about vocabulary teaching strategies?
- 2--What are the Students' beliefs about vocabulary learning strategies?
- 3-What is the extent of harmony between teachers' and students' beliefs about the strategies of learning vocabulary?

B. *The Significance of the Study*

The significance of the study stems from the following considerations:

1. The findings of the study may help teachers in understanding their learners' beliefs, what they want to learn and how they want to learn.
2. The study may motivate instructors as well as researchers to use different strategies in teaching English vocabulary.
3. The findings may assist teachers to use the proper strategies in teaching vocabulary to develop the quality of teaching English vocabulary.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Teachers' beliefs are very important in developing the processes of teaching and learning. Pajares (1992) proposed that exploring teachers' beliefs is essential to improve teachers' teaching practices. Similarly, Kagan (1992) concluded that the study of beliefs is essential to educational practice and necessary to understand how teachers approach their work. Golombok (1998) proposed that the study of teachers' beliefs forms a part of the process of understanding how teachers conceptualize their work. Richardson (1997) proposed that teachers' beliefs about learning will affect everything they do in the classroom, whether these beliefs are implicit or explicit.

Learners' beliefs play a vital role in developing the strategies used in learning English language. Wenden's (1987) asserted that learners' beliefs affected the strategies used in their learning, criteria needed in assessing the efficiency of learning process. Researchers found that learners' beliefs about learning a foreign language and its culture influence their strategies towards that language and cooperate in increasing their motivations (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Gardner, 1979, 2001a, 2001b; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003).

A number of researchers found that in certain domains teachers' beliefs bore little relationship to students' beliefs (Banya & Cheng, 1997; Peacock, 1998, 1999; Siebert, 2003; & Davies, 2003). Kern (1995) argued that this diversity produces a gap, and might result in tensions in the classroom practices. He suggested researchers to find innovative ideas to deal with the gap since it can affect learners' motivation and efforts, and the types of activities they choose to engage in (Schultz, 1996).

A small number of studies investigated the harmony between teachers' and learners' beliefs. Kern (1995) surveyed 288 students of French as a foreign language and 12 instructors in the US. Results showed a congruence between learners' beliefs and their instructors. However, he found somewhat troubling the fact that the learners in his study seemed to be over-optimistic or unrealistic about the length of time it takes to become fluent in a foreign language.

Peacock (1999) surveyed 202 EFL learners and 45 teachers using both questionnaires and interviews. The researcher noted a number of significant discrepancies among learners' and teachers' beliefs. Learners placed a significantly greater emphasis on vocabulary, grammar learning, and excellent pronunciation than did their teachers, and had a greater preference for practice in a language lab.

Davies (2003) investigated the mismatch of 18 teachers' and 97 learners' beliefs in a tertiary institution in a small territory of Macao. He reported strong differences between the two groups. He concluded that students sought a more structured and safer approach, basing their views on a different theoretical underpinning from that of their teachers, and thus essentially supporting very different classroom practices.

Siebert (2003) explored the beliefs of 156 ESL students and 25 teachers about language learning at institutions of higher education in the Northwest region of the US. Results revealed that students placed strong emphasis on pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary learning and translation. He also noted that learners' beliefs were different from their teachers' beliefs about language learning methods.

Zhang (2008) conducted a study to investigate teachers' knowledge about vocabulary instruction. Results indicated that Chinese EFL teachers have well-developed content knowledge of vocabulary, deep-rooted belief systems about teaching, and learning English vocabulary. Furthermore, their beliefs are consistent with their practices. In addition, teachers' knowledge about vocabulary instruction is derived from formal EFL education and teaching practices.

Al-Jabari (2011) conducted a study to investigate the congruence between the Jordanian EFL learners' beliefs about the oral skills instruction and the actual classroom practices. The findings revealed that there was no congruence between the Jordanian EFL learners' beliefs about the oral skills instruction and the actual classroom practices. In addition, it revealed a statistically significant difference in learners' beliefs about the oral skills instruction due to their gender, in favor of female students. Moreover, the findings indicated a statistically significant difference in the degree of the actual teaching practices due to the learners' level of achievement in English, in favor of students with a fair degree of achievement in English.

Hoang (2011) explored EFL teachers' perceptions of vocabulary acquisition and instruction and identify their use of vocabulary learning strategies. The findings revealed that most of the participants used guessing unknown words from context and monolingual dictionary in their learning. The participants believed that vocabulary, vocabulary learning strategies, and dictionaries play extremely important roles in language learning. Additionally, regarding prominent issues in vocabulary learning and teaching, the participants generally showed a strong consensus on three major points. First, they perceived that reading is a powerful method to increase vocabulary. Second, they considered guessing new words from context to be an excellent strategy for vocabulary acquisition. Third, they believed that technology can greatly help students to learn vocabulary; thus, it should be integrated into the classroom to enhance students' lexical

learning outcomes. Finally, the results showed that the participants reported using all the vocabulary teaching techniques surveyed with varying degrees of frequency.

Ta'amneh (2012) investigated the congruence among teachers and students' beliefs about vocabulary learning strategies and teachers' classroom vocabulary teaching. Results showed that there was a little congruence between teachers' and students' beliefs about the process of teaching and learning vocabulary.

Ta'amneh (2014) investigated strategies used in learning English vocabulary by the first year students at Taibah University. The sample consisted of 98 learners during the academic year 2013-2014. Results revealed that students prefer to use the rote learning and ignore other strategies (guessing, applying images and sounds, and Dictionary) in learning English vocabulary.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Population and Sample

The population of the study, which comprised 200 EFL teachers and 1500 ninth grade students, consisted of all teachers students in Irbid Third Directorate of Education during the academic year 2013/2014. The sample consisted of 133 EFL teachers and 306 students with an average age of 14 (ninth grade) who responded to the questionnaires.

B. Instruments

The researcher developed two questionnaires; one for the teachers and the other for students. Each questionnaire has fifty items about vocabulary learning strategies under five main categories (see Appendix A). The teachers' questionnaire was developed to elicit their beliefs about the role of vocabulary in language learning and teaching, the role of vocabulary learning strategies, and their beliefs about how to teach vocabulary in the classroom. Whereas the students' questionnaire was developed to elicit the students' beliefs about vocabulary learning strategies to show the relationship between teachers' and students' beliefs about vocabulary learning strategies.

C. Validity and Reliability

To validate the instruments, a jury of seven EFL specialists was asked to examine them and provide their comments and suggestions. Experts' suggestions included deleting some irrelevant items, adding new ones, re-categorizing and editing some items. The researcher edited them accordingly. To establish the reliability of the teachers' questionnaires, they were tried out on 30 teachers and 30 students from the population but outside of the study. The reliability coefficient was computed using Cronbach Alpha. Values which were 0.96 for teachers and 0.91 for students considered satisfactory to use these questionnaires to collect data and analyze it.

D. Design of the Study

The researcher used quantitative approach in this study. The responses of the teachers and students were analyzed using appropriate statistical techniques (means and standard deviations).

IV. DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

Results of the first question were about the Jordanian teachers' beliefs about vocabulary teaching strategies. The means and the standard deviations were calculated. Table 1 presents the results.

TABLE 1:
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR EACH DIMENSION OF THE TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE.

	Dimension	Rank	N	Mean	S.D.
1	Rote learning	1	133	4.26	.70
4	Using Technology and Dictionary	2	133	4.19	.88
2	Guessing and Contextualizing	3	133	3.73	1.10
3	Using Multimedia	4	133	3.69	1.18
5	Asking for help	5	133	3.36	1.22
All	Teachers' questionnaire		133	3.85	1.01

Table 1 shows that the overall degree of the teachers' beliefs is high since the mean is (3.85). This result highlights the importance of teachers' beliefs in enhancing their classroom practices. It seems that in order to understand the teachers' instructional practices, their beliefs about these practices should be investigated because such beliefs may define their work in their classrooms. The following Table from the teachers' beliefs clearly indicate the teachers' beliefs about vocabulary teaching strategies (see appendix A for more information).

TABLE 2:
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR EACH ITEM OF THE TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE.

Rote learning			Guessing			Multimedia			Dictionary			Asking		
	M	S.D		M	S.D		M	S.D		M	S.D		M	S.D
1	4.16	.747	11	3.80	1.057	21	3.92	.831	31	4.17	.790	41	3.77	1.180
2	4.30	.639	12	3.64	.964	22	3.20	1.694	32	4.30	.476	42	4.03	.969
3	4.25	.667	13	3.98	1.118	23	4.65	.630	33	4.10	.936	43	4.18	.860
4	4.09	.679	14	3.83	.909	24	3.68	1.215	34	3.73	1.473	44	3.51	1.312
5	4.14	.664	15	3.14	1.585	25	2.44	1.411	35	4.14	.664	45	3.03	1.537
6	4.38	.531	16	3.74	1.273	26	3.16	1.646	36	4.55	.499	46	4.04	.874
7	4.52	.670	17	3.89	.902	27	4.52	.670	37	4.40	.662	47	3.56	1.138
8	3.88	1.045	18	3.16	1.236	28	3.21	1.472	38	4.17	1.169	48	4.02	.969
9	4.36	.655	19	4.23	.867	29	4.11	.956	39	4.01	1.215	49	3.23	1.660
10	4.47	.669	20	3.92	1.128	30	3.96	1.227	40	4.32	.892	50	3.01	1.717

Table 2 shows the most common beliefs among teachers about rote learning strategies in teaching vocabulary. Teachers believe that repeating, categorizing words in groups, skipping unfamiliar words which seems inessential for adequate comprehension of a passage are very useful in learning new vocabulary items. Besides, they believe in the importance of using translation and keeping a vocabulary notebook. In addition, they think that in order to enhance students' memory and connect a word to a personal experience, teachers should motivate students to read and write words many times, paraphrase the word's meaning and use physical action in teaching vocabulary. It also shows the most common beliefs among teachers about guessing and contextualizing strategy in teaching vocabulary. Teachers believed that students should learn the meanings of the most common affixes and understand the meaning of unfamiliar English words by looking at the context and the topic of the whole paragraph. According to these beliefs, the teacher is an organizer who helps students to make use of knowledge of the topic when guessing the meaning of an unknown word and replace it with the guessed meaning to check if the sentence makes sense. Furthermore, the teachers believe that students should be able to look for any word, expression or definition in the passage that supports their guesses about the meaning of a word and check if the part of speech of the guessed meaning is the same as that of the unknown word.

According to using multimedia in teaching English vocabulary, the Table gives us an idea about teachers' beliefs about this strategy in teaching vocabulary. They think that teachers should encourage their students to create their own mental image of a word's meaning and visualize the spelling of the word in their heads. They also believe that teaching a word with a picture of its meaning and listening to tapes/CDs of word lists may facilitate the learning of new words. Besides, teachers think that students should associate a new word with a known English word that sounds similar and imagine the written form through remembering its location on the page or on the board. In addition, it shows that the most common beliefs among teachers about using technology and dictionary.

Teachers agree that students should use dictionaries to look up words that are crucial to the understanding, confirm their guesses about the meaning of a word whenever they meet new words and pay attention to other aspects of word knowledge, such as its pronunciation, its derivatives, frequent contexts of occurrence. Moreover, they believe that teaching students to use the appropriate dictionary properly and reading the sample sentences illustrating all the senses of the word may help students to be aware of the slight differences that may exist in meaning, connotation, or usage between words and recycle the new vocabulary at short intervals. Finally, Table 2 shows the agreement among teachers in using collaborative learning and asking for help strategy in learning vocabulary. They believe that teachers should motivate their students to ask their classmates for the meaning of new words. In addition, they feel that promoting students to ask the teacher for an explanation may facilitate the process of learning vocabulary in addition to collaborative working in learning vocabulary.

The results of the first question showed the positive beliefs of the participants to most of the items in the questionnaire about vocabulary teaching strategies. This result agrees particularly with Zang (2008) and Hoang (2011) and Ta'amneh (2012).

Results of the Second question

The second question was about the students' beliefs about vocabulary learning strategies. In order to answer this question, the means and the standard deviations were calculated. Table 3 presents the results.

TABLE 3:
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR EACH DIMENSION OF THE STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE.

	Domain	N	Mean	S. D.
1	Rote learning	306	4.20	0.77
4	Using Technology and Dictionary	306	4.15	0.92
3	Using Multimedia	306	3.78	1.09
2	Guessing and Contextualizing	606	2.31	1.47
5	Asking for help	306	3.66	1.03
ALL	Students' questionnaire	306	3.62	1.06

Table 3 shows that the mean for the students' questionnaire is 3.62. It is noticed that using dictionary, rote learning and applying images and sounds got high means and so higher ranks. Whereas guessing and contextualization got the lowest mean (2.31). The researcher also calculated the means and the standard deviations for each item of the students' questionnaire as follows in Table 4:

TABLE 4:
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR EACH ITEM OF THE STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE.

Rote learning			Guessing			Multimedia			Dictionary			Asking		
	M	S.D		M	S.D		M	S.D		M	S.D		M	S.D
1	4.17	.778	11	2.44	1.561	21	3.97	.839	31	4.17	.796	41	3.70	1.255
2	4.11	.881	12	2.45	1.471	22	2.89	1.716	32	4.13	.738	42	3.85	1.003
3	4.13	.841	13	2.48	1.595	23	4.73	.580	33	4.03	.932	43	4.14	.847
4	4.07	.679	14	2.13	1.321	24	3.71	1.167	34	3.98	1.144	44	3.64	1.266
5	4.07	.821	15	2.00	1.474	25	2.41	1.421	35	4.06	.710	45	3.12	1.550
6	4.24	.692	16	2.12	1.368	26	3.55	1.409	36	4.00	1.239	46	4.25	.777
7	4.62	.567	17	2.54	1.419	27	4.65	.559	37	4.18	1.029	47	3.64	1.145
8	3.94	.948	18	2.27	1.428	28	3.28	1.478	38	4.32	.997	48	3.91	.928
9	4.23	.718	19	2.16	1.494	29	4.24	.734	39	4.16	.943	49	3.22	1.639
10	4.41	.797	20	2.50	1.558	30	4.27	.965	40	4.49	.707	50	3.12	1.667

Table 4 shows the most common beliefs among students about rote learning strategies in learning new vocabulary. They think that students should repeat new vocabulary items, classify them in a group with other items, skip unknown words which seems inessential for adequate comprehension of a passage and write it repetitively. They both believe that translation and keeping a vocabulary notebook may facilitate vocabulary learning. As well, they believe that connecting a new word to a personal experience, writing words many times, paraphrasing their meanings and using physical actions while learning new vocabulary may enhance students' memory (Ta'amneh2014). According to their beliefs about using multimedia strategy in learning vocabulary, they agree that students should create their own mental image of a word's meaning and visualize the spelling of the word in their heads. They believe that learning a word with a picture of its meaning and listening to tapes/CDs of word lists may motivate them to learn new vocabulary. Besides, they think that they should associate a new word with a known English word that sounds similar and imagine the written form through remembering its location on the page or on the board.

Table 4 also shows the most common beliefs among students about using technology and dictionary. Students agree that they should use dictionaries to look up words that are crucial to the understanding, confirm their guesses about the meaning of a word whenever they meet new words. Students also think that they should pay attention to other aspects of word knowledge, such as its pronunciation, its derivatives, frequent contexts of occurrence. In addition, it shows students' beliefs about asking for help strategy in learning vocabulary are: students should ask their classmates for the meaning and usage of new words. In addition, they should also ask their teachers for an explanation. Concerning guessing and Contextualizing strategy in, Table 4 shows that students had poor beliefs about this strategy since the mean was very low (2.31). The results of Siebert (2003), Ta'amneh (2012) and Ta'amneh (2014) confirm the results to which the present study ends up.

Discussion results of the third question

The third question asked about the harmony between teachers' and students' beliefs about vocabulary learning strategies. The researcher found that it is useful to compare the teachers' beliefs as stated in their answers to the items of the teachers' questionnaire with their students' beliefs as stated in their answers to the items of the students' questionnaire to look for the existence of harmony between them. Teachers and students showed harmony in all dimensions of the questionnaires except the guessing and conceptualization strategy as illustrated in Table 5:

TABLE 5:
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR EACH DIMENSION OF THE TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRES.

	Rote M	S.D	Guessing M	S.D	Multimedia M	S.D	Dictionary M	S.D	Asking M	S.D
Teachers	4.26	.70	3.73	1.10	3.69	1.18	4.19	.88	3.63	1.22
Students	4.20	.77	2.31	1.47	3.78	1.09	4.15	.92	3.66	1.03

With reference to Tables 2, 4 and 5 it seems possible to infer that both teachers and students believed in the importance of rote learning in teaching and learning vocabulary properly. They believed that repeating a word loudly, putting it in a group with other items, skip an unfamiliar word which seems inessential for adequate comprehension of a passage and writing it repetitively may facilitate vocabulary learning and make the process of teaching easier. Moreover, they agree that using translation in teaching vocabulary and keeping a vocabulary notebook may motivate students to learn. In addition, they think that paraphrasing the word's meaning and using physical action in teaching vocabulary may enhance students' memory. Such behavior can be explained in light of the researcher's observation that the teachers were fully aware of the students' needs to build a vocabulary competence which may help them later to learn the language. It can be also observed from comparing the above tables that both teachers and students believed in encouraging students to create their own mental image of a word's meaning and visualize the spelling of the word in

their heads. They also believed that teaching a word with a picture of its meaning and listening to tapes/CDs of word lists may facilitate the learning of new words. In addition, they agreed that associating a new word with a known English word that sounds similar and imagining the written form through remembering its location on the page or on the board may activate the process of teaching and learning. The researcher found it is acceptable to conclude that the teachers were able to show harmony between their beliefs about multimedia strategy in teaching vocabulary and their students' beliefs.

The above tables show positive beliefs of teachers' and students' about using technology and dictionary strategy in the process of teaching and learning vocabulary. They asserted that using the dictionary to look up words that are crucial to the understanding, confirming their guesses about the meaning of a word and paying attention to other aspects of word knowledge, such as its pronunciation, its derivatives, and frequent contexts of occurrence may facilitate the learning of new words. In addition, it seems possible to infer that both teachers and students believed in the importance of collaborative learning and asking for help in teaching and learning vocabulary. They believed that teachers should encourage their students to ask their classmates for the meaning of new words and motivate them to ask the teacher for an explanation. This result agrees with Banya and Chen (1997) and Ta'amneh (2012).

The absence of the harmony between teachers' and students' beliefs about the guessing and contextualization strategy in learning English vocabulary

Table 2, 4, and 5 show the teachers' complete acceptance of beliefs stated in the teachers' questionnaire concerning teaching vocabulary through asking students to use the guessing strategy and reveal the students' poor beliefs when learning new vocabulary. By investigating the actual situation, the researcher found that teachers themselves found the guessing as a difficult strategy to be taught and to be practiced. The researcher interpreted the absence of the needed harmony between teachers' beliefs about guessing strategy in teaching vocabulary and their students' beliefs in light of the fact that students had a tendency to learn vocabulary through using ready translation found in some books or depending on explanations given by their teachers, and they did not like to spend a lot of time when learning new vocabulary and answering the teacher about the meanings and pronunciations of new words regardless of the benefit which their students might get from their teaching. In addition, students may not be able infer the meaning of new words because they do not know the meaning of other words in the contexts to guess the meaning of new words (Ta'amneh, 2014). In addition, the Jordanian students' inability to use the new words in proper contexts may force teachers to avoid using this strategy. The results of Banya and Cheng (1997), Peacock (1998, 1999), Siebert (2003), Davies (2003) and Ta'amneh (2014) confirm the results to which the present study ends up.

V. CONCLUSION

This study explored the harmony among teachers' and students' beliefs about strategies used in learning vocabulary. Results showed that there was a harmony between teachers' and students' beliefs about the vocabulary learning strategies in all dimensions the questionnaires except guessing and contextualization. They believed that rote learning, using technology and dictionary, using multimedia an asking for help strategies are good strategies to learn English vocabulary items.

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Some Reflections on the Relationships between Bilingualism, Intelligence Quotient (IQ) and Error Making in Teaching of English as a Foreign Language in Mali

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Abstract—This paper focuses on the relationships between bilingualism, intelligence quotient (IQ) and errors made by learners in their attempt to master the rules of the target language(s). The first part of the paper explains the true nature of bilingualism contrarily to the controversial and stereotyped definitions found in the previous literature of the 1950's: the author refers to Weinreich's and Suzan Ervin Tripp's definitions and explains that bilingualism is an asset instead of being something negative. The second part deals with the elusive, multifaceted and controversial nature of the concept of intelligence quotient and as a result, the author talks about the different trends in the literature related to intelligence quotient (IQ) and shows that the complex relationships between linguistic performance and intelligence quotient are co relational but not causal. The third part of the paper deals with the negative perceptions of mistakes and errors in second or foreign language learning. Actually, mistakes and errors are part and parcel of the learning process and must not be considered as signs of lack of intelligence on the part of the learners. Some interim constructions made by the learner are rather synonymous with linguistic creativity and the author alluded to the differences of perceptions between Anglophones and Francophones about the notions of mistakes and errors. In conclusion, the author urges learners and their parents not to have negative views about bilingualism, because he thinks that bilingualism is synonymous with linguistic creativity and open mindedness.

Index Terms—intelligence quotient, linguistic creativity, bilingual schools, complex relationships, categorization of bilinguals, academic achievement

I. INTRODUCTION

There were many controversies around the relationships between bilingualism and intelligence (IQ) because people did not know the true nature of bilingualism nor did they know the real nature of intelligence (IQ). In the past, people wrongly believed that acquiring or learning two or more than two languages would have a negative impact on the learner's intelligence because they did not know about the functioning of the human brain and thought that the more languages we learn the greater the probability of not being able to understand other subjects such as mathematics, biology, physics, chemistry, history or geography. This was not true. The whole picture was compounded by the fact that a new learner, in attempting to master the rules of a target language, will definitely make mistakes and errors, hence the relevance of the parents' questioning about the necessity for sending their children to learn another language.

Thanks to the progress made in linguistics and in the neurosciences, we know nowadays that the negative impact of bilingualism on intelligence (IQ) is not true. We also know that the relationships between bilingualism and intelligence (IQ) are co relational but not causal. Actually, this paper intends to show that instead of having a negative impact on intelligence (IQ), bilingualism is an asset because it is synonymous with biculturalism, linguistic creativity and open mindedness. Parents reluctant to let their children learn a second or foreign language or send them to bilingual schools are urged to change their opinion.

It is a truism to say that Mali is a multilingual country, as there are thirteen national languages spoken in the country. Moreover, those who attend school have to learn French and English in addition to their mother tongue. Learning a foreign language represents a significant challenge because of the adjustments it requires from the learner at the psychological, linguistic, cultural and neurolinguistic levels. Young foreign language learners in Malian schools are faced with difficulties in their classes, and that is why the metaphor of the first man walking on the moon is an apt way to describe those difficulties.

Despite those challenges, pupils in Mali seem to be very enthusiastic to learn English in seventh, eighth and ninth grades. Unfortunately, except for a few, this enthusiasm dwindles at the high school level (grades 10 through 12) and learning English becomes problematic, and even boring, when our pupils reach the university level.

The decline in interest for the English language on behalf of Malian students may be attributable, among other things, to their lack of motivation, the weak weight of English as a subject, the few number of hours reserved for English in

the curriculum, overcrowded classrooms, a lack of appropriate books and documents in the libraries (if they even exist at all), low teachers' salaries, (in comparison to their counterparts in the sub region), the mistreatment of students by teachers (for example, using stereotypes and negative labels for students who are not performing well, without mentioning the teachers' attitudes in playing favorites or harassing some students at will, etc.), the list is far from being exhaustive.

Not being able to deal with all the issues pertaining to the root causes for our students' disenchantment, this article focuses on the influences of the bilingual context of Mali on students' learning of English, and the ways errors are generally negatively perceived and treated by neophyte English teachers. In short, those teachers quite often misunderstand the relationships between bilingualism, intelligence quotient (IQ) and error making, and it is well worth clarifying the controversial and complex relationships between the three concepts.

II. METHODOLOGY

We will first have some definitions of the different concepts used in this paper before proceeding on with a brief review of the literature for each concept and their different implications in Malian classrooms based on the experiences of the author. As a result, the author will rely on his previous works as a researcher and on the thesis written by one of his students. In addition, he will also rely on some new findings in the neurosciences.

To that effect, it is worth mentioning that Gueye (1980) studied the nature and types of errors and mistakes made by Malian students learning English as a foreign language at the Ecole Normale Supérieure of Bamako and that Assitan Coulibaly (1983) described the types of motivation prevailing among a group of students learning English as a foreign language in the same school. On the basis of those experiences, the author intends to give some advice to the new English teachers in Francophone Africa in general, and in Mali in particular.

DEFINITIONS OF TERMS:

A) BILINGUALISM

According to Weinreich (1953), "bilingualism is the act of alternatively using two or more than two languages". In fact, Weinreich and Suzan Erwin Tripp categorized bilinguals and this categorization can be rapidly summarized as follows:

- 1) Compound bilinguals are people who do not master the rules of either language either the rules of the language of instruction (in our case, French) or those of the target language (in our case, English) and mix up those rules.
- 2) Subordinate bilinguals are people who just master the rules of one language and mix up these rules with those of the target language, and
- 3) Coordinate bilinguals (also wrongly called balanced bilinguals because one may be balanced from the top or from the bottom) are people who master both languages perfectly well and keep them separate. They may mix the two languages when code switching either voluntarily or when forced by the situation under certain circumstances.

Of course, this categorization of bilinguals has been criticized for not taking into account the fact that language learning is not static but is rather dynamic. We are not going to enter into that debate here. We will simply acknowledge that a compound bilingual may become subordinate and even coordinate by making lot of efforts, whereas a coordinate bilingual may become subordinate or even compound (though this is rare) through lack of practice of both languages. The focus of our study will be about 'compound' and 'subordinate' bilinguals because we surmise that our pupils and students have not yet reached a certain level of proficiency so as to be considered 'coordinate'.

With regard to the relationships between bilingualism, cognitive development and school achievement, we summarize Cummins' findings (1976), see Kangas (1981) showing that coordinate bilingualism (Cummins referred to it as 'balanced') may have positive cognitive effects on academic achievement, whereas subordinate bilingualism (which he called 'dominance' in one of the languages) may have neither positive nor negative cognitive effects on academic achievement. In the same vein, Cummins thinks that compound bilingualism (he calls it semi-lingualism or low levels in both languages) may have negative cognitive effects on academic achievement. Cummins' theory is known as the "Threshold hypothesis".

Actually, the relationships between language and Intelligence Quotient are not crystal clear; they become compounded when it comes to talking about the relationships between bilingualism (or rather multilingualism, in the Malian case) and IQ. The picture becomes even more blurred when we look at those relationships from the angle of error making which is the nexus between the two. To clarify things, the aforementioned concepts are addressed in detail below.

B) INTELLIGENCE

The first psychometric tests were inappropriate and unfair towards bilingualism and no wonder that they found a negative relationship between bilingualism and IQ. Their samples, experimental design as well as their methodologies were quite questionable. That was in the 1920's when D.J. Saer found that rural monolinguals had a superior IQ to rural bilinguals.

In the 1960's, the second wave of psychometric tests found that bilingualism had neutral effects on IQ. W.R Jones (1959) found that bilingualism had neither negative nor positive effects on IQ.

The breakthrough came with Peal & Lambert (1962), when they found that bilinguals have

1. Greater mental flexibility

2. The ability to think more abstractly, less concretely, more independently of words, resulting in superiority in concept formation

3. A more enriched bicultural environment which benefits IQ and

4. Positive transfer between languages benefiting verbal IQ.

Even these findings were subject to controversy in some linguistic circles. In a nutshell, the debate regarding bilingualism and IQ still goes on. The studies have shown that bilinguals are better in divergent thinking (one question with many possible answers) whereas monolinguals are better in convergent thinking (one question requiring only one correct answer).

In the present study, we will just say that language or speech is not synonymous with IQ, because IQ is just a portion of general intelligence which encompasses other types of intelligences. Linguistic intelligence can be determined only when we measure students' competence and degree of fluency in reading, writing, speaking and listening each having sub-skills of vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, meanings and style. Let us not forget that IQ is just a portion of general intelligence and must not always be used as a yardstick for an individual academic performance does not compulsorily reflect the overall eventual performance of a person in real life situations.

Since time immemorial, attempting to know the true nature of intelligence has been a challenge and a major concern for both teachers and parents. For example, psychologists like Francis Galton (1893) who attempted to measure intelligence by testing people's abilities to see, hear and be strong. Another psychologist by the name of Alfred Binet (1905) devised a test to measure complex thinking and judgment skills.

Specialists like Charles E. Spearman (1904) found that we have to take into account two abilities when it comes to measuring intelligence; a general ability for all tasks requiring the use of intelligence labeled 'g', and specific abilities to resolve different tasks. Thus, intelligence was seen as being a measure of one's ability to solve problems. As for Guilford (1982), he thinks that there is a 150 factor model of intelligence. He lists 5 operations (cognition, memory, divergent production, convergent production and evaluation) and 6 products (units classes, relations, systems, transformations and implications), hence $5 \times 6 = 30$ mental abilities. In other words, for Guilford, we need 30 operations to determine whether a person is intelligent or not. Another specialist by the name of Louis L. Thurstone (1940) emphasized that we must consider intelligence in terms of semantic, mathematical and spatial ability. He listed seven mental abilities. Finally, Howard E. Gardner (1990) believes that when addressing the issue of intelligence, we must rather talk about multiple intelligences such as logical and mathematical intelligence, linguistic intelligence (which is our concern with the example of English classes in Mali), spatial intelligence, interpersonal intelligence (being open-minded and easily understanding others, i.e. diplomacy), bodily-kinesthetic intelligence, musical intelligence, etc.

According to the neurosciences, the brain contains more than one hundred billion neurons and billions of neurons have to bombard each other to produce just a single sentence like 'My name is Fatoumata' or 'I want to drink'. The same neuroscientists state that the left part of the brain processes the mother tongue whereas the right part of the brain processes second and foreign languages. In short, the human brain is divided into different areas with specialized functions for each area.

As we see, intelligence in scientific terms is a very complex issue and represents a real challenge, and it is only popular beliefs which equate it with language or speech. The beginning teacher must understand that the relationships between bilingualism and intelligence are even more complex because not only did the psychometric specialists ignore the true nature of intelligence (or IQ), but they were also completely ignorant about what bilingualism meant.

As anecdotes, I used to say in my classes that if a person mistakenly says 'la plafond' or 'le fille' instead of saying 'le plafond' or 'la fille', that person will never be forgotten and will be remembered for a lifetime as 'unintelligent', which is not really the case. This is why I rapidly reject the fact of equating IQ with speech, because the notion of intelligence is so complex that even psychometric specialists, that is, specialists measuring 'intelligence' did not agree among themselves on definitions of intelligence. In fact, it is now widely understood that intelligence is relative and depends on a number of factors including context, heredity, and one's learning environment.

We remind young Malian teachers that we are not rejecting evaluation, quite the contrary. We do believe that evaluating students' performance is an important part of a teacher's job in the sense that it is required by the school administration, the parents and even the society at large. It also determines the qualifications of students to pass from one grade to the next.

What we reject is using negative stereotypes and labels, derogatory remarks as "unintelligent" in a classroom just because they didn't "correctly" use a word or an expression. This is demotivating and may negatively affect student personalities and psyche for a lifetime; clearly a situation that any teacher should want to avoid. We do not want our students to unjustly suffer from those stigmas in our English classes.

C) MOTIVATION

In fact, it is worth mentioning at the outset that motivation plays a key role in language learning because it is the inner driving force which encourages the learner to want to learn or not to learn. Specialists in education used to speak about the existence of "intrinsic motivation" or in class motivation to get good grades and pass exams, and "extrinsic motivation" which is motivation outside the classroom class pushing the learner to do research on his/her own in the library or at the cultural center, etc... Nevertheless, there are three kinds of motivation recognized in the TEFL (Teaching of English as a Foreign Language) literature:

a) Instrumental motivation which pushes the learner to want to learn in order to climb the social ladder. In other words, the student wants to learn the target language for material purposes to become, for example, a teacher of English, a translator or an ambassador. He makes a living out of the profession.

b) Integrative motivation which encourages the learner to want to learn in order to feel closer to the speakers of the target language through their literature, music, films, arts and theater. Here, there is no loss of identity for the learner as he/she just wants to share with the native speakers their culture and civilization in the target language. The learner keeps his/her identity and does not make a living out of it.

c) Social group identification motive is the type of motivation encouraging the learner to learn a variety of the target language and consider speakers of that variety as models. There is loss of identity by the learner because he/she wants to look like or resemble the model at any cost.

Finally, there is another type of motivation that the author of this article discovered in Mali when supervising a thesis written by one of his students named Assitan Coulibaly who did research on motivation at the Ecole Normale Supérieure of Bamako (Teachers' College) in Bamako in the 1980's. This type of motivation represents what the two researchers termed

d) "Hedonistic or epicurean motivation", a type of motivation characterized by the fact that students are learning English just for the sake of pleasure seeking.

D) MISTAKES AND ERRORS

As for errors, they too, have been a major concern for linguists and teachers alike. I would add that no one is immune to error making and even native speakers make mistakes, which are part and parcel of the learning process. Errors occur at the syntactic, semantic and stylistic levels. They must not be viewed negatively, yet this is unfortunately the case for some teachers of English in Mali.

Actually, this statement leads me first and foremost to give a definition of mistakes and errors and tell about their differences. On the one hand, a mistake is just a slip of the tongue or of the pen and self correction is possible. For example, when someone says 'the boy are coming', he may be able to say 'the boy is coming' or 'the boys are come' once we draw his/her attention that there is something wrong with the statement. Self-correction is possible with mistakes. A mistake is random and accidental. On the other hand, an error is a violation of the code of the target language and is systematic meaning it repeats itself. In other words, when a person says 'the boy are coming', that person will keep on repeating it more than 100 times because it shows the degree of mastery of the target language by the speaker. Self-correction is not possible with errors unless the speaker internalizes new 'knowledge' enabling him or her to say 'the boy is coming' or 'the boys are coming'. Before moving forward, remember that our high school and university students are bilingual or multilingual, because in addition to their mother tongues, they speak one or more than two national or local languages, even before starting to learn French, English or German at school.

It should be noted that in the TEFL (Teaching of English as a Foreign Language) literature, we have the following types of errors:

1) Intra-lingual errors, which are errors made by both monolingual and bilingual speakers and are due to the code of the target language or to an incomplete mastery of the rules of the target language. They are universal and common to both native speakers and second or foreign language learners. For example, both a native speaker of English and a non native speaker may mistakenly say 'he speak' instead of saying 'he speaks'. Intra-lingual errors may also be due to overgeneralization, especially on the part of young native speakers who would say 'he goed' just because we say 'he walked'. Intra-lingual errors generally represent 80% of the mistakes made by an individual

2) Inter-lingual errors also known in the literature as linguistic interferences. They are due to the imposition of the rules of the previously known language(s) on those of the target language. They are made by bilingual speakers only. When a francophone writes or says 'blacks shoes', it is just because he thinks of the possibility of saying or using 'chaussures noires' in French. When a student also says 'we killed two muttons during Tabaski', it is obvious that he/she is imposing the French 'on a égorgé deux moutons' forgetting that 'mutton' means meat and that he should have said 'we slaughtered two rams or two sheep during Tabaski'. If a Bambara speaker in his/her (Bambara is taken here as it is a lingua franca in Mali) says 'my small father' or 'my small mother', instead of saying 'my uncle' or 'my aunt', he/she is just imposing his/ her Bambara language on English. It is important to note that the imposition may cause some communication breakdown with the native English speaker especially when the Bambara speaker uses sophisticated constructions such as 'we ate rice to be dead' meaning we have eaten our fill' or 'the meal has really filled us up'. Another misunderstanding with the native English speaker may come from constructions like 'My sister was married and was found home' when the Bambara speaker just wanted to stress that 'his sister was married and was found to be a virgin the wedding day'. The native Bambara speaker who says 'in the mouth of our house' instead of 'in front of our house' is definitely making a word for word translation! Needless to say that one has to be familiar with the Malian and Bambara culture to understand what our (native Bambara) students generally intend to say.

3) Omissions which are neither intra-lingual nor inter-lingual and they are just in between. Obviously, they are due to a lack of attention, of concentration or to fatigue. Using one "d" in "address" when the student bluntly writes 'adrese', it becomes a linguistic interference from French but an omission when the "e" is missing, while attempting to write the English 'address'. Examples of doubling the "d", "p", or "t" are legion in French, and one has to be careful in order to make a difference between a linguistic interference and an omission. The borderline in this case is very thin.

4) Unclassified errors are errors which cannot be explained. A learner may say, for example, 'he can't swim' and this type of error is not classifiable nor does it make sense. Confusing the use of the gerund and of defective verbs cannot be accounted for. Errors are said to be idiosyncratic because they reflect to some extent the personality of the learner and they are really so in the case of unclassified errors. Actually, learners learn differently and even two identical twins may learn differently.

We must bear in mind that some errors, if not corrected early, become fossilized because it will not be possible to get rid of them. We generally find fossilized errors in mispronunciations (for example, failing to adequately pronounce the "th" sound in 'Thursday' or 'throughout' is a mistake common to most francophones, especially Malians).

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Gueye (1980) found that the great majority of errors made by three linguistic groups of students (Bambara, Fulani and Songay) learning English as a foreign language at the Ecole Normale Supérieure were intralingual, and the second highest percentage of the errors made by the students came from interlingual errors or linguistic interferences of the French language and of the students' native language and English. As for omissions, they came in fourth position and the unclassified errors came in fifth position. Errors occur at the phonological, syntactic, semantic and stylistic levels of those students' written discourse.

Mistakes are not made by students only as some errors may be due to the lack of preparation by the English teacher himself/herself, who will inconsistently ask his/her student to pronounce the term "door" as "dor" (my computer doesn't allow me to write the right phonetic transcription) today, "dour" the next morning and "dar" the third day. Pronouncing the words "cathedral", "throughout", etc... are problematic for most Malian teachers and no wonder that we teachers are at the source of what is called teaching induced errors, especially when we do not prepare our lessons well. We have come full circle regarding the relationships between IQ, bilingualism and error making. Instead of being causal, their relationships are co relational. The only piece of advice for the English teacher is to treat the errors very tactfully without hurting the students and by giving positive feedback to the latter ones.

Assitan Coulibaly (1983) found that apart from being driven by the classical well known types of motivation i.e. instrumental, integrative and social group motive, there exists another type of motivation that she called "hedonistic or epicurean motivation.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Of course, it is worth reminding new English teachers that some pedagogical tools such as Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, The Inter language Theory and others have been designed to help learners reduce the number of their errors and minimize them.

Contrastive Analysis is a predictive tool and states that whenever two languages are in contact, it is possible to determine and predict problem areas that the students will face by making the sum and the differences of the similarities and dissimilarities between the two languages.

Error Analysis consists in detecting, counting and classifying the errors made by the learners and proposing solutions for them.

Inter language theory admits the fact that learners make interim constructions which are neither their native language nor the target language. They are signs of linguistic creativity but may be considered as errors by some specialists.

Those theories have their limitations, too, because it is impossible to suppress errors and mistakes. They are part and parcel of the learning process and are unavoidable. We have to accept errors and mistakes as something natural and normal. A learner who does not make mistakes and errors is a 'dangerous' learner because he looks like a time bomb that will explode one day unexpectedly. Let us then put up with our learners who have strengths and weaknesses as well because as a saying goes, 'To err is human but to love is divine' = "L'erreur est humaine mais persévérer dans l'erreur est diabolique".

Some may wonder why we are making so much effort and giving so much importance to the teaching of English in Mali, a francophone country. We respond by saying that English is an international language and that even illiterate Malian businessmen are using it on a daily basis by exchanging e-mails and faxes with their counterparts all over the world, not to mention Malian intellectuals who are eager to participate in the global culture. Malians travel a great deal and are present on all continents. At the beginning of this article I used the metaphor comparing the difficulty of learning a foreign language to the difficulty of walking on the moon. By the way, there is a well known joke saying that when Neil Armstrong wanted to plant the American flag on the moon, one Malian who was already present there asked him "What are you doing here? Don't you know that a Malian is already here?"

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EFL Undergraduates' Awareness of Translation Errors in Their Everyday Environment

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Abstract—English is an international language. Establishing a bilingual (English–Chinese) environment has been enthusiastically promoted in Taiwan. Signs written in English and Chinese can be seen in the everyday environment of the streets, public transportation, airports, or stores. However, some of the English signs are poorly translated, such as “Hualien County Goveinment” (Hualien County Government), “Watch out for Snacks” (Watch out for snake), or “Champing” (camping) (Hua, 2012; Zheng, 2010). This case study analyzes 44 Taiwanese EFL college students' awareness of translation errors in their everyday environment. This study has two major findings. First, the errors participants identified and corrected were mostly rendition errors. Secondly, participants regarded the task of identifying errors in the daily environment as meaningful, but they were not able to correct these errors immediately when they found them. Three suggestions are made for the effectively integrating the identification of translation errors into translation classes.

Index Terms—everyday environment, language errors, rendition errors, translation errors

I. INTRODUCTION

English has been used as an international language. Establishing a bilingual (English–Chinese) environment has been enthusiastically promoted in Taiwan. Signs written in English and Chinese can be seen in the everyday environment of the streets, public transportation, airports, or stores. However, some of the English signs are poorly translated, such as “Hualien County Goveinment” (Hualien County Government), “Watch out for Snacks” (Watch out for snake), or “Champing” (camping) (Hua, 2012; Zheng, 2010). The Ministry of Transportation and Communication in Taiwan once held an event to encourage the Taiwanese to identify these errors and report them to the government in exchange for gifts (Zheng, 2010).

With regard to a translation learning strategy, college students in Liao's (2011) study claimed that having hands-on translation practice and experience in a translation class helped them learn to translate efficiently. This study aims to explore Taiwanese English as a foreign language (EFL) undergraduates' awareness of translation errors in their everyday environment. In this study 44 participants were required to identify translation errors in their everyday environment and correct these errors. This study discusses the types of translation errors these undergraduates identified during the error correction and identification process. This study considered the following issues: First, what types of translation errors did the undergraduates identify and correct? Second, what was the 44 undergraduates' attitude toward the error correction and identification practice? Suggestions for integrating the identification and correction of translation errors with translation strategies will be provided for instructors of translation classes.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Categorizing translation errors is not easy. The categories of translation errors have not been commonly agreed or confirmed (Hatim, 2001; Melis & Albir, 2001; Pym, 1992; Vivanco, Palazuelos, Hormann, Garbarini, & Blajrach, 1990). Pym (1992) proposed binary errors and non-binary errors. There are only right and wrong answers in binary errors: for non-binary errors, there are at least two right answers and two wrong ones. Milie and Albir (2001) concluded that translation errors result from the translators' lack of knowledge and inadequate application or assimilation of the principles in governing translation.

Only a few books or studies in Taiwan have focused on translation errors. Most scholars have concluded that there are different types of translation error based on the practitioners' experience (Chou, 1986; Ke, 2003). Liao's (2010) empirical study focused on 1248 translation errors from his students' 188 translation exercises. Liao categorized these errors into three types: rendition errors, language errors, and miscellaneous errors. Students may not fully understand the original text. When they transfer these terms from English into Chinese, the transfer yields rendition errors. Students may make language errors such as using incorrect grammar, poor expression, wrong spelling, punctuation, and so on in their translated texts. Finally, students may make other miscellaneous errors such as forgetting to translate some terms due to carelessness.

Liu's (2012) study analyzed twenty English-major college students' translation errors. Liu (2012) concluded that the participants, especially the graduates, made more rendition errors than language errors because they had difficulty in comprehending the text. Insufficient accuracy and misinterpretation are the most common rendition errors. The

participants' errors mostly derived from confusion about vocabulary, syntax and grammar, misunderstanding the textual theme, neglecting the difference between the source and target language, and the pressure of limited time.

Chang (2011) studied 70 college students' errors in the translation product and process. Chang (2011) concluded that college students did not simply make these translation errors as the result of incompetence, but they were also associated with factors such as motivation, time, meta-cognitive strategies, or translation task.

Translation competence is the knowledge necessary to translate well (Bybee, 1996; Faber, 1998; Hatim & Mason, 1990). Nord (1991) defined translation competence as "having these different types of knowledge at one's disposal, and being able to use them to solve problems and make appropriate decisions" (p. 146).

This study mainly focuses on the Liao's (2010) rendition and language errors. These two errors are mostly related to textual, linguistic, and transfer competence. Translators have good textual competence when the target texts they write "have the structural features of formal, written English" (Campbell, 1998, p.73). Translators with linguistic competence can choose the appropriate words in constructing the texts (Bell, 1991; Campbell, 1998; Melis & Albir, 2001; Schaffner & Adab, 2000; Shei, 1998). Translators with good transfer competence have the ability to transfer from the original to the final text (Melis & Albir, 2001; Schaffner & Adab, 2000).

The result of the survey in Chen's (2009) study indicated that student-centered training was effective, because it guided students to acquire translation "know-how" and improve their translation competence. Liu (2012) recommended that Taiwanese college students need to strengthen their grammar and basic English skills to attain better translation competence. More translation exercises are suggested for a translation class. Teachers should train college students to identify their translation errors and to distinguish the linguistic differences between English and Chinese in translation.

The previous studies (Chang, 2011; Faber, 1998; Liao, 2010; Liu, 2012) focus either on language learners' translation errors or translation competence. This study discusses the types of translation errors 44 college students identified during the error correction and identification process. From a research perspective, drawing on previous empirical research on translation instruction at tertiary levels (i.e. Chang, 2011), the multiple sources of data and rich and thick descriptions was aimed to contextualize the study on EFL learners' awareness of translation errors in their everyday environment. From the perspective of language teachers, this empirical study was expected to provide a framework for the integration of identification and correction of translation errors in the translation classes.

III. METHOD

This is a case study, focusing on 44 Taiwanese EFL undergraduates' awareness of translation errors. According to Merriam (2009), a case study is an in-depth description and analysis of a bounded system (p. 40). This study was conducted in a translation course in the tertiary level. In this study, the case is a translation course and the unit of analyses is translation errors.

A. *Setting and Participants*

The study was conducted over three months from March to June 2013. The translation class met for two hours each week in the spring semester of 2013. The participants included one instructor and one translation class of 44 students from a university in Taiwan. This translation class was a required course for English majors and minors. The majority of the students were English majors. Nine students were Education majors, two were Music majors, and one majored in Environmental and Cultural Resources.

B. *Data Collection*

The researcher was the primary instrument of data collection and analysis (Merriam, 2009). Data in this study was from (1) students' class projects, (2) peer correction, and (3) self-reflection. For the class projects, the participants were required in groups of four to collect at least five translation errors they could find in their everyday environment such as train stations, the campus, restaurants, street signs, websites, and so on. They had to identify five errors, explain the problems of these errors, and correct them. Each group gave an oral presentation on the class project. During the group's oral presentation, the rest of the class was required to identify the errors in their peers' projects and correct them.

At the end of the presentation on the class projects, the students were asked to reflect on their experience of identifying and correcting these errors. They wrote down their reflections either in Chinese or English based on the guiding questions included: (1) How did you feel about identifying and correcting these errors? (2) Why did you choose this particular spot/website/book? And (3) How did you know/tell that the translation was incorrect?

C. *Data Analysis*

Participants' projects, peer corrections, and self-reflections were transcribed into raw field notes. Pseudonyms were assigned to each participant to ensure confidentiality. The data was coded in the following three stages. First, the researcher read through all the notes and marked the data with a code (e.g. meaningful, products etc.). Secondly, while reading through these codes, the researcher labeled tentative categories (e.g. attitude, types of errors, strategies). Finally, the data was sorted on the basis of its relevance into topics that reflect the research questions, as in Figure 1. A set of codes for thematic analysis that captures the meaning expressed by the data was constructed (Flick, 1998).

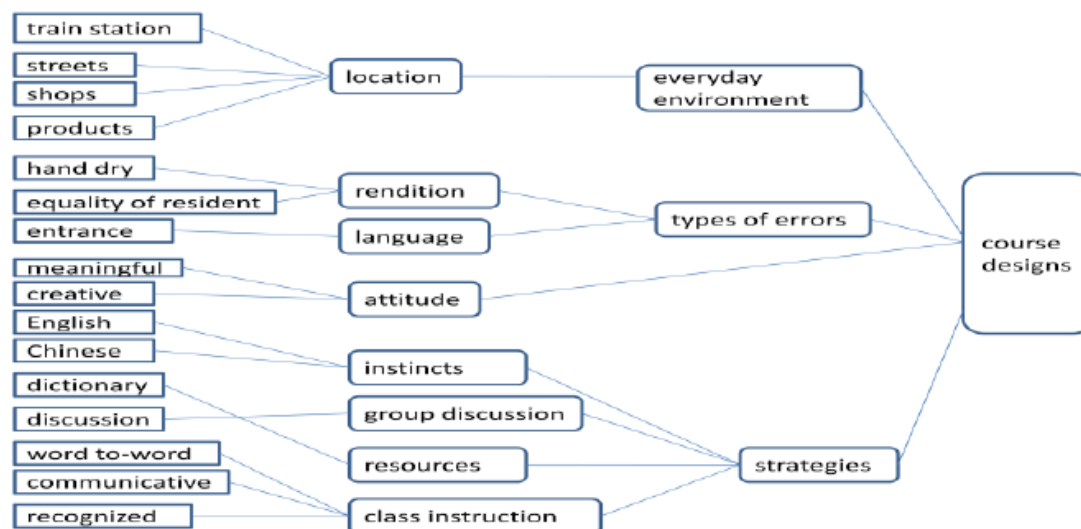


Figure 1. Data Analysis

A high level of validity is the goal for qualitative research. Peer examination is another strategy for promoting validity of the study (Merriam, 2009). A colleague who is familiar with language teacher education scanned the raw data and assessed whether the findings were plausible based on the data. Moreover, triangulation entails the use of more than one method or source of data in a research endeavor (Boeije, 2010). In this study, triangulating multiple sources of data (student's work, peer correction, reflection) could add texture, depth, and multiple insights to an analysis and could enhance the validity or credibility of the results.

IV. RESULTS

Data were analyzed and discussed in terms of types of translation errors, peer corrections as well as undergraduates' attitude toward and experience of error correction and identification.

A. Types of Translation Errors

The most common translation errors the participants identified were related to transportation or the train station (Table 1) followed by street signs and products (Tables 2 and 3).

As Table 1 shows, about 44.4% of translation errors ($n=8$) the participants identified were language errors in terms of prepositions, punctuation, sentence structure, capitalization, plural or singular forms, and word choice. Example 7 is a translation problem related to punctuation. Examples 3 and 5 are preposition issues concerning "by" or "for" and omissions of "of." Examples 2 and 12 are expressions of the word "entrance," as in "Entrance to..." Examples 9 and 11 are problems of not capitalizing the signs "Square" and "Shop." Example 13 is an issue related to the plural form, "tickets." The rest were rendition errors. Seven examples are related to word choices in equivalent and accurate translation, such as Examples 6 "maximum speed," 8 "hand dryer," 10 "Watch your step," 15 "Wheelchair ramp," 16 "Breastfeeding room," 17 "Intercity bus station," and 18 "emergency intercom button." Examples 1, 4, and 14 are rendition errors that occurred when translators did not accurately translate terms from Chinese into English.

TABLE 1.
TRANSLATION ERRORS ON TRANSPORTATION

#	Errors	Corrections	Types of Errors
1	Don't sit for children below 145cm.	Children below 145cm are not allowed to sit here/ this seat.	rendition
2	Zhinan Rd. Entrance	Entrance to Zhinan Rd.	language
3	Breaking the cover for using the window-break tool in case of emergency	Breaking the cover by using the window-break tool in case of emergency	language
4	Elderly, disabled, passengers with baby stroller or large luggage are...	Passenger who are elderly, pregnant, with baby stroller or large luggage, and disabled are advised to take the elevator.	rendition
5	Beware children	Beware of children	language
6	Highest Speed Limitation	Maximum Speed	rendition
7	Caution keep hands clear of the gates.	Caution, keep hands away from the gates.	language
8	Bake the cell phone	Hand Dryer	rendition
9	Q square	Q Square	language
10	Slip carefully.	Wet floor! Watch your step!	rendition
11	Taipei Metro Souvenir shop	Taipei Metro Souvenir "Shop"	language
12	TRA North 1 Entrance	Entrance TRA North 1	language
13	Don't insert other kind of ticket	Don't insert other kinds of tickets.	language
14	Please use the level crossing's 「emergency button」 when necessary and If your car breaks down, is stuck in traffic or encounters other obstacles that prevent it moving away from a level crossing	Press the "emergency button" when your car breaks down or gets stuck in a traffic jam, or when you encounter an obstacle at a level crossing.	rendition
15	Disable Ramp/Accessible	Wheelchair Ramp	rendition
16	stfeeding room	Breastfeeding Room	rendition
17	Bus Station	Intercity Bus Station	rendition
18	Emergency Intercom Speaking	Emergency Intercom Button	rendition

About 72.7% translation errors (n=8) found in street signs in Table 2 are mainly rendition errors, related to the right choice of equivalent Chinese and English words, or to spelling. Three translation errors were language errors including "art nail" in Example 5, "book" in Example 6, and "Goveinment" in Example 11.

The errors occurred in the direct translation from Chinese into English, such as tou bi xi yi dian for "coin laundry system" in Example 1, ji pai for "chicken pie" in Example 2, you fan for "oil rice" in Example 3, liu lang gou zhi jia for "The Dog's Society" in Example 4, and di ya fang for "mystical room" in Example 7. The rendition errors in Examples 8, 9, and 10 did not accurately translate the Chinese sentences and expressions, so the participants corrected them to "No pets," "No littering," and "No recycling."

TABLE 2.
TRANSLATION ERRORS IN STREET SIGNS

#	Errors	Corrections	Types of Errors
1	COIN LAUNDARY SYSTME	AUTOMATIC LAUNDRY CENTER	rendition
2	chicken pie	fried chicken breast	rendition
3	Oil rice	Sticky rice	rendition
4	The Dog's Society	Stray Dog Shelter	rendition
5	art nail	Nail art	language
6	Book	Bookstore	language
7	MYSTICAL Room	Classic Room	rendition
8	Prohibition domestic animal enrollment in preschool excreta	No pets/No poop	rendition
9	The prohibition randomly throws trash along with the place	No littering	rendition
10	No may reclaim.	No recycling.	
11	Goveinment	Government	language

All translation problems in products in Table 3 are mainly rendition errors, related to making the right word choice for Chinese and English equivalence. These errors were directly translated from Chinese into English, such as Mini Sleep Lamp for xiao ye deng. Participants in this study made corrections to these terms, as shown Table 3. Example 1 in Table 4 is a rendition where the translator did not fully understand the sentence and accurately translate it from Chinese into English.

TABLE 3.
TRANSLATION ERRORS IN PRODUCTS

#	Errors	Corrections	Types of Errors
1	Apply small amount to face and neck using firm and smooth circular movements from the central T-zone of the face towards the outer edges.	Take appropriate amount in the palm or on the cotton pad.	rendition
2	fabric soad noodle	Soap	rendition
3	Bean thread	Mung beans vermicelli	rendition
4	Spicy Shrimp	Sergestid Shrimp	rendition
5	Pafu snacks	Puff	rendition
6	Fire Pot	Hot pot section	rendition
7	Man Sleeve Shirt	Shirt for men	rendition
8	Breathable Tape	First aid tape	rendition
9	Mini Sleep Lamp	Night light	rendition
10	HIGH MOUNTAIN TEA	TAIWANESE TEA	rendition

While five translation errors were related to building signs (Table 4), errors were found in the brochures for local events (Table 5). All these errors were rendition ones. The participants felt that the errors set out in Table 4 were because the terms did not accurately explain the purpose of the location, such as “conference,” “service room,” “piano room,” and “water dispenser.” One group corrected these terms into “Conference room,” “Attendant’s room,” “practice room,” and “pantry room.” Moreover, the best translation of Example 2 in Table 4 should be “do not solicit” or “no soliciting” instead of “Sales are not allowed.”

TABLE 4.
TRANSLATION ERRORS ON BUILDING SIGNS

#	Errors	Corrections	Types of Errors
1	Conference	Conference Room	rendition
2	It's refused to sell it	Sales are not allowed.	rendition
3	Service Room	Attendant's Room	rendition
4	Piano room	Practice Room	rendition
5	Water Dispenser	Pantry Room (or Kitchen)	rendition

Two of the translation errors found in local events brochures were rendition errors. Example 1 in Table 5 is a direct translation from the Chinese expression *zong sheng ping deng*; the accurate translation for this expression could be “Everyone is equal.” The participants thought that Example 2 “Boss is crazy” was cute, even though it is inaccurate.

TABLE 5.
TRANSLATION ERRORS IN LOCAL EVENTS

#	Errors	Corrections	Types of Errors
1	Equality of Resident	Equality of All Living Creatures	rendition
2	Boss is crazy	Big Sale	rendition

B. Peer Corrections on Error Identifications and Corrections

Overall, all participants in this study were surprised and satisfied by the errors their classmates identified and corrected. Joyce wrote, “My classmates did a great job. They were creative.” Sandy wrote in her reflection “Some of my classmates were very sensitive to the translations in their everyday life. I did not notice these errors myself.”

One group corrected the sentence “Breaking the cover for using the window-breaking tool in case of emergency” as “Breaking the cover by using the window-break tool in case of emergency,” but nine participants thought “for” was correct. With regard to “chicken pie” in Example 2 of Table 3, six participants thought the correct translation should be “fried chicken” instead of “fried chicken breast.”

In Table 5, for “Equality of Resident,” seven participants thought that “All living creatures are equal” and “Everyone is equal” were better than “Equality of All Living Creatures.”

C. Attitude towards Error Identification and Correction

All participants felt that they had fun in identifying and correcting these errors for this class project. About 68% of participants (n=30) claimed that they had never paid attention to the translation errors before doing this class assignment. While Mark said, “I seldom noticed these translation errors,” Frank responded as “I never noticed these translation errors until I did this class project.”

About 38.6% of the participants (n=17) identified these errors when they took public transport or were on their way home. Lily said, “I go home by train during the weekend. I begin to collect these translation errors when I take the train.” Helen also said, “While I walk to the train station, I notice the translation errors on the street signs.”

Almost 30% participants (n=13) referred to the problems in their everyday environment, such as in stores, on the street, or on some products. Eleven participants said these translation errors were too obvious to be missed. Catherine wrote, “I use cosmetics every day. The errors on the cosmetics I use are ridiculous.” Amy said, “Our group went shopping one day. We began to notice the translation errors when we walked aisle by aisle through the store.”

D. Experience of Error Identification and Correction

All participants enjoyed working this project with their classmates and discussing these errors in groups. Jacky said, "I liked to work with my group members. We discussed and corrected these errors together." Iris also shared her experience, "My classmates and the instructor gave us comments on our translation. I learned some new terms."

About 84% of the participants (n=37) responded that the translation strategies and exercises practiced in this translation class helped them identify and correct these errors. Betty wrote, "I recalled different types of translation techniques and tried to use communicative translation instead of word-to-word and literal translation" Cindy also said, "Our group tried to correct translation errors by using 'recognized translation,' the terms that were already translated."

More than 61% of the participants (n=27%) said they could not immediately correct these translation errors as Nancy said, "Some translations look awkward. I am not sure about how I should correct them." They were not sure about some of the expressions, so they had to rely on dictionaries or check the terminology online, as claimed by Phillip "Our group discussed these translation errors. We looked up these terms in the dictionary or checked websites."

About 34% of participants (n=15) said that they could correct these errors easily because these errors were so obvious. About 84% of them (n=37) claimed that they used their background knowledge of English and Chinese or their instinct to correct these translation errors. While Tina wrote "These errors are too obvious. I know they are incorrect," Linda said, "I corrected these errors based on my English proficiency and knowledge of Chinese comprehension."

V. DISCUSSION

This case study explores 44 Taiwanese EFL undergraduates' awareness of translation errors. Based on the above analysis of the data, the study has found the following. First, participants identified more rendition errors. Most of the errors identified and corrected were signs found in transportation. They found these errors because they had to take public transport. Second, when they identified the errors, they were not able to correct these errors immediately. They had to rely on dictionaries, online resources, or peers to correct these errors. Finally, they had seldom paid attention to translation in their everyday environment. Participants found that the exercise of identifying errors in their everyday environment was meaningful.

In order to effectively integrate the identification of translation errors and translation strategies in the translation classes, three suggestions are made, as depicted in Figure 2. First, instructors of translation classes should provide hands-on experience and exercises for learners, and such exercises should go beyond the classroom. Such exercises can be connected to the learners' everyday environment. Instructors can work with local organizations, institutions, or stores, so learners can practice translating or correct translation terms in their locality.

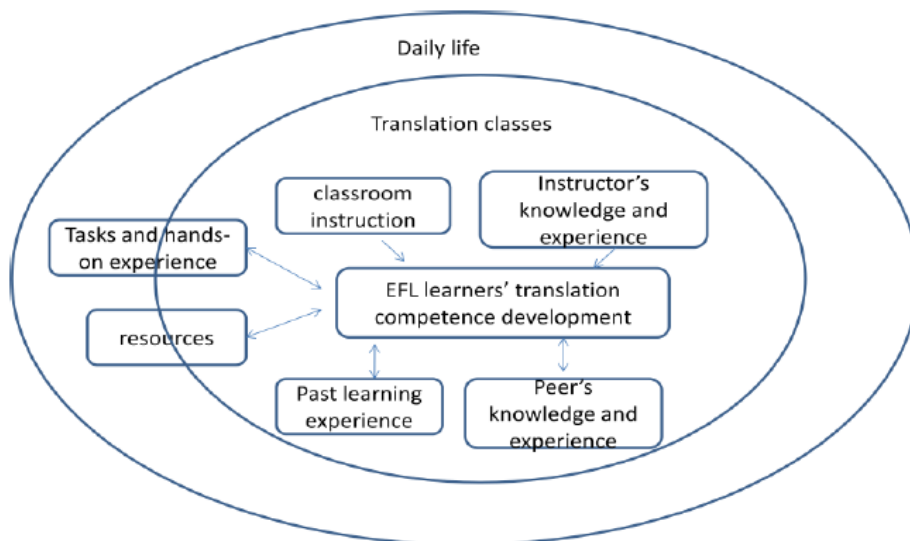


Figure 2. Course Designs for Translation Classes

Second, translation classes should not focus at the level of sentences or accuracy only, but should focus on the translation process itself. In typical translation classes, students are given the text and asked to translate it with the help of dictionaries or grammar books. Teachers discuss the translations sentence-by-sentence, giving the correct answers. This type of translation instruction focuses on the outcome rather than the process. The translation classes should not only focus on the what, but also on the how and the why (Lindgren, Sullivan, Deutschmann, & Steinvall, 2009). Chang (2009) suggested that the practice in translation classes should not be limited to sentence exercises. Rather, translation training should be part of the wider teaching activity, which refers to whole process including translating under time pressure, teamwork, searching for information, and using web resources.

Third, learners' translation competence can be fostered through learners' past language learning experience, teachers' instruction, resources, and peer collaboration. Lindgren et al. (2009) suggested that discussing ideas with peers in translation classes should be encouraged, because such discussion enables learners to see how their ideas relating to the translation develop as they work with the text.

VI. CONCLUSION

This case study analyzes 44 Taiwanese EFL undergraduates' awareness of translation errors in their everyday environment. This study has two major findings. First, the errors participants identified and corrected were mostly rendition errors. Secondly, participants regarded the task of identifying errors in the everyday environment as meaningful, but they were not able to correct these errors immediately when they found them. Three suggestions are made for the effectively integrating the identification of translation errors into translation classes: the inclusion of tasks related to the everyday environment, emphasis on the translation process, and collaborative learning.

As the number of the participants in this study was relatively small (only 44 participants), the findings of this case study cannot be generalized to a larger EFL learner population. However, the triangulated data collection can be used to explain EFL college students' awareness of language translation errors in their everyday environment. The findings and suggestions from this empirical study could provide the instructors and educators of translation classes at the tertiary level with a framework for integrating the identification of translation errors into translation classes.

This paper discusses 44 Taiwanese EFL college learners' awareness of translation errors in their everyday environment. These learners completed the task of error identification and correction as their class assignment. Service learning has been encouraged in educational settings in Taiwan. College students should be encouraged or required to work with local organizations, institutions, or stores to help correct translation errors, and to work on Chinese-English websites or brochures. A further study could explore how Taiwanese EFL college learners' translation competence can be developed and fostered through service learning.

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Interactional Patterns in Face-to-face and Synchronous Computer-mediated Communication in Problem-based Learning Contexts

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Abstract—This study seeks to unfold interactional patterns of Thai EFL learners performing the problem-solving tasks in face-to-face (FTF) and synchronous computer-mediated (SCMC) contexts and explain to what extents that characteristics of each context contribute to learners' interaction. Problem-based learning was implemented as a scenario of the tasks due to its potentiality in bringing nature of learners' interactions out into open. The participants in this study were divided into two groups. The first group discussed the problems in the FTF context where their verbal and non-verbal languages were videotaped while the second group performed similar tasks in the SCMC context through Skype. Their conversations were automatically recorded by the program and later retrieved. The interview was conducted a week after the last discussion. The results revealed that the learners communicated through interactional patterns particular to the learning context. Furthermore, the properties of each context had influences on interactional stages, language use, and social interactions.

Index Terms—interaction, face-to-face communication, synchronous computer-mediated communication, problem-based learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Interaction has long been acknowledged as one the most influential factors contributing to language learning. Among major SLA theories such as the input hypothesis, the interaction hypothesis, the noticing hypothesis, and the output hypothesis, it is generally accepted that interaction is a key success (Chen, 2005; Figura & Jarvis, 2007; White, 2003). Earlier researchers including Long and Robinson (1998) and Swain and Lapkin (1995) also pointed out that, through interaction, students can develop their interlanguage by receiving comprehensible input, feedback, negotiation of meaning, and producing comprehensible output.

Conventionally, language instruction is conducted in a classroom where learners interact through face-to-face (FTF) communication. They directly converse with others through spoken language. Nonetheless, this practice is being altered after the emergence of synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC), commonly known as online chat. It allows people to communicate with others regardless of time and place with a feeling of real-time nature close to FTF communication. Regarding its qualities, SCMC, particularly text-based such as Yahoo messenger and Skype instant messenger has been widely used in daily life and language classrooms (Nik, 2010).

A growing number of studies have shown that SCMC promotes language learning in various aspects such as enhancing language skills (Warschauer & Healey, 1998), oral proficiency (Abrams, 2003), grammatical accuracy (Lee, 2008), and amounts of output and attitudes (Blake, 2000; Kern, 1995; Warschauer, 1996). Nonetheless, it is inconclusive that SCMC facilitates language learning the same way as FTF communication for it is pointed out that interaction and language use are influenced by learning contexts (Fairclough, 2003; Herring, 2001; Wetherell, Taylor, & Yates, 2001). That is to say, learners of different learning contexts tend to interact, use language, and acquire a language in a different way.

In this paper, studies on interaction from the sociocultural perspective followed by research in FTF and text-SCMC interaction are reviewed. After that, details on how the study was conducted and how the data was analyzed are reported. Also included are results, discussions, and ended with the conclusion.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Interaction in L2 Learning and Sociocultural Theory

Interaction occurs when interlocutors transmit messages through spoken and/ or written language (Nik, 2010; Ziglari, 2008). Previous studies indicated that learners can develop their interlanguage when they engage in interaction since they are exposed to scenarios where it is necessary to make input comprehensible (Gass, 1997; Long, 1996; Ziglari, 2008), practice the target language in meaningful situations where they receive feedback and language modifications (Gass, 1997; Long, 1996), notice differences between the target language and their output (Ellis, 1994; Schmidt, 2001), modify their language (Gass, 1997; Pica, 1994; Swain, 1995; Varonis & Gass, 1985), and finally produce comprehensible output (Swain, 1985). Following the sociocultural theory (SCT) of Vygotsky (1978), language learning is viewed as a process of social interaction. That is, learners were born with endowed capabilities enabling them to perform different tasks on their own and achieve a certain cognition level. However, when they encounter a task beyond their current cognition level, they get assistance from more knowledgeable learners through a dialogic process—one form of social interaction—that helps developing their knowledge until they can reach their potential to perform a task alone (Ellis, 1999; Vygotsky, 1978). The extent of their actual and potential levels of development is referred to as the zone of proximal development (ZPD). It is defined by Vygotsky (1978) as “the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (p. 86).” Therefore, social interaction is the key to success in language learning from the SCT perspective.

B. Interaction in Face-to-face Learning Context

In face-to-face (FTF) communication, there is a direct contact between interlocutors whereby messages are produced, received, and responded simultaneously (Abrams, 2003). It is generally recognized as verbal communication or the use of words in oral interaction to convey ideas and feeling. Moreover, it involves non-verbal communication such as facial expressions, tones, and gestures that transmits meaning of messages without using words. Those features facilitate interlocutors to interpret meaning of messages more precisely and accurately (Mehrabian, 2009).

Given that language instruction traditionally takes place in FTF context, the main concern of earlier interaction studies is to investigate how FTF interaction contributes to language learning. The predominance tool for examining this aspect of interaction is meaning negotiation model proposed by Varonis and Gass (1985). It consists of two main parts: a trigger and a solution. The first part refers to a speaker's utterance that functions as an indication of non-understanding to a hearer. The second part consists of three elements: (a) an indicator that shows a lack of comprehension, (b) a response which acknowledges a request for additional information from the indicator, and (c) a reaction to response, an optional element, that shows understanding on the trigger and signifies the readiness to proceed the conversation. Table 1 portrays how each element functions.

TABLE 1.
MEANING NEGOTIATION MODEL OF VARONIS AND GASS (1985)

Utterance	Function
S1: And your what is you...mmm...father's job?	-
S2: My father now is retire.	Trigger
S1: Retire?	Indicator
S2: Yes.	Response
S1: Oh yeah.	Reaction to response

This model has been acknowledged for its potential and implemented as a framework in many studies to explore roles of interactions on various aspects of language learning including task types (Nakahama, Tyler, & Van Lier, 2001), students' dyads (Soler & Guzmán, 1994), and meaning negotiation in other learning context (González-Lloret, 2003; Keller-Lally, 2006; Smith, 2003). In conclusion, despite different variables taken into account, studies on interaction in FTF context yielded positive results in language learning and affirmed that interaction is the key factor constituting successful communication.

C. Interaction in Text-SCMC Learning Context

In text-SCMC, chat software and networked computers are used as a means of communication for sending and receiving text messages. Text-SCMC interlocutors, almost at the same time, receive messages, comprehend them, and produce quick responses as if they were communicating orally to keep up with the flow of the conversation (Jepson, 2005; Jurkowitz, 2008). Due to the fact that text-SCMC provide learners with exposure to meaningful interaction (Blake, 2000; Pellettieri, 2010; Razagifard & Razzaghifard, 2011; Smith, 2003), the main focus of many text-SCMC studies is parallel to that of FTF studies: examining how learners negotiate for meaning (Chu, 2004; Fernández-García & Martínez-Arbelaiz, 2002) and how language learning is facilitated in text-SCMC context (Abrams, 2003; Kung, 2004; Razagifard & Razzaghifard, 2011). Another major interest is investigating how fast the pace of text-SCMC had a consequence on language use as shown in the studies of Jarkowitz (2008), Kung (2004), Smith (2003) and Wang and Woo (2007).

With concern on the impact of changing learning contexts on learners' interaction, together with the limited studies disclosing complete interactional patterns of learners in either FTF or CMC context, this study was initiated to investigate the interactional patterns of Thai EFL learners in both FTF and text-SCMC contexts where problem-based learning was used as a scenario. The research questions are as follows:

1. What interactional patterns do Thai EFL students employ in the FTF and text-SCMC contexts?
2. How does the context of learning result in learners' interactions?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants were twelve second-year English major students from the Faculty of Education at Chiang Mai Rajabhat University. They were purposively selected from the students who volunteered to participate in this study. They then were divided into two groups based on their preferences on learning context. For those interested in the text-SCMC context, they had to possess typing skill sufficient for carrying on the tasks. Each context group was sub-divided into groups of three for problem-solving discussions.

B. Procedure

Four lessons were employed. Each lesson took two weeks: three hours a week. In the first week of each lesson, the learners studied in their regular class. In the second week, the FTF participants discussed the given problems in their regular classroom by means of oral communication. During the discussions, they were videotaped for both verbal and non-verbal languages. For the text-SCMC participants, they performed the similar tasks in the computerized language laboratory through an online chat program called Skype. Their conversations were automatically saved by the program and later retrieved at the end of each chat session. A week after the last discussion, a member of each sub-group whose performance was outstanding in producing high amount of output and who played a dominant role during the discussions was selected and interviewed. The interview was conducted, audio-recorded, and transcribed by the researcher.

The tasks were developed on the problem-based learning (PBL) basis since PBL has been affirmed for its potentiality for eliciting high volume of interaction (King, Greidanus, Carbonaro, Drummond, Boechler, & Kahlke, 2010; Sanguansai, Saechan, Fongmanee, & Keawsoi, 2007). Barrows (1996) asserted that PBL students are highly motivated to interact with other students for they have to construct knowledge through inquiry process. Additionally, because PBL problems are related to their real life and have various possible solutions to be considered, students are encouraged to be more involved in PBL discussions (Shelton & Smith, 1998).

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

To analyze the data, the coding process of Strauss and Corbin (1990) was employed. It consisted of four stages: (a) transcribing verbatim where the recordings of FTF discussions and the interviews were converted to text without correction on language mistakes; (b) open coding in which all data—transcripts of the FTF discussions and interviews, and chat logs—were examined for concepts and evidences related to learners' interactions and then labeled; (c) axial coding by which the labeled concepts with sharing characteristics were grouped together as a category and given a concept name; and (d) making conclusion where each category was observed for details as well as interconnections among categories. Subsequently, conceptual patterns of FTF and text-SCMC interactions were derived.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

It was found that learners' interactions were distinct in each learning context as shown in Fig. 1.

A. FTF Interactions

The analysis of the transcripts indicated that there were six steps involved in the FTF problem-solving discussions.

Step 1: Task exploration

This step consisted of three sub-stage: (a) introducing a task overview which was initiated by a leader uttering the marker "We will + task overview" so as to start the discussion, (b) discussing task details such as conditional circumstances, causes, and effects of the problems, and (c) setting a goal where the learners suggested ways to solve the problem. Excerpt 1 demonstrates learners' interactions in this step.

Excerpt 1

Poto: Ok, Hern, today *we'll* we talk about um...the problem um (Task overview) that Thomas has to travel in Chiang Mai.

Hern: Oh, I see.

Poto: So? How how how how should we... How do we::

How can we do:

Hern: But but we have to think first. He he has er: he has er: (Task detail)

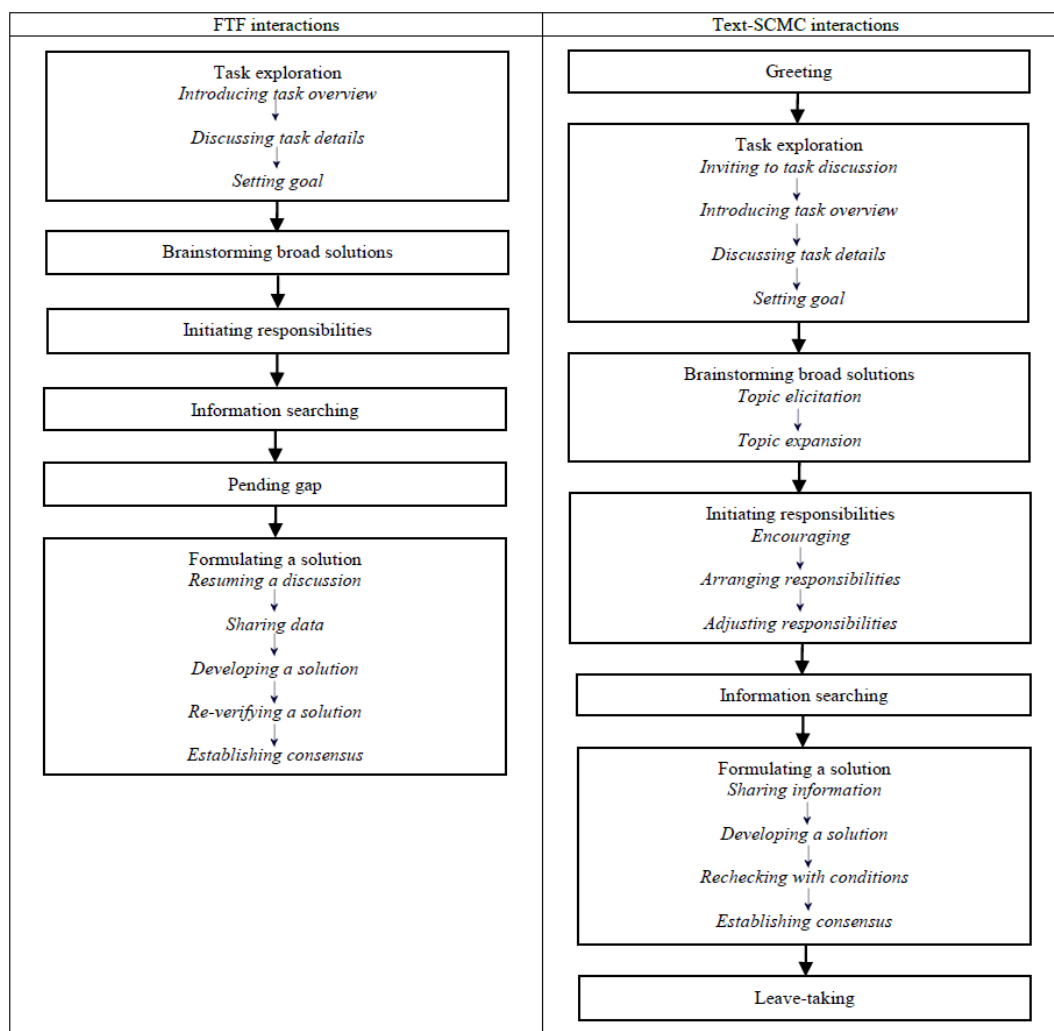


Figure 1. Learners' interactions in problem-solving discussion

he has three thousand baht for for: three days.

Tai: Yes and and and and she ha- she ha- er er he has three day (Task detail) for this trip.

...

Hern: Make a plan for for for: travel in Chiang mai. (Goal)

Poto: Yes:, we make: make a travel plan for him.

Step 2: Brainstorming broad solutions

The learners brainstormed relevant information necessary for constructing solutions. To propose their ideas, the marker "I think" was used. Excerpt 2 is an example of this point.

Excerpt 2

Cake: First, I think the place to stay. If you, if we plan the place to stay it, we control activity.

Nan: ((nod)) I think it's:: the:: the Impress hotel.

Cake: ((inhale)) Very expensive.

Nan: I see, I see. Er, and, and you? ((turn to P)) What do you think?

Pim: Ummmm... I: think... I think er should him to er:: the Imperial.

It should be noted that the FTF learners brainstormed a single topic at a time. After general ideas of a certain topic were attained, they moved on to discuss the next topic.

Step 3: Initiating responsibilities

The learners volunteered to find information on topics mentioned in stage 2. Their choices were expressed through the marker "I will find/ search + topic" followed by expansion on details, examples, and reasons for choosing that topic as shown in Excerpt 3.

Excerpt 3

Hern: There are many there are many natural places in Chiang Mai. But the first thing I wis I will find information about them.

Step 4: Information searching

To commence data searching, the learners used “Let’s search/ find” as a marker to encourage all members to explore Information. Excerpt 4 demonstrates this point.

Excerpt 4

Tai: *Let’s search.* [Find information?]
 Poto: *Search.*] Yeah, yeah, yeah. You do, you do.

Step 5: Pending gap

Then, a member who finished the first would ask a question using either “Finish?” or “Done?” as a marker to continue the discussion and find out about other learners’ readiness. It should be noted that, the discussion did not proceed immediately after a question was asked. It was held until all of the learners showed signs of their readiness.

Step 6: Formulating a solution

This step included five smaller stages: (a) resuming a discussion in which after all learners had showed signs of their readiness, one student would ask a question to invite other students to share information, (b) sharing data where the learners took turns giving information. Each learner’s turn was mainly introduced through the marker “I find + information” and handed over to the next learner in a form of questioning, (c) developing a solution in which the learners proposed possible solutions through the markers “should,” “can,” and “suggest.” Only necessary information was selected for constructing a solution, (d) re-verifying a solution which included making a conclusion and condition-rechecking. This stage aimed to ascertain that the solution was congruent with the given situation, and (e) establishing consensus whereby the learners ended the discussion by making compliments on the finalized solution through the marker “It’s a great/ good+ N” followed by showing agreement to it though the marker “Ok.” An example of this step is shown in Excerpt 5 below.

Excerpt 5

Hern: What about infor- information that... that you you find? (Resuming the discussion)

Tai: *I find* erm.. the interesting places in Chiang Mai. (Sharing data)

I think is Mae Wang district.

...

Poto: So Hern, what about you?

...

Hern: How how we make how we make a plan for [for for=] (Developing a solution)

Tai: [Three day.]

Hern: =three day? For travelling, for his travelling. About the first day,

Tai: I I think the first day we will em::

Hern: We should we should we should him to to travel around Chiang Mai, around Chiang Mai? Visit visit temples.

...

Poto: ... if we will:: your bring him to travel: in Chiang Mai (Re-verifying a solution)
 first day? to to visit at Wat Phrathat Doi Suthep or?
 vis- er Wiang Gum Gam museum? all the first day and
 the second then second day we will ((hand to Tai))

...

Hern: Er: about: about money. It’s enough or not enough? (Re-verifying a solution)

...

Hern: Ok. It’s a great [plan::] (Establishing consensus)

Poto: [Yes::] Ok?

Hern: Ok. (Establishing consensus)

To sum up, each step in the FTF interactional patterns contains its particular markers and functions demonstrating how meaning was constructed in problem-solving discussion.

B. Text-SCMC Interactions

During the problem-solving discussions, the text-SCMC learners were engaged in seven steps as follows:

Step 1: Greeting

The text-SCMC learners started a conversation using a variety of language in greeting whereby all learners were involved as shown in Excerpt 6.

Excerpt 6

[9:44:01] Chak: hello

[9:46:03] Su: hello

[9:46:23] Chak: how are you?

[9:46:37] Ploy: fine

[9:46:57] Chak: 😊

[9:47:44] Su: 🙏

Step 2: Task exploration

Then, the text-SCMC learners explored the tasks in a manner close to those of FTF learners. It started from discussing task overview and task details to setting goal respectively. The only difference was at the beginning of this step where a question was addressed. It functioned not only as a transition between the first and the second steps but also as a topic initiation. An example is in Excerpt 7.

Excerpt 7

[17:13:11] Tin: How about the topic that we got (Inviting to task discussion)
 [17:14:07] Wee: I think thomas to visit in chiang mai (Task overview)
 [17:14:31] Pit: but he have only 3000 bath (Task detail)
 [17:14:38] Tin: Oops!!!
 [17:15:09] Tin: How many days?
 [17:15:26] Pit: I think just 3 days(Task detail)
 [17:16:17] Tin:How can we oganize to him 3000 for 3 days right?
 [17:20:00]Pit: He have just only 3000 bath but he would like (Task detail) to visit several spots
 [17:20:08] Wee: We will give him the best memorie in 3 days (Task detail)
 [17:21:03] Tin: first we have to think about travel plan (Goal)

Step 3: Brainstorming broad solutions

This step involved two sub-stages: topic elicitation and topic expansion. In the first sub-stage, topics necessary for developing a solution were initiated regardless details as shown in Excerpt 8. In the second sub-stage, concepts, details, and examples were elicited one topic after the others. These are shown in Excerpt 9.

Excerpt 8

[9:53:42] Ploy: what to eat? (Topic1)
 [9:54:01] Ploy: transportation?? (Topic2)
 [9:54:10] Su: Go to temple
 [9:54:22] Su: Zoo
 [9:54:42] Chak: a place to stay for 3 night (Topic3)
 (4 lines)
 [9:56:30] Chak: where are to visit?, too (Topic4)

Excerpt 9

[9:57:42] Su: About many temple in CM. (Topic4)
 [9:57:46] Chak: wat pra singha. (Topic4 example)
 [9:57:55] Su: Yes
 [9:58:10] Cha: Wat loy kroh (Topic 4 example)

Step 4: Initiating responsibilities

Each learner volunteered to gather information on certain topics. This step consisted of three sub-stages: (a) encouraging whereby one learner suggested other learners start searching further information through the marker “I/ We (should) find information,” (b) arranging responsibilities in which each learner volunteered for a certain topic by using a marker “I + find/ search/ choose + topic” to propose their preference on certain topics, and (c) adjusting responsibilities in which the learners investigated and adjusted their responsibilities so as to make the plan successful. This point is illustrated in Excerpt 10.

Excerpt 10

[17:43:41] Tin:let we find more information first (Encouraging)
 [17:43:41] Pit: ok good
 [17:43:41] Pit: but wich topic I can help
 [17:44:46] Wee: I will find about travel place (Arranging responsibilities)
 [17:44:50] Tin: I am going to find more about the activities (Arranging responsibilities)
 [17:45:05] Pit: ok
 [17:45:11] Pit: I will find about (Arranging responsibilities)
 [17:45:15] Pit: eating
 [17:46:13] Tin: How about hotel and transportation (Adjusting responsibilities)
 [17:46:35] Wee: I will find hotel (Adjusting responsibilities)
 [17:48:38] Pit: I will find about transport and food (Adjusting responsibilities)

Step 5: Information searching

In step 5, each learner searched information on a topic for which he or she was responsible. The transitional phrase “Let’s + V.1 ” was used as a marker to initiate this step as shown in Excerpt 11.

Excerpt 11

[18:09:18] Tin: Let's gooooooooooooooo
 [18:09:25] Wee: ^ _____ ^
 [18:09:30]Tin: 😊

Step 6: Formulating a solution

This step consisted of four sub-stages: (a) sharing information—any learners shared their information to their groups simultaneously regardless turn-allocation, (b) developing a solution—the learners evaluated all information by discarding irrelevant information and developed possible solutions based on information being shared, (c) rechecking with conditions by referring back to the given conditions and/ or making a conclusion, and (d) establishing consensus through making compliments and/ or showing direct agreement with the solution. An example is in Excerpt 12.

Excerpt 12

[18:03:37] Wee: I got information about travel place such as (Sharing information)

[18:03:45] Tin: I found that the activities (Sharing information)

...

[18:05:35] Pit: about the food I found buffet brownie (Sharing information)

...

[18:15:38] Tin: next we have to design all for each day (Developing a solution)

...

[18:48:03] Tin: 3000 will be enough (Rechecking with conditions)

[18:48:10] Pit: I think so

[18:49:15] Tin: It's a deal (Establishing consensus)

Step 7: Leave-taking

After formulating a solution, the text-SCMC learners ended the discussion through leave-taking exchanges in which all learners were involved as shown in Excerpt 13.

Excerpt 13

[11:54:42] Su: See you tomorrow.

[11:54:44] Ploy: See ya next week.

[11:55:02] Chak: see you!!

[11:55:05] Su: good bye

[11:55:19] Chak: 😊

[11:55:20] Ploy: byeeee

[11:55:26] Su: 😊

It can be said that, the text-SCMC learners experienced seven major interactional steps with functions and markers particular to the context during the problem-solving discussions.

C. Interrelationship of Interactions and Learning Context

In addition to findings on interactional patterns presented above, this study provides further analysis of interactions in three aspects: overall structure, language use, and social interaction, as well as explanation of how they were influenced by the learning context.

1. Overall interactional patterns

The analysis of the transcripts and the chat logs indicated that the FTF discussions were shorter in length and took less time than the text-SCMC discussions. In terms of interactional steps, those in the FTF context were geared towards problem-solving activity whereas the text-SCMC interactions contained greeting and leave-taking stages embedded to problem-solving activity. This concurs with the studies of Chang (2007) and Negretti (1999) suggesting that text-SCMC learners showed awareness on typical conversational sequence consisting of greeting, activity, and leave-taking. To explain, the availability of audio-visual cues allowed the FTF students to observe one another. Therefore, it was likely that they started a discussion as soon as all of the learners were present and ended it when all of them agreed on the solution without greeting and leave-taking. On the contrary, the absence of audio-visual cues of the text-SCMC resulted in the learners concocting other compensatory communication strategies. In this case, they used greeting to monitor if all of the learners were ready for the discussion, and leave-taking to indicate the end of a discussion.

Moreover, it is shown that the FTF interactions did not contain as many turns as the text-SCMC interactions and were orderly managed following initial-response structure. On the other hand, the text-SCMC interactions were conveyed through a large number of messages with disrupted turns and overlaps in meaning. This phenomenon could be discussed on a basis of how messages were transmitted. According to Cherny (1999, as cited in Herring, 2001), messages are two-way transmitted in FTF context—produced by an addresser and received by an audience at the same time. Through this property, FTF learners gained simultaneous feedback and signals of turn-allocation from their interactional partners, and consequently produced responses adjacent to the initiated turns. Thus, FTF interactions are coherent and precise in meaning transmission. In contrast, text-SCMC is one-way transmission—an audience cannot witness that a message being produced until he or she receives it. Because the text-SCMC learners were absent from immediate feedback, they posted messages with less constraint on turn adjacency as Tin stated that, “the absence of my interactional partners caused non-immediate responses...If I want to express my ideas, I will do it first. Then, I will come back to read my friends’ ideas...” Another possible explanation is the limited space for text characters in each message; a very long message had to be divided into several short messages (Herring, 2001).

One interesting finding was the text-SCMC learners were likely to re-organize their previous actions as shown in the brainstorming stage and the initiating responsibilities stage (see Fig. 1). One possible explanation for this is the availability of written conversation on the screen which encouraged the text-SCMC learners to revisit their interactions

and adjust them as Tin reflected during the interview that, “It (the written conversation) helps me and my friends realize if my ideas and their ideas are agreeable and which points should be reexamined.” In addition, the transmission of messages was taken into account for explaining this result.

2. Language use

The analysis of the transcripts indicated that the FTF interactions relied on spoken language where verbal language was used as a main tool together with some features of non-verbal language to convey meaning to others. Those features included, for instance, prosodic features such as stress and intonation; paralinguistic features which covered body language, gestures and facial expressions; and backchannelling such as ‘uh-huh’ and ‘I see.’ This is illustrated in Excerpt 14.

Excerpt 14

Hern: (How about?) Er: about: about money. It’s enough or not enough?

Poto: Oh.

Tai: I think: it’s:... enough.

Hern: Enough.

Poto: ENOUGH? ((frown))

Tai: Enough?

Hern: I not sure. ((laugh))

Excerpt 14 reveals a number of spoken discourse features: (a) a filler “Er,” (b) a contraction “It’s,” (c) pause in speech “...,” (d) back-channeling “Oh,” (e) facial expressions including frowning and laughing, and (f) raising intonation and loudness of speech as in “ENOUGH?”

For the text-SCMC language, although it is written-based, it showed characteristics of both written language such as the use of punctuation, long sentences with subordinate clauses, and complex syntax; and spoken language such as the use of incomplete sentences and informal language. It also involved replication of spoken discourse features such as a string of words, as shown in Excerpt 11, that emphasized a certain word and capitalization such as “NO” which indicated loudness. These hybrid characteristics might stem from the simultaneity of text-SCMC. It made the learners felt as if they were communicating in the FTF context and, therefore, adapted some spoken language features in their conversations. Furthermore, emoticons—a device in text-SCMC combined of punctuation marks and other characters that display facial expressions—were used to express feelings and emotions as an alternative for non-verbal language (Jibril & Abdullah, 2013; Sauro, 2011). The learners also used them as a substitution for referential meaning. Excerpt 15 below is an example. The sentence “I don’t agree” was replaced with the emoticon 😞.

Excerpt 15

[18:37:04] Pit: what do you think?

[18:37:18] Tin: 😞

This result supports previous study of Fussell (2002, as cited in Derks, Bos, & Grumbkow, 2007). He proposed that the functions of emoticons involved not only displaying emotions and non-verbal language in the computer-mediated context but also literal or referential meaning in respect to that conversational context. Another characteristic of text-SCMC language that should not be overlooked is ignoring syntactic rules such as the use of lower case; and subject pronouns, determiners, and auxiliary verbs omission. Herring (2001) explained that these syntactic errors did not imply that the learners lack some kind of knowledge. Instead, it was because they tried to ease their typing and show their creativity in language use. Keep in mind that the FTF learners likewise produced a number of language errors. However, errors in FTF communication were mostly produced unconsciously regarding the simultaneity of direct communication. Therefore, the explanation of text-SCMC above was not applicable to that in the FTF context. Accordingly, it is shown that the learners of both contexts showed little concern over the correct use of language. The interview data uncovered this point. Tai, an FTF student, said, “when we talked about the same topic, overlooking some language errors and continuing the conversation would be more beneficial for the discussions because it aided the communication—making it more understandable and direct to the point...it made the conversation progress.” The same is also true for the text-SCMC learners. Tin reflected during the interview that, “In the online chat, it is unnecessary to use perfect grammar. We can use spoken language in the online chat so as to make it easy for others to understand our messages.” This shows that the learners of both contexts were more aware of exchanging ideas and the goal of the task than accurate language use which was consistent with previous studies of Gass (1997) and Lee (2002).

3. Social interaction

It was found that this aspect of social interactions contributed to the interaction of language learning. The learners in both contexts made an attempt to communicate in social interaction. Furthermore, they basically negotiated for meaning in the same way and in similar nature to Varonis and Gass’ meaning negotiation model. This finding confirms earlier studies of González-Lloret (2003), Keller-Lally (2006), and Smith (2003). In addition to this, two interesting points on interactions have emerged. The first point is in agreement with Warschauer’s (1996) findings showing that FTF interactions contribute more to language learning than text-SCMC interactions. There are several possible explanations for this result. First, the FTF learners tended to negotiate for meaning more frequent than the text-SCMC learners since they were likely to produce more language errors regarding the speed of FTF communication. Moreover, the FTF learners could benefit from the sharing physical space and availability of audio-visual for they could immediately

indicate their non-understanding during the discussions. Third, because the text-SCMC learners had more time to refine their language before posting their messages, their language errors were accordingly lower (Kelm, 1992; Warschauer, 1996; Smith 2003). The interview data reflected this point. Ploy stated that “I spent few minutes thinking about vocabulary and grammar before typing messages.” Another interviewee, Tin, also proposed ideas supporting this point:

I have to think what I am going to type and whether my messages signal meaning conforming to my ideas...On the basis that online users cannot see their interactional partners, they will be aware of their conversation coherence. The online users, therefore, try to find the best way to transmit meaning to raise mutual understanding.

Another possible explanation led to the advantage of written conversation. Ploy explained that, in some cases, meaning negotiation was unnecessary because written conversation facilitated her with context clues.

I would rather ignore asking about incorrect word use because I could guess the meaning of that word without asking for explanation of every incorrectness. I could guess...replace that wrong word with words that are likely to be correct. As a result, I can understand the meaning of that wrong word by myself.

This explained why the FTF learners were more involved in meaning negotiation than the text-SCMC learners. Another finding that has not been explained in earlier studies was the role of non-verbal language in meaning negotiation. Even though it is commonly known that meaning is mainly developed through dialogical process or verbal communication, based on sociocultural theory, this study revealed that non-verbal language played a significant role. Oftentimes, the FTF learners signaled their non-understanding by uttering exclamation such as “Huh?” and “Ha,” raising eyebrows, frowning; clarified meaning with the aid of non-verbal language; and used back-channel features such as nodding and interjection as in “Uh-huh” to show their understanding towards modified language. Mehrabian (2009) explained that non-verbal language is the largest part in FTF communication and it conveys meaning much better than the words being spoken. In addition, one of the interviewees, Cake, offered an interesting idea on this point. She stated that, in the situation she had to clarify meaning, gestures were preferable to verbal language for “gestures are comparable to universal language that creates mutual understanding among interlocutors.” Surprisingly, non-verbal language played role in not only the FTF context but also in the text-SCMC context, in the written form. An example is shown in Excerpt 16.

Excerpt 16

[13:56:50] Ploy: She shouldn't drinks pop and caffeine. She should drinks water and hot tea or chamomile hot tea instead coffee. They are reducing stress and feeling calmer.

[13:57:11] Chak: do you know what kind of vitamins??

[13:57:40] Su: ????

From this example, a question mark posted by Su functioned as rising intonation to indicate her non-understanding about previous messages. This strategy could result from the real-time nature of text-SCMC, as previously explained, that the learners replicate spoken discourse features in written form to maintain the pace of conversation. Despite this, it should be noted that these devices were inferior to non-verbal language of FTF context (Wang & Woo, 2007) as Ploy puts it:

Although I like to use question marks and emoji—a kind of cartoon characters—to indicate my non-understanding, I think it is not as effective as communicating in the FTF context for, in the text-SCMC context, I cannot see my interactional partners' gestures and facial expressions. That makes the transmission of meaning more difficult than the FTF communication.

From the results presented, it can be said that learners' interactions are echoes of each learning context nature where they are exposed to.

The contributions of the findings are discussed in two panes. The first pane pertains to SLA theories. In relation to the input hypothesis (Krashen, 1982) and the interactional hypothesis (Long, 1985), the learners of both learning contexts were exposed to input that could be made comprehensible through meaning negotiation. In respect to the output hypothesis (Swain, 1985), both learning contexts provided learners with opportunities to produce output in which they could test their hypothesis about the target language, notice gaps between the target language and their language output, get feedback from their interactional partners, and modify their output. Furthermore, interactions among the learners in both contexts confirmed the role of interaction from Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory in that learning is a social process. During the problem-solving discussions, they got assistance from other learners through social interactions to overcome communication problems. This gave rise to cognition and interlanguage development to the point that learners could accomplish tasks by themselves. Therefore, both learning contexts were acquisition-rich for language learning. The second pane throws lights on classroom implications. In future planning, teachers are encouraged to be aware of timeframe. Studying in the text-SCMC context may not be suitable for classes with limited time because learners need extra time to read messages, comprehend them, type responses, and monitor their language before sending a message. Moreover, teachers should be more considerate on how to implement tasks, facilitate learners, evaluate learners' knowledge and performance of different contexts. In respect to language errors abandonment, it is necessary that teachers raise learners' awareness on correct language use to prevent future language misuse and fossilization. Over and above, keep in mind that each learning context holds its unique characteristics and strengths. Therefore, implementing it to lessons with its own right could draw out its highest capacity and yield the most benefits to learners. In relation to problem-based learning, problems are meaningful to learners with various possible solutions,

together with learning as an inquiry process, were proved to be efficient in promoting dynamic interaction among the learners. This seems to validate the view that PBL promotes co-construction of meaning through social interactions consistent with the studies of Hmelo-Silver (2004) and King et al. (2010). Therefore, it is recommended that language teachers implement PBL in language classrooms so as to promote learners' interactions and language development.

This study has limitations needed to be noted. While one criticism of this method might be that the CMC tasks were unnatural given that most CMC interactions occur asynchronously such as facebook and discussion boards, the scope of this study does not intend to draw conclusion about the narrower patterns of the computer-mediated language among various tasks and groups. In other words, this study is not interested at this stage about synchronous versus asynchronous computer-mediated language differences. Instead, the focus of this study is the broader interactional patterns that students engaged in during the FTF and SCMC conversation. While it is certain that extending the method at a later time will yield interesting data, it is not felt that the method here, using SCMC, has shown the results in terms of the parameters and research questions for this particular study. Another limitation is the small number of the participants. Consequently, the results may not be generalized to other contexts. The third limitation concerns with the participants' language proficiency. Regarding the requirements that the participants gained scores at least 50 percent based on their English proficiency test score of Chiang Mai Rajabhat University, all of them had close language proficiency level. Therefore, the results did not yield a variety of communication strategies during the discussion. The last limitation is the gender issue: each group consisted of different number in male and female. It is unclear that there is an impact of the difference in gender dyad on the results of this study.

Future studies are needed to look at wider range of data including the number of participants and PBL lessons to investigate a confirmation or disconfirmation to findings in this study. Other issues such as gender and cultural context should also be investigated for further explanation on learners' interaction. There is a need to examine if learners can transfer their knowledge, skills and strategies from one context to another context and whether all of which are altered by learning context.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study aims to unfold how learners in the FTF and text-SCMC contexts interacted during the PBL discussions; and to explain how characteristics of each learning context give impacts on their interactions. The findings of this study extend knowledge of the nature of interactions in both learning contexts and yield benefits for language teaching, and thus the following conclusion can be drawn: interactions were shaped by context; and as long as that learning context provides learners with opportunities of social interaction, language learning is facilitated.

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Questioning Powers of the Students in the Class

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Abstract—This paper is about the questioning powers of the students in the class. The main focus is to reveal the types of questions produced by the students and to describe their perspectives on their questioning powers. This study employed seventy students as respondents. To collect data, informants were given topics for discussions in the class and their questions were recorded. An open-ended questionnaire was distributed to explore their perception towards their questioning powers in the classroom. Findings show that students mostly produced referential questions, which need more explanation and clarification or judgments from the answerers. Findings also show the students' tendency to ask questions and the factors influencing their capacity in asking questions such as the class situation, their psychological factors, and teachers' image over the students.

Index Terms—questions, questioning power, English language teaching, classroom interaction

I. INTRODUCTION

High proficiency of English language teaching is highly recommended. That is because English as an international language becomes a crucial instrument for keeping in track with high development in information and technology. Thus, the teaching of English needs high priority to enhance the quality of English language teaching.

The focus of the teaching of English as a foreign language (TEFL) is on the high capabilities and performances of English teachers in enhancing the quality of their teachings. In the same way, English students learning English as a foreign language are then expected to demonstrate high proficiency and achievement in English language teaching.

Therefore, it is the responsibility of the teachers and students to use their maximum efforts in the teaching of English such as the application of innovative methods, well-prepared materials, and innovative teaching media. Many scholars had examined these issues in different countries such as in Japanese (Serag, 2011), in Chinese (Li and Renandya, 2012), and in Brazil (Miccoli, 2003). Indonesian scholars had also participated in these areas of research such as in speaking (Rachmawaty and Hermagustiana, 2010), in reading skills (Hamra and Syatriana, 2010), in listening (Cahyono & Widiati, 2009) and in writing (Rukmini, 2009). Other issues also play important roles such as the classroom interaction between teachers and students in terms of politeness (Senowarsito, 2013; Sun and Shek, 2012), teacher talk (Yanfen and Yuqin, 2010), etc.

I argue that the important actor in the classroom is not only teachers, but also students. While there had been many expectations towards the roles of teachers, few expectations are on the students. Most studies illustrate the teaching of English from the teachers' sides such as the study by Peng et al. (2013), giving an emphasis on the importance of teacher quality in China and the study by Lee (2014) on the teachers' perception on national curriculum of English learning in South Korea.

I stress the high demand on the students' roles. Although teachers had put a lot of efforts in teaching to increase students' achievement, if the students themselves did not have high capabilities and motivation to learn, the process of English language teaching will not be effective. Brown (2000) emphasized that the success of students in second language is affected by "students' personal investment of time, effort, and attention to the second language" (p. 60) and "if all learners were intrinsically motivated to perform all classroom tasks, we might not even need teachers" (Brown, 2000, p. 59). Sindkhedkar (2012) also stressed that "what is important is to motivate the students, by creating awareness amongst them regarding the importance of English and then gradually helping the student to attain his goal" (p. 191).

Therefore, it is necessary to view the English language teaching from the students' perspectives. What students perceive about what is going on the class will influence their achievement in the class. Hiew (2012) argued that "learners' perception towards the teaching and learning of English should be taken and reviewed seriously as it is a two-way process involving teachers and learners" (p. 19).

In this paper, I intend to raise the important roles of questions in the classroom interaction. Brown (2000) had noted the importance of classroom interaction as "the collaborative exchange of thought, feelings, or ideas between two or more people, resulting in a reciprocal effect on each other" (p. 165). Thus, the patterns of interaction in the class will depict the activities of students and teachers in the class to reach the objectives of the English language teaching.

Since teachers and students are important actors in the class, the use of questions is believed to be essential as a bridge in finding the gap of mind in the learning and teaching process. The use of questions is supposed to be a creative medium in encouraging students' activities in the class. Guihun (2006) confirmed that questions served as "a fundamental tool of teaching and lie at the very heart of developing critical thinking abilities of the students" (p. 100).

Teacher can become “an initiator and sustainer of interaction in the classroom by employing questioning strategies” (Brown, 2000, p. 169).

Numerous investigations had proved the effective and efficient functions of questions in the class. Wu (1993) investigated the use of questions by teachers in the classroom in the forms of referential questions. Shomoossi (2004) also conducted a study on the use of display questions. Zolfaghari et al. (2011) emphasized the roles of creative questioning in the process of learning and teaching and found that questions were used by in every two minutes that encouraged teachers and students creativity. Inan and Fidan (2012) also observed the functions of teachers' questions in foreign language.

This paper explores the roles of questions for students. Instead of focusing on teachers role in asking questions that had been studied by many scholars, I focus on the students' capabilities in asking questions in the class and look at the functions of those questions and factors influencing their questioning strategies. I argue that teachers should not only probe a lot of questions to students and require students to answer those questions as the devices to build their critical thinking. Rather, teachers should be able to invite students' questions as the strategy to build their creative and critical thinking over the materials.

The results of the study are bringing significance in the English language teaching. Findings from this study are believed to be beneficial and function as precious contribution on how teachers should create good teaching situation for students to be creative and critical. The questioning power of the students would become an indicator for high learning motivations of the students. Investigating the types of questions mostly produced by the students and exploring the factors influencing their questioning powers are key input for enhancing better and higher quality of English language teaching.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

What is a question and what is the function of the question? The Hornby dictionary defined a question as “a sentence which by word orders use of interrogative words or intonation, request information, and answer, etc.” Moreover, a question is “something about which there is discussion, something that needs to be decided” (1987, p. 687). Postman (cited in Guihun, 2006, p. 100) said that “all our knowledge results from questions”.

These definitions show that questions have very principal roles Questions can be used to “stimulate thinking, assess student progress, check on teacher clarity, motivate students, maintain classroom control, provide repetition, emphasize key points, extend thinking skills, gain feedback on teaching/learning, provide revision strategies, create links between ideas, enhance curiosity, provide challenges, and so on” (Callahan and Clark, cited in Guihun, 2006, p. 100-101). Meng et al. (2012) stated that teachers and learners “could benefit from teacher questions because the act of asking questions helped teachers keep students actively involved in lessons and stimulate them to keep thinking” (p. 2608).

Questioning is the basis of the teaching activities that can “encourage recalling, deepen the learning process and comprehension, promote the imagination and problem-solving, satisfy the sense of curiosity and increase the creativity” (Zolfaghari et al., 2011, p. 2079).

The most reviewed and studied types of questions are referential questions, which “asks for information not known to the teachers” and display questions, which are not “a real question and serves only to elicit language practices” (Long and Sato, 1983). Shomoossi (2004) defined referential questions are those questions in which the teacher has not known about the answer and therefore may require interpretations and judgments by the answerers. Display questions, on the other hand, are questions for which the questioner knows the answer beforehand and usually ask for comprehension, confirmation, or clarification (p. 97-98).

Peacock (1990) classified questions into open and closed questions. An open question “carries with it no expectations on the part of the questioner concerning the responses of the person addressed” whereas a closed question is a question that “presupposes a particular kind of responses from the person addressed” (cited in Guihun, 2006, p. 101).

Jacobson et al. (1990, p. 153-154) put another more classification of questions in the forms of convergent and divergent question. Convergent question requires correct answer which is beneficial in establishing facts or ascertaining answers to problems that are accurate, whereas divergent questions give possibilities for more different answers, not only one correct answer (cited in Guihun, 2006, p. 101).

Goodman and Benston (2000) grouped questions into three types, namely the ‘why’, the ‘how’, and the ‘is’ question. According to them, these three types of questions should be asked appropriately. The ‘why’ questions are appropriate when the content of the question is something with which the students are generally familiar. The ‘how’ questions are more suitable to unfamiliar content that can become the object of study. The last, the ‘is’ questions are useful for setting the stage for inquiry and possible debate. Overall, it is stated that good questions should be ‘accessible, short, and leading’ (p. 474).

III. METHODOLOGY

The subject of this research is the students of the undergraduate program at one state university in Makassar, Academic Year 2012/2013 which consists of four classes. The total number of informants is 140 students. I chose two classes randomly as the subject. Thus the total subject is 70 students.

To collect data on the type of questions, informants were given topics for discussions in the class and their questions were recorded. There were 70 students distributed into 12 groups of students' presentations. Each group was delivering presentation and the students asked questions at the end. At last, the respondents expressed their ideas on their questioning powers in the form of an open ended questionnaire. This was to reveal their perception towards the factors affecting their capabilities and frequency in asking questions.

IV. FINDINGS

A. Types of Questions Formulated by the Students

Based on the questions recorded at the end of each presentation, it can be seen the types of questions formulated by the students as follows:

TABLE 1:
TYPES OF QUESTIONS ASKED BY THE STUDENTS

Meeting	Questions asked	Types
1 st	1. Does speech come naturally or depend on skills? 2. Is body language counted as speech? 3. Would you explain more about turn-taking? 4. How do we deal our speech in a limited time?	Display Display Referential Referential
2 nd	5. What is the best way to give advice? 6. Why did you say that this theory is dangerous? 7. What do you mean by subjective inequality	Referential Referential Referential
3 rd	8. Why society just refers to non-regional difference? 9. Why creole is phenomenon in the world? 10. Can creole exist in Indonesia?	Referential Referential Referential
4 th	11. What do you think about sociolinguistic phenomena? 12. Why do sociolinguistics phenomena influence people? 13. What factors of sociolinguistics that have relations to society? 14. How someone adapt to society from other cultures?	Referential Referential Referential Referential
5 th	15. How often social speech occur and how it occurs in other behavior? 16. There are many norms that regulate speech. Please explain one by one. 17. How does verbal and non-verbal behavior influence the speech and social interaction?	Referential Referential Referential
6 th	18. Tell us your method to keep your background language in mind! 19. Would you explain more about relations of sociolinguistics and sociology of language? 20. Is there any problem when you talk about somebody else? 21. What is the influence of language exogamy practice to the society? 22. Can English be categorized as familiar group?	Referential Referential Referential Referential Display
7 th	23. Why dialect is categorized based on social class? 24. Is there any difference of speech from different social class? 25. Can you explain the definition of lexical reduction? 26. Could you distinguish between dialect and accent?	Referential Referential Referential Referential
8 th	27. Can you explain more about overt prestige and exclusive community? 28. Can you give examples and elaborate more about code and restricted code? 29. Do you agree that people's way of speaking will change? 30. What is the relation of linguistic inequality and prejudice?	Referential Referential Display Referential
9 th	31. Could you mention the kinds of knowledge which is used in culture? 32. How do language, culture, and thought influence each other? 33. Can you explain more about prototype and disambiguities? 34. Could you mention the other examples of the relations of language and culture?	Referential Referential Referential Referential
10 th	35. What is the relation between language, culture, and thought? 36. Why someone has different vocabulary while from the same language? 37. Is it influenced by culture? 38. Can you explain the relation between language and culture? 39. Is 'halloween' one of the culture phenomena?	Referential Referential Display Referential Display
11 th	40. Can you explain to us about the example of a text? 41. What kind of approach to collect data? 42. Can you explain about low variety and high variety as seen from the slide? 43. Can you mention the examples of study in Indonesian context?	Referential Referential Referential Referential
12 th	44. Can you give example of study in quantitative speech? 45. Give more explanation about lexical variable and give examples 46. How does the methodology influence the speech quantitatively?	Referential Referential Referential

The table above shows that from 12 meetings, students produced 46 questions. Those questions formulated by the students in the class at the end of students' presentation were referential questions that needed more explanation and clarification or judgments from the answerers.

B. Students' Perspectives on Questioning Powers

The following table displays the students' perspectives on their questioning powers in the class such as the factors influencing their power in asking questions and the *frequency* in asking questions.

TABLE 2:
STUDENTS' PERSPECTIVES ON THEIR QUESTIONING POWERS IN THE CLASSROOM

No	Items	Answer			Answer		
1	Do you like asking questions?	Like	47	67 %	Dislike	23	32 %
2	To whom mostly ask questions	Teachers	14	20 %	Friends	56	80 %
3	Where do you mostly ask your teachers	Class	16	23 %	Face-to-face	54	77 %
4	Is it difficult to ask questions	difficult	68	97 %	Easy	2	3 %
5	What type of questions do you like to ask	Yes or no questions	9	13 %	A more explanation question	61	87 %
6	Are you afraid to ask questions	Afraid	50	72 %	Not afraid	20	28 %
7.	Do you ask questions to attract attention	Yes	55	78 %	No	15	22 %
8.	Do you ask questions because you don't know?	Yes	63	90 %	No	7	10 %
9	So you just keep silent (not asking questions) if you have known the materials?	Yes	56	80 %	No	14	20 %
10	Do you ask questions because you have to?	Yes	38	54 %	No	32	45 %

The above table shows the questioning powers of the students. Seventy (70) respondents explained their attitudes in asking questions in various reasons. The first one was about whether they liked asking questions or not in the class. There were 47 students of 70 respondents (67%) who liked asking questions, and the rest 23 of them (32%) disliked asking questions.

The second aspect was to whom they mostly asked questions. Respondents showed that most of them (56 of 70 respondents) or 80% preferred to ask questions to their friends to their teachers (20%). When they had to ask their teachers, they mostly chose face-to face meeting rather than asking in the class. There were 54 students preferred asking their teachers through face-to-face meetings (77%) rather than asking in the class (23%).

In fact, students found it difficult to ask questions. There were only two (2) respondents from 70 respondents who found it easy to ask questions. The rest, 68 respondents (97 %), found difficulties in asking questions.

The type of questions they liked to ask was questions which needed more explanation. There were 61 respondents (87%) who liked to ask those questions, whereas yes/no questions were not chosen among them (only 9 respondents or 13%).

Questions 6 to 10 illustrate the factors influencing the students' questioning powers in the classroom. There were 50 respondents (72%) indeed felt afraid to ask questions. There were also 55 respondents (78%) who asked questions to attract the attention in the class. Most of them (63 respondents or 90%) asked questions because they did not know the materials and needed more explanations. In fact, they mostly kept silent (56 respondents or 80%) if they had already known the materials. The last fact was that mostly 40 respondents (54%) asked questions because they had to ask questions.

These findings show that the tendency of the students to ask questions were due to some factors such as feeling afraid, the need to attract attention in the class and curiosity on the materials. They also asked questions because it was a 'must' for example, if there was an assignment they did not know, and if the teachers noted the name of the students who asked questions, which might influence their passing grade later.

Besides the above factors, respondents were allowed to write down some other factors hampering their questions powers. The first one was about their psychological factors, such as being nervous, bored, lazy, or moody. In those conditions, they felt not motivated and were not willing to ask questions although they needed to ask due to the difficult materials. If they were not in a good mood, they preferred to keep silent during the teaching process.

The second reason was their physical conditions. Being healthful made them confident to ask questions. If they were sick, they were lazy to ask questions.

Next was their language use. Their language capabilities such as grammar, vocabulary, or their pronunciations affected their power to ask questions. Even though they had a lot of questions, there preferred to keep silent because they did not know how to express their ideas in good and proper language. They felt afraid of making mistakes in their language and worried their friends would laugh at them.

Another factor came from the lecturers. Several respondents said that their teachers sometimes were not familiar, arrogant, and temperamental. In those conditions, they felt not eager to ask questions and found no use of asking questions. If the lecturers were good, tolerable, not like to be angry in the class, they mostly liked to ask questions.

The last factor was from the materials. Respondents said that interesting materials would be more likely to attract their attention to ask questions. If the materials were interesting, they would ask questions to know more. If the materials were difficult, then they asked questions to explore more about that.

V. DISCUSSION

This paper has examined two important issues. The first one is about the type of questions that were mostly asked by the students. From the recording of the questions at the end of students' group discussion, the 47 questions produced by students were mostly in the form of referential questions. Long and Sato (1983) stressed that these questions required more explanations, not only confirmation or comprehension check. Based on the questionnaire, respondents also revealed that most of them (61 of 70 respondents) liked to ask questions with more explanations, rather than the yes/no

questions. This finding was in line with one of the reasons for asking questions. There were 63 of 70 respondents who said that they asked questions because they did not know the materials. They needed to have more explanations, especially when they got difficult materials.

This finding showed that students were more likely to ask referential questions instead of asking display questions for only checking comprehensions. It was rather different from the teacher preferences in asking questions studied by Shamoossi (2004), which found that display questions were mostly used by teachers in the class. David's study on teachers' questioning behaviors also depicted the frequent use of display questions by the teachers in the class over the use of referential questions (2007). Inan and Fidan's study on the functions of teacher questions also found that teachers mostly employed display questions for confirmation check.

This finding brings the idea that the use of referential questions also brings a lot of advantages for inviting more creativity and curiosity of the students in the class. Brock had proved the benefit of the referential questions. He confirmed that "referential questions increase the amount of learner output" (1986, p. 56).

Questions functions in different ways for students and teachers. Due to the roles of teachers in facilitating the classroom interaction, they are highly demanded to use questions to invite more discussions from the students. For teachers, the use of display questions created more interaction than referential questions. Teachers may invite participations of the students by asking questions that they have already known for the purpose of creating more opinions from the students. On the other hand, as students in the process of learning need to understand the materials, they mostly pose referential questions, especially to the teachers, in order to resolve their problems and get more understandable information about the materials. Finding shows that most of them prefer to keep silent when they have already known about the materials (56 of 70 respondents).

Another important finding from this study is about the preferences in asking questions. Students showed their interest in asking questions in the class shown from 47 respondents who liked to ask questions. However, they faced some difficulties in asking questions. Students said that they felt more comfortable in asking questions to their friends to their teachers. Even when they did have to ask questions to their teachers, they would rather do it by face-to face meeting with the teachers than asking directly in the class.

These facts show that students face difficulties in asking questions proven by the high number of respondents who said the difficulties in asking questions (68 respondents of 70). Findings also show that those hampering factors came from various aspects in the classroom. One of the points was their language barriers such as not being able to produce good questions in terms of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciations. Another point was from the students' factors such as their psychological and physiological conditions of the students. Students who were sick, not mood, afraid and nervous, would prefer to keep silent. Next was about the materials. Study shows that interesting materials were more likely to invite students' questions rather than uninteresting materials. Another interesting point was the image of the teachers. It was surprising to know that teachers who were familiar and friendly to the students were more likely to invite more questions than those who were unfamiliar, unfriendly, snobbish, or were likely to get angry in the class.

This shows that the powers of students to ask questions in the class are influenced by many factors. To suit with the need of the students' curiosity about the materials, students may employ referential questions. However, to fulfill this need, hampering factors either from the class itself, the materials, the teachers, and the students need full attentions. All of these aspects are important factors for building students' high power in asking questions. The more questions asked by the students, the more creativity and interaction are created. Milal's study (2011) confirmed that there were "positive relations between the activities in the lesson, the types of communicative acts performed and the power exercised in the class and the effective achievement of the pedagogical objectives" (p. 1).

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND LIMITATIONS

This paper has discussed the important ideas on the power of students in asking questions in the class. This paper reveals the types of questions produced by the students and describes the factors affecting their questioning powers.

This paper has revealed that referential questions are the types of questions that are mostly asked by the students. These are the questions which need more explanations. In addition, students' questioning power in the class were influenced by many factors such psychological factors from the students, the materials, and the teachers themselves. Moreover, students' English proficiency are said to affect their power in asking questions. Due to the lack of vocabulary, afraid of wrong grammar and pronunciations, students preferred not to ask questions especially in the class.

The two important findings above give important contributions on the study of English as a foreign language. It can be proved that questions have very important support in the classroom interaction as one way to initiate the collaboration between teachers and students. The referential questions mostly formulated by students helped them to build their curiosity which becomes the main focus for classroom interaction. Therefore, teachers in this case, need to create good class condition to minimize the hindering factors for students' questioning power in the class. Apart from the above findings, this study has limitations. The study should be continued by observing more on teachers and students interaction in the class.

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The Impact of Linguistic Imperialism on Iranian EFL Learners' Home Culture Detachment

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Abstract—This study attempts to investigate whether studying English as a major on one hand and the learners' gender on the other hand would affect the degree of learners' home culture detachment. To this end, two groups of subjects were chosen: EFL learners and non-EFL learners. A Home Culture Attachment Scale validated in the context of Iran was distributed among 266 participants. The data were analyzed by means of independent sample t-tests. The results revealed that due to familiarity with English language and culture, the EFL learners were more or less detached from their own culture; therefore, the assumption that familiarity with Western culture will diminish the influence of local culture was confirmed. The EFL learners showed some tendency toward the Western culture. The results also indicated that the participants' gender differences played no role in their Home Culture Detachment. The findings of this study can be helpful not only from the English language instruction standpoint, but also valuable from socio-cultural perspectives whose concern is human traits.

Index Terms—home culture attachment, home culture detachment, HCAS, EFL/Non-EFL learners, linguistic imperialism

I. INTRODUCTION

Each individual wherever he lives, is influenced by family, community, country, and language. In fact no culture is made up of groups of people who have been only affected by their environment; nevertheless, each culture is structured by pervading and prevailing principles. The principles can be conscious or subconscious, directly or indirectly stated. Whatever the nationality of the people, most people consider their own culture as "standard" or "right", and the other cultures of the world as a combination of strange behaviors. Once people realize that they are actually the product of their own culture, they become better prepared and more willing to look at the behavior of the people from other cultures and accept them with no bias, if not favorably. Together with the acceptance of people and their behavior, comes the acceptance of their language and a greater willingness to take a step forward in crossing the borders of the native language and culture, and entering, at least to a degree, into what can be the territory of another language and culture (Valdes, J.1986).

By the use of language we interact in the society. When language is used for communication, cultural boundaries affect it in complex ways. The words people use in their speech refer to a stock of shared knowledge of the world and experience that both the speakers and listeners possess. Moreover, words reflect the authors' opinions, ideas, and points of views. In both cases, the language expresses the cultural reality (Kramsch, 1998, p.3).

Many anthropologists, sociologists, and psychologists, have defined culture in variety of ways.

According to Matsumoto's (2009) comprehensive definition, "culture is a unique meaning and information system, shared by a group and transmitted across generations, that allows the group to meet basic needs of survival, by coordinating social behavior to achieve a viable existence, to transmit successful social behaviors, to pursue happiness and well-being, and to derive meaning from life" (cited in Keith, 2011, p. 3).

Triandis, Kurowski, Tecktiel, and Chan (1993) believed that culture possesses objective characteristics which are tangible such as food, architecture, manufactured products and subjective characteristics like social, economic, political affairs, and religious practices that are human elements. Culture is shared by language and brings satisfaction for the people who share the same environmental context (cited in Keith, 2011, p.4).

Cultures vary in their complexity (Triandis, 1980); some embody significant diversity with many subcultures (Miller, 2008), and other cultures are much more homogenous, or tight (Triandis, 1977). The Common feature of all the cultures is the notion of a group with shared behaviors, values, and beliefs that are passed from generation to generation (Keith, 2011, p.4). Culture forms the peoples' behavior from child rearing, upbringing, schooling, professional training by the instructions it dictates on people in the form of etiquette, expressions of politeness, dos and don'ts. Culture also shapes and socializes the written language. It describes how and what to write, to whom and by the use of what genre in what circumstance should something be written. In these ways with the use of language, culture imposes the invisible rituals on language users. Consequently, people's written and spoken products will be brought in order and will be predictable

in one culture. Culture both liberates and constrains people. It frees them from oblivion, anonymity, and the randomness of nature, and limits them by imposing on them a structure that has to be chosen and principles based on which selection has to be done (Kramsch, 1998). Matsumoto and Juang (2004) expressed that culture is like a lens, or filter, it distorts, rotates, and colors our view of the world, and leads us inevitably to see it from our own view point. (cited in Keith, 2011, p.22).

This study will reveal how familiarity with a culture which is in contrast in some ways with the local culture will cause cultural detachment.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON CULTURE AND LINGUISTIC IMPERIALISM

Some educational scholars who have been interested in the diversity of human languages and their meanings devised the concept of linguistic relativity which proposes: different people speak differently because they think in different manners, and the reason why they think differently is because their language presents them with different ways of expressing the world around them. This concept was also proposed by Edward Sapir (1884-1939) and his pupil Benjamin Lee Whorf (1897-1941). Whorf's views on the interdependence of language and thought have become under the name of Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. This hypothesis makes the claim that the language framework one regularly uses affects the way in which one contemplates and behaves. Whorf also declares that different languages can direct people to act in diverse ways because language filters their perception and limits the way they categorize events. Sapir-Whorf hypothesis has been subject to controversy, because it indirectly made the universal validity of scientific discoveries dependent upon the language in which they are expressed, it encountered the immediate reaction and scorn of the scientific community. Therefore the strong version of Whorf's hypothesis that claims that language determines the way we think could not be taken seriously, but the weak version, supported the findings that there are cultural differences in the semantic associations evoked by seemingly common concepts, is generally accepted nowadays. The manner in which a given language conveys an experience semantically makes aspects of that experience both accessible, and more remarkable for the users of that language. The generic semantic meanings of the code that have been adapted over time within a certain discourse community are subject to the different uses made of them in social contexts. Therefore we are not limited to the cultural meanings that are suggested to us by our language, but can modify, and enrich them in our pragmatic interactions with other people who use the language (Kramsch, 1998, p.14).

Since language forms are relative, different languages convey different views of the world. Not having the desire to acknowledge, and the inability to engage with different ways of seeing the world, were the underlying principles of colonialism. On the contrary, intercultural competence is characterized by the ability and desire to engage with realities other than our own (Piller, I. 2011, p. 53).

Piller (2011) also states that:

Formal linguistic relativity is undergirded by a more fundamental difference of communicative relativity, which means that communication itself is relative. There are differences in what is communicated when and by whom in which way. Communicative inequality is a key aspect of communicative relativity: ways of communicating are not only relative but also have unequal chances of making an impact (p.53).

Scholars consider culture and language as integrated, they cannot be viewed as separate and as two distinct entities; (Shahsavandi, Ghonsooly & Kamyabi, 2010). Brogger (1992), believes that "language and culture are inextricably interwoven and interdependent" (cited in Risager, 2007, p.132). According to him "culture is language and language is culture."

"Language is necessary for us to maintain our identity, it is part of us being a nation and our history and uniqueness is tied to our language and preserved in our language" (Harraldson cited in Hilmarsson- Dunn, 2006, p. 296). "One manifests one's identity through one's language and a change of language represents a change of identity the speaker is presenting the world" (Liddicoat cited in Patron, 2006, p.86). Nikiforova (2007) states that "culture is the bedrock on which peoples build their identity" (cited in Shahsavandi et al. 2010).

Culture as a process that both includes and excludes, always entails the exercise of power and control (Kramsch, 1998, p.8). The use of English plays an important role in increasing an individual's desire to communicate with the world and at the same time to preserve one's identity (Pham cited in Le Ha, 2005).

Cultural anthropologists moved from an atomistic definition of culture to one which emphasizes pattern and configuration. Kluckohn and Kelly define culture as "all those historically created designs for living explicit and implicit, rational, irrational, and non-rational, which exist at any given time as potential guides for the behavior of men." The mentioned traits, elements, or patterns of culture are organized into a system which is created gradually and over time, and consequently it is open and subject to constant change (cited in Hoijer, 1953 p.554).

The relation between home culture and second language culture has critically been viewed by some scholars. Asraf (1996) states that "using English is often together with images such as speaking English is the key to employment, speaking English joins you to the international community and speaking English speaks for modernity" (p.10). However, these statements reveal a significant danger associated the native language and culture. The danger is the notion that the learners' native cultures and their languages are practically, presented as backward and incapable of modernity. Consequently "this leads to cultural erosion of belief in the ability of native culture and language to deal with the

modern world” (Asraf, 1996, p.10). Schuman asserts that this cultural erosion, indeed, leaves its victims “at the mercy of culturally imperialistic forces such as English Language Teaching” (cited in Asraf, 1996, p. 10).

Teaching a language involves more than just codes and structures, it is in fact communication. Language and culture are closely connected, and teachers who use authentic materials expose students to delicate and at times obvious cultural messages and values (Rahimi, A. & Sahragard, R., 2007). Thus the dominance of English as an international language of communication has been viewed as a threat to other languages (Pennycook, 1999).

Linguistic imperialism is indicative of “the hegemony of English language” and its function in reinforcing “globalization”. English teachers are agents trying to dominate the culture and the language of the unlucky foreign learner by imposing Western values and beliefs through the medium of English language. Language teaching is impossible without teaching culture and TESL is the teaching of language and culture. (Rahimi, A. & Sahragard, R., 2007, p.31). Rahimi and Sahragard believe that it is linguistic imperialism that leads to cultural imperialism in which a nation loses its culture and accepts the dominating culture of the imperialists.

According to Ansre, (1979):

Linguistic imperialism is a phenomenon in which the minds and the lives of the speakers of a language are dominated by another language to the point where they believe that they can and should use only that foreign language when it comes to transactions dealing with the more advanced aspects of life such as education, philosophy, literature, governments, the administration of justice, etc. ... Linguistic imperialism has a way of warping the minds, attitudes, and aspirations of even the most noble in a society and preventing him from appreciating and realizing the full potentialities of the indigenous languages (cited in Philipson, 2009, p.3).

According to Phillipson (2009) Linguistic Imperialism is based on the following principles: The ideal way of learning English is by a native speaker who teaches in a monolingual manner; the earlier the process of language learning starts, and the more English is taught the better will be the results; the standards of English will decrease if other languages are used much (p.12).

Phillipson (1992) expresses his concern for centralizing and spreading the English language, and squeezing other languages into less and less central roles. When their functions are weakened they finally get marginalized and eventually lost. (cited in Davis & Elder, 2004, p. 439)

The present study aims at comparing two groups of Iranian university students to see whether studying English as a major has had any impact on their home culture detachment.

In order to achieve the goal of this quasi-experimental study, the following research questions were proposed:

Q1. Is there a significant difference between Iranian EFL and Non-EFL learners with respect to their Home Culture Detachment?

Q2. Is there any difference between male and female participants with respect to their Home Culture Detachment?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The subjects of the present study comprised of 266 Junior and Senior, Iranian university students. Both genders were included and were aged between 19 and 43. 129 of the participants were EFL learners who were majoring in TEFL, and 137 of them were Non-EFL learners who were majoring in fields other than English, such as Sociology, Family Studies, Theology, and Physical Education at Azad University Mashhad – a city in North East of Iran-branch.

B. Instrumentation

A Home Culture Attachment Scale (HCAS) was implemented in this study. This scale has already been validated in Iranian context by Bazri, Pishghadam, and Hashemi (2013). The questionnaire consisted of 36 items with the reliability of 0.85 Cronbach alpha level (Bazri et al. 2013). It was a four point Likert scale ranging from 1 “strongly disagree” to 4 “strongly agree”.

Using Cronbach alpha, the reliability estimates of the questionnaire for this specific study was calculated. The reliability coefficient of the questionnaire was 0.88, showing an acceptable index of reliability coefficient.

C. Procedure

Data Collection

In order to see if there is a difference between the Iranian EFL and Non-EFL learners’ detachment from their Home Culture, a HCAS was distributed among the university students studying at Azad University Mashhad branch, and they were given 15 minutes to answer the questions. Except the questions relating to HCA, the questionnaire also contained demographic information. The students were asked to fill out that part as well. The information on the “gender” part was useful for determining the possibility of gender differences with respect to Home Culture Detachment.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Having collected the required data, the researcher conducted the analysis of the data and tested the hypotheses formulated for the present study.

The first hypothesis investigates the relationship between the learners' major and the degree of Home Culture Attachment.

Although the means in the groups were different by comparing the means we could say that the Non-EFL group outperformed the EFL one, a *t-test* was performed to see if the difference between the groups is significant or not.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS; EFL VERSUS NON-EFL GROUPS

G	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
HCA	1	137	131.6934	22.7753
	2	129	124.0388	22.62169

The descriptive statistics (Table 1) showed that the means of the groups were different, a *t-test* using SPSS version 20 was performed between the mean scores of EFL and Non-EFL groups to see whether the difference regarding home culture detachment is significant or not.

TABLE 2:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST VARIABILITY DUE TO HOME CULTURE ATTACHMENT, EFL VERSUS NON-EFL GROUPS

		t-test for Equality of Means						
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
HCA	Equal variances assumed	2.749	264	0.006	7.654	2.785	2.17	13.138
	Equal variances not assumed	2.749	263.24	0.006	7.654	2.784	2.172	13.137

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the means resulting from the EFL and Non-EFL learners responses to Home Culture Attachment. There was a significant difference in scores for EFL learners ($M = 124.03$, $SD = 22.62$) and Non-EFL learners ($M = 131.69$, $SD = 22.77$; $t(264) = 2.74$).

According to the results, the Sig (2-tailed) value is .006 which is less than the required cut-off of .05 therefore the null hypothesis of this research will be rejected and we can conclude that there is a significant difference in the mean scores on the Home Culture Attachment (dependent variable) between the groups. The results show that the Non-EFL learners outperformed the EFL learners and this indicates that there is more Attachment to the Home Culture in Non-EFL learners. It can be concluded that the learners' field of study, Major can play a role in the attachment to or the detachment from one's home culture.

The second hypothesis investigates the relation between the learners' gender and the degree of their Home Culture Attachment.

TABLE 3:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS; GENDER IN EFL GROUP

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Sum	female	69	132.77	22.911
	male	66	130.91	23.03

The descriptive statistics (Table 3) showed that the means of the groups were different another *t-test* was performed to see if there is a significant difference between the students' gender and their home culture detachment.

TABLE 4:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST VARIABILITY DUE TO GENDER

		T-test for Equality of Means						
		t	df	sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. Error Difference	Interval of the	
							Lower	Upper
Sum	Equal variances assumed	0.47	133	0.639	1.859	3.955	-5.963	9.681
	Equal variances not assumed	0.47	132.669	0.639	1.859	3.955	-5.963	9.682

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the means resulting from the Male and Female learners' responses to HCAS. There was not a significant difference in scores for Female learners ($M = 132.77$, $SD = 22.91$) and Male learners ($M = 130.91$, $SD = 23.03$).

According to the results, the Sig (2-tailed) value is .639 which is more than the required cut-off of .05 therefore the null hypothesis of this research will be accepted and we can conclude that there is no significant difference between male and female participants with respect to their HCA. It can be concluded that the learners' gender does not play a role in the attachment to or the detachment from one's home culture.

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of major and gender on the degree of Home Culture Attachment of Iranian university students. The results of the investigation, primarily suggested that there is a significant difference between the major of the students and the degree of their Home Culture Attachment. In other words, the EFL students are more detached from their Home Culture and this finding is in line with what Phillipson (1992) expresses about the spread of English whose effect is squeezing other languages into less and less central roles. In a similar vein Rahimi and Sahragard (2007) noted that Western values and beliefs are imposed on the learners by the medium of English language.

The second finding of this study suggested that there is no significant difference between the gender and the Home Culture Attachment of the learners. It indicated that the effect of linguistic imperialism in this study was the same on male and female participants.

V. CONCLUSION

According to the data analyzed through the statistical technique of t-test, a significant relationship between the students' Major and their home culture detachment was revealed. The Non-EFL learners were more attached to their home culture than the EFL learners and consequently, the EFL learners were more detached from their local culture than the non-EFL learners. The results also showed that there is no significant relationship between the students' gender and their home culture detachment. It indicates that both male and female learners had the same degree of home culture detachment.

We can conclude that due to the interwoven relationship between language and culture, language and identity, and because of the imperialistic nature of English language, the students whose major is EFL are more detached from their home culture. The reason for this detachment is their abundant exposure to English language during their academic studies.

Exposure to the language will affect the language learners' identity and ultimately their culture, and since English possesses a dominant nature, the EFL learners quite indirectly get affected by this dominance and show detachment from their own culture that may have more constraints.

The results thus lent support to the assumption that familiarity with Western language and culture will diminish the influence of local culture.

The results of this study can be valuable for both English language teachers, including ESP and EGP instructors, and language learners. The cultural points that are discussed in English classes, the points that exist in the textbooks and the content of the audio/visual supplementary materials used in language classes are very interesting and at the same time may be threatening. They are interesting because they attract peoples' attentions and lead to familiarity with other cultures and the increase of general knowledge of both teachers and learners. The more people are culturally knowledgeable, the more they will understand each other. The sources of many misunderstandings and misjudgments that happen in interpersonal encounters are cultural differences, when people understand each other's culture they will consequently enjoy life more. The cultural points mentioned in language classes may be threatening because they can endanger the language learners' and language teachers' attachment to their local and national cultures. They should know that their culture has a close relation with their identity. As Bazri et al (2013) pointed if the language learners lose respect for and pride in their own heritage, tradition, and culture, they will gradually lose their sense of solidarity with their national identity (p.4). This will lead to having people with not definite and fixed identities who cannot play effective and positive roles in their society. Since this study revealed that EFL learners, both male and female are equally prone to home culture detachment, as Bazri, et al (2013) stated it is recommended that they try to be more conscious of what is presented to them in language classes, while they appreciate the foreign culture, they promote their own culture and national values and consider the language class as a place for developing their identities and lives.

The findings of this paper can also be fruitful for anthropologists, sociologists and psychologists whose concerns are human traits and behaviors.

This study was performed on BA university students. It can be investigated on students at higher or lower educational levels and in different settings like language institutes, and high schools. This study can also be investigated on language teachers who teach at different educational levels and settings and it may also be performed in comparison with teachers who teach fields other than English.

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Graded English Series (GES)—A Possible Way Out for the Reform of the English Teaching in China

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Abstract—To explore an effective way to change the awkward present situation of the examination-handling education in the English teaching in China, the vocabulary was defined as the only criterion to judge the level of a person's English learning and the only quantified index to be tested, an exclusive programme was compiled to formulate a graded vocabulary list by use of the world's authoritative corpora and various word lists, a vocabulary testing and analyzing system for English passages was developed, 3,000 English passages of 60-600 words were chosen, tested and analyzed one by one by means of the newly-developed graded vocabulary list, then, the passages were automatically classified into different grades with the vocabulary coverage rate (VCR) of >95% as the criterion, each was put in order and included into the corresponding grade, and then the passages in the same grade were properly arranged to form "Graded English Series" ("GES"), which satisfied the two conditions of the vocabulary coverage scope and rate, realizing the principle of 'proceeding in an orderly way and step by step' in the real meaning and giving a possibility of achieving the effect of 'half efforts but double gains' in teaching, and thus served as a cure for the stubborn and persistent ailment of the examination-handling teaching and an effective way to exercise the quality education in English teaching.

Index Terms—quality education, quantified index, a graded vocabulary list, Graded English Series (GES), the vocabulary coverage scope, the vocabulary coverage rate (VCR)

I. INTRODUCTION

1. The minister of the Education Ministry of China, Yuan Guiren, pointed out in his speech at the meeting on the national education affairs in 2013, "We are still far from the ideal educational aims in the concept, courses, methods, administration and guarantee in education." Some focal and difficult problems in education have not been satisfactorily solved yet.

2. On 8th, Oct. 2013, an official from the Education Ministry of China stated that only 5% of all the English learners in China could freely communicate with others in English without any barriers.

3. An article on the second page of Guangming Daily of 17th, Oct. 2013, entitled "Language teaching should be returned to its natural position", said, "The focal point of the college entrance examination and the educational reform should be the reforms of the teaching courses, teaching methods and examination"

4. On 20th, Oct., China Central Broadcasting Station and China Central Television telecast news about the reform of the college entrance examination, declaring that the reform of the college entrance examination in 2014 would start from "English examination", that the value of the English examination score of former 150 would be reduced to 100 in Jiangsu Province, that the test on listening would be cancelled in Shandong Province and that every examinee could took the English entrance examination twice in a year and could select the examination of a higher score to avoid any possibility of deciding the whole life due to failure in one examination, etc.

5. On 24th, Oct., the news programme of China Central Television gave a report that the media in Britain and USA showed support for the reduction of "The English heat", and the strengthening of the teaching of Chinese as the mother tongue, which showed the Chinese had self-confidence.

6. There are still a lot more remarks on the college entrance examination on the Internet.

All these authoritative official statements about the present situation of the English teaching in China are by no means random remarks, which imply that both the contents and methods of the present English teaching in China have shown low efficiency. The tentative measures adopted for the reform of the college entrance examination seem to be regarded of significance, which, in fact, cannot be considered as measures of fundamental importance. A comprehensive reform of the English teaching in China should be studied and an effective way out should be searched for.

II. PURPOSE

The fact that the English teaching in China has achieved a great deal, especially, since the time of carrying out the policy of “reform and opening” is beyond doubt, which is met with high praise and universal acceptance in the world.

At the present, over a hundred million Chinese are learning English and the textbooks they are using are various and countless. How many English researchers and teachers have investigated how many of such a large number of English learners have learned true English up to the point where they are able to use it without many difficulties? How much time have those who have achieved the capability to communicate without any barriers spent on learning?

It is known that Chinese pupils begin English learning from the 3rd grade of the primary school and continue till the graduation from the senior middle school (college English study is not discussed for the time being), and during this period of time, 1,500 – 1,700 class hours are spent. How to evaluate the efficiency and effects of their English learning? Up to now, no reports in this regard have been found. Yet, it is strongly suggested that the vocabulary be the only single index to test and quantify how well English is being learned, simply because words have their own forms and can be counted, and they are specific, existing objectively with little possibility of subjective judgment. The fact that words may have, as it is, got a few or a number of parts of speech and meanings, which has made the issue extremely complicated, can be neglected for the present discussion. If on the basis of the unification of the form and meaning of each word and a little statistics is done, a simple figure is seen clearly: 2.2-2.0 words (3366 (the Education Ministry of China, 2003) /1,500—1,700) is obtained in one class hour. How many words can a student learn on the average in one class hour? Unfortunately, no reports of the sort have been found so far. According to our experimental records, an average student can learn 7-11 words, no matter what memory methods are used, and what is meant by learning an English word is to be able to read, write and, especially, use it in a certain context, not any isolated individual word in any word list. Therefore, the efficiency and effects of the present English teaching in China and the cost of its achieving the result can be discussed and its defects involved should be found out and possible solutions should be searched for.

It is often heard in China that the examination-handling education has made machines for examination of students, and the people are crying out for lessening the burdens for the students, rejecting the examination-handling education and exercising the quality education. What is, however, the quality education like? What is involved in it, as far as its courses and methods are concerned? These things do not seem to be clear, and almost no reports on this subject have been seen. Nevertheless, one thing is certain, and it is that the examination-handling education must be rejected and the quality education must be exercised. Where is the way out for it? Here is a possible way.

III. METHODS

1. The core of the English teaching for the quality education is the course system, and learning active words constitutes the most part of it, because the vocabulary is the only single index and criterion to test and evaluate how well English is being learned.

2. Special-purpose programmes are composed by a computer and the vocabulary is classified into grades by the programmes.

By full use of the achievements of English lexicology by all the predecessors of English teaching and linguistics research and the analytical synthesis of some of the authoritative corpuses and word lists from abroad and at home (the Education Ministry of China, 2003; “English Syllabus for Master’s Degree”, 1995; “English Syllabus for Postgraduate Entrance Examination”, 1995; “The English College Corpus”, 1995; John Sinclair, 1989; L.A. Hill, 1985; “Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English”, 1995; “Longman First English Dictionary”, 1980; Michael West, 1974; ROLAND HINDMARSH, 1980; “Syllabus for College English”, 1987), a new graded word list is created, which is basically synchronized with the word lists of the English teaching syllabuses for students of all levels published by the Education Ministry of China, but remains more stable with little subjective casualness for a long period of time.

The new graded word list is created as follows on the principle of compatibility:

6 d	1,567	(accumulative total 9,755)	number of words for skilful use of English
5 m	1,143	(accumulative total 8,188)	
4 g 6	1,726	(accumulative total 7,045)	
3 g 4	1,018	(accumulative total 5,319)	
2 smss (2)	1,462	(accumulative total 4,301)	necessary number of words for communication
1 smss (1)	2,839		essential number of basic words for further English learning

Notes:

- 1) 1 smss (1) --- senior middle school student (1) 2) 2 smss (2) -- senior middle school student (2)
 3) 3 g 4 -- Grade 4, College English 4) 4 g 6 -- Grade 6, College English
 5) 5 m -- master 6) 6d -- doctor

3. 3,000 English passages of 60 – 600 words were entered into a computer, which were compared with the newly-created word list passage by passage by using a specially-composed programme. More than 50,000 data were obtained and analyzed. Then the passages were treated and automatically classified into different grades on the basis of the VCR of >95%, and the passages in each grade were arranged according to the English grammatical structures from simpler to more difficult, to the VCRs from high to low, to the number of the appearing new individual words from a few to more and to the number of the total words of a passage from smaller to larger with some consideration given to the cultural background and disciplines, thus forming “Graded English Series” (GES).

A sample of the results from the test: (See Fig. 1)

(1)file (2)tw (3)w (4)1smss(1) (5)2smss (2) (6)3 g 4 (7)4 g 6 (8)5m (9)6d (10)7t (11)8GR
INTRI16 150 80 78 2 0 0 0 0 0 0
(12)9out
0

97.50** 100

The meanings of the titles:

(1)file – the name of the passage being tested -- INTRI16

(2)tw – the total number of the words contained in the passage -- 150

(3)w – the number of the appearing individual words in the passage -- 80

(4)1smss (1) - the number of the appearing individual words in the passage which are involved in 1smss (1) (2,839)-- 78 and the VCR -- 97.50%**, showing that the passage serves as one text for 1smss (1)

(5)2smss (2) - the number of the appearing individual words in the passage which are involved in 2smss (2) (1,462) (now part of the work which should be fulfilled for 3 g 4)-- 2 and the VCR -- 100% (accumulative total)

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

“GES” resulting from the present study satisfied the two conditions of the coverage scope and the coverage rate of the vocabulary of all grades, thus realizing the principle of ‘proceeding in an orderly way and step by step’. Due to the full use of the strong points of the English teaching methods of all kinds so as to bring into full play the subjective initiative of the learners, the effects of ‘half efforts but double gains’ were achieved.

1. The coverage scope and the VCR

In the process of carrying out the teaching syllabus, the coverage scope and the VCR are two crucial items, which were restricted each other. If the first condition could not be satisfied, the material selected could not meet the demands of the syllabus, while if the second condition was not satisfied, low efficiency of learning and no good gains would appear, with the result that the material selected could not be considered ideal.

The present textbook systems usually consisted of individual lessons or units, which were too few to contain all the words required in the teaching syllabus. (This is also one of the conclusions our study has come to.) Because of not enough teaching materials, low VCRs would result, which made learners feel it too difficult to learn English, so that no successful English teaching of good quality would be attained.

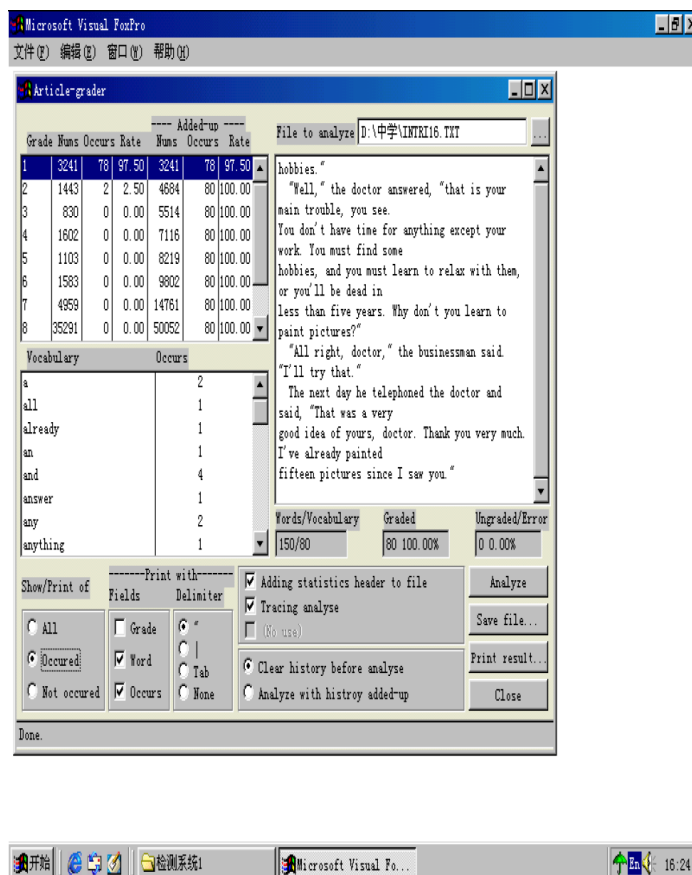


Fig. 1 A sample of the results from the test

“GES” included quite a large number of passages of as many as 48 disciplines, and all the passages were chosen on

the basis of the VCR of >95% and contained all the words required in the teaching syllabus, which acted as an objective guarantee for the fulfillment of all the tasks stipulated in the teaching syllabus and which was by no means possible for any of the present English teaching systems.

“GES” highly appreciated the achievements of the predecessors of the English teaching and tried its best to make full use of the resources which had been proved to be effective.

“New Concept English” Book 2 and Book 3 (L.G.Alexander,1997) were rare resources of high quality for English teaching, which were believed to be the common treasure of culture of mankind. One of the reasons why NCE had been used so widely and for so long a time was that they contained most of the essential words of the English language. Not any other well-designed textbooks such as “Essential English”(C.E. Eckersley,1960), “English for Today”(National Council of Teachers of English,1975), “Follow Me”(BBC,1982), “English 900” (1978), “An American Family’s Album”(Will Weaver,2010) and various textbooks published in China, could be spread as widely as NCE. Why, however, had NCE not become the official English textbook for English learners in China? In fact, many English teachers tried to use NCE in their classrooms, but finally, it was proved that NCE could not satisfy the demands of the Chinese English learners. The fundamental reason for this was that there were still not enough passages to have a higher recurrent rate of the basic words. So there was still some room for NCE to improve.

A vocabulary testing and analyzing system was developed, by means of which 3,000 passages of 60 – 600 words were chosen from our own English-Chinese corpus, tested one by one, compared with the newly-created graded vocabulary and automatically classified into their corresponding grades on the basis of the VCR of >95%. Then the passages were properly arranged in order in each grade to form “GES”, which met the above two conditions.

The experimental results have shown:

1) About the coverage scope

500 passages were selected for Grade 1 (smss (1) – 2839), 2,463 words of which appeared and 376 words of which were not covered, including absence, acceptable, access, accusation, acid, additional, etc. initiated by “a” for example. 318 in the 376 words appeared in 273 of the passages for Grade 2 (smss (2)), and the remaining 58 words, such as acid, Arabic, basin, breeze, whip, worldwide, etc. were absent, all of which were included in the following passages. Since these passages were not suitable to be included in Grade 1, there were two possible ways to be dealt with:

① neglected for the time being ② deliberately included in extra exercises

2) About the VCR

Take the first 857 passages tested for example.

① Of the 857 passages, 480 were classified into Grade 1 and provided 1,816 new individual words with an average of 3.78 for each passage. The results obtained from the test were analyzed and composed into a curve, which was identical to the imitation combination curve and accorded with the law of the index curve. (See Fig. 2)

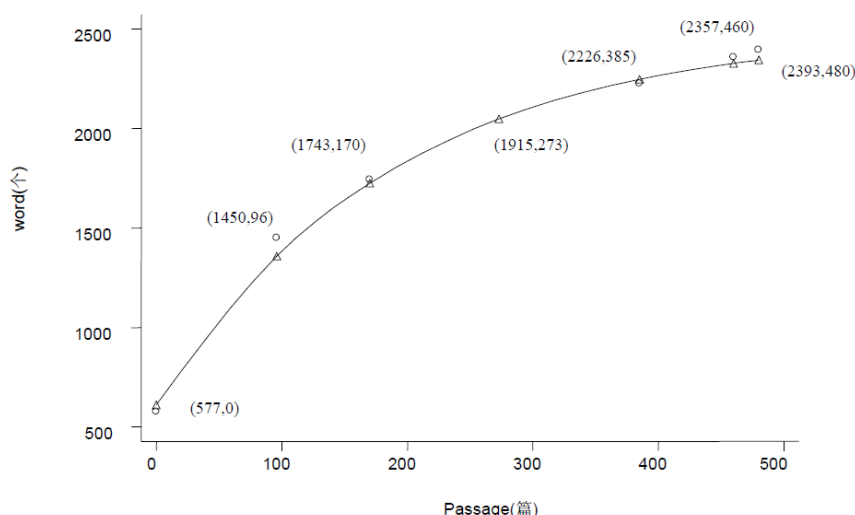


Fig. 2 Schematic curve for the results in the first experimental stage experiment 第一阶段检测结果示意

Formation of the imitation combination curve: $\hat{Y} = 2495.007 - 1883.102 * 0.9947531^x$; through hypothesis test, be of statistical significance ($F=157.72, P=0.0002, R^2 = 0.9875, R_{adj}^2 = 0.9809$).

Notes: The starting point of the zero in the curve means that in the present project, there are 60 lessons for essential English including 577 words, on the basis of which:

① in the first group of 96 passages, there appear 873 added new individual words (accumulative total 1,450), with an average of 9.09 words per passage;

② in the second group of 74 passages (accumulative total 170), there appear 293 added new individual words (accumulative total 1,743), with an average of 3.95 words per passage;

③ in the third group of 103 passages (accumulative total 273), there appear 172 added new individual words (accumulative total 1,915), with an average of 1.66 words per passage; altogether 6 groups in the test.

The curve indicated that, at first, there appeared larger numbers of added individual words (12 at most), but as the number of passages increased, the total number of the added individual words increased gradually with a slower rise till a nearly stable one, and, on the other hand, a gradual decrease of the new individual words was seen, which implied that only if the material was selected properly, as in the present experimental study, with the VCR of >95% as the criterion for selection, the more the passages with more words, the fewer the new individual words in the unit time and the absolute number of the new individual words decreased with the result of a higher recurrent rate.

With an artificial interference, the 480 passages were arranged according to the English grammatical structures from easier to more difficult, to the VCRs from high to low, to the number of the appearing individual new words from a few to more (4 for Passage 1; 6 for Passage 2; 9 for Passage 3; 5 for Passage 4; 7 for Passage 5; 6-7; 7-7; 8-6; 9-5; 10-7) and to the number of the total words of a passage from smaller to larger with some consideration given to the cultural background and disciplines, thus rendering a guarantee that any learner learned the words of the corresponding grade in a certain grade and a true realization of the principle of "proceeding in an orderly way and step by step, with the best use of the limited time and the greatest gains of learning.

The results of the present study have shown that the practice of reading, listening, speaking and writing on a large scale by using such material as this is certain to delete the barriers of too many and too difficult words in a short time which have perplexed the English learners for a long time and thus greatly enhance the efficiency and effects of the learning.

②Of the 480 passages, 250 were classified into Grade 2 smss (2) (**4,301**). The number of individual words in each passage and its corresponding number of passages are as follows:

number of words in each passage	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
number of passages	17	33	42	48	32	22	17	17	8	6	3	1	2	1	1

From the above table, it could be clearly seen that there were 242 passages each of which contained fewer than 10 new individual words of Grade 2 smss (2), accounting for 96.8% of all the passages and that there were 194 passages each of which contained fewer than 6 new individual words of Grade 2 smss (2), accounting for 77.6% of all the passages, with an average of 4-5 words for each passage. This fact indicated that the learning in the first grade should serve as a solid foundation for the learning in the following grade. Unsound foundation in the former grade would exert negative influence on the effects for learning in the following grade. On the other hand, a solid foundation in the former grade would indicate smoother and easier learning, higher efficiency and better effects in the following grade.

③Of the 480 passages, 76 were classified into 3g4 (**5,319**). The number of individual words in each passage and its corresponding number of passages are as follows:

number of words in each passage	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
number of passages	17	21	18	8	8	1	1	1	1	0	0

There were only an average of 3 new individual words of 3g4 for each passage, which has further proved the above conclusion.

2. These 500 passages are classified on the basis of the VCR of >95%.

① All the passages were arranged with an artificial interference from growing out of nothing, from a few to more, from simpler to more complicated, and from easier to a bit more difficult, in accordance with the principle of 'proceeding in an orderly way and step by step'.

The number of new words to be learned increased from growing out of nothing, from a few to more and from slow to quick;

The number of the new individual words appeared from more to fewer with a high recurrent rate so as to make reading from difficult to much easier.

In "The Graded English Series for Junior Middle Students 400 Passages" (GES for JMS 400) as one of the results of the present study, there were 197,259 words altogether with 2,013 individual words, among which 1,644 recurred more than 5 times naturally, accounting for 81.67% and only 90 words appeared once, accounting for 4.5%.

② The learning in the higher grades was made easier;

③ All the passages were arranged from easier to a bit more difficult for the grammatical structures and the same or similar structures were put together relatively intensively, with a high recurrent rate and certainly better effects. Most of the English grammatical rules and sentence patterns were repeated in the passages for reading, listening and speaking. Take the infinitive for example. In the first 150 of the 500 passages for Grade 1 (smss(1)), there appeared 16 sentences which contained the infinitive, say, 'it is important to do':

129 (order number of the passage) **It is very important to put** a fire out before you go away.

131 ..., so **it is often difficult to tell** whether they are boys or girls.

132 A lot of people were looking for typists at that time, so **it was not difficult to find** interesting work.

133 When you are travelling abroad, **it is important to follow** the customs of the country that you are

visiting....

From the above results tested, it was not difficult to see why “GES” possessed such strong points as being of higher efficiency, being of better effects, and being used with fewer hours, greater interest, smaller burdens of learning and lower cost.

3. In the present project, various teaching methods were applied by bringing into full play their strong points according to specific circumstances so as to achieve as good results as possible.

The predecessors of the English teaching have created a great many teaching methods, such as the functional and communicative method, teaching with a certain circumstance as background, the direct method, the sentence pattern method, the listening and speaking method, the grammar and translation method, suggestopedia, etc., which should be the common treasure for culture of mankind and most of which were quite effective in a way.

It was widely believed in the field of the English teaching in China that not any of the above teaching methods alone could satisfy the demands of learning English for the Chinese learners.

“GES” tried its best to absorb their good points but not adhere to a certain method only, and choose a certain one according to the specific circumstances of the contents to be learned, bring into full play the strong points of various teaching methods and motivate the subjective initiative of the learners, so as to achieve the effects of half efforts but double gains.

For example, when the subject of time, day, week, month, season and year was learned, the method of questions and answers was used:

How many seasons are there in a year? There're four seasons in a year.

What are they? They're spring, summer, autumn and winter.

Which season do you like best? I like autumn best.

Why do you like autumn best? I like autumn best, because it's not very hot, neither very cold. It's cool. The weather is often pleasant.

A dictation exercise was added and evident effects were attained.

V. A THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL THINKING ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORD LEARNING AND READING

Culture study starts from word learning. The creator of the theory of similarity and the authority of the thinking science, Prof. Chang Guangjian, believes that to develop the language ability of a student is the most important of all and reading serves as the main measures to attain the goal. The purpose of learning words for a student is for reading and writing, first of all for reading, and only through reading and writing can the results of word learning be strengthened.

According to the research achievements on the memory mechanism by modern nerve physiologists and psychologists, especially German psychologist Hermann Ebbinghaus, it has been found out that perpetual memory of certain facts is achieved by their continuous repetition or repetition at certain intervals.

What the human brain has memorized may be gradually fadingly forgotten, which is related to time.

How well one can memorize a certain subject is not only associated with the strength of the stimulus, but directly with the times of repetition as well.

Repetition is the mother of memory. Repeat, repeat, and repeat again!

Repetition is needed when new knowledge is being learned.

Repetition is needed, too, for the consolidation of the knowledge learned. To review itself is repetition.

A memory curve is drawn on the basis of the relationship among the times of repetition, time intervals and the speed of fading forgetting (See Fig. 3), which accounts for the two facts: first, the more the times of repetition of the knowledge, the more slowly it will be fadingly forgotten; second, the knowledge is forgotten rapidly at the beginning, and then slowly. Therefore, the first reviewing work should be done in time and should be strengthened within 12 hours. The intervals of review must be short at first and then a little longer. (Hermann Ebbinghaus, 1980)

A thorough understanding of the subject should be gained through mastery of all the relevant materials as soon as possible. Time and labour will be saved through appropriate arrangement of reviewing work.

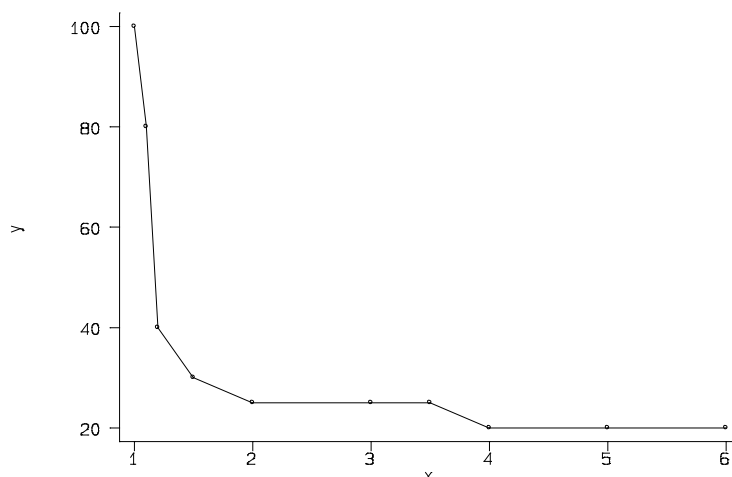


Fig. 3 Memory Curve

x – number of days

y – percentage of memory for material at different time intervals

Principal Chang Renli of Jingan College for Teacher's Further Study in Shanghai promoted an idea of "the best period for development" and created a successful sample of correctly treating the relationship between word learning and reading according to the memory laws while children learned Chinese as their mother tongue. (Zhang Renli, 6th, July, 2004)

"GES" was intended for the learners with the English learning as the learning of the second language, which was similar in some ways to and different in some other ways from the language learning as the mother tongue. Their fundamental similarity was that both were language learning, which had got almost the same objective laws. The difference between them was that the children who began to learn their mother tongue had already got its listening and speaking ability, but were not able to read and write, while the English learners with English as the second language were not able to listen, speak, write and read at the beginning and had to start from zero. "GES" put enough emphasis on the cultivation of all these four capabilities, neither with negligence for any of them nor with the same attention to all of them at the same time, i.e., a little more attention was paid to one or another of them at different periods of learning and different learning materials were dealt with in different ways.

In "GES", there were 60 lessons, which contained 577 basic words, intended for the learners to study phonetics and some of the essential grammatical rules. The primary practice of reading, listening, speaking and writing well prepared for the later all-round practice of reading, listening, speaking and writing with passages in large numbers.

3,000 passages in "GES" were screened and classified. In each grade, the passages were divided into collections for reading, recitation, dictation, cloze, etc, respectively, which embodies a proper treatment of passages of different themes, styles and disciplines. These passages were put in order by making full use of the memory laws so that basic words and essential grammatical rules recurred naturally necessary and enough times through the process of learning for the purpose of the formation of perpetual memory.

The results of the present study accord with the memory laws and the order of cognition of man. "GES" will exert an imperceptible influence of the material and dialectical world outlook on the learners who use it.

VI. PART OF THE ACTUAL EXPERIMENTAL RECORDS

For years, experiments and tests in many respects and on different levels have been conducted as far as the social effects of "GSE" are concerned.

1. Classes for beginners

1) Four classes for beginners, March, 2002 – July, 2004, with 15 pupils for each and one and a half hour after class every week. Practice proved that different levels of pupils could finish the 60 lessons of English essentials within 60 -100 hours and that after the 60 lessons, it was possible to start the practice of reading, listening, speaking and writing with passages on a large scale. And most of the pupils managed to learn more through 100 – 150 hours of further study than what junior middle school students should learn.

class	starting date	Grade in which pupils were when starting	Dead line	Total hours used	Progress table		
					For 60 lessons	For NCE	For GES for JMSS 400
1	02. 3	5	04. 7	25months-150	97	53 lessons, B2	150; 3/h
2	02. 9	6	04. 7	17months-102	41	64 lessons, B2	250; 4/h
3	02. 9	4	04. 6	20months-120	94	29 lessons, B2	100; 3/h
4	03. 7	5	04. 7	14 months -84	63	21 lessons, B2	60; 3/h

2) The experimental results of 2004 -2012:

①The pupils who had just finished Grade 5; from July, 2003 till July, 2006; starting from zero; spending 210 hours in three years; finishing study of 60 lessons, "NCE" Book 2 (96 L),"NCE" Book 3 (42 L covered),"The Graded English Series for Junior Middle School Students 400 Passages"("GES for JMSS 400"), and "A Grammatical Collection of Choice Specimens from GES for JMSS 400"; tested by the national college entrance English examination papers of 1980-2006; as far as all the parts for grammar and vocabulary tests were concerned, over 90% of the correct rate was attained, which showed that 210 hours of study by using "GES" could help students reach the level in English required at the time of the graduation from the senior middle school. (By the way, "GES for JMSS 400" covered all the grammatical items tested in the national college entrance English examination papers of 1980-2006.)

②Starting from 2006, pupils of Grade 3 were enrolled. The experimental results have showed that only 1/3 of these pupils could arrive at the goal of the project as planned, and the other 2/3 of the pupils spent 100 -120 hours on the 60 lessons, while 3/4 of the pupils of Grade 4 were able to carry out the plan of the project and attain the goal. The experimental results of ten years have shown that it was not true that the younger and the earlier for a child to learn English as a second language, the better; it was the best time for a pupil to begin learning English as a second language in Grade 4; pupils of normal intelligence can raise their English learning efficiency by 3-4 times by using "GES"; average pupils can double their learning efficiency, too.

2) In 2003, Class A of the two graduate classes of Grade One used "The Graded English Series for College Students Band 4 600 Passages", while Class B conducted the normal teaching. In 2004, both classes entered for the national College English Test Band 4. For Class A, 28/30 (93.3%) passed the test with the highest result of 86, and for Class B, 20/30 (66.7%) passed the test with the highest result of 73, which showed that the present material of "GES" had its own outstanding strong points and could result in much higher efficiency and much better effects in students' English study.

3) Experiments in postgraduate English teaching

104 of the 105 postgraduates of Class 2002 in Medical College, Nantong University passed the unified English examination for a master's degree in Jiangsu Province with the highest mark of 90 (one student) in June, 2003. The student who failed to pass the examination in 2003 succeeded in 2004 with a mark of 72. 137 of the 140 postgraduates of Class 2003 succeeded in the examination on 13th, June, 2004. All the students used "GES" Grade 4 (CE Grade 6) and Grade 5 (for master). The effects of "GES" in English learning and teaching were evident.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

"GES" possesses four excellent characteristics:

1. Rejecting the barrier of too many and too difficult words at a time in learning so as to greatly raise its efficiency;
2. The grammatical structures and other items of essential English are naturally recurrent, steadily deepened, strengthened and solidified, so as for the effects to be raised greatly;
3. Quite a number of easy passages for reading make students gradually form the good habit of reading in the context
4. Different levels of students can arrange their timetables for themselves according to their own needs and capabilities by choosing a method most suitable for them to bring into full play their subjective initiative and motivate their own potentialities.

In summary, "GES" has made the best use of various kinds of resources of English materials, made a scientific arrangement and carried out the principle of 'proceeding in an orderly way and step by step'. The core here is that fewer hours are used to fulfill the present goal of teaching and higher learning efficiency and better effects are achieved. "GES" has been proved to be a good English teaching system and an effective way for quality education, lessening of students' learning burdens and a cure for the stubborn and persistent ailment of examination-handling education.

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The Impact of Undergraduate Students' Learning Preferences (VARK Model) on Their Language Achievement

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Abstract—Different learning style models have been developed and used in EFL education. One of these models is VARK model. The VARK model was proposed by Fleming (2001). VARK is a questionnaire that provides users with a profile of their learning preferences. The ultimate goal of the study is to investigate the impact of undergraduate students learning preferences (VARK model) on the language achievement. At first, the participants were selected from all the humanities, basic sciences, engineering, and life sciences three fields of study were randomly selected. Then from each field of the study, 30 undergraduate students were selected through convenience sampling. The total number of the participants of the four sciences (life, humanities, basic science, and engineering) was 360. They were selected from undergraduate students at state university, Islamic Azad University, Farhangian University, Payamenoor University and Medical university of Sistan and Baluchestan province. After selecting participants, the researcher administered the two instruments (VARK questionnaire and standardized proficiency test). After analyzing these two tests scores, the results indicated that reading style is the dominant learning style among Iranian EFL learners and there is a significant relationship between learners' fields of study and their learning styles. Also, students with reading style have the highest language achievement and the students with visual personality type have the lowest performance.

Index Terms—learning styles, undergraduate students, VARK

I. INTRODUCTION

Educational research has identified many factors for some of the differences in how individuals learn (Reid, 1987). Learning styles, as one of these factors, are of widespread interest in the education area (Dunn & Griggs, 1998). The concept of individualized "learning styles" originated in the 1970s. It has recently gained popularity (Sprenger, 2003) and has been of much concern to a number of L2 studies (Peacock, 2001). There have been a number of definitions of learning style(s) have been defined in many different ways by different scholars. For example they were defined as general approaches used by students in order to learn a new subject or to cope with a new problem (Oxford, Ehrman, & Lavine, 1991).

Learning styles make the framework through which learners acquire knowledge and use their preferred approaches to process information in order to learn successfully. According to Larkin and Budny (2005: 1), "learning style is a biologically and developmentally imposed set of personal characteristics that make the same teaching and learning methods effective for some and ineffective for others". The review of literature shows that some certain people favor a singular (e.g., visual) mode of learning; whereas, others tend to favor integrated modes of learning (e.g., auditory plus visual) (Sarasin, 1998). Foley (1999) argued that the concept of learning style is very useful for identifying the internal and external variations in how individual learners learn and process information. He also believes that learning style helps individuals to improve their interaction within education environments. Learning styles have turned to have a real effect on the achievement of students (Cassidy, 2004 & Reese, 2002). The VARK model was proposed by Fleming (2001). Learning style was defined as "an individual's characteristics and preferred ways of gathering, organizing, and thinking about information. According to Fleming (2001) VARK is in the category of instructional preference because it deals with perceptual modes" (p.1). VARK stands for Visual (V), Aural (A), Read/Write (R) and Kinesthetic (K). According to Fleming (2001) Visual learners prefer maps, charts, graphs, diagrams, highlighters, different colors, pictures, word pictures, and different spatial arrangements. Aural learners like to explain new ideas to others, discuss topics with other students and their teachers, use a tape recorder, attend lectures, and discussion groups use jokes. Read/Write learners prefer lists, essays, reports, textbooks, definitions, printed handouts, readings, web-pages and taking notes. Kinesthetic learners like field trips, trial and error, doing things to understand them, laboratories, recipes and solutions to problems, hands-on approaches, using their senses and collections and samples. Although VARK is an important model to improve foreign language education, its effect on Iranian tertiary students (university undergraduates) attending general English was not properly investigated. Moreover, it is not known whether Iranian undergraduate students with different majors prefer the same learning strategy or not and it the

dominant learning style is not known. Furthermore, it is not known whether the students' learning preference affects their language achievement or not.

II. OBJECTIVES

This study had three main objectives: The first objective was to determine language style preferred by Iranian undergraduate learners. The second objective was to determine the dominant learning style among language learner with different majors. The third objective was to identify whether language learners' learning styles influence their general language achievement or not.

In line with the research objectives, the following research hypotheses were raised.

H: there is no significant correlation between the learners learning styles and their fields of the study?

H: as this question is exploratory, no hypothesis is stated.

H: Learning style has no impact on language achievement of undergraduate students

III. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Definitions of Learning Styles

Felder and Silverman (1988) defined learning style as an individual's preferred way of acquiring, retaining and processing information. Foley (1999) defined learning styles as the unique behavior of learners adapting to their environment. These definitions differ slightly from Keefe and Ferrell (1990) who saw learning styles as "the composite of characteristic cognitive, affective, and physiological factors that serve as relatively stable indicators of how a learner perceives, interacts with, and responds to the learning environment" (p. 59). According to Curry (1981) learning styles relate to the differences in cognitive approaches and processes of individual students' learning. The Fleming (2006) VARK model of learning proposes that learning is composed of four major styles: visual (V), aural (A), read/write (R) and kinesthetic (K). Visual (V) learners learn by seeing and watching information. Materna (2007) suggested that visual learners learn best by viewing information presented in formats such as demonstrations, videos, and films. Mayzler and McGann(2010) explained that the visual learner is the person who learns best when she or he is seeing the information - the brain absorbs the information best when the information is delivered through the eyes. Stash (2007) defined visual learners as people who prefer pictorial information.

B. Learning Style Theories

Learning style theories refer to the diverse styles of learning people use for the purpose of gaining knowledge. Zepeda and Mayers (2004) reviewed learning style theories to those of Carl Jung in 1927. Learning style theories describe the extent of the learning approach used by individuals in learning different subjects or topics. Assumptions and foundations of learning style theories are different from each other. The basic tenets of each of the learning style theories are diverse and influence the learning attitude of students. This thesis, however, will specifically focus on the following learning styles: Kolb Experiential Learning Theory, Dunn and Dunn, VAK, Felder-Silverman Learning Style Model, the Gregorc Model and VARK model. These theories are considered as the most frequently used theories in educational research.

C. Kolb's Learning Style Theory

This learning style is based on Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory, which states that the learning process is composed of four stages, each having its own individual learning style preference (Sirin & Guzel, 2006). According to Kolb (1984) his perspective on learning is called experiential for two reasons; first, "to tie it clearly to its intellectual origins in the work of Dewey, Lewin, and Piaget," second "to emphasize the central role that experience plays in the learning process" (p, 20).

Kolb (1976, 1984) categorized the four stages of a learning cycle as: Concrete Experience (CE), Reflection Observation (RO); Abstract Conceptualization (AC) and Active Experimentation (AE), the model demonstrated in Figure 2. Concrete experience refers to the process of learning where an individual learns through actively experiencing an activity. Reflective observation, on the other hand, refers to the learning process where an individual learns through conscious reflection about the activity. Abstract conceptualization pertains to the learning process where an individual learns by being presented with a theory or model that has to be observed. Finally, active experimentation refers to the learning process where an individual learns through testing a theory or model. It is also implied that each individual has his own strengths within each of the four stages and this is the basis of his preferences for learning style (Bell & Griffin, 2007).

The Kolb learning style theory identifies four types of learners, labeled as diverger, assimilator, converger, and accommodator. Dornyei (2005) described the four types of learners as pure and extreme cases, as Individual learners may display some combination of the four types.

According to Kolb, Boyatzis and Mainemelis (2000) learners who are between concrete experience and reflective observation are designated as divergers or reflectors.

D. VAK Theory

VAK theory is considered to be one of the classical learning theories in the educational field, it is best known as VAKT, visual (V), auditory (A), kinaesthetic (K) and tactile (T) (Mackay, 2007). Dunegan (2008) noted that the first development of VAK was in 1920, by psychologists and teaching specialists such as Fernald, Keller, Orton, Gillingham, Stillman and Montessori. The Federal Aviation Administration (2009) outlined that a VAK learning style is based on the student receiving vision, hearing and touch. Miller (2001) described a VAK learning style as the perceptual, instructional preference model which classifies learners by sensory preferences. The Intel Corporation (2007) reported that this theory has proven to be a popular and simple way to identify different learning styles. Dreeben (2010) suggested that the practical mode of VAK assessment, which includes asking learners about the way they receive information, is a strong reason for using it in the educational field. Byrnes (2010) stated that “the VAK model can be utilized to assist in incorporating different learning techniques into classroom instruction and activities” (p. 4). Mackay (2007) proposed that according to the VAK learning style, most people have a leading learning style that may be aligned with other preferences. A study conducted by Willis and Hodson (1999) using the VAK theory determined that 29% of elementary and high school learners are visual learners, 34% are auditory, and the remaining 37% are kinesthetic learners. Similarly, a study by Lisle (2007) used a VAK learning model in determining the learning style preferences of adults who experience learning difficulties. The study showed that (34%) participants preferred a visual style, which was an equal proportion to those who prefer an auditory style (34 %). Of the remaining students, (23 %) were kinesthetic learners and (9 %) had multimodal learning style preferences.

E. Learning Style and Academic Achievement

In addition to gender, age and culture, academic achievement has also been investigated to determine if it has any influence and effect on learning style preference. Nolting (2002) emphasized that students’ academic achievement positively increases if they are aware of their learning style and how they learn best. The relationship between learning styles and academic achievement in different level of education was examined by researchers.

A study which evaluated the relationship between learning style and students’ academic achievement was conducted by Wallace (1992) at four elementary schools in suburban Syracuse, New York. The study aimed to evaluate the achievement of elementary school students who preferred learning alone or with peers. A sample of 114 students was selected from grades three, four and five to respond to the Dunn, Dunn and Price learning styles inventory in the first phase of the study. Then, 17 students who strongly preferred learning alone and 17 who strongly preferred learning with peers were selected for the next stage of the study. The student participants were introduced to a small group learning method and were given five lessons with the option of working alone or with peers each time. An ANCOVA was employed to evaluate the result which showed statistically significant differences between the two groups. Students who preferred to learn alone achieved significantly higher mean scores than students who preferred to study with peers. Students who strongly preferred to learn alone did not achieve significantly higher scores when they opted to learn alone, also students who strongly preferred to study with peers did not achieve significantly higher scores when they opted to learn with peers.

Also Collinson (2000) conducted a study among elementary students to investigate the influence of learning style on academic achievement. The sample of 110 students was selected randomly from grade three, four and five public school students. The researcher used a learning style inventory developed by Dunn and Dunn to assess students’ learning styles. Academic achievement of students was based on Stanford Achievement Test (SAT) composite scores obtained from student cumulative folders. A one way ANOVA was used to measure the relationship between learning style and academic achievement. The results showed significant differences between academic achievements with three out of twenty two learning style elements. The study concluded that low achievers prefer to learn in a formal classroom with peers during the afternoon, whereas high achievers preferred studying along with self-directed objectives.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

Research design depends on the nature of research questions. Due to the nature of the present study research question a post facto survey study was used. The research dependent variable was the first question of the study was learners’ learning styles and the independent variable was learners’ majors. The dependent variable of the third research question was learners’ language achievement and the independent variable was learners’ personality type with four levels.

B. Participants

The participants of the present study were selected through multistage sampling procedure. At first from all the humanities, basic sciences, engineering, and life sciences three fields of study were randomly selected. Then from each field of the study, 30 undergraduate students were selected through convenience sampling. The total number of the participants of the four sciences (life, humanities, basic science, and engineering) was 360. They were selected from undergraduate students at state university, Islamic Azad University, Farhangian University, Payamenoor University and Medical university of Sistan and Baluchestan province. All the received the VARK questionnaire. However, 300 (80 from engineering, 70 from humanities, 80 from life students, and 70 from basic sciences) returned the completely

filled in instrument. The student's age range was between 19 -25. They all studied in Iran and none of them studies in the foreign countries.

C. Instruments

To achieve the aims of the study, the following scales were used.

VARK questionnaire: it is used for determining the preferred learning style by students. It consists of 16 multiple choice items and provides information about the ways that student's take-in and give-out information, and creates a profile of their learning preferences.

The VARK stands for Visual, Aural, Read/write, and Kinesthetic modalities that are used for learning information. Visual (V) preference includes the depiction of information on charts, graphs, flow charts, and all the symbolic arrows, circles, hierarchies and other devices that instructors use to represent what could have been presented in words. Students who have this preference usually like to learn from pictures and power points and like to use colored markers to mark texts and notes.

Aural (A): mode describes a preference for information that is "heard." Students with this learning style report that they learn best from lectures, tutorials, and tapes and from talking to other students.

Read/Write (R): preference is for information displayed as words. Not surprisingly, many academics have a strong preference for this learning style.

Kinesthetic (K) learning style refers to the "perceptual preference related to the use of experience and practice (simulated or real)." Although such an experience may invoke other learning styles, the key is that the student is connected to reality, "either through experience, practice or simulation." This instrument suggest students to make a selection (a, b, c or d) for each question, but allow them to delete a question or choose more than one option if they want to. In order to avoid being biased to any particular answer, additional information about specific questions was avoided. Students were encouraged to choose more than one response if they think the context is not clear.

Standardized proficiency test: this test was adapted from Oxford Solution test. It consists of three parts: grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension. The original test consists of 70 multiple choice items but it was reduced to 60 items. The reliability of this instrument was estimated through KR-21. The reliability index was 0.81 which was acceptable.

3.5 procedures:

D. Data Collection Procedures

This study was carried out in different phases. First, the fields of the study were selected. Then, the participants for each field of the study were selected. The research set an appointment with them in one of their classes. After explaining the purpose of the study to the administrators and teachers, the research administered the two instruments. Each student was asked to fill in the two instruments within 90 minutes. Next, the instruments filled out by each student were coded. One numerical code was assigned to each participant. Later, the personality type of each participant was identified and his/her score on language achievement was reported. The data were entered into SPSS (version 16) and in line with research questions, appropriate statistical procedures were applied.

E. Data Analyses

The data of this study were through different statistical procedure including descriptive statistics (frequency, percentage, mean) and inferential statistics (one way Anova, Chi-square). The data needed for their first question (VARK questionnaire) were analyzed through chi-square. The data needed for their second question (proficiency test) were analyzed through one way ANOVA. The data needed for the second questions were analyzed through descriptive statistics and Chi-square.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

1. The First Research Question

As stated earlier, the first research question of the study was stated as follows:

To test the hypothesis, the descriptive statistics (percentage of each personality type) for each field of study are shown in the following tables.

TABLE 4.1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PERSONALITY TYPES ACROSS FIELDS OF STUDIES

		style				Total
		reading	visual	audio	Kinesthetic	
Majors	Humanities	60 (79%)	5 (6.6%)	6 (7.8 %)	5 (6.6%)	76
	Engineering	22 (36.6%)	12(20%)	16 (26.6%)	11 (18.3)	61
	Basic science	20 (33.3%)	13(21.6%)	12 (20%)	15 (25%)	60
Total		102 (58 %)	30 (15%)	34 (17%)	31(16%)	197

As the results in the above show, 197 participants attempted the VARK questionnaire. 60 (30 %) of the participants were studying basic science majors. 61 out of 197 (31%) were engineering students, and 39 % of the participants were studying humanities subfields. Generally speaking, 51.7 % of the participants preferred reading style, 15% preferred visual style, 17 % preferred audio style and 16% preferred kinesthetic style.

Therefore, it could be strongly argued that reading style is the dominant learning style among Iranian EFL learners. The results also show that 79% of the students of humanities preferred reading style, 6.6% preferred visual style, 7.8 % preferred audio style, and 6.6 % preferred kinesthetic style.

Moreover, the results show that that 36.6% of the students of engineering preferred reading style, 20% preferred visual style, 26.6 % preferred audio style, and 18.3 % preferred kinetic style.

Finally, the results show that 33.3 % of the students of basic sciences preferred reading style, 21.6% preferred visual style, 20 % preferred audio style, and 25 % preferred kinesthetic style.

2. Research Question Two

The second question of the study addressed the relationship between learners' fields of study and learning style. The null hypothesis was: **there is no significant relationship between learners' fields of study and learning styles.**

The results of Chi square test are shown in the following table.

TABLE 4.2
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEARNERS' FIELDS OF STUDY AND LEARNING STYLES

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	38.337 ^a	6	.001
Likelihood Ratio	39.725	6	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	24.036	1	.001
N of Valid Cases	197		

According to the above table, there is a significant relationship between learners' fields of study and their learning styles ($X^2 = 38.377$, $df = 6$, $p = 0.001 < 0.05$). Therefore, the null hypothesis is strongly rejected at $p = 0.05$.

3. Research Question Three

This question addressed the impact of learners learning style on their language achievement. The hypothesis was: **learners' learning style does not have impact on their language achievement.** To test the hypothesis, the mean scores of the four groups were analyzed through one way analysis of variances. Results including descriptive statistics and one way Anova are shown in the following tables.

TABLE 4.3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE GROUPS' LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENT

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
reading	102	48.04	7.7	.769
Audio	34	25.23	7.2	1.2
Visual	30	21.79	6.6	1.01
Kinesthetic	31	24.19	9.1	1.9
Total	197	36.02	14.47	1.02

According to the above table, the mean of students with reading style is 48.04, the mean of the students with audio style is 25.23, the mean of the students with visual is 21.79, and the students with kinesthetic style is 24.19. That is, students with reading style have the highest language achievement and the students with visual personality type have the lowest performance.

TABLE 4.4
ONE ANOVA FOR LEARNERS' LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENT

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	30358.693	3	10119.56	174.856	.000
Within Groups	11343.227	196	57.874		
Total	41701.920	199			

The results in the above table show that there is a significant difference between the students with different learning styles and their means on language achievement ($F = 174.856$, $df = 3$, $p = 0.001 < 0.05$). Therefore, the null hypothesis was strongly rejected and it could be said that learners' learning style significantly affect their language achievement.

In order to locate the source of differences, a post hoc test (Tuckey) test was run. The results are shown in the following table.

TABLE 4.5:
RESULTS OF POST HOC TEST (TUKEY)

(I) groups	(J) groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Reading	Audio	22.8 ^a	1.50	.001
	Visual	26.25	1.38	.001
	Kinesthetic	23.85	1.82	.001
visual	Kinesthetic	1.044	2.11	.960
	Audio	-3.44	1.74	.202
Audio	Kinesthetic	-1.04482	2.111	.960

The results in table 4.5 show that the difference between the mean of the students with reading style is statistically different from the mean scores of the students with the other learning styles ($p = 0.001 < 0.05$). However, there is no significant difference between the mean scores of the other groups ($p > 0.05$).

VI. DISCUSSION

In the first phase of the study, the participants dominant learning style in general and learning styles of students with different majors of study were identified. Then, the relationship between learners' majors and the learning styles which they prefer was identified. After that, the impact of learners' learning styles on their language achievement was estimated. Data were collected and analyzed using descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. The learning style preferences of students were determined according to their responses to the VARK. The data were subjected to quantitative analysis to evaluate differences in learning style preferences between students classified as humanities, engineering, and basic sciences. The key findings are discussed under the following themes which represent the research questions:

1. Dominant learning styles preferences,
2. Relationship between learners' majors and learning style preferences,
3. Learning styles and language achievement

Predominant learning styles preferences

Descriptive statistics, including frequencies, percentages and chi square students with different majors determined to address research question one. The single VARK group comparison showed that the reading style was preferred by all groups of the participants. That is, in general Iranian university students demonstrate a preference to use reading style while learning English as foreign language. The results also showed that that learning style preference varies among the students with different majors. About 80 percent of students with humanities majors preferred reading style. This is probably due to the fact that in education system of Iran students of humanities such as Persian literature, law, political science, etc make use of reading texts as the only sources of their knowledge. They also try to develop their knowledge memorizing and understanding the texts.

Findings of the present study revealed the reading style was the first dominant preferred style for all participants with different majors. This result is not consistent with the findings of Jackson-Allen et al. (1994), Littin (2002), Reese et al. (2008), Kia et al. (2009) and Williams (2010), who argued that kinesthetic style was the most dominant learning style for children. Therefore, the difference between the findings of the present study and the findings of the related studies might be rooted in the other variables such learners' age which need further exploration by those interested in this field.

The results also showed that the percentage of style learning preferences among learners with different majors varied significantly. For example, while kinesthetic learning style was preferred by only 6.6 percent of students of humanities, it was preferred by 18.3% of students of basic sciences, and 25 % percent of engineering students. Such a difference might be because of the nature of these fields and the contents of the materials which they receive. Therefore, further research is needed to deeply explore the reason for different learning style preferences among students with different fields. Another reason might be the differences between the contexts in which this study and the other studies were carried out.

Relationship between learners' majors and learning style preferences

The chi square results revealed a significant relationship between learners' majors and the learning style preferences. That is, the frequency of learning style preferences by students with different majors was not the same. Therefore, it could be strongly argued that students with different majors do not make use of the same learning styles to learn language and consequently they cannot be taught through the same teaching strategies and styles.

Learning style and language achievement

The results of ANOVA test showed that there was a significant difference between language achievements of Iranian students with different learning style preferences. Students who preferred reading style had better language achievement than the students with the other learning style preferences. The significant association between learning style preference and reading achievement found in the current study result is consistent with previous research. Virostko (1983) assessed the preferred time of day learning style sub-factor in relation to reading with two student groups from grade three and four. One group studied reading when reading was scheduled at times preferred by them, the other group studied reading at a scheduled time that was a mismatch with their preferred time. The study found a significant effect for time of day learning style preference on reading achievement. Students who studied at the time they preferred achieved

greater results in reading than those who did not. Furthermore, MacMurren (1985) found a similar effect for the intake learning style sub-factor on reading achievement. Forty students from grade six who had high or low preferences for the intake element on Dunns' inventory were divided randomly into two experimental groups. One group studied reading with an intake environment while the others studied without. Significantly higher reading achievement was reported for students whose intake sub-factor learning styles preference matched the intake environment in both groups. The results of the present were also consistent with previous studies (Wallace, 1992; Yazicilar et al., 2009). Further to this, other researchers emphasized learning styles and academic achievement and the interaction of these characteristics to school grade (Collinson, 2000; Matthews, 1996; Yazicilar et al., 2009).

VII. CONCLUSIONS

In line with the results of the study, it could be concluded that:

1. This study concludes that learning style is one of many factors that affect students'.
2. Students who prefer reading style are more successful than the students who prefer the other styles.
3. Students' majors influence type of learning style preferences

The results indicated that reading style is the dominant learning style among Iranian EFL learners and there is a significant relationship between learners' fields of study and their learning styles. Also, students with reading style have the highest language achievement and the students with visual personality type have the lowest performance.

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Increasing Motivation at University Level: A Paradigm of Action Research

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Abstract—The purpose of this study is to understand practitioner's teaching practices in order to bring changes and improvements. The study is conducted through the framework of action research. Thus, action research is always considered as a practice changing practice (Kemmis, 2007). The prime object of the study is to improve teaching practices and suggest some new emerging trends to implicate in teaching and learning practices. However, the study doesn't only narrate the problem, but it also resolves and improves the teacher practices. The study tends to describe the practice and reflection employing group interviews as a data collection instrument. Considerably, the collected data was qualitatively analyzed to develop understanding to improve practices and increase motivation among students learning English as a compulsory subject. The study reports that students' motivation is increased with new teaching practices which are student centered. These teaching practices in the action phase indicate that students are satisfied with student centered learning.

Index Terms—action research, motivation, teaching practices

I. INTRODUCTION

The study is meant to increase the motivational level of Lasbela University undergraduates who seemed less motivated in learning English as a foreign language. As a teacher researcher I identified the problem and planned to solve it and suggest pedagogical implications with the cooperation of my colleagues. The primary focus of the study is to increase motivation in classes within the framework of participatory action research. The purpose to design the study was to improve own teaching practices for effective learning and teaching. Action research is a new approach to teaching practices which is different from traditional classroom research. And this is discussed in the literature review. The study addresses the research questions and objectives as follows:

A. Research Questions

1. What are the reasons for lack of motivation in compulsory English Classes?
2. How can I increase motivation among students and improve my teaching practices?

B. Objective of the Study

1. Identify reasons which cause lack of motivation among students
2. Explore teaching practices to enhance motivation for learning English

After this introduction, I present literature review to understand action research and reflective practices adopted to improve teaching. This review will help me to explore produced literature in action research paradigm and relate it to my study.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Within a few decades, teaching has been considered as a researching framework in which teachers are known as researchers. This paradigm shift in teaching has indicated that teaching practices may be subject to change and improvement. Teachers' interest has increased in inquiry of their teaching practices concerning reflective thinking, theories, professional development and curriculum design and deliberation (Wittrock, 1986). This motivation in teaching has enhanced among teachers as researchers who work under an umbrella of action research. However, the theoretical construct of action research helps me to understand it systematically. Action research is defined in various ways. According to McNiff (2002), action research is the process of transformation, a systematic process to observe, describe, plan, act, reflect, evaluate, modify (cited in Bughio, 2012). It is generally considered as a practitioner's research. However, it is a matter of concern that how action research is different from traditional research. In traditional research, researcher investigates or explores for the well being of others. In action research, the researcher investigates

the problem related to their teaching practices with colleagues to solve the problem of immediate concern (Buglio, 2012). This difference shows that action research tends to solve the issue concerned with researchers and teachers practices, while traditional research is bound to benefit others through investigation and exploration. Further, a brief history of action research is described to have in depth view of action research.

In terms of historical perspective on action research, Lewin (1948) is deemed as a father of action research in the educational world of teacher research. Actually, action research was seen as a spiral of phases each of them is made of a circle which consists of plan, action and fact finding of the action (Lewin, 1948, p. 206). In 1960s, Corey employed the kind of research developed by Lewin, at the teachers' College at the Columbia University. In the context of education, he believed educators to be an agent of change as they perform functions of research and its application (Ferrance, 2008). Furthermore, Corey (1953) defined action research as "the sequence of our teaching is more likely to change and improve our practices than about someone's exploration of his teaching. However, action research was abundantly used in 1970s, since then it has been one of the evolving research paradigms for teacher researchers who use it to investigate problem and solve it through practical implications. Moreover, the modern version of action research focuses the participatory approach for describing action in a particular context. In this regard, it is action which develops theory on the basis of effective participatory approach and practice, viewed as applied theory (Elliot, 1991, cited in Buglio, 2012). Furthermore, I discuss some of the central principles of action research

A. Main Principles of Action Research

The prime object of action research is focus on action and research simultaneously. The action engages respondents in the framework of planned intervention, in which some strategies are developed in the domain of research. Then, intervention takes place through action in accordance with assumed research problem or question which needs a change or improvement (Burns, 2005, pp. 58-59). In addition, there are some features of AR. It includes systematic collection of data, enacted planned intervention, analysis of data, reflection on findings for more observation and action. This process makes researchers understand that action research is planned, organized and reflective practices in teaching and learning language. Thus, the produced literature on action research suggests that it carries subjective approach because it addresses local situations and the problems of the participants with the aim to investigate and deliberately change and improve practices. And however, this distinctive feature makes AR different from other practices in research (Crookes, 1993, 2001). Now, I present the most suitable definition of action research which my study takes as a basis for research. According to Kemmis and McTaggart (1992, p. 10) "to do action research is to plan, act, observe, and reflect more carefully, more systematically, and more rigorously than one usually does in everyday life". This refers to that action research is a systematic process which is planned, acted, observed and reflected. Furthermore, I present some other definitions to have a broader view of action research.

1. Action research changes peoples' practices, their understandings of their practices and conditions under which they practice" (Kemmis, 2007).
2. Action research is a practice composed of sayings, doings, and relatings (Kemmis, 2007, p. 1).
3. Action research is a form of self-reflective inquiry carried out by practitioners, aimed at solving problems, improving practice, or enhancing understanding" (Nunan, 1997, p. 229).
4. Action research is a meta-practice: a practice that changes other practices" it is always a practice changing practice" (Kemmis, 2007).
5. The combination of action and research renders that action a form of discipline inquiry, in which a personal attempt is made to understand, improve and reform practice. (Hopkins 1985, p. 32).

These definitions about action research advocate that it is a practice which aims at improving and bringing some changes and reflecting on what is done. Moreover, I present some main characteristics of participatory action research. There are at least seven most important characteristics of PAR (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2005, p. 566-567); PAR is a social process, participatory, practical and collaborative, emancipatory, critical, reflexive, recursive and dialectical, aim to transform both theory and practice. These features of participatory action research provide researchers a particular view of action research. With it, an idea is developed that action research is composed of social, collaborative, practical and reflexive processes. The purpose of above mentioned features is to focus on sound research which must respect much more than the cannons of methods (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2005, p. 68). Likewise, I now present action research as an evolving paradigm in Pakistan.

B. Action Research in Pakistan

In Pakistani context, action research has been widely used as an evolving paradigm of reflective practices. Teachers view this sort of research as a new framework. Thus, research and teaching are known as two different fields (Rasul, 2009, p. 1). Thus, for more clarity, it is elaborated in the following words:

It is assumed that all this would come from the world outside the classroom - as a matter of fact from the administration, syllabus/book designers, policy makers etc. The teacher is a powerless practitioner of the plans laid by others, a feeble follower of the path carved by others. Research is something that teachers view as distant from them and it is considered to be something that professionals do and teachers only use it instead of discovering it for themselves (Halai, 2011).

Importantly, research needs to be viewed to bring improvements and changes in Pakistani educational institutes (Dean, 2009). This idea is strengthened and supported to enhance professional development through action research (Mohammad & Kumari, 2009, cited in Halai, 2011). In addition, Bughio (2012) supports the view of Rasul that there is a great need of systematic and principled research and universities can play an important role in creating change agents for improving teaching and research. These researchers do not favor the teaching and research considered as separate areas.

The above mentioned literature in context of my research has helped me to develop a plan for my research study. As a teacher researcher, I observed that my students were less motivated to attend English compulsory classes. This observation helped me to identify actual problem students had and I decided to improve my teaching practices. So I planned to act, observe and reflect my teaching ways for the purpose of improving practices.

III. METHODOLOGY

I have chosen action research as a method for my study because it aims at improving and changing practices. Since I am a practitioner and methodology for my research must meet practitioner's research needs. I state that action research has provided an effective framework for finding out problem, developing knowledge in collaboration of colleagues and solving the problem. As I have already discussed that framework of action research is better choice compared to traditional research for the present study. For, action research tends to answer researcher's issue closely associated with his/her teaching practices.

A. Model of Action Research

For my research, I have chosen action research model developed and devised by Kemmis and McTaggart (2005; 2007). This model best suits my study because it answers my research questions which I have designed for the study. Kemmis and McTaggart (2005) offer some features of action research model. It doesn't only involve mechanical steps but it also includes a spiral self-reflective cycles as follows: (a) planning a change, (b) acting and observing the process and consequences of the change, (c) reflecting on these processes and consequences, (d) replanning, (e) acting and observing again, (d)reflecting again, and so on.

B. Data Collection

The data was collected through group interviews. Group interviews are useful where 'in-depth information is needed' to know how respondents think (Bell, 2006, p. 162). Watts and Ebbutt (1987) explain the advantages of group interviews as:

such interviews are useful...where a group of people have been working together for some time or common purpose, or where it is seen as important that everyone concerned is aware of what others in the group are saying. (In Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000, p. 286)

First, I interviewed a group of students to know the problem. However, the reported problem was a lack of motivation among undergraduate students learning English as a compulsory subject. The students were from Marine Sciences and Agriculture Faculties. Second, I interviewed four of my colleagues in Department of English, Lasbela University, Baluchistan. And one of my colleagues showed willingness to work as a co-researcher in my study. Teachers are addressed as A, B, C, D, while students are addressed with pseudonyms.

C. Data Analysis

I collected data from teachers and students. Then, I analyzed data qualitatively through field notes, reflection on observation, interviews and discussion. A number of themes emerged from interviews and discussions contributed to my understanding. Further, an interpretative approach was used to interpret and analyze these emerging themes. Thus data analysis increased my understanding of the problem and contributed to planning strategy for improvement. This data will be lucrative for students, teachers and researchers in my context.

IV. FIRST PHASE: RECONNAISSANCE

This phase started with interviews for students. And the type of interview was focus group. I interviewed some of the participants from two classes, Bs 2nd year Agriculture and Bs 2nd year Marine Sciences. This focus group interview helped me to understand that problem was with my teaching methods which were not working well and caused a lack of motivation. Now my task was to increase motivation among students. Interviews with students lasted for 30 minutes and during this process I made notes which helped me to find out different themes developed through process (e.g., dissatisfaction with teaching method, lecture method teaching, teacher centered classes, no friendly environment, no rapport between teacher and students).

Participants showed that they were not happy and satisfied with lecture based method I used in teaching English as a compulsory subject. They believed that they were not enjoying learning because they were bound to listen and listen. It is drawn from their talk that they were sick of traditional methods of teaching English. Here are some extracts noted from their interviews.

- a. I am not happy with the way teaching is done. Because it has no role stored for me to play (Naveed)

- b. I am interested to participate but here I am only listening (Ahmed, Agric).
- c. It is only teacher centered class. There is nothing interesting but focused listening (Nawazish, Marine)
- d. I am not motivated to attend the class because of lack of motivation from teacher (Asma, Marine).
- e. There is no friendly environment provided. Teacher comes delivers lecture and goes without any feedback from us (Anita, Agri).

These views indicate that students reported dissatisfaction with traditional method of teaching. The main idea is that students are interested to learn through new methods. They believe that they are not motivated with one style of teaching which brings no change in teaching and learning practices. These traditional methods of teaching caused students focus on memorization, rote learning in contrast to creativity and understanding.

A. No Friendly Environment

Students want that they should be taught in friendly way. A teacher is not friend to them while teaching. They report that actual learning takes place in the friendly and comfortable environment. There is a huge gap between teacher and student. And because of this gap, learning is affected.

- a. I want my teacher to be friend to me because I like this way of teaching (Javed, Marine)
- b. My teacher is very strict. I want him to be good to me (Ali, Marine)
- c. I am very anxious in unfriendly environment which is not conducive to learning so my learning is affected (Asad, Agri)

These statements recorded show that students need friendly teacher who listens to them and meets their learning needs. There must be a good relation between students and teacher. There are many themes developed from the discussion and group interviews. The problem identified was lack of motivation among students for learning English.

B. Solution to the Problem

After interviews with students, I discussed the issue with my colleagues in Department of English, Lasbela University, Baluchistan. The group discussion was quite fruitful. It helped me to understand how to plan to solve the problem. Colleagues reported many things to increase motivation among students. They stated that teachers must create friendly environment for learning. Furthermore, they stated as follows:

1. Teacher should provide incentives for students to learn actively (teacher, A)
2. I am a teacher and I am very friendly to my students and this relationship I like most and help me understand more about students (teacher, B).
3. As a teacher, I try to understand needs of my students. And this process works effectively in my teaching because being familiar with their needs, I practice course which almost meets their needs (teacher, C)
4. I prefer that classes should be student centered because actual learning takes place and I find students more energetic and interactive in classroom (teacher, D).

Importantly, discussion with colleagues helped me to find out the solution to the problem. My colleagues suggested a number of things which play an important role in increasing motivation among students. The main themes developed from discussion are interactive class, provision of some rewards (prize, appreciation), encouraging students for participation, various classroom activities, and listening students' needs. After this, I noted that feedback from teachers and students was almost similar in context. They suggested that to increase motivation is to encourage students providing some incentives and respecting them as individuals.

C. Action Phase

Keeping all in account, first, I acted to change the method to teach students with new method and that was student centered. I told them that there would be student+ centered class. In acting this process, I assigned some roles to students to perform in the class. And the roles assigned were written on the papers. I invited them to pick one of the papers to select their role. And these roles were such as teacher- student, doctor- patient, boy - girl husband-wife actor-actress, shopkeeper - customer manager- client. These roles seemed interesting to students and I observed they were happy to perform because they had time to explore themselves in different roles. First time, as a teacher researcher, I realized that students were enjoying learning and my new teaching method was working effectively.

Furthermore, I also provided them as friendly environment to perform different roles. In doing this I joined them as a student and they felt happy. My changed attitude made students' learning quite easy. After the class, I received some feedback from students. And they said that they had never enjoyed such class because they had hardly opportunities for sharing and speaking in the class.

D. Providing Some Incentives

This phase was collaboratively supported by my colleague; A. she helped me to manage the class. She worked with me as a teacher researcher. We went with some prizes in my hand. We told students that these prizes are for them and they will be given on the basis of their performance in today's class. We observed that all students wished to participate and perform better to win the prizes brought for them in the class. We gave them some classroom based activities such as; quiz, **true** or false, **fill** in the blank, pointing mistake in a sentence.

It seemed a lively class because students were so excited to answer the questions I asked them orally. The class was very interactive. All the students actively participated and won the prizes by performing best. As a result, students began to communicate this with other fellows who were studying other courses. This type of interaction with students created an impression on students that they freely shared their needs and problems as students. As teacher researchers, we observed that students were truly motivated to show their interest in learning. They were interested to take part in activities. With motivation, we found that students were confident now and they tried to be active learners. This was what we found missing in teaching. After the class, I received the feedback from students in group interview and discussion.

a. The class was very good. I enjoyed it very much. I am motivated to learn in such way to teaching and learning. It was interactive. It was activity based learning which motivated all of us. (Anara, Marine)

b. Today's class was simply fantastic because I won the prize which pleased me that I had an ability to win competition. I am motivated to study in activity centered learning (Saja, Agri).

c. The class was motivating because it motivated all of us to participate in different activities. The class was completely student centered. I was very active but no matter I did not win any prize but I hope to win in the future if such activities are included in teaching methods.

The above interesting and motivating answers show that students were active learners. The reason was simply different method of teaching which helped me to increase motivation among students. Later, I thought to conduct needs analysis session in the class to know students' general and specific needs.

E. Listening Students' Needs

This session was conducted to listen to students' needs. It was aimed to keep myself aware of what students wish to learn and what they are taught in classroom. Students reported that the designed course doesn't meet their needs. All of them have different purposes to learn English language. The main purpose of this needs analysis was to communicate this to the policy makers and curriculum developers who do not design syllabi according to students' needs. And this is possible when students are listened carefully and counseled properly. I heard the needs that I was unaware of my own students.

This listening showed some positive effects on students because the rapport was developed between me and my students. They were free to share their needs and were very communicative throughout the session.

After listening to students' needs, I planned to teach them according to their needs. I changed my course of compulsory English with the guidance of Head of Department. He suggested that I should use new books designed for undergraduate students in Pakistan. These books are EAP (English for academic purpose), ESP (English for specific purpose) and EFE (English for employment). Then I replaced the following with new ones mentioned above (e.g., High School English grammar, Practical English grammar, Grammar at glance)

On the first day, I used English for academic purpose book. I suggested students to buy the book or get photocopies for reading. I taught students Unit 1 from the text which stated as follows:

F. Introducing Yourself

Work in pairs and draw a flower with five petals. In the center write your name and its meaning. In the petals write (a) your star sign and date of birth (b) your major subjects (c) one hobby (d) one good habit, one bad habit (e) languages you can speak

Then, introduce yourself to the person sitting beside you; tell all the information written in the flower. This beginning seemed a sort of change a change in my students. This change was noticed when they happily started practicing the unit. Some of the students passed remarks which I received at the time of teaching.

a. It is wonderful unit. I am happy to introduce myself which I have not done before (Asma).

b. I feel better to write my good and bad habit. It seems very interesting session (Hali, Marine).

c. We are enjoying interacting with one another because we listen and are being listened by. The activity is simply new and interesting (Noor, Agr).

This introducing session helped me to know that it really played a role in increasing motivation in the class. Students were satisfied with doing exercises from a new book which is based on communicative teaching approach. It focuses on communicative skills.

After the class, I received feedback from students about the class and a new book introduced. Students remarked that the class was interactive which they had not experienced before. They stated that they are motivated with such interactive activities. In addition, they maintained that they feel confident in speaking English and sharing their knowledge with the class

G. Observation Phase

I have seen that my new teaching practices have become very effective because I observed it through increasing levels of motivation among participants. After the classes I had a group discussion with my students. They seemed quite satisfied with the changed teaching methodology. With discussion, I made some notes during the process. I share some extracts drawn from discussion.

a. Sir, I wish that this new way of teaching may be used because it is interactive and learning process (Naheed, Agr).

b. Keeping in view old method, I claim that this way of teaching is more useful. I saw a change in course and it seemed to meet our communicative needs (Asma, Marine)

c. I prefer that this book may be finalized as the course for us because it covers meaning and form of language (Asad, Agri).

Apart from this phase, I went to discuss this change with my colleagues who had suggested changing the pattern of teaching in order to increase motivation among students. I got some other useful ideas in discussion. These are changing the pattern of assessment; clarifying the criteria students will be assessed with, meeting parents to know about students, encouraging students to participate in debate competitions, organization of class. This is a new planning for further practices. These ideas need to be implemented in classes next semester.

H. Reflection Phase

Action research is a practice about practices. I have developed a number of things from focus group interviews with teachers and students. They have suggested very lucrative and practical pedagogical implications for teaching and learning. As a teacher researcher, my role in the research was to know my teachings practices and improve them. In addition, the main object of the study was to increase motivation among less motivated students for learning English. I observed that students' learning was less effective and less motivating so therefore I identified the problem through discussions with group of students and then with my colleagues. I drew some meaningful ideas related to improving teaching practices.

- a. Always encourage students to participate in activities
- b. Respect students as individuals
- c. Understand students differing styles of learning
- d. Focus Students cultural, social and geographical differences
- e. Integrate meaning and form focused learning
- f. Lesson planning
- g. Planning and re-planning
- h. Making and remaking practices to improve and change existing practices

These themes are very important and the plan is required to implement them in order to bring a change in practitioners' practices. Kemmis (2007) states, "action research is always a practice changing practice" (p. 05). This idea best suits and defines my research as well. I agree that it is to change teaching practices we as teachers do in classroom.

The study advocates that students' motivation is a matter of great concern in learning English language in general in, Pakistan in particular. This is a new approach to solve the issue with the help of other fellows. Broadly speaking, research on L2 motivation has suggested many frameworks for investigation. However, these frameworks have been used either quantitatively or qualitatively for exploring L2 motivation. Whereas, action research approach is adopted to increase motivation among L2 learners. This approach doesn't not show either students are instrumentally motivated or integratively. But, it tends to find out the problem of lack of motivation and solves it through classroom implications in teaching methodology.

V. CONCLUSION

The study indicated that Lasbela University students' motivation to learn English was increased with the changing teaching strategies in classroom. Students showed boredom and lack of interest in old teaching methods (e.g., teacher centered class, no time for students' talk, lack of rapport). The study used action research paradigm to identify problem, to solve it by suggesting some pedagogical implications. In terms of pedagogical implications, the study shows that learning should be learner-centered and meaning focused wherein learners feel free to use English and participate actively in academic activities such as pair work, group discussion and public speaking. As a teacher-researcher, I have learnt that teachers must be aware of their students' needs and learning problems. As the result of it, the actual learning takes place as this study has suggested through saying, doing and relating forms to real practices. The study concludes that action research is a paradigm to use in teaching and keep improving practices. The study also suggests that such approach needs to be implicated in classroom pedagogy in Pakistan.

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The Impact of Group Formation Method (Student-selected vs. Teacher-assigned) on Group Dynamics and Group Outcome in EFL Creative Writing

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Abstract—This study investigated how group formation method, namely student-selected vs. teacher-assigned, influences group dynamics as well as group outcome. In line with its experimental comparison group design, two intact classes of junior English Literature students (N=32) participated in this study over one academic semester. Community model was employed to teach creative writing to both classes, but, while in one class students (N=16) were required to self-select their working partners, in the other they were assigned into groups by the teacher, based on their learning styles (N=16). The quantitative and qualitative data, obtained through students' initial writing drafts, revised texts and an end of the course written report, underwent One way Analysis Of Variance (ANOVA) and content analysis. The findings indicated that although teacher-assigned groups had no definite advantage over those of student-selected in terms of group dynamics, they noticeably outperformed student-selected groups in terms of outcome. In particular, teacher-assigned groups were more task oriented and thus more successful at accomplishing group task -here revision. The results suggest that group formation method is a contributing factor to the success of group work.

Index Terms—student-selected group formation method, teacher-assigned group formation method, group dynamics, group outcome

I. INTRODUCTION

The use of small groups has been increasingly prevalent over the last two decades. Lack of tolerance on the part of learners to just listen to the teachers' lectures, and the need to hone students' interactive and problem solving skills are among the main reasons for this rapid growth. In fact, this mode of learning serves two primary purposes: (1) it aims to increase learner's autonomy, and (2) to influence and enhance the quality of learning (Fink, 2004). However, empirical studies show that these objectives are not always achieved. In other words, many students have negative experiences in using small groups which further endangers the product of group work. Fink's study reveals that most of these problems refer to issues such as unfairness, student's accountability and so forth.

However, group work in classroom has been widely supported through the literature. Research has shown an advantage for group learning on such factors as developing metacognition (Blakey & Spence, 1990 as cited in Neilson, 2006), promoting critical and creative thinking (Cohen, 1999; Fink, 2004) decreasing anxiety (Oxford, 1997) and most notably enhancing learning (Cohen, 1994). Moreover, Harmer (2007) pinpoints some of the main advantages of group work (p. 166):

1. It promotes learner autonomy by allowing students to make their own decisions in the group without being told what to do by the teacher.
2. It dramatically increases the number of talking opportunities for individual students.
3. It encourages skills of cooperation and negotiation.
4. It recognizes the old maxim that 'two heads are better than one'.

The theoretical advantages typically associated with group learning suffer from what Bossert (1988, as cited in Cohen, 1994) calls "a black box approach" (p. 23) in which the necessary conditions for the realization of the reported benefits are ignored. Whatever the countless benefits of group work in educational setting, Light and Littleton (1998, as cited in Russell, 2010) warn against regarding it as a kind of educational panacea. In other words, simply putting students in groups of 3 or more does not guarantee the benefits which are usually associated with cooperative learning. In this regard, Jacobs and Hall (2002) poses some questions to ponder about before setting any kind of group work (p. 53):

1. How big should groups be?

2. How should groups be formed?
3. How long should groups stay together?

There are many other questions to ask, but the one investigated in the present study refers to group formation method, that is how the groups should be formed. According to Harmer (2007), either the teacher forms the groups or allows the students themselves to select whom they are going to work with. Literature refers to these two conditions as teacher/instructor – selected/assigned and student/self – selected, respectively. Several studies (Basta, 2011; Chapman et al., 2006; Mitchell, Reilly, Bramwell, Solnosk, & Lilly, 2004) indicate that whenever students are set free to do the group member selection, they prefer to work with their friends with whom they feel more relaxed. Teachers, however, form groups either at random or based on certain criteria including personality traits, academic heterogeneity and so forth (Harmer, 2007). In the following section we reflect on some of the earlier studies which delved into the issue of group formation method and its impact on group work effectiveness.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Literature on the role of group formation method on group effectiveness is bifurcated into two types. Some articles have mainly focused on the effectiveness of a single method (teacher-assigned or self-selected) while others have taken a comparative step to assess which method outperforms the other (teacher-assigned vs. self-selected). At the same time, group effectiveness has been looked at from two different perspectives. A number of studies (Bacon, Stewart, & Silver, 1999; Hilton & Philips, 2008; Mitchell et al., 2004; Russell, 2010) have examined effectiveness in terms of group dynamics which concerns "group's internal characteristics" that encompass factors such as group members' cooperation, trust, acceptance, commitment, teacher's role and any further feature which is internally linked to group work (Dornyei and Murphey, 2003, p. 4). However, some recent studies (Bachman, 2010; Mahenthiran & Rouse, 2000; Mushtaq, Murteza, Rashid, & Khalid, 2012) have begun to emerge which investigate this issue by analyzing performance outcomes as measured through final grades. This typology is consistent with Cohen's (1994) concept of productivity of small groups which she argues either refers to academic achievement or issues related to group dynamics (e.g. cooperativeness, degree of participation, workload sharing, commitment, etc). Regarding both types the literature includes contradictory results (some strongly advocate teacher-assigned groups while others prefer the other). In addition, most of the existing published articles (Bacon et al., 1999; Connerley & Mael, 2001) has taken a non-experimental/quasi-experimental design or has only investigated a single method which in turn restricts the conclusions that can be drawn. In what follows we look at some of these studies.

A. *Studies on the Impact of Group Formation Method on Group Dynamics*

Bacon et al. (1999) explored how a set of teacher-controlled contextual variables including team assignment method affects students' group experience. To this end, they surveyed a number of MBA students about their best and worst experiences. The results reported self-selected grouping as positively associated with best team experiences. Particularly, high degrees of cooperativeness, goal commitment and the feeling of group member's indispensability were among the major benefits that students linked to self-selection. More recently, the result of studies by Hilton and Philips (2008) and Russell (2010) led to the same conclusion.

A more in-depth study of this issue was conducted by Chapman et al. (2006) who developed a survey to investigate the effect of two group formation methods (random or self-selected) on a variety of group experiences including group dynamics, students' attitude toward the group experience and outcomes. The study indicated that self-selected method led to better results concerning all of the variables under investigation. Specifically, students who were allowed to select their own group members were better able to communicate together, more enthusiastic about group work, more interested in their group members, more positive toward group work, better able to deal with intra-group conflicts and had higher sense of group accomplishment but were less task-oriented than students of teacher-assigned groups.

While several studies confirm the positive effects of self-selected group formation method, not all research studies favor the use of this method in classroom setting. Having allowed students to choose between self-selected and teacher-assigned grouping method, Mitchell et al. (2004) investigated how the choice of group membership influences students' preferences for choosing their working partners. To this end, both groups' attitude toward group member selection was assessed both before (pre-test) and after group work (post-test). Results revealed that attitude of self-selected groups negatively changed from pretest to posttest, while no significant difference was reported among those of teacher-assigned. To further explore this issue, the students were inquired about the reason for this shift in attitude. The most recurrent theme emerged from students' comments referred to the strong tendency among self-selected groups to talk rather than work. Johnson et al. (1993, as cited in Mitchell et al. 2004) further admit that groups which are formed according to the selection of students are less task oriented than those of other methods.

B. *Studies on the Impact of Group Formation Method on Group Outcome (Academic Achievement)*

The relationship between self-selected group experience and final grades was recently explored by Mushtaq et al. (2012). The survey results indicated a high degree of "group homogeneity", "goal commitment", "group potency", "workload sharing", "supportive behaviors", "participation", "group performance" and "group viability" for this group formation method. More importantly, multiple regression analysis revealed that all these variables positively influenced

final grades. Earlier studies (Lawrenz & Munch, 1984; Mahenthiran & Rouse, 2000) also highlighted that regardless of group members' academic ability, when students are paired with their friends; it leads to higher project grades than teacher- assigned groups.

In contrast, Oakley, Felder, Brent, and Elhajj (2004) point out that when students are allowed to select their own team members they tend to choose those who are at their own academic level. This, they argue, endangers one of the major benefits of group work that is, peer teaching and accordingly puts the product of group work at risk. Similarly, Slavin (1990 as cited in Mitchell et al., 2004) and Kagan (1994 as cited in Mahenthiran & Rouse, 2000) advocate the use of academically heterogeneous groups formed by the teacher.

Additionally, Dillon and Cheney's (2009) exploration of self-selected vs. teacher-assigned personality-based grouping revealed that although the latter method leads to better products, it suffers from high degrees of intra-group personal conflicts which further decreases overall satisfaction with the course.

The studies cited above demonstrate that findings about group composition are mixed regarding whether students should be allowed to select their own group members or the teacher should take the responsibility of group formation. Moreover, all of these researches have been conducted outside the field of L2 studies. The following sections provide a detailed description of the study that aimed to investigate: (1) whether and to what extent group formation method, namely student-selected vs. teacher-assigned, influences group dynamics and (2) whether and to what extent group formation method (student-selected vs. teacher-assigned) influences group outcome.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

Thirty two junior English Literature students from two intact classes (class A=16, class B=16) doing their B.A at Guilan University took part in this study over one academic semester. Participants included male (N=3), and female (N=29) students, and their age ranged from 20 to 28. Besides, at the time of conducting this study all of the participants had prior knowledge on academic writing and had already passed a few related courses, such as advanced writing, essay writing and letter writing courses.

B. Materials

Teaching Materials

Parts of three books were nominated as the textbook of the course including: (1) *"Imaginative writing: The elements of craft"* (Burroway, 2011), (2) *"The Routledge creative writing course book"* (Mills, 2006), and (3) *"Creative writing-20: A curriculum guide for secondary level"* (Saskatchewan Education, 1998).

Assessment Materials

Assessment of Group Outcome (the quality of performance-creative writing)

Since this study was conducted in an EFL creative writing course, the outcome of group work concerned students' creative work. Validity of creativity tests heavily depends on the validity of the theory upon which it is based. The suggested methods of creativity assessment in literature are either based on a specific theory of creativity (such as divergent thinking theory as in divergent thinking tests), judgment of experts of the field (consensual assessment technique) or attributes theoretically linked to creativity (such as originality, voice, etc. as in rubrics).

However, theories have their own limitations. For instance, most theories of creativity have proved to be invalid for assessing creativity in domains such as writing (Baer & McKool, 2009). Also, consensual assessment technique suffers from the problem of subjectivity and resource intensiveness since it requires an average panel of 10 expert judges to assess creative works based on their expert knowledge of what creativity means in a specific field (Baer & McKool, 2009). Besides, although rubrics (especially analytical types) are one of the most reliable methods of evaluating writing, the major problem arises from the criteria on which they are developed (Blomer, 2011). In other words, most of suggested rubrics for creative writing contain attributes which are irrelevant to creativity (e.g. spelling, grammar, punctuation and syntax are correct, organization is clear, etc.) (May, 2007; Merrell, 2006; Newman, 2007), are too hard to measure (e.g. voice is distinctive, work is original, scenes and events are memorable, etc.) (Kroll, 1997) or left some key features behind. Thus, this study, informed by the existing literature, developed an analytical rubric -- considered as the most reliable and consistent method of assessing creative writing (Shraplin & Morris, 2013)-- for its own study purpose.

To develop the rubric, three steps of rubric development including (a) identifying performance criteria, (b) setting performance level, and (c) creating performance description was followed (Wolf & Stevens, 2007). The first stage aims to determine the major criteria which define performance in a specific domain. Since creative writing focuses on creativity of language, features of creativity would function as the performance criteria. To this end, the literature on the topic was consulted. It was found that there was a consensus over 4 major qualities of creative writing including *image, figures of speech, characterization, and story*.

The next step for developing rubrics is to determine the number of performance levels appropriate for the evaluation. This decision totally depends on the purpose one wants to achieve (Wolf & Stevens, 2007). In this study levels were set after collecting the data to ensure inclusion of the range of performance levels which might appear in actual writings. Finally, every rubric requires a description of each performance level to guide and facilitate the assessment process

(Wolf & Stevens, 2007). To clarify what each performance criterion means and how it can be achieved, the aforementioned sources were used. All criteria together with their descriptors are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
CREATIVE WRITING RUBRIC

Criteria	4. Excellent	3. Good	2. Fair	1. poor
Image (visual, auditory, gustatory, olfactory, tactile & kinesthetic)	Maximum use of concrete significant details (there is no or just 1 abstraction, generalization and judgment) and/or figures of speech to create images	Several uses of concrete significant details (they are significantly more than abstractions, generalizations and judgments) and/or figures of speech to create images	Some uses of concrete significant details (the number of details, and abstractions, generalizations and judgments is almost the same) and/or figures of speech to create images	No use of concrete significant details (sole use of abstractions, generalizations and judgments) and/or figures of speech to create images
Figures of speech (simile, metaphor, symbol, personification, etc.)	Maximum use of figures of speech (simile, metaphor, symbol, personification, etc.)	Several uses of figures of speech (simile, metaphor, symbol, personification, etc.)	Some uses of figures of speech (simile, metaphor, symbol, personification, etc.)	No use of figures of speech (simile, metaphor, symbol, personification, etc.)
Characterization (Direct vs. indirect characterization)	Maximum use of characters' physical appearance, action, thought, symbol, etc. to reveal characters (complete indirect characterization)	Several uses of characters' physical appearance, action, thought, symbol, etc. to reveal characters	Some uses of characters' physical appearance, action, thought, symbol, etc. to reveal characters	No use of characters' physical appearance, action, thought, symbol, etc. to reveal characters
Story	The use of narrative to convey purpose.	-	-	No use of narrative to convey purpose (purpose is conveyed through formal statement)

Validating the Rubric

Rubrics provide efficient ways of assessing learning outcomes (Shraplin & Morris, 2013). However, to be effective, they should meet two major criteria: reliability and validity (Andrade, 2005 as cited in Allen & Knight, 2009). The following sections provide a brief description of the steps taken to validate the proposed rubric.

Evaluating Reliability of the Rubric

Reliability is one of the key criteria on which the effectiveness of rubrics depends. In general, reliability refers to consistency of measurement (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Following the prevailing literature on reliability assessment, this study estimated inter-rater and intra-rater reliability of the rubric. To this end, three individual raters (a university professor and two M.A. candidates of English literature- closely allied with creative writing) evaluated four samples of creative writing (which were randomly selected from two distinct classes) using the rubric. Approximately two weeks later, two of the same raters repeated the evaluation. Correlation coefficient for scores given by three different raters (inter-rater reliability, see Table 2) and for subsequent ratings (intra-rater reliability, see Table 3) was 0.86 and 0.82, respectively. Following the guidelines of Brown, Glasswell and Harland (2004) a reliability index of 0.70 proves to be sufficient for structured rubrics.

TABLE 2
RESULTS OF INTRACLAS CORRELATION FOR INTER_RATER RELIABILITY

	Intraclass Correlation ^a	95% Confidence Interval		F Test with True Value 0			
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Value	df1	df2	Sig
Single Measures	.862 ^b	.368	.996	26.000	2	4	.005
Average Measures	.949	.636	.999	26.000	2	4	.005

TABLE 3
RESULTS OF INTRACLAS CORRELATION FOR INTRA_RATER RELIABILITY

	Intraclass Correlation ^a	95% Confidence Interval		F Test with True Value 0			
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Value	df1	df2	Sig
Single Measures	.821 ^b	.382	.961	10.143	7	7	.005
Average Measures	.901	.553	.980	10.143	7	7	.005

Evaluating Validity of the Rubric

Validity is another contributing factor to the quality of a rubric. Construct validity as its most significant type refers to the degree to which a rubric measures what it purports to measure (Mackey & Gass, 2005). The review of literature revealed two main methods on validity assessment: Factor analysis and Delphi method. As a statistical technique, factor analysis aims "to reduce a large number of variables to smaller more manageable numbers by identifying the number of unique underlying criteria" (Barylá, Shelley & Trainor, 2012, p. 2). Thus, it is essentially applicable to lengthy rubrics

(Baryl et al., 2012). Delphi method, on the other hand, is a relatively new method of validity assessment which requires an average panel of 10 experts to involve in several rounds of discussion on accuracy of rubric's criteria until they reach consensus (Allen & Knight, 2009).

Given the excessively intensive nature of Delphi method and impracticality of factor analysis for the purpose of this study (the rubric was formed based on the major qualities of creativity as discussed by experts of the field and thus was not a lengthy one), the researcher relied on what McNamara (1996 as cited in Allen & Knight, 2009) refers to as *a priori construct validity* of a rubric, according to which the content of a rubric is formed based on the available as well as reliable literature on the topic. In fact, the proposed rubric completely adheres to this type of validity since it is developed based on the qualities of creative writing on which the experts of the field (Burroway, 2011; Mills, 2006; Saskatchewan, 1998) have consensus.

Additionally, following the guidelines of Allen and Knight (2009), to develop statistical evidence of rubric's accuracy, a weak and strong writing sample were evaluated by three individual raters using the rubric. The results, compared through ANOVA, appear in Table 4.

TABLE 4
ANOVA RESULT FOR STATISTICAL EVIDENCE OF RUBRICS ACCURACY

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7.500	1	7.500	45.000	.005
Within Groups	.500	3	.167		
Total	8.000	4			

Assessment of Group Dynamics

One of the primary purposes of the current study was to examine how group formation method namely, self-selected and teacher-assigned learning style-based grouping, influences group dynamics. Since the instructor was not able to observe all groups' behavior simultaneously, the participants were required to write a report to elaborate on any aspect of their group experience they found significant.

Learning Style Questionnaire

Teacher-assigned grouping aimed to be based on students' learning style. Thus, there was a need to identify participants' learning style. For this purpose, Index of Learning Style (ILS) questionnaire, based on Felder and Silverman's classification of learning styles (University of Bradford, 2008) (category 1 $r=0.80$, category 2 $r=0.78$, category 3 $r=0.87$, category 4 $r=0.72$) was employed. ILS which aims to detect students' dominant learning preferences is composed of 44 statements with 2 possible options (a or b), according to which learning preferences are divided into four categories of activist/reflector, sensing/intuitive, visual/verbal, and sequential/global.

C. Procedure

Community model (Blyth & Sweet, 2008) was employed as the instructional method for teaching creative writing in both classes except that the group formation method was manipulated to achieve the purpose of the present study. Accordingly, one session before the onset of group works, the two classes were randomly assigned to student-selected and teacher-assigned grouping conditions. In other words, in the student-selected group, the participants were asked to self-select their groupmates (3-5, in line with community models' principle). However, in the teacher-assigned group, as the objective was to use students' learning style as the point of departure, students were first required to fill in the ILS questionnaire. Then, the teacher, based on homogeneity of their learning style, put them into groups of 3 members each.

Then, community model was implemented in both classes. In other words, prior to class session each group member was required to read her/his group members' writing and put comments. During class, every group should present the strengths and weaknesses of each work to the instructor whose main job was to facilitate the discussion and if necessary to teach. This might include elaboration on a specific technique which could be used or bringing examples of works which have used a specific technique successfully. Altogether, the primary purpose was to work toward some revision strategies as an attempt to further develop the work. This process which continued over one academic semester resulted in 8 pieces of writing for each individual student- including both initial drafts and revised texts. Finally, at the end of the semester students were required to write a report commenting on any aspect of group work they found significant.

D. Data Analysis

The data underwent quantitative as well as qualitative analysis. The study aimed to examine whether and to what extent group formation method (student-selected vs. teacher-assigned) influences group dynamics as well as outcome (academic achievement). To this end, content analysis research technique was employed, which entails "making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use" (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 18). Then, one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare group work accomplishment (in this case revision) across the two group formation methods. Additionally, content analysis was used to detect the major features of group dynamics as emerged in student written reports and to find out any possible differences of this kind among the two experimental groups.

IV. RESULTS

The quantitative and qualitative analysis of written reports as well as writing samples yielded the following findings regarding group dynamics and group outcome (as manifested in performance quality), respectively.

A. Written Report

The qualitative analyses of reports revealed three major findings which are in line with McGrath's (1964, as cited in Herre, 2010) model of group behavior which includes three categories of group input, group process and group outcome. Input-process-output model maintains that input factors (group composition, size, etc.) influence group process in significant ways and in turn influence group outcome (McGrath, 1964 as cited in Herre, 2010). Participants' experiences within these categories differed significantly across the two group formation conditions, as described below.

Group Input

Input factors are classified into three levels of individual, group and environment (McGrath, 1964 as cited in Herre, 2010). Individual factors are members' characteristics such as skills, personalities, etc., while group composition and size are regarded as the main input factors on group level (McGrath, 1964 as cited in Herre, 2010). These factors can also be found at higher levels such as environment. Reward structure and level of environmental stress are among the environmental elements which McGrath considers as input factors.

Group member characteristic was the major aspect of group input on which the majority of participants from student-selected grouping condition commented. Specifically, 58% of respondents reported that their group partners were their close friends, 8.33% considered the members as homogeneous in terms of writing skills while the remaining did not refer to the issue (see excerpt 1 as an example).

My group members were my friends.

We had to choose members of the groups on our own, so we already knew about our classmates' English proficiency and writing skills. If group members were randomly chosen, probably members were more different.

Additionally, both friendship and homogeneity of writing skill were perceived as positive aspects of group input (see excerpt 2 as an example).

The people in my group were my close friends. Therefore, we could work in a friendly atmosphere.

We knew each other well and knew how to work effectively together.

Instructor-assigned groups, on the other hand, did not comment on any specific characteristics of their partners. However, more than half of them believed that when groups are formed by the teacher, chance is the sole factor which determines the members' effectiveness (whether to be put in a group who cooperates or not). However, among the respondents, most (63.6%) considered themselves as lucky enough to have helpful working partners, while the remaining (36.3%) reported the opposite and preferred to select their group members themselves (see excerpt 3 as an example).

Fortunately, the members of the group which I was put in helped me a lot about different problems and their work was helpful as well as what they told me.

I am more comfortable choosing my own groupmates.

Group Process

Process refers to "group behavior that can be observed" which might include time spent together, communication, encouragement among members (McGrath, 1964 as cited in Herre, 2010), conflict, strategy discussion, boundary management (Glastein, 1984 as cited in Herre, 2010) and any further factor which might be linked to group process.

One of the key aspects of group process on which participants of student-selected groups frequently commented was the ease with which they were able to communicate with one another. In other words, 50% of respondents reported an easy communication among the groupmates (see excerpt 4 as an example).

We could easily discuss and make decisions.

Interestingly, all these participants attributed this quality to the friendship factor among group members (see excerpt 5 as an example).

Working in a group with my friends and having the opportunity of choosing my group members made me communicate more easily.

We, ourselves, selected our group members and it helped us to be more communicative in a group with some of our close friends.

Another aspect of group process which emerged in several respondents' comments refers to the degree of willingness to accept criticisms from each other. This view was held by 25% of students. Similarly, students believed that it was the close relationship among members which contributed to this quality (see excerpt 6 as an example).

We were close with each other, so we could easily accept each other's opinion.

Moreover, another significant aspect of group process on which the members of both grouping conditions had censuses was related to cooperation among group partners. Specifically, the majority of student-selected groups (72%) and more than half of teacher-assigned ones (54%) considered their groupmates as satisfactorily cooperative. However, the remaining respondents did not refer to this issue (see excerpt 7 as an example).

We worked successfully in our team and had no problem. We read our writings together, found the problems, corrected and revised them.

My group members and I commented on each other's writing and corrected the mistakes.

Group Output

Output is the outcome of group process or in Gladstein's (1984, as cited in Herre, 2010) words it is group effectiveness. Although outcome is primarily concerned with quality of group performance, it is never restricted to it. In other words, there are other factors such as members' attitude which are among the crucial aspects of group outcome (McGrath, 1964 as cited in Herre, 2010).

The two group formation methods did not differ significantly in their perception toward the outcome. In other words, both groups regarded the group work as a beneficial activity. In particular, almost half of student-selected groups (54%) and most of teacher-assigned ones (72%) considered the outcome as favorable (see excerpt 8 as an example).

Student-selected grouping method: We discussed our problems in a short time and the attempts really affected my work.

Teacher-assigned grouping method: With my group members' evaluations I got to see my work from someone else's perspective as well. For example, when I wrote a piece it was intelligible to me but not to others and through my groupmate's corrections I could turn it into something which was more vivid and tangible.

However, a handful of participants from both grouping conditions considered the result of group work as unfavorable. Specifically, 27% of both groups' respondents highlighted that it was due to lack of sufficient time devoted to group work that the result was not quality work (see excerpt 9 as an example).

Teacher-assigned grouping method: We did not meet the criteria during our limited sessions and the limited time.

Student-selected grouping method: We had not enough time for analyzing papers. So, it did not help me to learn much.

Besides, although the majority of teacher-assigned groups were quite satisfied with their group members, almost half of them (45.4%) believed that instructors must give students the opportunity to choose those with whom they prefer to work (see excerpt 2 as an example).

If I have to do group work I am more comfortable choosing my groupmates.

The teacher selected our group members instead of us.

B. Writing Samples

As stated earlier, the primary purpose of community model is to work toward revision. Thus, the two participating groups' (student-selected vs. teacher-assigned) mean scores for the degree of improvement from initial draft to revision was compared to explore which grouping condition accomplished the task (revision) more successfully. The descriptive statistics for both groups are presented in Table 5.

TABLE 5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR DEGREE OF IMPROVEMENT FROM INITIAL DRAFT TO REVISED TEXT ACROSS THE TWO GROUP FORMATION CONDITIONS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
student-selected grouping method	16	.9844	1.06250	.26563	.4182	1.5505	.00	3.00
Teacher-assigned grouping method	16	1.6563	.76308	.19077	1.2496	2.0629	.25	3.00
Total	32	1.3203	.97185	.17180	.9699	1.6707	.00	3.00

Results indicated that mean scores of improvement were higher for teacher-assigned groups than student-selected ones (Table 5). However, in order to find out whether the difference was significant, one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted (Table 6).

TABLE 6
ANOVA RESULTS FOR DEGREE OF IMPROVEMENT FROM INITIAL DRAFT TO REVISED TEXT ACROSS THE TWO GROUP FORMATION CONDITIONS

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3.611	1	3.611	4.221	.05
Within Groups	25.668	30	.856		
Total	29.279	31			

As shown in Table 6, there was a statistically significant difference at the 0.05 level in mean scores for the two group formation conditions ($F(1, 30) = 4.22$). Additionally, the effect size calculated, using the eta squared, was 0.12. Following the guidelines proposed by Cohen (1988 as cited in Pallant, 2005) (0.01=small effect, 0.06=moderate effect, 0.14=large effect), this value implies a very large effect size. This suggests that teacher-assigned groups significantly outperformed student-selected ones.

In brief, it can be concluded that although students of teacher-assigned group formation method showed no definite advantage over those of student-selected grouping in terms of group dynamics, they noticeably outperformed participants from student-selected grouping condition.

V. CONCLUSION & DISCUSSION

A. *The Impact of Group Formation Method (Student-selected vs. Teacher-assigned) on Group Dynamics*

This study provides evidence that decisions about group composition significantly influence group work experience. The results reveal that group dynamics varies considerably across the two group formation conditions (student-selected vs. teacher-assigned). Specifically, students of self-selected grouping reported that pre-existing friendship was the major criterion upon which they relied to choose their working partners. Interestingly, they regarded this characteristic as a significant factor contributing to ease of communication, facilitation of cooperation and acceptance among members. Altogether these factors resulted in what they viewed as quality work.

These results parallel the findings of previous research (Basta, 2011; Chapman et al., 2006; Hilton & Philips, 2008) which revealed that whenever students are allowed to do group member selection, they choose those with whom they are friend which in turn leads to comfortable communication (Chapman et al. 2006; Russell, 2010), high satisfaction (Chapman et al. 2006; Mahenthiran & Rouse, 2000; Matta et al., 2010) and high cooperation (Bacon et al., 1999; Mushtaq et al., 2012) among group members.

Teacher-assigned groups, on the other hand, considered chance as the sole factor influencing the effectiveness of group members (whether to be put in a group whose members are hardworking or not). Our findings confirmed those of Hilton and Philips (2008) indicating that although participants' initial perception toward this group formation method (teacher-assigned grouping) seems negative, during the actual group work the majority found their partners as satisfactorily cooperative which in turn led them to regard the outcome as quality work.

Furthermore, as far as student-selected method of group formation is concerned, several studies indicate that when group members are too close to each other (friends) it would distract students from the main task (Mitchell et al., 2004), lower acquisition of social skills (Basta, 2011) and lead to academic homogeneity of members which further endanger learning performance (Oakley et al., 2004). Although none of these problems were reported by the participants of the present study, the outcome of group work (in spite of the initial homogeneity of participants' creative writing ability as well as similarity of instruction for both grouping conditions, many of student-selected groups did not accomplish group task -revision- and many of those who did exhibited lower quality than those of teacher-assigned groups) is indicative of the fact that despite the reported benefits of grouping based on pre-existing friendship, student-selected group formation method poses certain problems.

It seems that student-selected method of group formation suffered from what Hilton and Philips (2008) call lack of task-orientedness- that is, the tendency to evade working on the designated task. One possible explanation as to why student-selected groups were not much task oriented might be that pre-existing friendship led to debilitating tendency among group partners to spend too much group time on off-topic talk (socialize) rather than focus on the academic task (work) (Chapman et al., 2006; Hilton & Philips, 2008; Johnson, Johnson & Holubec, 1993 as cited in Mitchell et al. 2004; Mac, 2011; Mitchell et al., 2004; Shindler, 2010).

Moreover, it seems that during her experience with community model, Kostlnik (2010) anticipated such problem when she expressed her concern over how the interaction among self-selected groups would go on while the instructor is dealing with another group. Michaelsen (2004, the proposer of team-based learning) even goes further and argues that giving students the responsibility to form their own groups leads to disaster. As a result, he, like many others, posits that teachers should directly take control of group formation process as an attempt to avoid pre-existing cliques enter into a group and thus endanger group cohesiveness.

Additionally, it appears that Blythe and Sweet (2008) (the proposers of community model of teaching creative writing) did not recognize this problem since they team-taught the course, according to which each instructor was responsible for only a handful of groups (2 or 3) which had certainly facilitated managing the groups and specifically keeping the group members on the task.

B. *The Impact of Group Formation Method (Student-selected vs. Teacher-assigned) on Group Outcome*

The results reveal that the outcome of group work outcome considerably vary across the two group formation conditions. Specifically, groups formed based on the teacher's decision outperformed groups which were selected by the students. In other words, teacher-assigned groups were more successful at accomplishing the task of revision than the other group. The results are consistent with previous studies (Bachman, 2010; Dillon & Cheney, 2009; Lawrenz & Munch, 1984; Oakley et al., 2004) which confirmed that when groups are formed based on teachers' decision it would lead to better outcome. In particular, Mitchell et al. (2004) argue that in comparison with student-selected groups, teacher-assigned groups are more task oriented and thus fulfill group activities much more successfully.

However, this finding seems to contradict the results of Mushtaq et al. (2012) and Mahenthiran and Rouse (2000) in which a better group outcome was reported for student-selected grouping condition. This contrast in finding may be due to the fact that unlike the present study, these two studies revealed a significantly better group dynamics for student-selected groups than teacher-assigned ones which then translated into a better outcome.

In brief, the findings of this study are in line with Chapman et al.'s (2006) investigation which revealed that although student-selected groups seem to benefit from high cooperation, easy communication and positive attitude toward group outcome, they falter when it comes to task-orientedness which is considered as one of the most significant aspects of group dynamics that directly influences group work outcome. Furthermore, as far as teacher-assigned grouping method is concerned, our findings parallel those of Mitchell et al. (2004) which proved that teacher-assigned groups exhibit more commitment to the academic task assigned for group work and are thus more successful at accomplishing it (as evidenced by the quality of performance).

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Analysis of the Translators' Social and Psychological Trends from the Perspective of Intertextuality

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Abstract—Translation is an intertextual and cross-cultural communication. It refers not only to the representation of source-text information on the perspective of intertextuality, but also a social activity which is closely linked to the mental activities of the translators. From the theory of intertextuality and translation psychology, the paper aims to study and discover translators' social and psychological trends during the process of translating. And it also analyzes many factors that effect translators' social and psychological changes as well as the impact on the translation process and its result that is caused by translators' mental activities.

Index Terms—intertextuality, translation psychology, translators' social and psychological trends

I. INTRODUCTION

Only when translators master a certain degree of intertextuality knowledge about the target text can they make more faithful translation at the time of interpretation and expression. Translators should have necessary knowledge reserves for original texts and authors as well as a comprehensive understanding of themselves, of which, translators' subjective psychological factors during the process of translating is the most important and most difficult understanding to grasp. From the perspective of intertextuality and translation psychology, this paper analyzes the impact of intertextual elements including objective cultural factors (such as social culture, geographical culture, linguistic culture and religious culture, etc.) and subjective psychological factors (such as the way of thinking and aesthetic standards, etc.) on translators' social and psychological trends and translation results during the process of translating.

II. INTERTEXTUALITY OF TRANSLATION AND TRANSLATORS' SOCIAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL TRENDS

A. *Interpretation of Intertextuality Theory*

The theory of intertextuality is a kind of text theory which produced in contemporary western post-modernism cultural ideological trend. It covers a wide range, not only relating to some major contemporary western cultural theories such as structuralism, semiotics, poststructuralism, Western Marxism, etc., but also penetrating into the practice of new historicism literary criticism and feminist literary criticism as well as translation studies.

The theory of "intertextuality" was first proposed by Julia Kristeva, who was a French semiotician, structuralist thinker, psychoanalyst and feminist ideology representative. "The formation of any work is like the products of drafting a mosaic, and any text is the absorption and transformation of other texts" (Julia Kristeva, 1969). She pointed out in *Semeiotikē* which basically means that every text is a mirror of others and one is the absorption and transformation of another. It creates an open network with unlimited potential by referring to each other and holding together to constitute a great open system for the past, the present and the future, as well as form an evolution process of literary semiotics.

Translation process involves the participation of two versions: one is the original text, and the other is the target text. Both texts can be either interlingual translation in the same geographical area within different periods, or interlingual translation in different areas. In terms of translation itself, it has the feature of intertextuality, whether viewing from the point of appearance or the nature. Intertextuality maintains that any text is generated on the basis of the trace or memory of previous text, or formed in the process of absorption and transformation of other texts (Julia Kristeva, 1969). Qin Wenhua said, "Intertextuality emphasizes the interaction of reference, sensor, contact, penetration, transfer and other effects between texts, which concerns on the uncertainty and non-centrality of a text" (Qin Wenhua, 2006). However, as the mediators of translation, translators are the necessary and indispensable bridge for transmitting information. Translation enables members from different cultural communities to communicate freely by eliminating estrangement of verbal or non-verbal behavior, expectations, knowledge, opinions and other aspects caused by different cultural environment, in order to make information sender and receiver communicate with each other more effectively (Zhang

Meifang, 2005).

B. Interpretation of Translators' Social and Psychological Trends

Lin Yutang said, "As a matter of fact, the problem of translation is still nothing more than the relationship between translators' psychology and the text they translate, so translation is said at issues of language and psychological" (Lin Yutang, 1984). Translation study covers a wide range, some studying on translation process on all aspects from a psychological perspective, and some analyzing the impact of psychological factors on translation. Wu Jingquan believes that translation is a social activity, which is naturally affected by translating subjects — individual psychology and social psychology.

Intertextuality is often used to indicate intertextual relationship occurs between two or more texts, which comprises the relationship between two specific or special texts and diffusion effects to other texts by means of memorizing, repeating and modifying. Therefore, from the original text to translation, as the subject identities, translators play the most active roles in the intertextual relationship. On one hand, translators must fully understand the intention of the original text and faithfully convey it; on the other hand, they will have to take the initiative to achieve the recreation of the original. Wang Dongfeng pointed out, "When introducing a concept which contained in a foreign culture discourse to the native place, translators are bound to make their own judgments about these values from other cultures, and then decide to convey it straightforward or just reaching its righteousness; 'retain and reject', or start all over again" (Wang Dongfeng, 2003, p17). Translation is not only the general result of the conversion between linguistic signs, but also an interpretive recreation process. Therefore, whether the target text can convey the same information as the original one, the translator plays a decisive role. As the recreator of the original text, translators must have their own psychological activities, which will certainly have an impact on the process of translating and translation results (Hou Yanan and Dong Guangcai, 2007).

C. Interpretation of Translation from the Perspective of Intertextuality

Traditional translation studies only focus on activities of establishing a standard language level, such as the translation mechanism of translators and seeking translation strategies, instead of the subjectivity and creativity of translators, which advocate the translation to be faithful to the original text without considering whether the information can be expressed one-to-one by target language, regardless of the intertextual elements such as the translator's inner literary accomplishment, personal experience, ways of thinking, education and external background of national history, society and culture, education and life experience, etc. Denouncing the "creative treason" of a translation without any analysis makes the translator in an awkward position. However, the emergence of the theory of intertextuality makes the translation community reposition the role of translators and put more attention to them.

Intertextual translation study has diversified translation relationships, which not only refers to the relationship between text and text, but also text and readers, text and translators, as well as the external dialogue field with text, author, reader, translation, and literary, social and historical context (Qin Wenhua, 2006). Therefore, as the main subjects involved in translation activity, author, translator and reader are all active in the field of intertextual movement, playing an important role in countless texts. Originally, authors are also readers of other texts, who will write under the influence of previous authors and under the help of absorbing and accepting previous texts. That is to say, authors are all converted from readers. People who never read cannot write, which is just the same as the situation that people who never heard of a foreign language is impossible to communicate with foreigners. As the reader of the original text, translators are supposed to have a certain amount of related knowledge about the original and have a thorough understanding of the text before translating, from language to culture and other aspects. At the same time, they should do some research on the original author, such as the concept of life, language features, art features of his works and so on. In addition, translators themselves should have enough and complete knowledge structure and information system related to the original text. With more intertextual knowledge, translator will have more profound understanding about the original work, and the translation will be closer to the original, under which circumstance, the translation will become a true and special intertextual text.

Reading is the process of extending translators' horizons, increasing intertextual knowledge with the original author. The equivalent degree of translation and the original fundamentally depends on the subjectivity and creativity of translators, whose intertextual knowledge plays an important role. As the third subject in translation process, readers will understand the text under the influence of life experience, IQ, EQ, and aesthetic taste. In reading, to gain a better understanding of the text, they will analyze the structure of the work consciously, and regroup it with their own modes of thinking. Thus, readers with this purpose are likely to become authors of the new translation. This iterative process produces a translation activity.

III. INTERPRETATION OF TRANSLATORS' SOCIAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL TRENDS FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF INTERTEXTUALITY

A. Impact of Social and Cultural Differences in Intertextual Texts on Translators

As a product of culture and society, language and culture are inseparable, which must be understood from the perspective of culture and society; similarly, as a product of cultural intertextuality combined with translators'

psychology, translation is a special kind of cross-cultural communicative activity, which must be studied from the perspective of cultural intertextuality and translators' psychology. Translators are the link and bridge for cross-cultural translation communication. Specific social and cultural consciousness produces unique way of thinking; and different ways of thinking affect psychological activities of different nationalities; "This national psychological differences exert a profound influence on people's thinking, emotional expression, language habits and behaviors, and so on" (Wan Yulan, 2007, p182).

Different translators have different social and cultural backgrounds, which result in the appearance of different translations to the same text. Take the title translation of *A Dream of Red Mansion* (one of China's four famous books) for example, which involves the social and cultural intertextuality. How to translate the color "red" in the title is the most controversial one. In Chinese culture and society, red represents good luck, festivity, warm, imaginative, passion, fight, revolution. For instance, in ancient China, walls of many palaces and temples, official residence and dress are mainly red, which are so-called "vermilion gates" and "Chinese clothing"; in the five elements of traditional Chinese culture, the corresponding color of fire is red, so is Li Trigram in the Eight Diagrams. The same as "vermilion", "red mansion" in the book is also the nickname of an ancient princely noble residence. So, it goes without saying, *A Dream of Red Mansions* means that it is nothing more than a dream for noble people who lived in a red grand house. Therefore, the domestic well-known translator Yang Hsien-Yi and his wife Gladys joint to translate the title as *A Dream of Red Mansions*. However, in western culture and society, red is the synonym of evil, cruelty, bloodshed, tension, danger, obscene and other derogatory statements. For example, a red adventure story (a very tense adventure story). So, when Hawkes, the famous sinologist is translating the title, he realized that readers with English background do not have intertextual knowledge of the meaning of red in Chinese culture, who may think of the derogatory meaning in western culture, he then translated as *The Story of the Stone*. The difference between them is that the former himself is a Chinese with highly traditional literacy, who is able to appreciate and understand the profound meaning of the book; while the latter is a Westerner, who will first consider the reading habits of Anglo-American readers, ignoring the interpretation of Chinese culture. Qu Yunjie (2009) believes that any form of a text is not isolated. It is always integrated in national literature, history, tradition, custom and other factors(p34). Inspired by the way of intertextual thinking, interpretation of literature is an intertextual interpretation, and the analysis of translation is an intertextual analysis.

B. Impact of Religious Differences in Intertextual Texts on Translators' Psychology

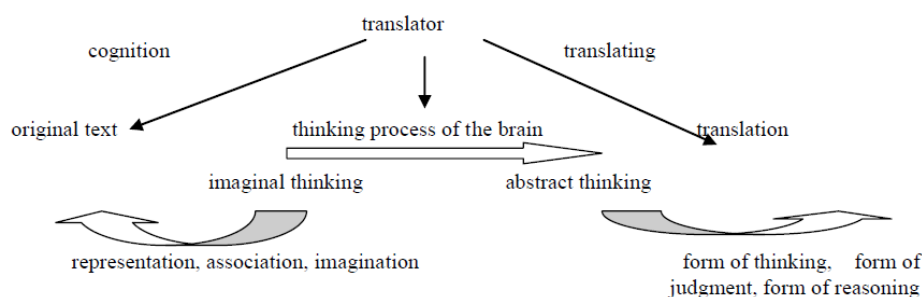
"Religions play a role in guiding people's values, which has a deep-rooted influence on the way of thinking and behaviors" (Zhang Yingchun, 2010, p166). "In China, three religions that dominated by Confucianism and supplemented by Taoist and Buddhist thought have a broad impact, while the Christian and Western philosophy are the main parts that constitute traditional religious culture of English-speaking countries. This kind of cultural and religious differences influence people's understanding of the meaning of things and language expression" (Li Xiaoyuan, 2008, p13). Christianity is a religion peculiar to the Western countries. Since many Chinese do not have the intertextual elements of this religious background, they will encounter a variety of obstacles in the process of cross-cultural communication. In Western culture, many historical allusions come from ancient Greek and Roman mythology and biblical stories. For instance, in the sentence of "You are just doubting Thomas. You won't believe what I tell you", "doubting Thomas" is derived from the biblical story. As one of the twelve disciples of Jesus, Thomas was a suspicious person in nature. Later, "doubting Thomas" is used for describing a suspicious man. If the translator has intertextual knowledge of Western religious culture, he will understand the cultural connotation of this sentence and translate it accurately as "You are really a suspicious person, who never believes me, no matter what I say."

Many English words and phrases represent a specific religious significance. People without intertextual knowledge will have the wrong associations when they only understand it literally. Taken "End of the World" for example. People with different ethnic religions will have different understanding of these words. Deeply influenced by Confucianism and goodness said of Buddhism, Chinese people may understand it as a catastrophe, or mankind is about to be destroyed and go through some horrible time; but for Westerners who are influenced by "original sin" of Christian, it only means the moment of justice. "many English words involving religious activities and rituals represent a particular meaning, the full meaning of which cannot be conveyed when simply translated into Chinese" (Wang Tianzhi, 2008, p340). In this case, while translating a text with specific religious and cultural content, whether translator and the original author have intertextual knowledge of religious culture or not will be in dominant position, which controls the translators' psychological direction in the process of translation. Only with a deep understanding of Eastern and Western religious and cultural differences, as well the religious culture in language can translators avoid mistranslation.

C. Impact of Different Modes of Thinking in Intertextual Texts on Translators

Three aspects of human's psychological activities — cognition, emotion and will are often in a dynamic state, but also connect with each other. Viewing from their structure and mechanism, these psychological activities possess a human commonality that is subject to common rules. However, expressed in each specific person, the psychological process will not be exactly the same. Because the psychological process is always reflected in the person's practice of their different lives and constrained by different rules, thus people show different tendencies and different individual psychological characteristics. In the process of translation, individual's social and psychological factors play an important role, which results in different translations created by different translators to the same original text. As shown

in the chart:



In other words, combined with the feature that translator has multiple identities, and the cognitive process for the original that the brain uses the imaginal thinking of concrete thinking for representation, association and imagination of the text, as well as the form of thinking, judging and formal reasoning through abstract thinking, translations then can be completed. Viewing from the perspective of intertextuality theory, creative thinking is the combination of thinking and imagination, as well as the result of the absorption or conversion for relevant text.

From the perspective of intertextuality, translator is the main subject of the translation process, which results in producing different versions of the translations to the same original text. From the above chart, we can easily conclude that the main cause for different versions is translators' different ways of thinking. Because thinking is a complex structure, the underlying performance of which is undercurrent like emotion and will, and the attitudes of observing things that exist in the form of subconsciousness, while its shallow performance is language. Due to various natural and cultural conditions, ways of thinking for Chinese and Westerners objectively exist differences. Modes of thinking of oriental peoples are circular, which emphasize integrity, with an intuitive experience as a tool; Westerners' are linear, which emphasize on part of analysis by means of logical positivism. Chen Chongwei (2004) mentioned: Chinese attach more importance to intuition and concreteness, while Westerners to rationality and logic. Chinese traditional thought pays attention to practical experience and overall thinking, emphasizing the sensibility, inspiration and enlightenment with the help of intuition and intuitive thinking; while Westerners lay stress on rational knowledge, analysis and demonstration. The different ways of thinking manifested in language are the image of Chinese and functionality of English.

D. Impact of Geographical Differences in Intertextual Texts on Translators

Translation not only involves the conversion of language, but sometimes also the conversion of scenes and geographical environment where information occurs. At this moment, from the perspective of cross-cultural communication, it is the conversion between the geographic and cultural information, which is conducted by inter-language conversion. "For translation between English and Chinese, there is a big difference between these two languages, including the aspects of history, geography, politics, economy, culture and customs." (Zhou Fangzhu, 1997). Different geographical and natural environment of languages and cultures perform in different forms of verbal expression of different ethnic groups for certain phenomenon or things. Intercultural Communication showed that particular growth environment has made people develop a certain mindset, and most anthropologists and sociologists believe that a country's geographical condition plays a very important role on culture in varying degrees. Western culture originated in Greek mythology, while Greece is an island, where they established the first democratic contract society. Because of the activities in the sea, they developed a good habit of "move", also this kind of national character and outlook on life, furthermore, change and curious have become the characteristics of marine culture. Besides that, different geographical and cultural differences also lead to different material concepts. For example, the concept of the five elements including wood, fire, earth, gold and water is an outlook on substance in ancient China, which is mostly used for philosophy, medicine and divination. However, Western countries only talk about the four elements, which is said to be the theory of the material composition of the world according to ancient Greece. Therefore, in the process of translation, translators should stand in the angle of target readers and think from the perspective of intertextuality to eliminate cultural differences in the case of geographical and cultural ambiguity. So, "Wu Xing" should be translated into "the five elements", and its corresponding explanation should be "The five elements (metal, wood, water, fire and earth, held by the ancients to compose the physical universe and later used in traditional Chinese medicine to explain various physiological and pathological phenomena)". Geographical and cultural differences are also reflected in the ways of expression for describing the same things in different languages. For example in Chinese, we have "宁为鸡首, 不为牛后", corresponding to the English "Better be the head of an ass than the tail of a horse" (rather as a donkey head, nor as horsetail). In this regard, in the process of translation, the translator should take their geographical and cultural characteristics of different nationalities into account, always converting the original texts to the target texts from the perspective of intertextuality.

E. Impact of Gender Psychological Differences in Intertextual Texts on Translators' Psychology

Gender is a ubiquitous fact that gender differences in language reflect in different social environments. Qiu Fen (2009) indicated that: With the popularity and spread of feminist thought and feminine literary in society, male and female translators will encounter a series of technical problems, such as how to authentically transfer words with feminism color or a special cultural meaning in original texts to the target language environment, and so on (p12). In the process of translation, if it comes to gender issues in other cultures, translators may first gain more sense of identity for authors with the same gender during reading and interpreting. Moreover, female translators with certain knowledge of feminism will also reflect their gender consciousness in translation practice. Western feminist translation shows a characteristic of strong individuality, emphasizing self-awareness and individual awareness. But because of long-term imprisonment by the feudal system, self-consciousness of Chinese females is dim, blind and intermittent.

Take the following three translation versions of *Purple* for example, analyzing the differences that translators of different genders deals with gender consciousness in the original text.

She has the nerve to put one hand on her naked hip and bat her eyes at me.

Tao Jie: 她居然敢把一只手放在光屁股上对我飞个媚眼。

Lu Shujiang: 她满不在乎地把手搭在她那光光的屁股上冲我眨了眨眼。

Yang Renjing: 她厚着脸皮把一只手放在光屁股上, 还对我挤眉弄眼。(Li Hongyu, 2008, p23)

In the first two versions of translation, translators used the neutral word “居然敢(dare)” and “满不在乎(indifference)” to express a tone of Xili’s surprise about Shug’s behavior. This is because the translator had found out Xili’s astonishment and envy about Shug’s exaggerated behaviors; While the third translator used the derogatory word “厚着脸皮(shameless)” and objectionable phrases “对我挤眉弄眼(make faces to me)” to express translator’s hate about Shug. This is because he added his own personal emotions to the translation, instead of expressing the true feelings of Xili. Thus, in text translation, gender differences in translator’s psychology have the re-creation impact creative treason on translation, and gender awareness also reflects in the target text.

F. Impact of Aesthetic Ideology in Intertextual Texts on Translators’ Psychology

Chinese aesthetic consciousness is characterized by taste, touch and smell, which is seen as the prototype for perception. There is a clear tendency to fracture and grade related to the relationship between the five senses of vision, hearing, smell, taste and touch in Western aesthetic awareness, speaking highly of the former and disparaging the latter. Vision and hearing are considered to be close to the heart of the “theory of the senses”, while smell, taste and touch are senses of animals and functions. This hierarchical description suggests that Western aesthetic consciousness has values of respecting for the soul and the spirit, but disparaging the flesh and materials. Chinese aesthetic consciousness takes taste, touch and smell as the prototype, instead of emphasizing the importance of vision and hearing. Like master said “Five colors blind the eyes”, “So the Wise Man will do what his belly dictates, and never the sight of his eyes”, “Thus it is that the Great man abides by what is solid, and eschews what is flimsy; dwells with the fruit and not with the flower”. Because of the integrated relationship between ways of perception and perceived object, Chinese-style aesthetic consciousness with smell and touch as the prototype presupposes some intrinsic aesthetic value and outlook of an integration of the universe and humanity (Sun Shiqian, 2010, p89). A prominent feature of Chinese culture is reserved and harmonious, which further affect Chinese aesthetic and cultural psychology. For example, as for aesthetic, female behavior pay attention to implicit beauty, like “try less teeth”. In literary translation of *The Adventure of the Naval Treaty*, the Western beauty with strong personality and “marked” look was creatively transformed into a Chinese classic beauty:

The original: She was a striking looking woman, a little short and thick for symmetry, but with a beautiful olive complexion, large dark Italian eyes, and a wealth of deep black hair (Conan Doyle, *The Adventure of the Naval Treaty*).

Translation version (translated by Cheng Xiaoqing): 安娜貌颇丽, 肤色雪白, 柔腻如凝脂, 双目点漆, 似意大利产。斜波流媚, 轻盈动人, 而卷发压额, 厥色深墨, 状尤美观。形体略短削, 稍嫌美中不足。(《海军密约》)(Huang Xiaoxiong, 2007, p55)

To make the women of the work is in line with the aesthetic psychology of Chinese readers and easy to be accepted and loved by target text readers, the translator transformed the description of a Western woman characterized by the appearance into an oriental woman with unique personality. But just because of the lack of intertextual knowledge about Western aesthetic culture, the re-shaping of the original text lost its unique aesthetic and cultural characteristics of Western society.

IV. CONCLUSION

Since the combination of translation study and intertextuality theory, the intertextuality of translation study has broken the closed model of traditional translation study, shifting its perspective again to translator, who is one of the multiple translation subjects. From the perspective of intertextuality, this paper discusses translators’ own psychological factors and some of the inevitable social and psychological factors that affect translation variants when translating texts with cultural differences. The study of translators’ psychological trend is an inseparable part of translation study. Furthermore, translation process is a complex process of psychological activity, which involves linguistic psychology, aesthetic psychology and cultural psychology of translators. Through the above analysis, we can make sure that

psychological activities of translators should be studied from multiple levels because of its multiplicity.

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The Comparative Impact of Visual Aids and Contextualization on Field-dependent and Field-independent EFL Learners' Vocabulary Retention

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Abstract—This study aimed to compare the impact of two vocabulary teaching techniques, contextualization and visual aids on field dependence/independence learners' vocabulary retention among third grade students of public secondary school in Iran. 120 EFL learners studying at two secondary schools in Savojbolagh were randomly selected and were assigned to two almost homogeneous groups, based on their scores on a Nelson proficiency test. The learners were checked for their vocabulary knowledge prior to the start of the treatment. Next, the standard Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT) developed by Witkin et al (1971) was administered to classify each participant's level of field independency. The two groups were exposed to identical vocabulary text during classes held twice a week in the four-month treatment period. The context group received vocabulary instruction through contextualization method while the other experimental group which was called visual aids group was taught through visual aids techniques of vocabulary teaching. Two weeks after the end of the treatment a delayed posttest was administered to show the differences in vocabulary retention in the two groups. The collected data was analyzed through T-Test and ANCOVA using SPSS software. The results led to the rejection of all the four null hypotheses.

Index Terms—vocabulary retention, contextualization, visual aids, field dependence, field independence

I. INTRODUCTION

The role that vocabulary knowledge plays in learning a foreign language is so crucial that many theorists and language educators believe that learning a foreign language is basically a matter of learning the vocabulary of that language (Rodriguez and Sadoski, 2002; Kitajima, 2001). In this line Bowen & Marks (2002, p.106) state that "Words are the basic of language, and thus the basic of communication. Without words, it is possible to know everything about the grammatical structure of a language, but yet to be unable to make a single utterance.

What students, teachers, materials writers, and researchers have all agreement upon is that learning vocabulary is an essential part of mastering a second language (de Groot, 2006). However, it is useless if the students learn a lot of words or possess a large number of vocabulary but they can't remember or retain in their long-term memory. Wei (2007) states that nowadays long-term retention has received wide attention as one of the greatest problems in learning new words. If the learners can't store and retrieve words immediately, they will forget the learned words very soon.

In order to solve This forgetting (attrition) problem, different techniques for facilitating vocabulary retention have been proposed in methodology text books each of which with its own merits and demerits. As Armstrong (2000) mentioned, due to the students' differences teachers use a broad range of teaching strategies with their students. Among the different vocabulary retention techniques which can help the students to store a large number of vocabularies in their long-term memories and recall or retrieve them, this study attempts to investigate on contextualization and visual aids techniques.

In support of the significance of context, Redouane (2004) found that the guessing-from-context technique has an impact not only on immediate recall but also on long-term retention. Nattinger (1988) also states that the most frequent way to discover the meaning of new words is going through the contexts where the new words occur to derive the most appropriate meaning of the new words .

Using visual aids is also seen as one of the most valid way of communicating the meaning of a word.. Doff (1988,14) asserts, "the use of real objects, pictures and mime for suitable vocabulary is a very effective method as it is direct, interesting, and it makes an impression on the class" Gairns and Redman (1986) points out that the most general visual aids that are displayed in the language classrooms include flashcards, photographs, blackboard drawings, wall charts, and realia and that other form of visual aids such as mimes and gestures are often used to supplement other ways of conveying meanings.

A number of theories hold that personality factors also significantly influence the degree of success that individuals achieve in learning a second language (Gass & Selinker, 1994). Investigations of individual differences have led to the

determination that there are styles of thinking called cognitive styles. Hansen and Standsfield (1982) define the cognitive style as variations among learners in performed manners of speaking, organization, analysis and recall. One of these cognitive characteristics is field dependence/ independence.

Hansen and Stansfield (1982) characterize field dependents as warm, outgoing, sociable, and highly emotional. They contend that field independents do not like social activities. According to Messick (1976,p.5) "the field independent person tends to articulates figures as discrete from their background and to easily differentiate objects from embedding context, whereas the field dependent person tends to experience events globally in an undifferentiated fashion. Field independent (or analytical) individuals have more facility with tasks required differentiation and analysis.

Regarding the points mentioned above, the purpose of this study is to answer the following four questions:

1. Is there any significant difference between FD and FID learners' delayed vocabulary posttest scores after receiving visual aid teaching technique?
2. Is there any significant difference between FD and FID learners' delayed vocabulary posttest scores after receiving contextualization teaching technique?
3. Is there any significant difference between FD learners' delayed vocabulary posttest scores who receive visual aid and those who receive contextualization teaching technique?
4. Is there any significant difference between FID learners' delayed vocabulary posttest scores who receive visual aid and those who receive contextualization teaching technique?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

According to (Knight, 1994) Learning words are considered as the most important aspect of second language acquisition. However, vocabulary learning is a complicated process in which several skills such as vocabulary acquisition, vocabulary retention, and vocabulary transfer are involved (Schneider et al., 2002). (Thornbury, 2008) states that the important point is that the students must be able to store and retrieve the vocabularies when they read for comprehension.

(Gairns & Redman. 1986. p. 86) mentioned that The brain has two ways of storing information. The first way is our short term memory. We can only retain information there for up to 30 seconds, and in most cases hold only up to seven items there at one time. The second is our long term memory. 'Long term memory' describes our ability to recall information days, weeks, and even years after the original input. In contrast to our short term memory, long term memory has the capacity to retain endless amounts of information.

Generally vocabulary can be taught in different ways to help learners remember Words more efficiently.

According to Demirel (2007) vocabulary should be taught only in the context of real situations so that meaning will be clarified and reinforced. Nattinger (1988) suggests that most appropriate meaning of new words can be discovered through the context where the words occurred. Sternberg (1987) maintained that context clues can help readers to infer the appropriate meaning of an unknown word contained in the text and these clues included definitions, examples, restatements, punctuations. However, there are some cases when it is not really feasible to include a context for every single word. In such cases, other techniques can come to our help.

Many studies in the field of recall and retention have shown the increased memory performance for picture stimuli over than word stimuli. A study by McBirde and Doshier (2002) stated that pictures are one source of information that engages deeper level of processing. Pictures represent features of objects; as a result, meaning can be gained from pictures even if one has little or no experience with the object illustrated (Hochberg & Brooks, 1962). Many studies have investigated the effects of picture method on vocabulary acquisition of a second language. Tonzar, Lotto, and Job (2009) compared two learning methods (picture and word mediated learning) in order to evaluate the vocabulary acquisition of two foreign languages in children. The study results showed that picture based method leads to a better performance than the word-based method.

According to (Gass & Selinker, 1994) there are other factors such as personality factors which significantly influence the success of individuals in learning a second language. Ausuburn and Ausburn (1978) stated that individuals have different, preferred ways of gaining, storing, processing, and using information. These types of differences in cognitive functioning are referred to as cognitive styles. (Witkin & Goodenough, 1981) state that the construct of field dependence – independence, as one of the cognitive style dimensions, is viewed as one of the most significant factors when contemplating educational problems.

researchers (Thompson & Thompson, 1987; Witkin et al., 1977) Summarized field dependent-independent characteristics as follow:

Field Independent Learners Impose organization on unstructured field. They are less dominated by the most salient cues in learning. they Internally defined goals and reinforcement and they Prefer to learn general principles and acquire them more easily, while field dependent learners Take organization of field as given. They are More dominated by salient cues in learning. They externally defined goals and reinforcement and they prefer to learn specific information and acquire it more easily.

Reaserchers (Good enough, 1976; Witkin & Goodenough, 1981; Witkin et al., 1977) have summarized the differences between these two styles in terms of psychological domain, social domain, and leering context. In the psychological domain." FIs have a distinctive internalized frame of reference, whereas FDs rely more on external referents. In the

social domain, FDs have greater interpersonal and social skills, whereas FIs have a more interpersonal orientation and play less attention on social cues" (Jones, 1993, p. 199). This leads to implications for learning situation: "FDs are disadvantaged in understructure situations, whereas FIs tend to provide their own structure more readily; Ds prefer directions and feedback, whereas FIs are less dependent on feedback; FDs rely more on others for information, whereas FIs are less influenced by peers" (Jones, 1993, p. 199).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The study targeted the population of secondary public school learners in Iran. The reason for selecting the participants from a public secondary school was mainly the ease of access to a great number of learners. The participants of the present study were selected randomly from among the students from six classes of third grade students of two secondary public schools in Savejbolagh city. The total number of the participants was 180 in this study: 90 participants among six classes from Shahid Haj Hemat secondary school and 90 students among six classes from Emamat secondary school. Students in the public secondary schools start learning English when they are at grade one, and thus they had been studying English for more than two years. All the participants in the research were females; with the age of 14 and 15, and they were all native speakers of Persian. The study took place in the second semester of the 1391 school year.

B. Instrumentation

The following instruments were used in this study:

1. Homogeneity Test

A Nelson proficiency test (Nelson test 50 c, 2001) was administered to 180 subjects at the beginning of the study in order to screen the participants and homogenize them based on their level of proficiency. This general proficiency test was adopted from Nelson English Language Test for Elementary level (Fowler & Coe, 2001). The reason behind using such a test was to curtail the effect of initial proficiency level on the outcome of the study. As discussed under the limitations, the researcher chose to use this study since it had been showed already by the researcher that the target learners did not have the high test mastery over the other skills (reading, writing, speaking, listening) due to lack of exposure to those skills and were exclusively taught grammar and vocabulary. The test was used in this study consisted of fifty multiple choice items containing grammar sections. The time allocated to this test is 25 minutes and the scores are estimated out of 50. The correct answer to each item receives one point, and there is no negative point for false responses. After giving the exam, out of 180 students, 120 students whose scores were between one standard deviation above and below the mean score were selected, and divided randomly into two experimental groups, each containing 60 students. The students who were taught with contextual method were named context group and the students who were taught with visual aids method were called visual group.

2. Group Embedded Figure Test

Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT) which was developed by Witkin et al. (1971) was used as a measure of field dependence/independence. This test comprises 25 geometrical figures embedded in more complex figures. While taking the GEFT test, participants are required to finish all the 25 items within 12 minutes. In each item students should find the simple figure within the complex one. There are three sections in this test and students cannot answer any section before the allocated time before the previous one is over. The first section is for the sake of practice. Students receive no points in this part. It has seven figures and takes two minutes. In the following ten minutes, participants complete the 18 items of section two and three that comprise the actual test. Section two comprises nine geometrical figures with one point each. Section three also comprises nine geometrical figures with one point each. The total possible score ranges from 0 to 18. Omitted items are scored as incorrect (Witkin et al, 1971). Participants in this study are classified as field dependent (FD), or field independent (FI) based on their scores on the GEFT test. Participants whose scores are greater than half a standard deviation above the mean are considered field independent, while participants whose scores are lower than half a standard deviation below the mean are considered field dependent those who may be located between the above two styles are labeled as field intermediate (FInt) (Dwyer & Moore, 1991-1992). Put simplistically, The higher scores of the students in this test, the higher the degree of their field independence.

3. Vocabulary Pretreatment Test

A researcher-made test of vocabulary containing the vocabulary items in the 3rd grade of high school course book was prepared to ensure prior to the treatment that the target vocabulary items were unknown to the learners. It has to be noted that the researcher had to confine the study to the vocabulary items included in their course books as a regulation of the school.

After the process of item analysis in pilot study, 20 vocabulary items which were too easy to the participants were deleted and 40 words were considered for the next phase of the study which is called pretest. The prepared vocabulary test included 40 vocabulary multiple-choice items, with four alternatives for each stem. The students were asked to answer the forty-item vocabulary test in thirty minutes. The test had a total of twenty points. The correct answer to each item received 0.5 point and there was no penalty for false responses. The test had a total of twenty points. The correct

answer to each item received one point and there was no penalty for false responses. The course book from which the vocabulary items were extracted English Book Three written by Birjandi, Norozi, and Mahmoodi (2011).

4. Delayed Vocabulary Posttest

Two weeks after the end of the semester, a delayed posttest was administered to the participants. It was parallel to the pre-treatment test with some changes in its arrangement and was administered to the same participants two weeks later to measure the learners' long-term vocabulary retention. The purpose of the delayed test was to check to what extent the students could remember the target words, hence their retention.

C. Procedure and Design

In order to provide answers to the questions of this study the following phases were taken.

A pilot study was carried out with one class (30 students) before the main phase of the study for selecting the vocabulary items to be employed in pretest and posttests. 60 items which seemed to be unfamiliar to the participants were selected from the school's English textbook written for third grade students of a secondary public school in Iran .this book was English Book Three written by Birjandi, Norozi, and Mahmoodi (2011). and the students were asked to answer the sixty multiple choice items. After the process of item analysis, based on the performance of the participants, the characteristics of the individual items were determined and some items were deleted. Those vocabulary items which were familiar for the participants (20 items) were excluded and those which were unknown to the participants were identified to be used in instruction and posttest. Eventually, the researcher came up with 40 items, to be used for the intended objective of the study.

In order to ensure the homogeneity of the participants regarding their grammar knowledge ,as the only skill among the others that they are given instructions on, the researcher administered a Nelson proficiency test which consisted of fifty multiple choice items The test was used in this study consisted of fifty multiple choice items containing grammar sections. The time allocated to this test was 25 minutes and the scores were estimated out of 50. After scoring the test, 120 students whose scores fell between one standard deviation (SD) above and below the mean were selected to participate in the study. These participants were divided randomly into two homogeneous groups; each consisted of 60 students, based on their proficiency level. They constituted two experimental groups. Following the proficiency test (Nelson test 50 c, 2001), the standard Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT) which is developed by Witkin, et al. (1971) was administered to classify each participant's level of field independency. It was presented in a booklet form. During the GEFT test, participants were required to finish all 25 items within 12 minutes. They were given two minutes to work on the 7 practice items, and then ten minutes to take the actual test. The total possible score ranges from 0 to 18. Participants in this study were classified as field dependent (FD), or field independent (FI) based on their scores on the GEFT test. Participants who scored greater than one- half standard deviation above the mean were considered field independent, while participants who scored lower than one-half standard deviation below the mean were considered field dependent. The analysis of their scores led to the division of the students into equal number of FD and FID learners.

Finally, two groups were identified to participate in the study. The students taught with contextual method were named context group and the students taught with visual aids method were called visual group. Each group contained equal number of FD and FID members.

The main study was carried out in two steps: treatment, and posttest (the delayed posttest). The allocated time for teaching in both experimental groups was the same. Each step is explained briefly below: The schematic diagram can be illustrated as follows:

Experimental group 1: treatment — delayed posttest

Experimental group 2: treatment — delayed posttest

After the process of item analysis in pilot study, 10 vocabulary items which seemed familiar to the participants were deleted and 40 words were retained in the next phase of the study which was called pretest. The prepared vocabulary test included 40 vocabulary multiple-choice items, with four alternatives for each sentence. The students were asked to answer the thirty- item- vocabulary test in thirty minutes. The test has a total of twenty points. The correct answer to each item received one point and there was no penalty for false responses.

D. Treatment

After wards the every session the researcher spent about half an hour teaching these words in both classes. The treatment took 12 sessions so the 84 new words were divided into groups of seven vocabularies. According to Grains (1986:1 as cited in Moras, 2001), "Retention in short-term memory is not effective if the number of chunks of information exceeds seven. This suggests that in a given class we should not aim at teaching more than this number. However, our long term memory can hold any amount of information (p.76). The study began in spring 2012 and lasted for about 3 months, 12 sessions, twice a week, 30 minutes each session. There were 6 classes: 3 classes for each group, and 30 students in each class. The whole research project took place in three months and the students were taught four lessons of the book in all classes. The researcher spent about half an hour teaching the vocabularies of each session of the treatment to the students, and basically the teaching procedure followed the model of presentation, practice and production.

Both context and visual aids group were presented the vocabulary using Power Point and a projector.

In the first class (context group) new vocabularies were presented via contextualization teaching strategies (story or sentence in which the item occurs). While the researcher taught the words, some information about that word were provided, including how it is pronounced, its part of speech, its count ability if it was a noun, and its past tense. In the first phase of teaching, each word was constructed with an example sentence or a short paragraph which was shown through power point so that the students would know how the word is used. After that the students were asked to repeat the word three times to facilitate remembering the word. The presentation was repeated for three times because repetition is necessary for elementary learners in order to master the oral and form of the lexical items (Gairns & Redman, 1986, as cited in Ramachandran & Rahim, 2004). After introducing the example sentences, the researcher encouraged students to make guesses at the target word by looking at the meanings of its surrounding words. This strategy needs context clues which facilitate the process of guessing meaning from context. The researcher gave feedback to their intelligent guesses and then provided them with the most appropriate meaning of the target word. To review the newly learned word, students along with the researcher read out the related example sentences again. For the production of students' works, they were divided into five groups. The students in each group were asked to create an example sentence that includes the target word.

In the second class (visual group), While teaching visually the researcher used different kinds of strategies. In this group, the English word was presented with a picture which represented the meaning of the word along with its English pronunciation. The presentation was repeated for three times because repetition is necessary for elementary learners in order to master the oral and form of the lexical items (Gairns & Redman, 1986, as cited in Ramachandran & Rahim, 2004). Then, she asked them to read out each new word by themselves. To have a solid form-image association of each word to be taught, she engaged students in the activity where one student acted out the meaning of a new word in front of the whole class and other students guessed which word was being performed. Finally, students matched words with the pictures on the papers which were given to them. Students had a picture missing and predict how the tale would end or what happened in the middle (missing picture). Each session 7 new words were taught. According to Grains (1986:1 as cited in Moras, 2001), "Retention in short-term memory is not effective if the number of chunks of information exceeds seven.

Two weeks after the end of the treatment, a vocabulary posttest parallel with the pre-treatment test was administered to both groups of learners to compare their long-term vocabulary retention. The purpose of the delayed test was to check to what extent the students could remember these target words.

The design of this study was experimental. It was implemented in two phases: treatment, and delayed post-test. The independent variable was the mode of vocabulary teaching with two modalities, contextualization and visual aids. Vocabulary retention was the dependent variable. The moderator variable was personality type with two modalities, field-dependent and field independent. Gender and language proficiency were the control variables.

IV. RESULTS

The First Hypothesis

Prior to the start of the treatment, the researcher made sure that the two groups of learners were the same with respect to their vocabulary knowledge through running a t-test on their vocabulary pretest mean scores. The following table shows the two mean scores were approximately the same.

TABLE 4. 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PRETEST SCORES OF THE FD AND FID LEARNERS IN THE VISUAL GROUP

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
FD pretest visual group	30	3.50	10.00	6.6833	1.84990
FID pretest visual group	30	1.00	15.00	6.7333	2.85492
Valid N (listwise)	30				

As demonstrated above the difference between the two groups of learners was not significant hence a t-test was legitimate to run to compare their mean scores. the following table shows the result therefore

TABLE 4. 2.
GROUP STATISTICS OF FD AND FID LEARNERS' DELAYED POSTTEST SCORES IN THE VISUAL GROUP

Field Dependence grouping	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Delayed VCB posttest scores of visual group				
FD	30	9.9000	2.99252	.54636
FID	30	13.2500	2.95001	.53860

Table 4.2 depicts that the FID learners in this group achieved a higher mean score in the vocabulary delayed posttest than the FD learners

The Second Hypothesis

As for the second hypothesis, the researcher had to compare the delayed posttest scores of FD and FID learners who attended the contextualization group. But, again, before the start of the treatment the researcher checked if there was any statistically significant difference between their vocabulary pretest scores. The following table shows the result of the mean scores of both sets of scores:

TABLE 4.3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PRETEST SCORES OF FD AND FID LEARNERS IN THE CONTEXT GROUP

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
FD pretest context group	30	3.50	13.00	7.3500	2.28997
FID pretest context group	30	5.00	12.50	8.5500	2.03567
Valid N (listwise)	30				

The above table shows that the initial difference between the FD and FID learners' pretest scores in the contextualization group was significant.

Therefore, the researcher had to run an ANCOVA to remove the effect of this initial difference on the posttest scores of the FD and FID learners in the contextualization group. the following table shows the new mean scores after removing the effect of the pretest scores

TABLE 4.4.
ESTIMATED MARGINAL MEANS FIELD DEPENDENCE GROUPING
Dependent Variable: Delayed VCB posttest scores of the context group

Field Dependence grouping	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
FD	14.059 ^a	.531	12.996	15.121
FID	16.175 ^a	.531	15.112	17.237

it is concluded that the groups were significantly different in their posttest mean scores, hence the rejection of the second null hypothesis, implying that the FID learners benefited significantly more than the FD learners receiving contextualization teaching.

The Third Hypothesis

As for the third question, the researcher compared the delayed vocabulary posttest scores of FD learners in the two experimental groups. Firstly, the homogeneity of the two groups of learners with respect to their vocabulary pretest scores had to be checked.

TABLE 4.5.
GROUP STATISTICS OF PRETEST SCORES OBTAINED BY FD LEARNERS IN BOTH EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	Grouping: Teaching Technique	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pretest, visual/contextual	Visual	30	9.9000	2.99252	.54636
	Contextual	30	7.3500	2.28997	.41809

As illustrated above, the pre-treatment difference between the FD learners in the two experimental groups concerning their vocabulary knowledge turned out to be significant

Therefore, the researcher had to compare their posttest scores through ANCOVA to remove the effect of the initial significant difference. First the assumption of linearity was checked visually through the following graph;The following table shows the mean scores after removing the effect of the covariate:

TABLE 4.6.
ESTIMATED MARGINAL MEANS GROUPING: TEACHING TECHNIQUE
Dependent Variable: Delayed Posttest, FD visual/context

Grouping: Teaching Technique	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Visual	9.986 ^a	.556	8.873	11.098
Contextual	13.781 ^a	.556	12.668	14.893

Hence the rejection of the third hypothesis. It implies that the FD learners benefited significantly more from contextualization technique than from visual aids technique.

The Fourth Hypothesis

As for the fourth hypothesis, the researcher opted for the comparisons of the delayed posttest scores of the FID learners in the two experimental groups. But firstly, she made sure about the homogeneity of their pretest scores. First the normality check was carried out on the pretest scores

Therefore, a t test was conducted to compare them.

TABLE4.7.
GROUP STATISTICS OF PRETEST SCORES OF FID LEARNERS IN THE TWO EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

Grouping: Teaching Technique		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
pretest, FID visual/context	Visual	30	6.7333	2.85492	.52123
	contextual	30	8.5500	2.03567	.37166

As the above table shows, the difference between the two FID groups of learners regarding their pretest vocabulary knowledge turned out to be significant.

Therefore, to compare their delayed posttest scores the researcher had to run an ANCOVA to control for this initial difference. The following table shows the means after controlling for the effect of the pretest scores.

TABLE4.8.
ESTIMATED MARGINAL MEANS GROUPING: TEACHING TECHNIQUE
Dependent Variable:delayed posttest, FID, visual/context

Grouping: Teaching Technique	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Visual	13.686 ^a	.490	12.705	14.666
Contextual	15.931 ^a	.490	14.951	16.912

The above table depicts that the two groups were different in their posttest scores Therefore, the fourth hypothesis is rejected implying that the FID learners benefited significantly more from contextualization teaching technique than from visual aids.

V. DISCUSSION

Based on the results of the data analyses, the first null hypothesis was rejected implying that FID group of learners benefited significantly more from visual aid techniques in their delayed vocabulary posttest compared with the FD learners.

The results of the present study challenge the views of (Thompson & Thompson, 1987; Witkin et al., 1977) who believe that Field Independent Learners are mainly less dominated by the most salient and noticeable cues in learning but Field Dependent Learners are mainly dominated by the most salient or noticeable cues in learning.

The contrast seems to be resulted from other factors such as the researcher's cognitive style which is field dependent as the Group Embedded Figure Tests showed. According to Hayes and Alinson (1997) a cognitive style mismatch between teacher and students is beneficial for FD learners that is FD learners benefit more from FID teachers. Thus FD learners in this study didn't benefit from the researcher who was a FD teacher. Another factor which might affect the result of the study is the type of test which was taken to the students. according to witkin et al. (1997) FID learners perform better in a multiple choice items

The second hypothesis was also rejected implying that FID learners benefited significantly more than FD learners receiving contextualization teaching techniques.

The results of this study supported the idea of Davis (1991) who reported that field dependent learners were found to be less efficient in analyzing, organizing, attending, encoding, and processing information. Thompson (1987) and Witkin et al. (1977), who state field in dependent people, are analytic and spending considerably more time on guessing, analyzing, and intentional learning of each new word.

In addition other factors might play an important role in better performance of Field Independent Learners in context method including the teacher's cognitive style and the kind of test which was taken from the learners

Also the data analyses led to the rejection of the third hypothesis which implies that the FD learners benefited more from contextualization technique than from visual aid technique.

Likewise, as a result of the data analyses, the fourth hypothesis was rejected meaning that FID learners benefited significantly more from contextualization teaching technique than from visual aids.

The result of the third and fourth hypothesis indicated that both FD and FID learners perform better in context group. It may be resulted from some factors such as motivation, interest and anxiety. As the participants in visual aid group were going to have Math class after the English class, they were stressed to complete their homework, and they were attended the class for the last class period at school and they were tired, but the context group had English class for the first class period at school.

VI. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The findings obtained in this study may lead to a number of implications which could Possibly be beneficial for language practitioners, teachers and students in an EFL context.

The findings may encourage teachers to be aware of students' learning behaviors and use appropriate techniques for teaching vocabulary.

The findings of this study are also useful for students in demonstrating the importance of identifying their learning styles. Being aware of their cognitive styles helps the students to identify the best way(s) through which they can enjoy the act of learning a new vocabulary

Syllabus designers and textbook writers will also benefit from the results of this study; in the way that the developers can reveal which vocabulary learning technique or areas of language are most likely to meet students' approval and needs can, moreover, help them to be aware of the effect of other variables like individual differences on language learning.

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Discourse Mastery Based on Indonesian Language Teaching Skills of the Second Grade Students in Senior High School, Pangkep Regency

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Abstract—This study aims at revealing the Indonesian language teaching skills consisting of listening, speaking, reading, and writing by Mastering discourse. The method used was descriptive-qualitative method on the implementation of the teaching language skills, discourse understanding, and the influence of the teaching language skills toward discourse mastery. The populations were 346 students and the samples were 103 students. The instruments used were direct observation on the implementation of teaching language skills. The instruments were tested. Then, hypotheses were tested by using regression analysis. The results show that teaching listening skills toward discourse mastery is poor. In addition, the influence of the teaching skills of speaking, reading, and writing does not affect the student's mastery of discourse. The conclusion is that students who do not master discourse are not caused by the teaching of language skills. On the contrary, students who master the discourse are not caused by the teaching of language skills.

Index Terms—teaching language skills, discourse mastery, listening mastery, speaking mastery, reading mastery, writing mastery

I. INTRODUCTION

Indonesian language teaching, in fact, includes four types of skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing. These skills became the focus of Indonesian language teaching right now. It is based on the assumption that the teachings on the four skills are a guarantee that students can convey an idea well. If students are able to convey an idea well, they can communicate to others either orally or in written. Thus, the purpose of Indonesian language teaching is that students can communicate well.

Teaching the skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing are not separated from the level of understanding and the use of literary and non-literary toward the ideas presented. The level of understanding and the use of the literary word intended include the use of the phrase in a sentence and the use of sentences grammatically. The level of non-literary covers the suitability of a situation where, when, and to whom the idea conveyed. These two levels are always used integrated or simultaneously in conveying ideas in the context of discourse as one media in communication.

Thus, there are two problems regarding this study. The first is teaching language skills including listening, reading, speaking, and writing. The second is mastery of discourse.

These two things are connected each other. In teaching language skills, students are taught skills in understanding and used literary elements, such as the use of the word, the relation between word and sentence, and the relation between sentence and sentence in order to form an idea of discourse.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Indonesian language teaching aims at understanding and uses language in Indonesian both in terms of form and meaning based on need.

Therefore, to find out more about language learning pattern of Indonesia, there are some patterns used in the process of teaching and learning, namely:

- a. Listening → writing + speaking
- b. Speaking → listening + speaking or writing + speaking
- c. Reading → listening + speaking or listening + writing
- d. Writing → speaking or listening + speaking

Teaching listening skills is to teach the media by training students to understand information to empower optimal hearing instrument. In addition, listening skills is the ability to understand all forms of information by the teacher in the learning process. Ref. [19] Students' ability in listening can be known through the understanding, appreciation, interpretation, evaluation, and responding toward any form of information conveyed (Syafi'ie, 1993, p. 27-29). Teaching listening can be performed in various ways or techniques. The chosen technique depends on the purpose, subject matter, and the types of skills developed. Selection of the proper techniques can be varied so that the students are interested and passionate in learning.

Ref. [21] Teaching speaking skills is essentially an interactive communicative process that emphasizes the use of literary aspects orally and directly to the listener, Mulgrave (1954) as cited in Tarigan (1986, p. 15). Teaching speaking skills conducted by the teachers is to train students in expressing ideas that can be understood and communicated to others. Students have the speaking skills, if they master the internal and external factors. The internal factors consist of confidence, not fear, and not feel embarrassed. The external factors are performing activities such as reading and practicing in delivering any information to other students in the process of teaching and learning. Teaching speaking skills can be performing well if it is integrated with the teaching skills of listening, reading, and writing. It is because these four skills are interconnected. Thus, teaching speaking skills can be sourced from the teaching materials of listening, reading, or writing.

Teaching reading skills aims at making students to able to understand the messages carefully, appropriately, rapidly, critically, and creatively through written form. Therefore, the teaching of reading skills is an activity to understand the texts in written form. Teaching reading skills demands students in understanding the content of the text and conveying or communicating to others in the form of speech or written. In teaching reading skills, students should understand all the text content through the use of words, relationships between word and word, either in the form of a phrase, clause, sentence, or relationships between paragraph and paragraph in the text. There are three stages in the teaching of reading skills, to achieve an understanding of students through the text such as preparation, skimming and scanning, decoding and understanding stage. In the preparation stage, students read the title or text sections. In skimming the stage, students read in passing to obtain points of information in the text. In the scanning stage, students read to acquire special information such as the main idea, sentence status, and the establishment of a reading scheme. Decoding stage covers activities in mastering or understanding the meaning of the Word, phrase, cohesion, coherence, and context. Ref. [8] The understanding is stage literally, interpretively, critically, and creatively. (Harjasujana, 1998, p.43).

Teaching writing skills is an embodiment of the teaching skills of listening, reading, and speaking. The teaching of writing skills, in fact, the ability to use the language in writing, it is closely related to the ability of expressing knowledge in writing through an idea Setup, the use of literary norms, the use of correct spelling and the selection of language diversity that suits for the context of communication.

According to Harirston, (1986) as cited in Darmadi (1996, p. 3-4), Ref. [5] there are seven important things that in writing activities. First, writing can be thought provoking to find something. Second, writing can organize and find new ideas. Third, writing can train the ability of developing a concept. Fourth, writing can train attitude objectify. Fifth, writing can absorb and process information. Sixth, writing is a means of practice to solve a complex problem. Seventh, writing forms a creative attitude.

Techniques for teaching writing skills can be done in three stages, such as preparation, writing, and revision stage. The preparation stage is carried out in accordance with the purpose of learning to write which leads to a style of writing and the writing topics that have been determined. Writing stage is the writing process that is in accordance with the model and the specified topic, and it is conducted freely or follows special instructions. Ref. [19] The revision stage is the concept improvement especially on word choice and precision of ideas correlated with sentence structure (Syafi'ie, 1993, p. 59-60).

Based on the description of teaching the language skills above, Indonesia language is taught not partially, but in good structure that can build a context. The context intended in this case is the understanding and the use of the elements of literary and non-literary, which form complete information presented as a whole in communicating to others, either orally or in written form. It can be expressed in the form of discourse. Teaching the language skills is always conducted in the form of a series of ideas manifested fully. To know more clearly the contribution teaching proficiency with discourse, and it is express as follows.

The definition of discourse is more emphasis on the function as an act of communication, whether oral or written, which involves a speaker or writer. The discourse is as a communication of thoughts through words, expression of ideas, or idea of conversation. In addition, it can be a formal treatise writing, dissertation, coursework, lecture, and sermon. In terms of shape, the discourse can be a complete language and has a grammatical unit that can be paragraphs, sentences, or words that carry a full mandate.

Form of discourse categorized in two ways, namely in the form of a series of verbal language (language exist) include the use of language elements supported by *suprasegmental* elements if in writing and supported by punctuation.

It can express as a written discourse is classified into monologue discourse. Discourse can also be a series of non-linguistic (language likes) in the form of meaningful gestures or sign language such as eye movements, lip movements like smiling greeting instead of happy, head movements such as nodding or shaking his head in lieu of approving or not approving, jerking leg movements such as replacement angry. Ref. [20] It can express as the language spoken discourses that are classified as interactive dialogue or discourse PolyLog. (Syamsuddin, 1997, p.13)

In terms of exposure of discourse expressed in six types of narrative discourse is a form of discourse that is the main target behavior is woven and coupled into an event that happened in one unit of time, such as short stories, novels, romance, poetry, films, and case- it is directly related to historical events. Procedural discourse is a discourse in the form of a series of utterances that contain the explanation of the existence of something. Hortatory discourse is a discourse that is more about flavor than the ratio of the judgment contains an invitation, advice, or encouragement that can evoke a sense of heroic to perform an action. Expository discourse is discourse that exposes that can expand the view or knowledge of listeners and readers. Descriptive discourse is a discourse that contains a series of utterances on the object or objects or events based on the actual situation so that listeners and readers will see it as a direct or apparent in the speech. Ref. [18] Argumentative discourse prefers reasoning to influence the attitudes, opinions, and act on the listener or the reader through three main principles, namely the statement (claim), reason (support/ground), and justification (warrant) (Suparno, 1997, p. 26).

In terms of communication, discourse can be understood through the element of cohesion, coherence, reference, inference, and context. The element of cohesion cannot be separated from forming elements consisting of syntactic organization form coherent sentences, both in grammatical and lexical strata through the use of pronouns (pronouns), replacement (substitution, elimination (ellipsis), connecting (conjunctions), repetition (reduplication). Coherence in discourse function as a determinant of the integrity of the discourse that is expressed as a correspondence between ideas through the elements of cohesion. Discourse is not apart from the reference element created by the speaker, as stated by Brown and Yule (1996, p. 203-204) Ref [3] said that the reference was an expression language used by the speaker/writer is referring to something that is discussed, both in the context of linguistic and non-linguistic. Element of inference in discourse is the result of the creation of the listener/reader through the process of interpretation that is spoken by the listener/reader through the correct use of the elements of cohesion. Elements of narrative discourse in the context of both written and spoken a reference by a speaker / writer to determine the intent. Context can clarify the intent of delivery accepted by the reader or listener.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study used a qualitative descriptive design to test the hypothesis by calculating the percentage, managing test results, and calculate regression on variables X and Y. In this case; the researcher examines the three main variables, there are researchers examined the execution of PBM includes teaching skills language through listening activities, speaking, reading, and writing; researchers examined based on the results of teaching the mastery of language skills, and researchers examined the effect of teaching language skills to mastery of discourse.

Before the researchers conducted a third study, researchers first set and a sample of the study population. Total population involved in this research are all students of class XII at SMAN 1 Pangkajene as 346 people and sample size specified by 30% of the total population of as many as 103 people. Determination of the sample size is based on the opinion Pasau Achsin (1993, p. 27) that the sample is homogeneous or nearly homogeneous population of 100 people; 15% of samples should be taken, for descriptive investigations with human samples suggested 30% per unit.

In collecting the data, researchers must first conduct data collection teaching language skills through questionnaires, interviews and direct monitoring. Questionnaire data were obtained on the right percentage based on a predetermined formula derivation total score (SP) divided by the total score (TS). The final results obtained data revealed that teachers teaching teachers to implement properly or language skills in accordance with the concept of learning language skills or not. Collecting data on the mastery of discourse Indonesian students, researchers tested the students at the two forms of objective tests and essay tests. Objective tests were analyzed to determine the level of difficulty (TK) on the index from 0.15 to 0.18 declared fit for use and distinguishing power (DP) on the index above 0.25 declared fit for use. Test scores were analyzed essay's acquisition (SP) divided by the total score (TS) multiplied with the highest score (ST). Essay test results obtained with the adjusted scale mastery level of discourse. The test results obtained expressed as the ability of Indonesian student's master discourse. After both the data obtained, the next process is to know the influence of the teaching of language skills conducted by the teacher with the student's ability to master the discourse by using the regression formula. Influence is that influence teaching listening skills, speaking, reading, and writing as a variable X on mastery of discourse on the process of listening, speaking, reading, and writing as a variable Y. The criteria set in the acceptance of the hypothesis that the hypothesis is accepted when $H_a: \beta_0 \neq 0$, and otherwise rejected when $H_o: \beta_0 = 0$ (β_0 = regression coefficient for the free variable).

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The results of this study consist of three things that were examined, namely the teaching of language skills, mastery of discourse, and the effect of teaching language skills to mastery of discourse. The third study cannot be separated from the purpose of teaching Indonesian. All three are described as the following results.

Teaching listening skills aimed at enhancing students' reasoning on any information obtained through the hearing. Teaching listening skills such as determination of the theme, to understand poetry, listening to the information, trip reports, special tape, draw conclusions, understand stories. Teacher implement the process of listening skill was only 25% (less than adequate).

Teaching speaking skills is a development-oriented teaching students' ability to express their opinions so that students can communicate ideas, thoughts, and feelings to others. Students are able to do those three things; it can be stated that skilled students are talking. Skilled students talk; it can state teaching speaking skills performed by an accomplished teacher well. It is formulated into fourteen indicators that are answering questions from other students, discuss papers, giving feedback, expressing an idea, the notion, emcee (master of ceremonies), speech, revealing the contents of the letter, storytelling, interviews, revealing the contents of the report, argued the question. The results indicate the implementation of teaching speaking skills and achievements only 24% declared inadequately. Thus, less-skilled students speaking skills speak for implementation by inadequate teachers.

Teaching reading skills is a teaching activity so that students can understand the messages carefully, precisely, critically, and creatively through the use of written language. In this case, propose the nine indicators that were analyzed, such as compiling a paragraph, reading literature, answering questions from the text, understanding the use of punctuation, formulating questions of the text, understanding the contents of the article, finding the main idea of the text, knowing the important things of the text, and the text complements hiatus. The results show the achievement of the implementation of the teaching of reading skills is 51% with a sufficient criterion.

Teaching writing skill is aimed to students can be pouring ideas, thought, opinions, or experience in writing. In addition, it takes all the intricate use of language norms including the enhanced spelling appropriately and the selection of language diversity that suits the context of communication. The indicators examined in the teaching of writing skills that are compiled by simple observation report, develop a framework by being an essay, compose a letter, write a summary of the text, compile one of the literary works, and craft dialogue of experience. The research results in the implementation of teaching of writing skills that are 30% less adequate criteria. It illustrates that students do not have adequate writing skills due because teachers have not done teaching writing skills to good use.

Teaching language skills is inseparable from the mastery of discourse for students. Students can master discourse well because many students trained on language skills, such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. It may be stated that if students are trained to speak, then students can master discourse. Even instruction proficiency became the determinant's students' ability to understand the discourse, both from the process of listening, speaking, reading, and even writing.

Research results of teaching based on discourse skills mastery of listening are the mastery of information in various form can be delivered orally and can be understood through listening activities and can give reaction, both in speaking and writing. The results showed that mastery of discourse based on the listening activities of 48 people (46.5%) scored higher of 7, and 55 persons (53.5%) obtained the score lower of 7; have not reached the 75% who got higher scores of 7. It indicates that the student is not yet mastery the discourse through listening.

Mastery of discourse based on teaching speaking skills is carry of information obtained from the discourse, both deriving from the activities of listening or reading that can be communicated orally through the process of speaking. The results showed of 55 people (53.5%) scored higher of 7 than 48 people (46.5%) scored lower 7, have not reached of 75% higher of 7. It indicates that the student has not been able master the discourse through speaking activities.

Mastery of discourse based on teaching reading skills is the mastery of information sourced from process understanding through writing. The activity is more emphasized on understanding the information through the use of literary elements appropriately. The results showed of 81 persons (78.4%) scored higher 7 than 22 people (21.6%) scored lower of 7, and had already reached 75% scored higher of 7. It shows that students can master the discourse through reading activity.

Mastery of discourse based on the teaching writing skills is the process of actualizing the information that has been obtained in writing from listening or reading activities. Student is more emphasized on students' ability to pour the idea in the form of a written discourse. The results showed of 51 people (49.4%) scored higher 7 than 52 persons (50.6%) scored lower of 7, have not reached of 75% scored higher of 7. It indicates that the student has not been able to devise a discourse well through writing activities.

Teaching proficiency and mastery of discourse students cannot be separated. The two things stated if students cannot master the discourse, then the process of teaching proficiency is not done properly. Otherwise, if the implementation of teaching language skill was properly, then the student can master the discourse because the teaching language skills directly related to the process of discourse. Therefore, researchers examine the influence of the teaching language skills to mastery of discourse.

The influence of the teaching listening skills through mastery of discourse. It stated that the teaching listening skills can improve mastery of discourse, for teaching listening skills of influencing train students to understand the discourse through listening process. If the teaching listening skills well done by the teacher in the classroom, then mastery of

discourse through the listening process it means students can master the discourse. After the study based on the data that retrieved (1) the correlation coefficient $R = 0,024684$; (2) the coefficient of determination $(R^2) = 0,06093$; (3) the effective contribution of X to Y = 0.09%; and (4) significance = 0,0119. After comparison of $\alpha = 0.05$ stated accepted hypothesis that there is a (weak) influence the teaching listening skill mastery of discourse through the process of listening (accepted hypothesis).

The influence of teaching language speaking skills toward the mastery of discourse. Students speaking skills is an exercise process of conveying ideas, concepts, thoughts, and feelings to others orally. Students who are doing much speaking exercises, then students can deliver a discourse well orally. After a study based on the data can retrieve (1) the correlation coefficient $R=0,09601$; (2) the coefficient of determination $(R^2)=0,00922$; (3) the effective contribution of X to Y=0.92%; and (4) the significance=0,3347. After comparison of $\alpha=0.05$ rejected hypothesis stated that there was no influence of teaching speaking skills to mastery of discourse. The absence of influence may be stated that student skills can speak through teaching skills are not done properly (rejected hypothesis).

The influence of the teaching of reading skill to the mastery of discourse. Teaching reading skills conducted by the teachers at the school aims to increase the understanding of students' discourse as many students are trained to understand the discourse in writing of the reading process. After a study based on the data that retrieved (1) the correlation coefficient $R=0,11406$; (2) the coefficient of determination $(R^2)=0,02075$; (3) the effective contribution of X to Y = 2,08%; and (4) the significance=0,1446. After comparison of $\alpha=0.05$ rejected hypothesis stated that there is no influence on the teaching reading skills to mastery of discourse. (rejected hypothesis).

The influence of the teaching language writing skills to against the mastery of discourse. Teaching writing skills aims to train students as much as possible so that students can be pouring ideas, concepts, thoughts, or feelings in the form of writing. Students who are often trained in writing, then the level of students' understanding discourse considered the better. After a study based on the data that retrieved (1) the correlation coefficient $R=0,07063$; (2) the coefficient of determination $(R^2)=0,00499$; (3) the effective contribution of X to Y=0.49%; and (4) the significance=0,4783. After comparison of $\alpha=0.05$ rejected hypothesis stated that there is no influence on teaching writing skills to mastery of discourse. (rejected hypothesis).

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Based on result and data analyze to mastery of discourse teaching skills of Bahasa Indonesia in XII Class, SMA Negeri 1 Pangkep Regency examines three things, namely the teaching of language skills, mastery of discourse, and the influence of the teaching language skills to mastery of discourse. Those three things those cannot be separated in Teaching and Learning Process (*Proses Belajar Mengajar/PBM*) of Bahasa Indonesia, because teaching of Bahasa Indonesia that teaches through teaching for understanding and used elements of literary and non literary which can communicate as a discourse in the form of written (reading and writing), and oral (listening and speaking).

Teaching language skills based on the results of the study indicated that the teaching language listening skills by teacher of his achievements of 25%, teaching language speaking skills of his achievements of 24%, the teaching language reading skills of accomplishments of 51% on strata, and teaching writing skill accomplishment of 30%. Under the criteria of 50% was declared inadequate and above 50% stated adequate. In the results of the study revealed that teachers in the implementation of teaching speaking skills are still below the expected target mainly on the teaching of listening skills, speaking, and writing. These three teachers teaching these skills not teach the language skills are not optimal or teachers encountered obstacles in conducting the teaching skills of listening, speaking, and writing. This can have an impact on unskilled students listening, speaking, and writing in the teaching of Indonesian. The lack of student skills in listening, speaking, and writing will also contribute to the students' mastery of discourse inadequate. Unlike the case with the teaching of reading skills can be stated that the teacher has been in the teaching of reading skills sufficiently easy to implement teaching skills of listening, speaking, and writing when compared to the teaching of reading skills. In this case it can be stated that students can dominate the discourse of reading, but students cannot master the discourse of the activities of listening, speaking, and writing.

Teaching language skills done by the teacher in PBM implies mastery of discourse on students, because the elements are presented in the same skill with the elements contained in the discourse. Students' mastery of discourse from the listening process revealed students have not been able to mastery of discourse. Students' mastery of discourse from the speaking process stated students have not been able to mastery the discourse. Students' mastery of discourse from reading process stated students have mastered the discourse. Students' mastery of discourse from writing process students has yet to be declared master of discourse. It says students can master the discourse, if earned scored of 7 and have not master of discourse if obtained scored lower of 7 are classically. This is in line with the teaching of language skills held by the teacher teaching listening skills inadequate implementation, students were not able to master the discourse of the listening process. Teaching conversational skills inadequate implementation, students were able to master the discourse of the listening process. Teaching reading skills sufficient practice, students were able to master the discourse with both the reading process. Teaching writing skills of its inadequate implementation, students were not able to master the discourse of the writing process. Thus, the implementations of the teaching of language skills by deciding to become a teacher discourse on student mastery.

Teaching conversational skills revealed no effect on the control of discourse or the hypothesis is rejected. Results and analysis of these data shows that the teaching of speaking skills has contributed to students' mastery of discourse. Thus, even if the teacher clicking teaches language skills not necessarily speak well students can master discourse. Conversely, even if the student can master discourse well not necessarily caused by the pursuit of speaking skills conducted by the teacher.

Teaching reading skills revealed no effect on the control of discourse or the hypothesis is rejected. Results and analysis of these data shows that the teaching of reading skills has contributed to the control of the student discourse, although the students can master discourse. Thus, student mastery of discourse through the process of reading is not caused by the teaching of language skills conducted by the teacher.

Teaching writing skills revealed no effect on the control of discourse or the hypothesis is rejected. Results and analysis of these data shows that the teaching of writing skills has contributed to students' mastery of discourse. even if the student does not master or master discourse. Thus, even if the teacher teaches language skills to write well is not necessarily the student can master discourse. Conversely, even if the student can master discourse well, not necessarily caused by the teaching of speaking skills conducted by the teacher.

Based on the results of research on the acquisition of discourse based on the teaching of Indonesian language skills in class XI in SMA 1 Pangkep stated that teacher in class XI in SMA 1 Pangkep not the teaching of language skills and a well proportioned and the student does not master discourse. The inability of students to master the discourse is not caused by the teaching of language skills be carried out by the teacher. Thus, the teaching of language skills conducted by the teacher is not the cause of the discourse on student mastery. Vice versa, students can master discourse, not necessarily caused by the teaching of language skills conducted by the teacher.

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The Impact of Attending EFL Classes on the Iranian Female Learners' Attributional Complexity

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Abstract—The multi-layered reality of EFL classes is of great significance in its impact upon the learners' emotions and attitudes. In this study, it is suggested that teachers by taking a humanistic approach, along with making use of the unique features of their classes, could affect the learners' thought patterns and cause attitude and behavior change. In particular, the teacher is believed to possess the power to have an impact upon the learners' attributional complexity or the way they interpret the causes of others' social behaviors. Attributional complexity, a term coined by Fletcher (1986), is "a psychological construct that describes the degree to which an individual is interested in understanding the causes of others' behavior" (as cited in Fast, Reimer & Funder, 2008, p. 209). The current study aimed at unfolding the effect of attending foreign language learning classes on the Iranian female EFL learners' attributional complexity. To this end, 33 Iranian female EFL learners (beginners), and 33 Iranian female non-EFL learners completed Attributional Complexity Scale before and after the EFL courses. The results of the t-tests showed that attributional complexity of the EFL learners did not change significantly after the time interval. The obtained results were believed to be due to the EFL learners' relative lack of a required level of language proficiency in their first course of English, which enables them to involve in social interactions and benefit the language classes in a way that their thought patterns are affected. In addition, the period of language courses were believed to be too short for this change in EFL learners. Furthermore, it is believed that there is a great need to train teachers and try to actualize the potentialities of EFL classes, due to the endowments of the language teachers and the nature of their classes.

Index Terms—attribution, attributional complexity, EFL learners, EFL classes' potentialities, unique features of EFL classes

I. INTRODUCTION

To date the relationship between society and language has intrigued researchers in order to investigate the possible directions this relationship might take. Attempts have been made to gain a better view of the way language operates in society for individuals and the way it affects the society or is affected by it.

By knowing a language, one certainly is affected by the structure of it which arises from the society and the environment. From another perspective, while a person discovers the elements of a linguistic system, he/she tends to construct his/her own personal meanings. According to Piaget's cognitive constructivism, "emphasis is placed upon the importance of learners constructing their own representations of reality ... Vygotsky's social constructivism emphasizes the importance of social interaction and cooperative learning in constructing both cognitive and emotional images of reality" (As cited in Brown, 2007, p. 12).

In language learning classes, learners discover the linguistic elements personally and are also open to social interaction. The unique nature of EFL classes is considered as a great opportunity for teachers to help the learners reconstruct the concepts and norms in a desired way which makes the learners live happier and enhances the quality of their relationships. This opportunity includes the effect learning another language might have on thought patterns and brain, and also the social communicative nature of the interactions and the form of genuine relationships between the learners and the language teacher which may cause thought and behavior change. Accordingly, it is also believed that how one perceives the world might affect the way she/he uses the language and from another perspective the way she/he uses the language might affect the way she/he perceives the world and the society. This way of looking at this issue is similar to that of Sapir and Whorf's position. According to Carroll (2008), Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis emphasizes the idea that language shapes thought patterns. He also mentions that this hypothesis consists of two parts, linguistic determinism, which refers to a change in the way a person thinks caused by the language, and the linguistic relativity, which claims that cognitive processes that are determined are different for different languages, hence the speakers of

different languages are said to think in different ways. Therefore, as a foreign language learner, learning and internalizing a new linguistic system can extend the learners' worldview. Regarding this, it could be said that foreign/second language learners might think and behave differently from non-language learners. This is of great significance to say that the role of the language teacher is indeed so crucial in this change. The way she/he presents the language, its culture and social norms to students and the encouragement of an attitude of tolerance towards them, are on the shoulders of the language teacher. It is believed that the language teacher only by building rapport and developing a strong emotional relationship is able to influence the learners in order to cause attitude and behavior change.

Due to the potentialities of EFL classes, which lead the students and also the teachers to mutual understanding and admiration of different cultures, and also a reconstruction of social norms and perceptions, being in a foreign language learning class might have an effect upon the students' thought patterns and in particular on their attributional complexity or in other words on the way they interpret the causes of others' social behaviors.

The teacher in this sense is so potent that can lead the learners into a positive mood not only to embrace the new system of language and culture, but also to help them reflect upon their home cultures and life issues, and in some cases contemplate on their own social behavior and also upon the behaviors of the members of their social networks, and try to keep the balance in interpreting them and change towards positively reputed individuals in their attributional styles or towards the styles which help them recover their equilibrium.

As social human beings, we are faced with different social behaviors and events that need great care and interpretation. Generally, there are different explanations for behaviors and events, and we try to make attributions and integrate the attributions to form a final impression. We make use of attributional processes to explain causes of behaviors we see in others. "According to one common meaning, forming an attribution is giving an explanation (especially of behavior); according to another common meaning, forming an attribution is making a dispositional (trait) inference from behavior (Hamilton, 1998; Hilton, Smith, & Kin, 1995; Malle, 2004)" (as cited in Malle, 2003, p.1). Accordingly, several views regarding the attributional processes have emerged, and they generally fall into one of the two categories. "One view proposes that people are cognitive misers and rely on simple heuristics when attributing the causes of others' behavior (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974), while the other view holds that the attributional process is complex and that people generate and consider multiple causes (Ross & Fletcher, 1985). Moreover, there is empirical evidence to support both views (Fletcher, 1983; Read, 1983, respectively)" (as cited in Fast, Reimer, & Funder, 2008, p.3). Additionally, according to Fast, Reimer, and Funder (2008), attributional complexity is a psychological construct designed to describe individual differences in the motivation and preference for complex or simple attributions for behaviors of themselves or of others. According to them the behavior of individuals with higher attributional complexity are relatively open, positive, expressive, and socially skilled.

This study enlightens the impact of attending a foreign language learning class upon the Iranian female EFL learners' attributional complexity, which includes motivational components, complex versus simple explanations of the others' social behavior, metacognition, interaction with others, abstract versus causal explanations, external and past causes of others' behavior. It is important to say that the sub-components of the attributional complexity are not the focus of this study.

Limitations of the Study

The current study faced some limitations which should be regarded in future studies. First of all, this study was only conducted in certain language institutes in Mashad, and the participants were only females. Therefore, the results cannot be generalized to all foreign language learners. Additionally, the institutes were chosen among the ones who had a general tendency towards communicative methods which were based on humanistic approaches in order for the students to be open to attitude and behavior change in a positive manner, however, to what extent the teachers had real commitment to this approach was not checked by any means.

The next limitation is that the study is only based on quantitative data and therefore other studies could be done with other qualitative forms in order to be enriched and more generalizable. Furthermore, this study made use of the Persian back-translated version of Attributional Complexity Scale, which needs the process of validation in the Iranian community in future studies.

The last point to be mentioned is that there might be other factors contributing to a change in the EFL learners' level of attributional complexity which the study failed to control. It is believed that by great care and enthusiasm, those factors could be recognized and controlled in future studies.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

It is of importance to mention that attributional complexity is rooted in attribution theory. It could be said that the basic idea and theory of attribution gets back to Heider's theory of attribution (1958) which was expanded thereafter. According to Manusov and Spitzberg (2008), Heider reflected the logical and empirical backbone of attribution theories by making relatively global and general claims about what people do. They state that for Heider people act like naïve scientists as they attempt to make sense of their larger social worlds in a relatively systematic way, and they are active interpreters of the social events that happen in their lives. In this way, they use consistent and logical modes of sense-making in their interpretations. It is also believed that they do this to both understand and control the world around them.

In other words "Heider defined attribution as an effort to predict and control the world by assigning transient behavior to relatively unchanging dispositions" (As cited in Griffin, 2008, p. 141). Attributions are defined in various ways:

Researchers have argued that attributions vary from one another not only based on causal locus (which is said to be external or internal) but also on other dimensions. These include "stability," or whether or not we see the cause of something as stable ("He's late because he doesn't care about other people") or unstable ("He's late because he wasn't feeling well and it took him a while to get ready"); and "control," or whether or not we think a person was able to alter the cause ("He's late because he forgot to set his alarm again") or unable to alter the cause ("He's late because there was a traffic accident that delayed traffic") (Manusov & Spitzberg, 2008, P. 39).

In this case different people tend to choose different interpretations for others' or even their own social behaviors or for the social events that occur in their lives. What is of great importance is that although there are different types of Attribution Theory, they all are concerned with how people process information to understand social events or behaviors. Talking about the nature and tendency in people for attributing different causes, it is believed that "to the degree that people learn about the direct and indirect consequences of their own and others' attributions, they can attempt to manage them" (Kelley & Michela, 1980, p. 492). According to Lassiter, Munhall, Burger, Weiland, Handley, and Geers (2005), for Fletcher, Danilovics, Fernandez, Peterson, and Reeder (1986) people differ both in their motivation and incentives to explain social behavior and in the complexity of explanations they generally generate. For them, these differences are the result of people varying in terms of the complexity of attributional schemata they possess for organizing and interpreting social stimuli. Accordingly, this embodies the view that more complex individuals tend to have more complex interpretations of behaviors.

According to Fitness and Curtis (2005), for Davis and Kraus (1997) accurate judgment in the interpersonal domain was characterized by high cognitive complexity (indicating a tendency to think deeply about others' behaviors), low levels of dogmatic or rigid thinking, and high field independence, indicating an ability to perceive discrete units of behavior that might be unnoticeable to others.

An expansion of attribution theory was that of Fletcher (1986) which was called Attributional complexity. According to Narayanan (2009), for Fletcher, Danilovics, Fernandez, Peterson, and Reeder (1986) attributional complexity is a psychological construct that describes the degree to which an individual is interested in understanding the causes of other's behavior and considers many different possible causes. It is believed that those people who are higher in attributional complexity are theoretically like good social psychologists in that they are more likely to consider dispositional factors, situational factors, and factors operating from the past in their interpretations of social behaviors and events. In contrast, those lower in attributional complexity are theorized to be less likely to think about the causes of behavior or to consider multiple causes.

As Ask and Granhag (2003) mention Fletcher and his associates developed Attributional Complexity Scale to capture individual differences in the propensity to produce complex explanations to the behaviors of others.

In this study it is believed that due to certain potentialities of foreign language learning classes, and language learning itself, attributional complexity of the individuals might be affected. Accordingly, attributional complexity scale measures the complexity of the attributions people make of the social behavior of others or themselves and according to Lassiter, Munhall, Burger, Weiland, Handley, & Geers (2005) its subcomponents are motivation to explain behavior, preference for complex explanations, presence of causal metacognitions, awareness of the causal importance of social interaction, tendency to infer complex internal attributions, tendency to infer abstract, contemporary external attributions, and tendency to infer external causes operating from the past. They also mention that people whose responses indicate that they are high (low) across these various subscales are considered to be attributionally complex (simple). Based on these attributional subscales, any of the subparts might be affected by attending a foreign language class and learning a foreign language.

Although there is no unanimous agreement on language learning classroom as a real part of the society, we believe this view is so extreme and some influential factors might be underestimated. "Two links with other areas must be made. One concerns the individual in the classroom, the other the classroom as part of the society. The individual's attitudes to the classroom form an important component in l2 learning. The students' attitudes towards the learning situation, as measured by feelings about the classroom teacher and level of anxiety about classroom, contribute to the students' motivation" (Cook, 2008, p. 163).

In this way not only based on Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, might language learning itself affect people's thought and worldviews, but also the student-teacher and student-student relationships and interactions and the class potentialities may cause thought and behavior change. Pishghadam (2012) proposed a new type of syllabus for language teachers which, regarding the power the teacher and his/ her class possess to affect students' lives, directed them to give priority to life issues rather than merely language in class. This is in line with Sanders and River (1996), whom in their paper got to the point that the effects of the teachers on student achievement are both additive and cumulative with little evidence of compensatory effects. Moreover, it is noteworthy that students of different ethnicities respond equivalently within the same quintile of teacher effectiveness.

It is of significance to consider the point that certain features are needed in order for attitude change. These features seem to be similar to those of language classes. According to Lindzey and Aronson (1969) different types of attitude-

change situations are mentioned which are 1. Suggestion situations 2. Conformity situations 3. Group discussion situations 4. Persuasive messages and 5. Intensive indoctrination. This is however important to say that these situations which seem similar to those of a second/foreign language class need great care and study in order to be fully understood and compared.

Additionally, the brain studies are evidence for the benefits learning another language might have for people. In the same way, Martenson, Lovden, Bodamme, Lindgren, Johansson, Nyberg and Eriksson (2012) discovered that the accelerated learning of foreign languages can lead to the growth of language-related regions of the brain.

This study sheds light on the effect of attending a foreign language class, regarding its unique properties and the language teacher's endowments, on attributional complexity of EFL learners.

In relation to attributional complexity and its basis, attribution theory, attempts have been made to define it theoretically and to work on its relationship with other constructs or the other way around. As an instance, Zuckerman (1979) worked on the question of whether causal attributions serve the need to protect and / or enhance self-esteem or not.

Concerning the research done on the relationship between attributional complexity and some other constructs, we could name the work of Fast, Heather, Reimer and Funder (2007) who found that the behavior of individuals with higher attributional complexity were relatively open, positive, expressive, and socially skilled. They said although attributional complexity was unrelated to academic achievement, those higher in attributional complexity tended to be described by peers as having social wisdom, thoughtfulness, empathy, and openness and their behaviors contribute to good social judgment. Also Townsend, Silva, Mueller, Curtin, and Tetrick, (2002) worked on Attributional Complexity as a link between training, job complexity, decision latitude, leader-member exchange, and performance.

Talking about the behaviors and attitudes of people regarding attributional complexity, Sun & Anderson (2012) stated that Attributional complexity refers to the capability of discriminating and integrating dimensions related to social judgment in order to understand social behavior. While previous leadership research has examined the role of leader attributions, it has neglected the role of attributional complexity. They theorize and find support for a relationship between higher attributional complexity and transformational leadership behaviors. In the same manner, Marsh & Weary (1989) mentioned that recent research suggests that mildly and moderately depressed individuals are more sensitive to social information than the non-depressed individuals and the relationship between the severity of depression and a measure relevant to this social sensitivity, attributional complexity, was examined in their paper. They came to the conclusion that an inverted-U-shaped relationship between depression and attributional complexity existed. Mildly depressed individuals had the highest attributional complexity scores; nondepressed and severely depressed individuals had the lowest scores and women also had higher attributional complexity scores.

It is of great significance to mention that regarding the construct of attributional complexity and concepts and issues related to TEFL, there is a paucity of research done. There is no research done on the effect of EFL classes on the teachers or learners' attributional complexity.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study aimed at investigating the effect of attending EFL classes on the learners' attributional complexity. The EFL learners were female adolescents and adults, who had just started learning English as a foreign language, and had little or no communicative knowledge of English. Their attributional complexity was measured by a questionnaire before and after the foreign language learning courses. The same is done before and after the specific time for non-EFL learners for further comparison.

A. *Setting and Participants*

The participants included 33 EFL learners (Mean=22.30, SD=6.21), and 33 non-EFL learners (Mean=25.92, SD=7.35), who aged 13 to 40. Only female learners took part in this study, and they had little communicative knowledge of English at the beginning of the course. They were considered as adult and adolescent learners chosen randomly from two institutes, namely Safir and Parax in Mashad. These two institutes generally follow a communicative-like approach and the teachers should have a good relationship with the learners. The EFL learners had not taken part in any other art-form classes or any other classes which might cause attitude and behavior change in the time of the study.

B. *Instrumentation*

The instruments that were utilized to carry out this study include Attributional Complexity Scale (ACS), and a background questionnaire designed by the researchers.

The background questionnaire was designed by the researchers to control factors that might have an effect upon the learners' attributional complexity. Therefore, the learners' learning experiences, recreational or social activities (such as attending art-form classes), psychiatric history, and family background were reported and controlled.

In order to measure the participants' attributional complexity, ACS was used. Fletcher and his associates (1986) developed Attributional Complexity Scale (ACS). This scale captures individual differences in the tendency to generate complex explanations to the behaviors of others. It includes 27 items, and each of the items is scored from -3 to +3

(from strongly disagree to strongly agree). There are 12 items in the test which should be reversed. According to Ask and Granhag (2003) the scale measures seven attributional constructs: 1. Level of interest or motivation, which means attributionally complex people possess higher levels of intrinsic motivation to explain and understand human behavior, 2. Preference for complex explanations, which means complex individuals generate behavioral explanations that contain a greater number of relevant causes, 3. Metacognitive awareness, that is, complex individuals tend to think about the cognitive processes underlying behavioral attribution, 4. Awareness of social influences, referring to the tendency of complex individuals to take the power of the social situation into account when forming causal attributions, 5. Abstract or complex internal attributions – the degree of complexity in explanations involving internal traits, dispositions and beliefs, 6. Contemporary external attributions, meaning that complex people acknowledge abstract, non-salient behavioral causes in a person's environment, and 7. finally awareness of external causes operating from the past.

Ask and Granhag (2003) also mention that Fletcher, Danilovics, Fernandez, Peterson and Glenn (1986) provided evidence for the external validity of the scale. They confirmed that Attributionally complex students compared with attributionally simple students spontaneously produced more causes for personality dispositions and selected more complex causal attributions for simple behavioral events. According to Fitness and Curtis (2005) the reported internal reliability of the scale is .85 (Fletcher et al., 1986) and in their own study the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient was high (Cronbach Alpha = .89). Fast, Reimer and Funder (2007) found that The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients for each subscale ranged from .50 to .65, with a total scale reliability of .88, and they said this was slightly higher than the .85 found by Fletcher et al. (1986). The average inter-correlation of the seven subscales was .48, which was again slightly higher than the .40 found by Fletcher et al. (1986). The Persian back-translated version of this scale was used in this study.

C. Data Collection and Analysis Procedure

The data collection procedure was done in Safir and Parax Language Institutes for the adults and adolescent EFL learners, in Mashhad. The permit for conducting the research at these two institutes was obtained from their educational supervisors. This study required great collaboration on the part of participants and the teachers. Therefore, the first step was to explain the whole procedure to the teachers. Then the teachers had to talk to the students and explain the general idea and the format of the questionnaire. The learners were told that the same test would be given in future as the post-test, so that they could not refrain from cooperation later on. The first criterion for selection of the volunteers to enter the study was the background questionnaire designed by the researchers. Only those students who had not attended any art-form or social classes and had not been on medication or hospitalization regarding depression were asked to cooperate in later stages, in order to control the factors that might have affected their attributional complexity. In the same way, the learners had almost the same psychiatric history. First of all, the learners were told to complete the background questionnaire, and were also informed that the tests were unanimous. The same test was taken 4-6 weeks later. The process of data collection took approximately 2 months.

After collecting the data and codifying the items of the questionnaire, they were fed into the computer. For the data analysis SPSS 19.0 statistical software was employed. First of all the descriptive statistics were calculated for the selected variables. Then t-test was employed to investigate any significant difference between Iranian female EFL learners and Iranian female non-EFL learners regarding their attributional complexity before and after the time interval. The participants were different due to the natural exposure of one group to a natural condition, in this case attending language classes, with similar backgrounds.

IV. ANALYSES OF THE RESULTS

The null hypothesis states that there is no significant difference between Iranian female EFL learners and Iranian female non-EFL learners with respect to their attributional complexity after the time interval. To compare the control and the experimental groups with respect to their attributional complexity, first there is a need to check that both experimental and control groups are homogeneous to be assured that any improvement in the data is due to attending language classes. For this reason, independent-samples t-test was run to check the homogeneity of the two groups. The descriptive statistics given in Table 1 indicates that the mean of the experimental group is 132.30 and that of the control group is 129.46. To examine whether this difference is statistically significant, t-test table was checked.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: EXP. VS. CONTR. GROUPS BY AC (PRE-TEST)

Group Types	N	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	33	132.30	10.001	1.741
Control	32	129.46	14.535	2.569

As Table 2 indicates, the difference between the two groups is not statistically significant ($t=.91$, $df= 63$, $p>.05$). Therefore, the two groups are homogeneous with regard to attributional complexity before the time interval.

TABLE 2.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST: FOR EQUALITY OF THE TWO GROUPS BY AC (PRE-TEST)

	Levene's test				T-test	
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-Tailed)	Mean Differences
Equal V. Assumed	3.831	.055	.918	63	.362	2.834
Equal V. Not Assumed			.913	54.807	.365	2.834

To examine the impact of the treatment on attributional complexity, the post-tests were examined. As descriptive statistics given in Table 3 indicates, the mean of the experimental group is 130.18 and that of the control group is 128.75.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: EXP. VS. CONTR. GROUPS BY AC (POST-TEST)

Group Types	N	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	32	130.187	11.518	2.036
Control	32	128.750	12.951	2.289

As Table 4 indicates, the difference between the two groups is not statistically significant ($t=.46$, $df=6$, $p>.05$). In other words, the experimental and the control groups have the same level of attributional complexity after the time interval.

TABLE 4.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST: FOR EQUALITY OF THE TWO GROUPS BY AC (POST-TEST)

	Levene's test				T-test	
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-Tailed)	Mean Differences
Equal V. Assumed	.180	.073	.469	62	.641	1.437
Equal V. Not Assumed			.469	61.167	.641	1.437

However, to shed more light on the role of attending EFL classes in learners' attributional complexity, paired-samples t-test was run to see whether the treatment affects the attributional complexity of the experimental group. A paired-samples t-test was also run to compare the control group in the pre-test and post-test.

As can be seen in Table 5, the mean of attributional complexity in the pre-test is 132.84 and for the post-test is 130.18. To examine whether this difference is statistically significant, paired-samples t-test was run. The result of the analysis is given in Table 6.

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST. EXP. GROUP BY AC (PRE- VS. POST)

	N	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	32	132.843	9.659	1.707
Post-test	32	130.187	11.518	2.036

According to Table 6, there is no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the experimental group with regard to their attributional complexity ($t=1.30$, $df=31$, $p>.05$).

TABLE 6.
PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST: EXP. GROUP BY AC (PRE- VS. POST-TEST)

	Mean	SD	Std. Error	95% Confidence		T	Df	sig (2-tailed)
	Mean			Lower	Upper			
Pre-Post	2.65	11.48	2.03	-1.485	6.798	1.308	31	.200

Table 7 shows the descriptive statistics for the control group. As can be seen in the Table, mean of the attributional complexity in the pre-test is 129.32 and for the post-test is 128.35. To examine whether this difference is statistically significant, paired-samples t-test was run. Result of the analysis is given in Table 8.

TABLE 7.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST. CONTR. GROUP BY AC (PRE- VS. POST-TEST)

	N	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	31	129.322	14.752	2.649
Post-test	31	128.354	12.968	2.329

As Table 8, there is no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the control group with regard to their attributional complexity ($t=.65$, $df=30$, $p>.05$).

TABLE 8.
PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST: FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP BY ATTRIBUTIONAL COMPLEXITY (PRE- VS. POST-TEST)

	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence		T	df	sig (2-tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
Pre-Post	.967	8.26	1.483	-2.062	3.997	.652	30	.519

V. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The aim of the study was to investigate the effect of attending foreign language classes on the Iranian female EFL learners' attributional complexity. In order to compare the control and the experimental groups with respect to their attributional complexity, there was a need to check that both experimental and control groups were homogeneous in the pre-test. For this reason, independent-samples t-test was run to check the homogeneity of the two groups. Results indicated that, the difference between the two groups was not statistically significant ($t=.91$, $df= 63$, $p>.05$). Therefore, the two groups were homogeneous with regard to their attributional complexity before the treatment which was attending a foreign language learning class. The results of independent-samples t-tests indicated that the difference between the two groups after the time specified was not statistically significant ($t=.46$, $df= 6$, $p>.05$). This means that the experimental and the control groups had the same level of attributional complexity after the time interval.

A paired-samples t-test was also run to compare the pre and post-tests of each group before and after that period. The analyses revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the experimental group with regard to their attributional complexity. In other words, there was no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the experimental group with regard to their attributional complexity ($t=1.30$, $df=31$, $p>.05$).

The results showed that there was no significant difference between the pre and post-tests in the control group regarding attributional complexity ($t=.65$, $df=30$, $p>.05$). In other words attributional complexity of the non-language learners did not change after the time interval. In this study, it was assumed that due to learning a new linguistic system and a reconstruction of concepts and forms, and also because of certain properties of language classes, for instance the specific types of interactions, and interpersonal relationships, there might be a change in students' ability in interpreting social behaviors of others and themselves. According to Fast, Reimer and Funder (2007), some evidence suggests that the ones who are attributionally complex (who have high scores in AC) may have a positive reputation and behave in a socially skilled manner, however, this is not necessarily the case; other evidence suggests that they may be socially detached and awkward. Therefore, the learners who are attributionally complex do not necessarily have good or bad reputations, as this is the case for all the people. However, what is of great significance according to the same researches is that the behaviors of individuals with higher attributional complexity were relatively open, positive, expressive, and socially skilled. They said although attributional complexity was unrelated to academic achievement, those higher in attributional complexity tended to be described by peers as having social wisdom, thoughtfulness, empathy, and openness and their behaviors contribute to good social judgment.

The question of how the teacher might affect the attributional style of his/her learners is of great concern. In this study, we did not expect a directional change; rather we wanted to investigate it. In this regard, the teacher might be able to affect the attributional styles of the learners in a way that brings happiness and equilibrium to their lives. Learning the new linguistic system itself, which based on Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis affects the learners' worldview, general knowledge and information about different cultures, subcultures and social dyads will open a new horizon to the learners, and could act as a stimulus that consciously or subconsciously may cause thought and behavior change, especially if the students are motivated to do so. The role of language teacher is also so crucial in the process of the enhancement of this change. The potent language teacher, by developing a strong relationship, is able to go a little further from teaching only linguistic forms, and affect the learners' thought patterns and norms, and consequently cause attitude and behavior change. The type of persuasive communication, which is grounded upon the relationship of trust between the learners and the teacher, will make the learners open to a positive change.

In this study, attributional complexity of learners did not change after the course. Certain potentialities of language classes were introduced in this study, however, this doesn't mean these potentialities have been actualized and fulfilled. The results showed that there is a great need for further training of the teachers and the learners. Forming certain attitudes needs a chain of anticipations and reinforcements. Whatever attributional style a language teacher possesses, he/she may not affect that of his/her learners, unless the needed factors are available. As Mynatt and Doherty (2002) suggest people may develop a pessimistic explanatory style or an optimistic explanatory style. One important thing that the language teacher could do is to try to promote optimism in order to help the ones with pessimistic style to prevent depression.

According to Malim and Birch (1994) certain factors are needed for attitude change. The most relevant factor to present study is persuasive communication, which involves perception and attention, understanding, acceptance, memory and finally action. Language teachers, in class discussions might go a bit further and try to affect the attitudes of the learners in a systematic, pre-arranged way. In the process of this attitude change, persuasive communication is needed. The teacher might also make use of the influence of "social facilitation" and try to help the learners in social life issues. For them, social facilitation refers to the effect upon people due to the presence or participation of others, which facilitates their performance.

Another significant point is that as Hall and Hewings (2001) mention, a new language implies the use and refinement of perceptions, concepts and affects. In addition, they believe learning the conventions governing communication within a new social group involves the refinement and use of the social roles and the social identity expected by that group of members. The teachers, in this manner, could seize this opportunity of openness towards the new language and culture, to try to affect the people in order to help them develop better interpersonal relationships and a more flexible and deeper

understanding of social behaviors and events. In particular, she/he can help the learners construct a new identity in the newly developed social group- the EFL class- in a way that brings equilibrium in learners' lives, especially in their social relations.

VI. APPLICATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Foreign language institutes may consider these humanistic and social aspects while holding teacher training courses. Individuals who need to join a social group for the improvement of interpersonal relations, and the people who need to do a recreational activity, can attend these EFL classes, whose teachers are well-trained in the ways they can affect the learners' lives. Furthermore, those who feel they have developed a pessimistic style, or are not satisfied with their attributional style can join these classes.

VII. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

It is believed that "starting the questionnaire with a rather forbidding set of personal background questions (as in passport application form) is off-putting and may also ring privacy alarm bells in the students. Such questions are best left to the end of the questionnaire" (Mackey & Gass, 2011, p. 78). This was considered one of the reasons why the students felt a little uncomfortable with taking the test. Other reasons may include political, social, or cultural influences which make the learners save their self-image. Further research might be on these factors and how we could control them.

This study made use of the Persian back-translated version of attributional complexity scale. Further research could validate this scale for Iranian community for more accurate results. Furthermore, it is believed that due to the lack of linguistic ability of the learners, who had just started their English courses, a significant change in their attributional complexity did not occur.

Another reason might be the short period of language courses, and other research might follow the participants in a period of 4-5 months. Therefore, future research might be on the effect of EFL classes on the learners' attributional complexity for more advanced levels, over a longer period of time. Another important point to be mentioned is that duplications of the same study, and also of the study in which the teachers are all trained, are needed in order to gain more precise results.

APPENDIX A. PERSONAL BACKGROUND

ضمن تشکر از همکاری شما، شایان ذکر است مشخصات فردی شما تنها به جهت اهداف پژوهشی ما کاربرد داشته و بدون ذکر نام شما و کاملاً محرمانه است

لطفاً مختصراً پاسخ دهید:

میزان تحصیلات: _____ شهر، ناحیه (یا نام محله) ای که در آن زندگی می کنید: _____

جنسیت: ☐ زن ☐ مرد / سن پدر: _____ ، سن مادر: _____ / چندمین فرزند خانواده: _____

آیا پدر و مادر در قید حیات اند؟ ☐ بله ☐ خیر ☐ اگر خیر چه وقت فوت کرده اند؟ _____

آیا ظرف سه سال اخیر به مرکز مشاوره رفته اید؟ (یا می روید) چند وقت پیش؟ _____

اگر روانشناس شما بیماری روانی خاصی را برای شما تشخیص داده است نام ببرید: _____

راه درمانی پیشنهادی روانشناسان چه بوده است؟ _____

اگر خودتان بیماری روانی خاصی را برای خود متصور هستید نام ببرید (مثلاً وسواس و غیره) _____

آیا سابقه ی بیماری روانی خاصی در خانواده ی شما وجود دارد؟ _____

آیا ظرف سه سال اخیر به یکی از کلاس های موسیقی، هنری یا ورزشی رفته اید؟ مختصراً با ذکر زمان توضیح دهید. _____

آیا کتاب زیاد می خوانید؟ ☐ بله ☐ خیر ☐ فکر می کنید آمدن به کلاس زبان به چه جنبه ی روحی- روانی شما کمک کرده است یا می کند؟ _____

آیا می دانید همه ی مردم در صدی از افسردگی را دارند؟ خود را چقدر افسرده می دانید؟ _____

آیا فکر می کنید در بهبود افسردگی شما کلاس زبان نقش داشته است؟ _____

چقدر فکر می کنید حضور در کلاس زبان باعث از بین رفتن خجالت شما و اجتماعی تر شدنتان شده است؟ _____

آیا مشغولیتی که از یادگیری زبان در کلاس و خانه برایتان ایجاد شده است باعث بهتر شدن روحیه تان شده است؟ _____

انگیزه ی شما از یادگیری زبان انگلیسی چیست؟ _____

آیا ظرف سه سال اخیر به طور مداوم و جدی به کلاس زبان رفته اید؟ _____

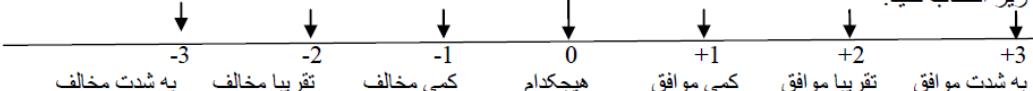
آیا تا به حال برایتان اتفاق افتاده است که در کلاس زبانتان راجع به موضوعی بحث کنید و نگرشتان تغییر کند؟ _____

لطفاً نام ببرید به چه کلاس های دیگری می روید؟ _____

چند مورد بدترین و چند مورد از بهترین اتفاقات زندگی تان را ظرف سه سال اخیر نام ببرید: _____

با تشکر از شما دوست عزیز

APPENDIX B. PERSIAN BACK-TRANSLATED ATTRIBUTIONAL COMPLEXITY SCALE

- این پرسشنامه به این جهت طرح شده است تا راه های متفاوتی را که مردم در مورد خودشان و دیگران فکر می کنند بررسی کند.
- لازم نیست اسم خود را بر روی آن بنویسید.
- پاسخ صحیح یا غلطی مطرح نیست، بلکه ما به درک شخص شما از مسائل علاقه مندیم.
- لطفاً به هر جمله تا می توانید با صداقت و دقت پاسخ دهید، اما زمان زیادی را صرف هر کدام نکنید.
- در مقابل هر جمله، لطفاً یکی از اعداد مثبت یا منفی زیر را، که نشان دهنده میزان موافقت شما با مساله است، بر مبنای طیف زیر انتخاب کنید.
- 
1. من معمولاً تلاشی برای تحلیل یا توضیح رفتار دیگران نمی کنم.
 2. هنگامی که یک دلیل خاص برای رفتار فردی یافتم، معمولاً دیگر فراتر از آن و به دنبال دلایل دیگر نمی روم.
 3. اینطور فکر می کنم که فهمیدن فرآیندهای فکری خودمان و تحلیل آنها، بسیار مهم است.
 4. در مورد تأثیری که بر رفتار بقیه می گذارم بسیار فکر می کنم.
 5. من دریافته ام که روابط بین خصوصیات اخلاقی، عقاید و بینش های یک فرد، معمولاً بسیار ساده و راحت است.
 6. اگر بین مردمی عجیب و یا غیر طبیعی رفتار می کنند، نظر من اینست که آنها، فی نفسه انسان هایی عجیب و غیر طبیعی اند و زحمت توضیح فراتر از آن را به خود نمی دهم.
 7. من در مورد پیشینه ی خانوادگی و تاریخچه ی شخصی افرادی که به من نزدیک اند، بسیار فکر کرده ام، تا شخصیت کنونی شان را بهتر بفهمم.
 8. اگر بحثی راجع به دلایل رفتار کسی پیش بیاید، زیاد علاقه مند به شرکت در آن نیستم.
 9. من به این موضوع پی برده ام که علل رفتار دیگران معمولاً پیچیده است تا ساده.
 10. علاقه مندم بفهمم در ذهن خودم چه می گذرد هنگامی که در مورد مردم قضاوت می کنم، یا عللی را به رفتارشان نسبت می دهم.
 11. در مورد راه های متفاوتی که از طریق آن ها افراد بر هم تأثیر می گذارند، خیلی کم فکر می کنم.
 12. من فکر می کنم برای اینکه بتوان رفتار و شخصیت فردی را به درستی فهمید، بایستی تناسب میان عقاید، بینش ها و خصوصیات اخلاقی اش را درک کرد.
 13. هنگامی که سعی دارم رفتار بقیه را توضیح دهم، تنها بر روی خود آن فرد تمرکز می کنم و زیاد نگران کلیه ی عوامل موجود که ممکن است روی رفتار او تأثیر گذاشته باشند نیستم.
 14. به این مسئله پی برده ام که علت اصلی رفتار یک فرد، به گذشته ی او مربوط است.
 15. از تحلیل رفتار دیگران بسیار لذت می برم.
 16. من فکر می کنم معمولاً توضیحات پیچیده درباره ی رفتار مردم، بیشتر گنج می کنند است تا اینکه بخواهد به ما کمک کند.
 17. هنگامی که درگیر فرایند فهم و توضیح رفتار دیگران ام، به اینکه در ذهنم چه می گذرد زیاد فکر نمی کنم.
 18. در مورد تأثیری که دیگران بر رفتار من می گذارند بسیار کم فکر می کنم.
 19. در مورد اینکه چگونه هر قسمت از شخصیت من بر دیگر قسمت ها اثر می گذارد زیاد فکر کرده ام (مثلاً عقاید یا بینش هایم و بینش هایم بر خصوصیات اخلاقی ام).
 20. در مورد تأثیری که جامعه بر دیگران می گذارد بسیار فکر می کنم.
 21. هنگامی که رفتار فردی را تحلیل می کنم، معمولاً به این نتیجه می رسم که علل آن رفتار یک زنجیره را تشکیل می دهد که به زمانی در گذشته ی او باز می گردد، حتی گاهی به سال ها قبل.
 22. در مورد رفتار انسان ها زیاد کنجکاو نیستم.
 23. برای رفتار مردم، توضیحات ساده را به تفاسیر پیچیده ترجیح می دهم.
 24. وقتی که دلایلی که برای رفتار خودم دارم با آنهایی که دیگران در مورد می گویند فرق می کند، معمولاً باعث می شود تا در مورد فرآیندهای فکری ام که مرا به آن توضیحات رسانده است فکر کنم.
 25. بر این باورم که اگر بخواهم فردی را درک کنم، بایستی افرادی که با او رابطه ی نزدیک دارند را بفهمم.
 26. من معمولاً به ظاهر رفتار مردم توجه می کنم و نگران علل رفتار درونی شان نیستم (مثلاً بینش ها و عقایدشان).
 27. در مورد تأثیری که جامعه بر من و شخصیت می گذارد زیاد فکر می کنم.
 28. در مورد پیشینه ی خانوادگی و تاریخچه ی شخصی ام بسیار فکر کرده ام تا شخصیت کنونی ام را بهتر بفهمم.

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22012 Jaam e Jam

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An Empirical Study of Blog-assisted EFL Process Writing: Evidence from Chinese Non-English Majors

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Abstract—This study examined the effectiveness of blog-assisted process writing for Chinese EFL students. Instruments for it included pre-test, post-test, questionnaire, interview and SPSS 19.0. Eighty-one sophomores of non-English majors participated in a teaching experiment which lasted eighteen weeks or a semester when EFL writing was taught in class and out of class by means of blog. Result revealed that blog-assisted EFL process writing had significantly improved students' writing ability. In addition, most of the participants adopted positive attitude towards this writing model which proved to have played an active role in solving the problems that might arise in the practice of traditional EFL writing teaching.

Index Terms—blog, writing model, process writing

I. INTRODUCTION

In the 1990s the emergence of blog, the fourth generation of internet communicative tool which followed E-mail, BBS and ICQ, attracted everyone's attention and began to spread quickly all over the western world. Weblog and its derivative micro-blog are gradually changing people's ways of thinking, communication, learning and teaching. With the fast development of modern teaching approaches, scholars have focused on the use of blog in language teaching. Many educators outside China have already tried to use blog in their classroom teaching and language learning (Campbell, 2003; Johnson, 2004). Blog is able to provide students with authentic language environment, build a platform for language communication and cultivate students' critical thinking (Zhang, 2010). In addition, writing blogs in English may truly record the improvement process of students' language competence, reflect their individual writing style and be helpful to teachers' specific guidance and evaluation of students' output in writing (Guo, 2008; Long, 2011).

Although there have already been large amount of researches on blog-assisted writing, few people explored the effectiveness of this teaching model on Chinese non-English majors. Review of Chinese related literature indicated that previous blog-based teaching researches mainly involved theoretical level instead of empirical studies. Via integrating the process writing approach, this research intended to introduce weblog into writing classroom for Chinese non-English majors and examined the effectiveness of this model.

It was John Barger (1997) who first used the word 'weblog' on his own website and blog began to become popular within internet communities with each passing day. Even people who know nothing about programming may easily upgrade and write their own blog which prove to be an effective cognitive learning tool and can be used to inspire people, create scenes, communicate, evaluate and offering feedback (Shao, 2010). Blog was not invented as a language teaching tool, but classroom teaching has been extended to the outside class due to the free and fair blogs on the internet, and teachers have created their own blogs to realize online communication and dynamic feedback so that blog has become a new language teaching mode in times of internet (Zhang, 2008). Researchers outside China examined the employment of blog in student cooperative learning, autonomous learning, reflective learning, task-based learning and discovery learning (Campbell, 2003; Johnson, 2004). In Arabian countries, Japan, Korea, Chinese Taiwan and Hong Kong, blog has been widely used in foreign language teaching, in particular EFL reading and writing (Zhang, 2010).

Since 2002 when blog was introduced into China, Chinese scholars began to show great concern for it and made large amount of researches on it. Zhang (2009) searched, analysed papers about blog-assisted EFL teaching from 1998 to 2008 in CNKI and found that in China blog had been mainly used in EFL reading, listening, vocabulary learning and writing. Among the papers 31% were about writing, in particular college English writing, some were about primary and high school English teaching, and none of them involved undergraduates of non-English majors. Zhang & Cheng (2007) made an empirical study on using blog to improve EFL learners' writing ability and found that participants' writing ability was significantly improved with good learners much better than poor learners in organization and expressions but no significant differences between them were found in structures and length of their writings.

The term 'process writing' was proposed by American professor Wallace Douglas in 1970. By the end of 1990s, process writing had been extensively used in the western world. Its theoretical basis is communicative theory which emphasizes writer's cognitive process. Generally speaking, process writing consists of the following five stages:

prewriting, rough draft, feedback, revising and rewriting. Tribble (1996) proposed a four-stage model: prewriting rehearsing, drafting composing, revising and editing. Similarly, Hu (2003) divided process writing into four phases: preparation, drafting, revising and sharing with peers. Compared with the traditional writing approach which emphasizes writing format and sentence patterns, process writing focuses on pre-thinking and discussion before writing, revising and sharing after writing. The integration of weblog with process writing not only plays the role of blog as an internet communicative tool, but also reveals the advantages of process writing.

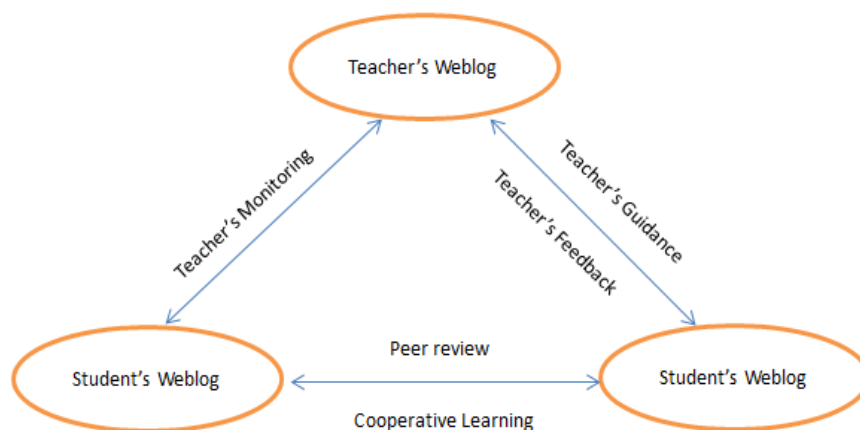


Figure 1 Blog-assisted Process Writing Model

This research introduced process writing into Chinese undergraduates' EFL classroom writing (see figure 1 for the proposed blog-assisted process writing model). Under the guidance of teacher, students created their own blogs and invited their teacher as well as classmates to add as friends, thus creating an online communicative platform which could be used for blog-assisted classroom writing. In the whole teaching process, teacher offered guidance, monitoring and feedback while students practiced cooperative learning, autonomous writing and evaluated others' writings.

II. METHODS

A. Purpose and Participants

The purpose of this research intended to validate the effectiveness of weblog-assisted process writing on Chinese undergraduates of non-English majors and also examine participants' attitude towards this writing model. Participants were eighty-one sophomores of non-English majors from Hubei Engineering University, China. Among them 45 were females and 36 males with the age of 18-22. The students were randomly divided into experiment class (40 students) and control class (41 students).

B. Instruments

Instruments for this research included pre-test, post-test, questionnaire, interview and SPSS 19.0. The title for pre-test was 'Food and Health' while for post-test it was 'On the Essential Responsibility of a University Professor'. Each student's compositions were scored by three experienced teachers according to CET scoring criteria. The mean score of the three was the final score. The Kendall concordance coefficients for the pretest were respectively 0.815, 0.793 and 0.806, and for the posttest they were 0.794, 0.813 and 0.824, indicating the acceptable high reliability.

The author of this paper analysed the literature with respect to weblog-assisted EFL writing, referred to others' questionnaires, listened to some college teachers' suggestions and proposals and designed a questionnaire which was composed of 30 items, covering students' internet knowledge and levels (item 1-8), students' recognition of blog-assisted writing model (item 9-14) and their evaluation of teaching effectiveness for writing (item 15-30). The questionnaires were distributed to students from experiment class immediately after the post-test, students were informed of the research purpose and expected to honestly answer the questions. SPSS 19.0 was employed to analyse and validate the data collected. Result indicated that the Alpha coefficient for the questionnaire was 0.843.

After the experiment, some of the students from the experiment class were interviewed for their recognition of and attitude towards the new writing model.

C. Procedure

Process writing theory divides blog-assisted EFL writing into four teaching phases (see figure 2): preparation phase, outline-draft phase, modification phase and final draft phase.

Students from experiment class were randomly divided into groups of 5-6 persons so as to have class discussions and

after-class cooperative learning. Topics were given to students ahead of time and students were required to search the related material before class for the class discussions. Group leader was elected for each group, a recorder was in charge of the outlines and key materials and a reporter handed in the discussion report. Teacher evaluated and scored the reports and group assignments, group members held the post of group leaders, recorders and reporters in turn so that each student could actively participate in the class activities.

1. Preparation phase

Writing teaching was conducted via the weblog platform as well as the traditional classroom. Teacher used blog to assign homework and topics to be discussed in class, informed students of the requirements and demanded that they write down any ideas related to the topics and discuss them with the group members through brainstorm. Based on the discussion result, students created a vocabulary figure, connected and reorganized the related information to prepare for the next stage in terms of vocabulary and way of thinking.

Then teacher encouraged students to search the relevant articles and books on the given topics through the internet or library so as to know more about them and issue the good articles on their personal blogs to share them with other students. Students were required to integrate the materials collected and write of their own will through weblog and share their writings with other students for the sake of reading and comments which might help students narrow the scope of topics. Those who made comments about others' writings also benefited from them.

2. Outline-draft phase

Having been prepared for vocabulary, searched the relevant information and discussed about the given topic, students were required to finish their outlines and drafts within the deadline, release them on their own blogs, made comments on their classmates' outlines and drafts, evaluate and revise them so as to help each other, in particular among the group members themselves. During this stage, the main role of the teacher was to supervise students to finish the tasks and offer them guidance in time.

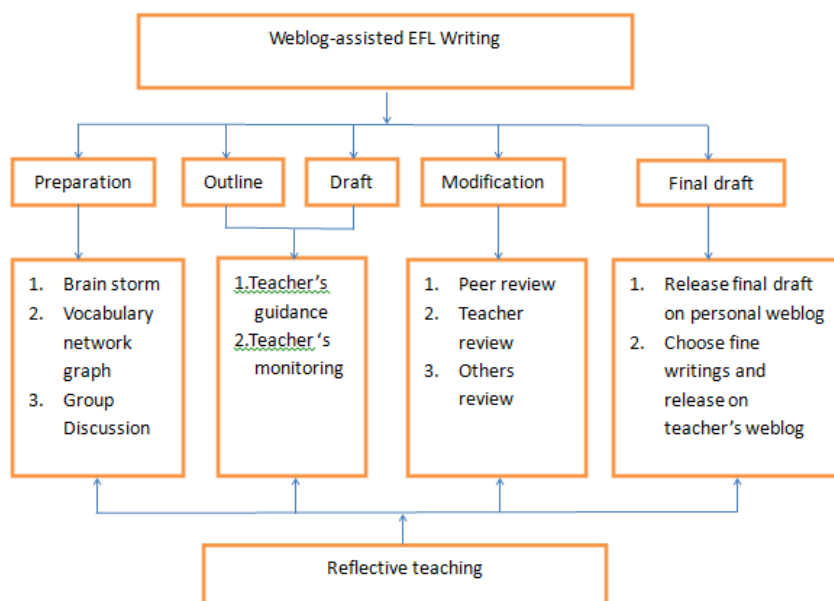


Figure 2 Blog-assisted EFL Process Writing

3. Modification phase

Modification was made through three means: (1) Peer-review. Each student released his/her own draft, reviewed at least 5 other drafts simultaneously, read them carefully and pointed out their merits and drawbacks so as to help improve them; (2) Teacher review. Influenced by Chinese traditional education, students seem to be more convinced of teacher's comments. Hence it is a must that teachers review all the drafts. Teacher read students' drafts carefully and assessed them in terms of contents, structures and vocabulary and released her comments via blog for students' reference; (3) Others review. As the weblog platform in this research was open, any web user might visit, and leave messages and review students' writings. It was noted that the percentage of this sort of review was fairly low in the whole teaching process.

4. Final draft phase

After students modified their writings according to their classmates' comments and teacher's suggestions, they released the final drafts via weblog for the re-review of the teacher and other students. Then some remarkable writings were chosen for teacher's evaluation. Finally the teacher summarized the whole writing teaching, pointed out the achievements that had been made and problems to be solved for the reference of next writing teaching.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

During the 18 week blog-assisted EFL process writing, internet-assisted EFL writing platform was built. The teacher released 124 copies of teaching material in total and students released 12 final drafts of writing per person, 482 copies in total. Teacher corrected 36 in total, received and replied to 208 questions; students peer-reviewed 285 writings and the visit count of teacher's weblog exceeded 15,000.

A. Effectiveness in Improving Students' Writing Ability

SPSS 19.0 was employed to analyse the results of the pre-test and the post-test and compared the differences between the experiment class and controlled class before and after the teaching experiment.

The purpose of the pre-test was to become acquainted with students' writing levels for the reference of the coming weblog-assisted EFL process writing. See table 1 for statistics of pre-test. The mean score for controlled class was 68.324 7, higher than that of experiment class whose mean score was 67.947 9. The standard deviation for the former was 10.732 97 and for the latter it was 10.394 68 (see table 1).

TABLE 1
STATISTICS FOR PRE-TEST

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Experiment class	40	48.00	85.00	67.9479	10.394 68
Controlled class	41	45.00	87.00	68.3247	10.732 97

TABLE 2
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T TEST FOR PRE-TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of variances				T-Test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Upper	Lower
Equal variance assumed	0.08	.926	.156	77	.875	.381 17	2.408 96	-4.415 69	5.178 04
Equal variance not assumed			.156	76.997	.875	.381 17	2.408 96	-4.413 73	5.176 07

Independent sample t test ($\alpha=0.05$, $\text{sig}=0.926$, $p>\alpha$) indicated that there was no significant difference between the two classes for the pre-test results and that students from the two classes were at about the same level of writing (see table 2). After 18 week's teaching of blog-assisted process writing, the two classes had a post-test. For the post-test results see table 3. Compared table 1 and table 3, it could be clearly seen that both classes obtained higher scores for their post-test than pre-test and that the experiment class made significantly greater progress than the controlled one ($75.1815-67.9479=7.2336$; $70.9750-68.3247=2.6411$; $P<0.05$). In addition, it should be noted that the maximums of both classes also increased significantly with the experiment class from 85 to 95 and the controlled class from 87 to 97.

TABLE 3
STATISTICS FOR POST-TEST

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Experiment class	40	53.00	95.00	75.181 5	10.954 32
Controlled class	41	40.00	97.00	70.965 8	16.289 74

TABLE 4
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T TEST FOR POST-TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of variances				T-Test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95 Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variance assumed	4.268	.042	-1.343	77	.183	-4.204 49	3.131 31	-10.439 72	2.030 75
Equal variance not assumed			-1.349	68.453	.182	-4.204 49	3.116 20	-10.422 02	2.013 05

Result of independent sample t test for post-test ($\text{sig}=0.042<0.05$) indicated that there was significant difference between the two classes (see table 4). In consideration of the equality in the pretest result, it can be concluded that blog-assisted process writing has significantly improved the writing ability of students from the experiment class.

B. Students' Attitude towards Blog-assisted EFL Writing Model

When the 18 week blog-assisted process writing teaching ended, questionnaires were released to investigate students' recognition of blog-assisted EFL writing model. Results revealed that 32 of the 40 students (80%) believed that weblog-assisted EFL writing teaching was superior to the traditional teaching method, only one (2.5%) was opposed to the new method and seven (17.5%) were not sure. As for the degree at which the model was welcome, 67.5% chose 'like', 2.5% chose 'unlike' and 30% 'neutral'. For the active degree of students' participation, 65% chose 'very active', 5% chose 'not very active' and 30% were 'not sure'. For the question whether weblog could provide authentic language

environment, 70% students chose 'yes', 7.5% chose 'no' and 22.5% were 'not sure'.

Among the scores for questionnaire, the first ten items can be seen in table 5, indicating that the means for these items were all above 4 and also the high recognition of the new writing model (4 for 'agree' and 5 for 'quite agree'). Most of the participants believed that blog-assisted writing teaching might 'improve their application ability of computers' with mean of 4.426 7 at the top of the rank; 'Improving students' writing level' was second with mean score 4.3600, indicating participants' approval of the effectiveness of bog-assisted EFL writing. Students in general thought that the teaching stage of curriculum design, in particular group activities might cultivate team cooperation awareness. At the same time most of the participants approved the scientificity of curriculum design and evaluative system (see items which rank 4, 8 and 10 in table 5). As for the teaching effectiveness, students mostly believed that blog-assisted process writing mode increased their interest and confidence in EFL writing and improved their writing level.

TABLE 5
STATISTICS FOR QUESTIONNAIRE

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation	Rank
The model improves application ability of computers.	2.00	5.00	4.4267	.73839	1
The new model improves students' writing level.	2.00	5.00	4.3600	.70978	2
Group discussion cultivates students' cooperative learning competence.	2.00	5.00	4.3333	.74132	3
Curriculum design is reasonable and scientific.	2.00	5.00	4.2800	.66900	4
The model decreases fear of writing and increases students' confidence in EFL learning.	2.00	5.00	4.2000	.76335	5
Teacher and peer review increases students' interest in writing.	2.00	5.00	4.2000	.73521	6
Blog-assisted writing teaching is more effective than the traditional one.	2.00	5.00	4.1733	.69749	7
Course objective is clear.	2.00	5.00	4.1600	.66522	8
Blog release may arouse students' writing motivation.	2.00	5.00	4.1067	.78912	9
Evaluation criteria is reasonable and scientific.	1.00	5.00		.74568	10

C. Summarization of Interview

When post-test ended, 15 students from the experiment class were randomly chosen to be interviewed mainly on three questions: (1) What do you think of blog-assisted process writing teaching mode? (2) In what aspect have you made progress via this teaching mode? (3) What suggestions do you have for the improvement of the blog-assisted process writing mode? The students interviewed all gave active response to the questions. 93.3% of them recognized the new teaching mode, which conformed to the statistic data collected from questionnaires. Interview results can be interpreted from the following four aspects.

Firstly, according to the statistics for questionnaires, students have made significant progress in writing, learnt a large number of new words and phrases. Before the experiment, participants did not know enough about the application of computer and began to make use of computers and internet after the writing course, which enriched their way of daily life and learning.

Secondly, blog and writing group created a platform through which students communicated with each other. Participants observed that via the platform they might learn from each other, cooperate with each other and expressed their own ideas. Brainstorm and group discussion aroused students' interest and improved their writing ability.

Thirdly, students' attitude towards writing course changed a great deal. Some students claimed that they had disliked the course before the experiment. After one semester of blog-assisted progress writing, however, they had begun to like the course, reading and updating blogs had become one part of their daily life. This autonomous learning via the internet with clear objective had greatly improved their learning efficiency. Many students admitted that previously they had wandered on the net here and there, and that since the teaching experiment, their online activities had become full and meaningful, which aroused their enthusiasm in EFL reading and writing on the internet.

Fourthly, students' confidence has been increased. Previously some students did not dare to express their ideas to others. Now the desire to express themselves has become exceedingly strong, in particular when they have been fully prepared ahead of time. Students liked the stage of blog evaluation, thinking that reading others' comments on their writings was a great pleasure as well as valuable help to the improvement of their writing level.

IV. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

A. Conclusion

Statistics about the tests and questionnaires, and summarization of interview reveal that the blog-assisted process writing teaching mode is able to improve the writing ability of Chinese students of non-English majors in the following three aspects.

Firstly, blog-assisted process writing has proved to be helpful to the dynamic evaluation of students' writings. Dynamic evaluation might provide effective guidance for students in terms of writing strategies, resources and encouragement, timely reflect the effectiveness of teacher's guidance, promotes good interaction between the teacher

and students and also between students themselves so as to improve students' level of EFL writing. The weblog platform facilitated dynamic evaluation. Feedback from teacher and students made it easy for students to know their merits and drawbacks. At the same time teacher's monitoring and students' awareness of competition might also effectively motivate students' active modification of their drafts.

Secondly, the active participation of students and teacher in the process writing has improved students' meta-cognitive ability and EFL writing level. Blog-assisted process writing teaching mode provides students with scientific writing strategies. Via this mode, students became clearer about their writing objective and more aware of the various writing stages. The pre-discussion, brainstorm and group cooperation widened students' vision and thinking, enriched their writing contents. Obviously preparations might solve the problem of Chinese students' 'having nothing to say for their writing'.

Thirdly, blog-assisted process writing has facilitated reflective teaching. Each of students' draft was recorded in the blog and after they had finished writing, students might have reflections about the whole writing process from beginning to the end. Hence compared with the traditional teaching mode, the new mode makes reflective learning more possible. Simultaneously, teacher and students might interact with each other on the blog platform, in particular at the modification stage when students might improve their way of expression and decrease grammatical mistakes with the help of teacher and peer feedback. Blog-assisted process writing also offered students more opportunities to strengthen their writing strategies.

B. Suggestions

The 18 week teaching experiment has proved that blog-assisted process writing mode may effectively improve participants' writing ability. It is noted that there are also some limitations for this research. Firstly, participants came from the same university and the sample was somewhat small. Hence whether the conclusion arrived at can be universally used is to be validated. It is suggested that larger and more representative sample (from different universities in different countries) should be chosen for further research to examine more widely and in an all-round way the effectiveness of blog-assisted process writing upon EFL learners. Secondly, limited by time and large class size, one-for-one evaluation was impossible and more often teacher had to choose one or two of the writings and made comments on them. In the process writing teaching, face-to-face discussion between teacher and students is also an effective form of teacher evaluation and can make up for the drawbacks of teacher's one way written feedback. Thirdly, the duration of experiment was merely 18 weeks which might be insufficient for the fundamental influence on participants EFL writing ability. Hence it is suggested that long and systematic blog-assisted process writing experiment should be made to validate the effectiveness of the mode and its durable affect on students' writing strategies. Fourthly, the free casual way of blog writing and the open environments of blog platform have also brought some negative impact. Some students used non-standardized expressions in their writing such as BTW (by the way) and U (you). Comments on some writings were mixed up with irrelevant comments or advertisements and even some criticism with malice, which is one of the factors to be taken into consideration in future blog-assisted process writing.

As it is a must that teacher interfere with the blog-assisted process writing teaching, it is suggested that teacher is supposed to know more about the relevant knowledge with respect to the process writing teaching so as to help students acquire and efficiently use this effective writing strategy. In addition, teacher should guide the students as to how to select appropriate material from the vast information on the internet. Many students believed that they had benefited a great deal from the internet information. Nevertheless, some students complained that it usually took them lots of time and energy to find the material needed. Therefore it is suggested that teacher should make every effort to find more effective ways that may help increase students' online researches.

To sum up, blog-assisted process writing teaching mode does help students overcome some of the the difficulties in their EFL writing. Students indeed benefit a great deal from the stages of free writing, brainstorm, group discussion and peer review. Their anxiety about EFL writing has been decreased and confidence in writing increased. However, there are still some issues for further research and discussion. For example, should students persist in blog-assisted writing after the writing course ended? How can the teacher effectively monitor and evaluate students' online writing?

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The Influence of Concept Mapping on Reading Comprehension of Iranian English Students Employing Persuasive and Descriptive Texts

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Abstract—Reading is considered as one of the complex skills in EFL context. Comprehension is the understanding of what is read. To be able to understand written material, learners need to use congenial strategies and have sufficient vocabulary. The present study intended to investigate the influence of concept mapping on reading comprehension of EFL learners employing persuasive and descriptive texts. A language proficiency test was administered to 70 EFL learners, among whom 52 learners were selected as the participants of the study. They were randomly assigned in four groups: two control groups and two experimental groups. Before any instruction the researcher administered a pre-test. Then, learners in two experimental groups received treatment of concept mapping as reading comprehension texts while learners in two control groups received no treatment of concept mapping. The results of pre test and posttest were analyzed by SPSS soft-ware using one way ANOVA statistical procedure. After analyzing the post-test scores, the results indicated that the learners in two experimental groups outperformed the learners in two control groups in reading comprehension. This study also showed that semantic mapping has different effect across types of texts. Learners who received persuasive text performed well than who received descriptive text.

Index Terms—concept mapping, reading comprehension, persuasive text, descriptive text

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading comprehension is one of the most important ways for learning English and it has a close relationship with an effective writing style. Reading comprehension enables students to become lifelong literates (Belets, Yasar, 2007 cited in Kirmizi 2009) and an effective reading process is based on using reading comprehension strategies effectively (Allen, 2003; Keer & Verhaegh, 2005 cited in Kirmizi 2009). In the teaching-learning process in schools, most of the learning instruments are the sources based on the language, and this puts an increased emphasis on the reading comprehension levels of students (Kirmizi, 2009). Recently, there has been a shift from what to learn to how to learn. In order to be efficient, learners try to use some strategies. Novak and Canas (2006, p.7) stated that by using concept mapping students learn how to learn meaningfully. He tried to help learners become better. So for 20 years he taught a course at Cornell University and now this course is published in 9 languages. This book is learning How to Learn. According to Gul and Boman (2006) concept maps were developed from the work of Novak (1992) and his colleagues in 1980 at Cornell University. Novak (1992) described a concept maps as organizational tools to represent knowledge as well as a meta-cognitive strategy to promote meaningful learning.

Learning English texts is not easy for majority of the students and also because of some limitations such as lack of facilities, crowded classes and traditional teaching methods; teachers are forced to change their techniques during teaching. The students' low achievement in learning from English texts requires an important research on teaching techniques to improve students' level. Persuasive and descriptive texts unlike chronological or cause and effect writing do not have an understandable written procedure and because they are mostly used in language learning, students need to have a better understanding of them. So we can provide a relation among concepts by using concept mapping techniques as a meta-cognitive strategy.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

There are many references that show concept mapping is an important technique for learning English. For the first time, concept mapping was presented by Joseph Novak in 1972. He tried to extend concept learning in science education and he broadened it in science education. (Fahim & Mellati, 2012, p.20). Novak and Gowin (1984) have spent several decades researching and developing educational theories and they found concept mapping to be one tool that greatly enhances the learning process. Also the idea of concept mapping is according to Ausubel's learning theory, which stresses the assimilation of new data into the students' prior knowledge for meaningful learning. Novak and Canas (2006, p.7) stated that by using concept mapping students learn how to learn meaningfully. He tried to help learners become better. So for 20 years he taught a course at Cornell University and now this course is published in 9 languages. This book is learning How to Learn. Shern, Trochim, and Lacombe (1995) believed that the concept mapping

technique is useful not only for explicating program theories but also for identifying the key elements of a program and portraying their relationships to one another. By definition of Ahangari and Belhadi (2011, p.101) today, concept mapping has been used as an important tool for learning and teaching. By concept maps you can make your ideas visual. When we are building new concepts into the perceptual framework concept maps permit prior experience and understanding to be taken into consideration. Novak and Cannas (2006) believed that three ideas from Ausubel's assimilation theory emerged as central to their thinking. First, Ausubel sees the development of new meanings as building on prior relevant concepts and propositions. Second, he sees cognitive structure as organized hierarchically, with more general, more inclusive concepts occupying higher levels in the hierarchy and more specific, less inclusive concepts subsumed under the more general concepts. Third, when meaningful learning occurs, relationships between concepts become more explicit, more precise, and better integrated with other concepts and propositions. Cannas, Hoffman, Coffey, and Novak (2003, cited in Koc, 2012) believe that research in cognitive science has demonstrated that learning is meaningful when students are active and when they relate new knowledge to relevant concepts they already know. It also seems that making connection between new concepts and previous knowledge is a very significant part in language learning. Leaby and Brazina (1998, p 137) worked on use of concept mapping in accounting education and they concluded that since educational research has shown that that concept mapping is a powerful instrument to help students provide a framework for learning how-to-learn, maps may be an applicable strategy to adopt for accounting education.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Objective of the Study

The present study aimed at finding out the effect of concept mapping strategy on students' reading proficiency and examining if using concept mapping strategy is different across types of texts (Descriptive vs. Persuasive). Based on these objectives the following research hypotheses are raised:

- 1) Concept mapping does not have significant effect on EFL students reading comprehension.
- 2) The effect of teaching semantic mapping is not significantly different across types of texts (Descriptive vs. Persuasive).

B. Participants

In order to conduct the present research, a language proficiency test was administered to 75 students who attended EFL classes in two big and important institutes in Sistan and Baluchestan province. From the results of proficiency test, 52 male and female students were selected. 30 of selected students were from Moallem institute (12 male and 18 female) and 22 students were selected from Khane Zaban institute (8 male and 14 female). The experiment on students was conducted during 2 terms (about 1.5 month).

C. Instrument

To achieve the aims of the study, the following tools were used:

Language Proficiency Test

A language proficiency test selected from Oxford Solution Book was administered for testing all the participants' initial homogeneity.

The items of the test fell into two types:

- A) Grammar and vocabulary: Part A of the test dealt with grammar and vocabulary which included 50 multiple choice items.
- B) Reading comprehension: Part B dealt with reading comprehension and included 1 true/false and 5 multiple choice items.

Pre-test

The pre-test included one persuasive text and one descriptive text which were selected from the following site www.englishdaily626.com. The persuasive text was entitled *Watching TV*. It consisted of 3 multiple choice items and 2 true false items. The descriptive text was entitled *Dinosaurs* and consisted of 6 multiple choice items and 1 true false item.

Posttest

The post-test included one persuasive text and one descriptive text which were again selected from www.englishdaily626.com. The persuasive text was entitled *Smoking*. It consisted of 4 multiple choice items and 1 true false items. The descriptive text was entitled *Quieting the Mind* and consisted of 3 multiple choice items and 1 true false items.

D. Data Collection Procedures

First, a language proficiency test selected from Oxford Solution Book was administered for testing all the participants' initial homogeneity. It was given to 75 students and just 52 male and female students whose scores were above 39 (upper intermediate level) were accepted. Second, as the study used the quasi-experimental design, the participants were selected after analyzing the results of a proficiency test and were then randomly assigned to four

groups (two experimental groups & two control groups). Before giving any instruction to the experimental groups, as a pre-test, the two groups received persuasive texts, and the two other groups received descriptive texts. I asked the participants to read texts and answer the questions following them. Third, following the pre-test the participants attended 15 seventy-five minute sessions. The participants in the experimental groups received the treatment of concept mapping during 15 sessions. Strategy training was done by applying treatment on two experimental groups and applying no treatment on two control groups. To conduct the treatment, every session a new persuasive text and a new descriptive text were taught to two groups of participants. The concept map of each text was drawn on the board by the researcher, and the participants followed the text according to its concept map. Fourth, when the treatment was over, all groups received a post test. Again two groups received persuasive texts and two groups received descriptive texts which consisted of a reading comprehension text with multiple-choice items.

E. Data Analysis

The results of pre test and posttest were analyzed by SPSS soft-ware using one way ANOVA statistical procedure and the differences between pre-test and posttest were analyzed by Paired Sample t-test and recommendations and suggestions in the light of the study findings were presented.

IV. RESULTS

While sampling details were mentioned in the last chapter, here, again they are repeated. A language proficiency test was administered to 72 learners and out of them just 52 participants (20 male & 32 female) were accepted. Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics of the four groups.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE PROFICIENCY TEST

	N	Mean	Std. deviation
Persuasive +cm	13	52.8462	3.86967
Persuasive -cm	13	52.0769	5.37683
Descriptive +cm	13	52.0000	.48807
Descriptive -cm	13	53.9231	3.30307
Total	52	52.7115	4.04551

Table 1 shows that the mean and standard deviation of the first group are 52.84 and 3.86 respectively, the mean and standard deviation of the second group are 52.07 and 5.37, and the mean and standard deviation of third group are 52.00 and 3.48, while the mean and standard deviation of the fourth group are 53.92 and 3.30. To see if the four groups did not differ significantly from each other in language proficiency an ANOVA was run the results of which follow:

TABLE 2:
ANOVA RESULTS FOR PROFICIENCY TEST

comprehension	Df	F	sig
Between groups	3	.620	.606
Within groups	48		
total	51		

The findings of above table show that the difference between groups on comprehension is not significant at 99% of confidence level with an $F=0.620$ and degrees of freedom 3 and 48. So the groups have similar profiles in terms of language proficiency.

A. Data Analysis for the First Question

As a second step, before any instruction the four groups received a pre-test. Two groups received persuasive texts and two groups received descriptive texts. Table 5 presents the descriptive statistics of the four groups in the pre-test.

TABLE 3:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE PRE TEST

	N	Mean	Std. deviation
Persuasive +cm	13	12.8462	2.82389
Persuasive -cm	13	11.5385	1.45002
Descriptive +cm	13	11.3077	2.13638
Descriptive -cm	13	11.0769	2.21591
Total	52	11.6923	2.25387

As revealed in table 5 the mean and standard deviation of the first group are 12.84 and 2.82 respectively, the mean and standard deviation of the second group are 11.53 and 1.45, and the mean and standard deviation of third group are 11.30 and 2.13, while the mean and standard deviation of the fourth group are 11.07 and 2.21.

The scores were subjected to a one-way ANOVA the results of which follow:

TABLE 4:
ANOVA RESULTS OF PRE TEST

comprehension	Df	F	sig
Between groups	3	1.668	.186
Within groups	48		
total	51		

As the findings of above table show, the between group DF is 3 and the within group DF is 48, and the difference between groups on pre test with $F=1.66$ at 95% of confidence level is not significant. Based on these data, it was concluded that the four groups have similar profiles in reading comprehension proficiency.

As the third step, the four groups received post-test. Again, two groups received persuasive texts and two groups received descriptive texts. Table 9 present descriptive statistics of four groups in the posttests.

TABLE 5:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE POSTTEST

	N	Mean	Std. deviation
Persuasive +cm	13	27.5385	1.61325
Persuasive -cm	13	22.3077	5.07255
Descriptive +cm	13	27.3846	2.87340
Descriptive -cm	13	22.5385	6.65351
Total	52	24.9423	5.05039

As shown in table 5, the mean and standard deviation of the first group are 27.53 and 1.61 respectively, the mean and standard deviation of the second group are 22.30 and 5.07, and the mean and standard deviation of the third group are 27.38 and 2.87, while the mean and standard deviation of the fourth group are 24.94 and 5.05. As the existence of a significant difference between the groups could not be determined through simple descriptive statistics, the data were subjected to a one-way ANOVA the results of which follow:

TABLE 6:
ANOVA RESULTS OF POSTTEST

comprehension	Df	F	sig
Between groups	3	5.450	.003
Within groups	48		
total	51		

The findings reported in the above table show the between group DF is 3 and the within group DF is 48, and the results revealed a significant difference between the groups on post-test with $F=5.450$ at 95% of confidence level. So groups do not have similar performance on post-tests and according to mean, group persuasive + CM and group descriptive + CM (which received concept map strategy training) have a better performance than two other groups.

When the results of pre-test and post test were analyzed, as the fourth step the differences between pre-test and post-test were analyzed by paired t-tests.

First, group one who received concept mapping instruction with reference to persuasive texts during 15 sessions.

TABLE 7:
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS OF FIRST GROUP

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1 Pre test (persuasive + CM)	11.6923	13	1.79743	.49852
Post test (persuasive +CM)	27.5385	13	1.61325	.44743

The above table shows that first group in pre-test has a mean and SD of 11.62 and 1.79 respectively and also it has a mean and SD of 27.53 and 1.61 respectively in the posttest.

TABLE 8:
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST RESULTS OF FIRST GROUP

PAIRED SAMPLES TEST RESULTS OF FIRST GROUP									
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	group1 - group1	-15.84615	2.60916	.72365	-17.42285	-14.26946	-21.898	12	.000

Paired t-test results show that there is a significant difference between pretest and posttest of group one with $t=-21.89$ and degree of freedom 12 in 99% of confidence level. As the treatment of concept mapping was received by participants of this group it can be stated that because of the effect of concept mapping learners had a better

performance in the posttest and there is significant difference between group one's performance in the pre-test and posttest.

Second, group two who received persuasive text and no treatment of concept mapping.

TABLE 9:
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS OF SECOND GROUP

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair1	Pre test(Persuasive-CM).group2	11.5385	13	1.45002	.40216
	Post test (Persuasive-CM).group2	16.8462	13	1.14354	.31716

The above table shows that second group in pretest has a mean and SD of 11.53 and 1.45 and also it has a mean and SD of 16.84 and 1.43 respectively in the posttest.

TABLE 10:
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST RESULTS OF SECOND GROUP

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 .group2 – .group2	-5.30769	1.65250	.45832	-6.30629	-4.30909	-11.581	12	.000

Paired t-test results show that there is a significant difference between pre-test and posttest of the second group with $t=-11.58$ and degree of freedom 12 in 95% of confidence level. It means that learners had a better performance in posttest.

Although this could not be related to CM, as they did not receive CM. It could be perhaps due to some other factors like the number of vocabulary items learnt.

Third, group three who received descriptive text and also had concept mapping treatment during 15 sessions.

TABLE 11:
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS OF THIRD GROUP

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pre test (Descriptive +CM).group3	11.3077	13	2.13638	.59252
	Post test (Descriptive +CM).group3	22.4615	13	1.71345	.47522

The above table show that third group in pretest has a mean and SD of 11.30 and 2.13 respectively and also it has a mean and SD of 22.46 and 1.71 respectively in the posttest.

TABLE 12:
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST OF THIRD GROUP

PAIRED SAMPLES TEST OF THIRD GROUP									
		Paired Differences				t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
				Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower				Upper
Pair 1	.group3 - .group3	-11.15385	3.07804	.85370	-13.01389	-9.29380	-13.065	12	.000

Paired t-test results shows that there is a significant difference between pretest and posttest of the third group with $t=-13.06$ and degree of freedom 12 in 95% of confidence level. As the treatment of concept mapping was received by participants of this group it can be stated that because of the effect of concept mapping learners had a better performance in the post-test and there is significance different between group three in pre test and posttest.

Fourth, group four who received descriptive text and no treatment of concept mapping.

TABLE 13:
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS OF FOURTH GROUP

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pre test (descriptive -CM).group4	11.0769	13	2.21591	.61458
	Post test (descriptive-CM).group4	16.6923	13	1.18213	.32786

The above table shows that fourth group in pretest has a mean and SD of 11.07 and 2.21 respectively and also it has a mean and SD of 16/69 and 1/18 respectively in the posttest.

TABLE 14:
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST OF FOURTH GROUP

PAIRED SAMPLES TEST OF FOURTH GROUP								
	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 s.group4 - mind.group4	-5.61538	2.21880	.61538	-6.95619	-4.27458	-9.125	12	.000

Paired t-test results shows that there is a significant difference between pre test and post test of fourth group with $t = -9.12$ and degree of freedom 12 in 95% of confidence level. It means that learners had a better performance in post-test which may be due to factors other than CM.

B. Data Analysis for the Second Question

As the last step the difference between persuasive text and descriptive text were analyzed to understand that teaching semantic mapping is more effective in persuasive text or descriptive text.

TABLE 15:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES STATISTICS

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
group persuasive	25.7308	26	3.23181	.63381
descriptive	12.0769	26	2.57563	.50512

The findings of above table shows that groups who received persuasive text have a mean and SD 25.73 and 3.23 respectively and groups who received descriptive text have a mean and SD 12.07 and 2.57.

TABLE 16:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST

INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T TEST									
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Mean	Std. Deviation			
group	persuasive - descriptive	13.65385	4.35378	.85385	11.89532	15.41238	15.991	25	.000

Independent samples t-test results show that there is a significant difference between persuasive text and descriptive text with $t = 15.99$ and degree of freedom 25 in 95% of confidence level. Since persuasive text has greater mean so semantic mapping was more effective in persuasive texts.

V. DISCUSSION

As stated in the first hypothesis, there are no statistically significance differences between achieving reading comprehension by using concept maps in the experimental groups and achieving reading comprehension by control groups. To this hypothesis, means and standard deviations of the experimental and the control groups' results were computed. T-test was used to measure the likely significance of differences.

The findings of the study were limited to the experiment "concept maps strategy" since all variables such as age, and general proficiency in English language were controlled for before the experiment.

The results of this study show that there were significant differences in favor of the experimental groups due to the concept maps strategy.

This result agreed with the results of almost all the previous studies like:

Pankrati (2006), Willerman and Harg (2006) Esiobu and Soyibo (2006), Chularu and DeBacker (2004), Snead and Snead (2004), Pegg (2007), that revealed the effect of using concept mapping on achieving in different subjects.

Ahangari and Behzadi (2011) revealed that the explicit teaching of computer-mediated concept mapping had a positive effect on the writing skill.

Talebinezhad (2007) revealed that students gained higher self-regulation as the result of concept maps strategy.

Dias (2010) revealed that the construction of meaning by the creation of concept maps can be an effective reading strategy in English as an L2. Also, Rice, Ryan, Samson (1998) showed that a concept map might be used in assessing declarative and procedural knowledge, both of which have a place in the science classroom. One important implication

of these results is that science curriculum and its corresponding assessment need not be dichotomized into knowledge/comprehension versus higher-order outcomes.

According to means and SDs and also other statistical analyses shown in chapter four it was observed that there was significant difference between experimental groups and control groups in reading comprehension and experimental groups had a better performance in posttest, due to using semantic mapping strategy.

The second hypothesis of the study was stated as follows:

The effect of teaching semantic mapping is not significantly different across types of texts (Descriptive vs. Persuasive).

Results showed that there were differences of statistical significant in types of texts and therefore rejected this null hypothesis. According to independent sample t-tests, it was observed that concept maps had more effect on learning from persuasive texts. These results agreed with Vaklifard and Armand (2006) who used concept maps in teaching comprehension texts. Their studies revealed that concept mapping has a positive effect on comprehension.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study intended to investigate the effect of concept mapping strategy training on the development of EFL learners' reading comprehension. The research questions dealt with the effect of concept mapping strategy on EFL learners' reading comprehension ability in general and in terms of different between persuasive and descriptive texts in particular. The findings of the study revealed that explicit teaching of concept mapping strategy was influential in the improvement of the EFL learners' reading comprehension. It also showed that Learners who received persuasive texts had a better performance than learners who received descriptive texts.

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When Metaphors Cross Cultures

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Abstract—The focus in this paper is on the kind of metaphors that is pervasive in everyday life and more specifically in everyday literal language; the kind of metaphor that is referred to as “conceptual automatic”. In this paper, I explain reasons for having different and similar metaphors across languages by taking the comparison between the Arabic spoken in the western area of the Arabian (WS Arabic) and English as an example. This paper concludes that metaphor similarities or differences between languages could be a result of differences in one or more of the metaphor shaping factors which are: extent of different cultures, geographic environments, speaker’s values and personality, thinking modes, mental concepts, views of the world, feelings, and human relationships. In this paper, I emphasize that to arrive at more accurate conclusions when finding out conceptual metaphor similarities and differences, we should not neglect the indirect effect of mainstream languages on nonmainstream ones.

Index Terms—conceptual metaphor, automatic metaphor, cognitive metaphor, figurative language, WS Arabic, across cultures

I. INTRODUCTION: WHAT ARE CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS?

The first time automatic metaphors were pointed out to me and I was exposed to the idea of the automaticity of metaphor, I was surprised. I had not thought about such expressions as metaphorical before. Such expressions are heard more often than imagined without even bothering thinking about them. A probable reason for not noticing such expressions is that we experience instances of them so frequently that they have got deeply entrenched in our perception and they become automatically retrieved after going through a gradual process of conventionalization. These metaphors are represented in our minds more as literal pieces of language other than figurative, Lakoff & Johnson (1980). Once a metaphor stops from being figuratively noticeable, it becomes opaque or “dead”, Lakoff (1987), though they can be revitalized, Pawelec (2006). When thinking about a metaphor we can make most sense of it by conceptualizing it having two domains; a source domain mapped to a target domain. For instance, from the metaphorical expression¹ “The future is ahead of you” the word “future”, which is literally supposed to be abstract, is conceptualized as a concrete entity that is in front of us and toward which we are going. The source domain which is implied in this example is ‘concrete entity’ and the target domain is “future”. In other words, the target domain “future” is conceptually embodied in a source domain as a “concrete entity”. In such metaphors, target domains are used to help in the conceptual defining process in our minds for the purpose of easier understanding of respective source domains through conceptualizing how these two domains are related; in addition to having two mental spaces connected which is also helpful in at least triggering the process of conventionalization of the target domain. An interesting thing about automatic metaphors is that they go through this whole process without us noticing them as metaphors, when hearing them, and without deliberately retrieving them as metaphors, when we produce them. Steen (1994), however, argues that the communicative function of metaphors which we use deliberately is to shift audience attention to another domain by the establishment of a cross-conceptual domain, but when they are not used deliberately as figurative language they lose their communicative function as metaphors, and when that happens, only one domain is used and no need for cross-conceptual domain mapping²; hence, and according to Romero and Soria (1998), no need for metaphorical interpretation in such a case. Sweetser (1990) introduces another interesting idea that words which we use in everyday language are originally metaphorical, which can be figured out when tracing their etymological data.

Lakoff and Johnson (1980), consider metaphors as pervasive in everyday life, in thought, language and action. They introduce the example of ARGUMENT IS WAR which involves winning or losing, attacking, and using strategies for example. Then they introduce an imagined culture where ‘argument is a dance’, in which participants are performers whose goal is to move in a nice aesthetic way. In such culture, we would not view such participants as arguing but as doing something else. This imagined culture probably does never exist, since it does not make sense for the general human view of ARGUMENT, except probably in our minds. This example can be taken as a support for the idea that humans can perceive conceptual metaphors similarly; hence human cultures could share similar metaphorical concepts. This probably can be taken as a support for the idea that human cognition perceives a number of conceptual metaphors similarly across cultures with slight modifications that are driven by external factors from surrounding environments of

¹ A metaphorical expression is one of the related expressions that are categorizable within one metaphorical concept. In addition, the most schematic metaphor is a conceptual metaphor and the most specific metaphor is a metaphorical expression.

² This is the case when using language, but for our purpose we will assume that there are two conceptual domains as a technique for analyzing metaphors of different languages.

different types; such modifications could produce different or similar metaphorical expressions that are entailed within same conceptual metaphors.

In this paper, I am analyzing some previously done studies that deal with metaphors of emotions to see to what extent it is possible that we have similar or different metaphors across different languages. Then I will try to figure out why we would have similarities or differences in metaphorical representations between languages. I will also include some conceptual metaphors that are used in Arabic and some entailed metaphorical expression within these conceptual metaphors to add more examples to investigate the issue at hand. In the following section, I will refer to some studies that tackle some metaphors in two or more languages to build basis for my analysis of automatic metaphors in this study. Then I will discuss how the topic of metaphor similarities and differences are dealt with in these studies. I will then include some metaphors from Arabic and English and try to find equivalent for each of them in the other language to see how speakers in two cultures where Arabic and English are used use metaphors and how metaphors are transferable from one of these cultures to the other.

II. PREVIOUS STUDIES ON METAPHORS ACROSS DIFFERENT CULTURES

Several articles have tackled the topic of intercultural similarities and differences in metaphorical expressions and conceptual metaphors in the past decade. One of these studies is the one by Xiuzhi Li (2010) which identifies similarities in the conceptual metaphor of happiness between English and Chinese. Of these similarities is the orientational metaphor HAPPINESS IS UP which entails expressions such as “We had to cheer him up.”, and “He’s been in high spirits all day.” Another metaphor that is similar in English and Chinese is HAPPINESS IS LIGHT (BRIGHTNESS) which entails expressions such as “She was radiant with joy.”, and “His face is glowing.” A third metaphor that English and Chinese share is the container metaphor HAPPINESS IS A FLUID IN A CONTAINER which entails the expressions “We were full of joy.”, and “His heart is overflowing with joy.” for example. On the other hand, the author presents conceptual metaphors that are mapped to different targets such as the metaphor BEING HAPPY IS BEING OFF THE GROUND which entails expressions such as “They were riding high.”, and “I feel on top of the world.”. In addition, the metaphor “Happiness is the flower in one’s heart.” is used in Chinese and not in English. The author argues that different thinking modes and cultures are reasons for different metaphors in English and Chinese (Xiuzhi Li, 2010).

Another study is done by Chen (2010), in this study, the authors introduces some similarities and differences in the anger metaphor. He started by arguing that languages of the world share root metaphors as a result of shared human experience. He argues that when new metaphorical expressions are introduced in a language, it indicates that human beings are getting to know new things by means of those root metaphors which are universal conceptually not linguistically.

In this study, the author identifies three conceptual metaphors of anger that are similar in English and Chinese, ANGER IS HEAT, ANGER IS PSYCHOLOGY REACTION, and ANGER IS THUNDER. ANGER IS HEAT entails metaphorical idioms such as “add fuel to the fire”, and “to blaze up”. An example for ANGER IS PSYCHOLOGY REACTION is the idiom to lose one’s hair. While ANGER IS THUNDER entails the metaphorical idioms “black as thunder” and “as powerful as thunderbolt” for instance. The author also identifies three differences in anger metaphor between English and Chinese, ANGER IS SOMETHING HOT IN A CONTAINER, ANGER IS HUMAN BODY PARTS, and ANGER IS AGGRESSIVE ANIMAL BEHAVIOR. By looking at the analysis of the conceptual metaphor BLOOD IS SOMETHING HOT IN A CONTAINER which entails the more specific conceptual metaphor ANGER IS SOMETHING HOT IN A CONTAINER we see that it entails a metaphoric idiom boiling blood which is construed in English as anger while in Chinese BOILING BLOOD IS ENTHUSIASM. The author attributes such difference to how the two culture view the world, in English cultures water is regarded as the source of the universe while air is the source of universe in Chinese. That is why anger is compared to fluid in a container in some English speaking cultures while in some mainstream Chinese speaking cultures they consider illnesses as resulting from malfunction of air. The author argues that different metaphors are due to geographic environment, personalities, values, concepts, thinking modes, and views of the world, (Chen, 2010).

In a third study comparing conceptual metaphors in English and Chinese is done by Liu and Zhao and published in 2013. In this study, the authors compare emotion metaphors between English and Chinese and introduce some similarities such as the orientational metaphor HAPPY IS UP and HAPPINESS IS FLUID IN A CONTAINER. They, on the other hand, identify differences in that English has the metaphor HAPPINESS IS BEING OF THE GROUND while Chinese has the metaphor HAPPINESS IS FLOWERS IN THE HEART which is consistent with what the study by Li (2010), which we talked about above, identifies. Other examples of metaphors that are used by either English or Chinese cultures are the metaphor SAD IS BLUE and SADNESS IS PAIN IN THE HEART that are used by English and Chinese respectively. The authors conclude their study by saying ‘Culture is the total pattern of beliefs, customs, institutions, objects and techniques that characterize the life of a human community.’ And that these metaphor differences are due to “cultural influences” in which language plays a role as a part of culture, (Liu and Zhao in, 2013).

In a comparative study of basic emotion metaphors, anger, happiness, sadness, fear, and love, between English and Persian. Mashak, Pazhakh, & Hayati (2012) argue that the English and Persian share most of the metaphors of these basic emotions. He argues that this means that the metaphorical expressions of these emotions can be literally transferred

from one of the two languages to the other and still convey the same meaning and function. Of the examples they mentioned is the conceptual metaphor HAPPINESS IS UP, which entails the English metaphorical expression “She was in seven heaven” and the Persian metaphorical expression that is literally translated as “walking on the clouds”. Another conceptual metaphor they include in here analysis is the English metaphor HAPPINESS/JOY IS a FLUID IN a CONTAINER which entails the metaphorical expression “full of joy” which exist in English and in Persian as an equivalent translation of it. However, they say that there are very few metaphor differences between English and Persian such as the conceptual metaphor EYE/HEART ARE NESTS FOR SADNESS and DRINKING HEART BLOOD STANDS FOR SADNESS which entail equivalent translations for such expressions as “sadness nest in his eyes” and “drinking hear blood” respectively in Persian which are not used in English. (Mashak et al., 2012)

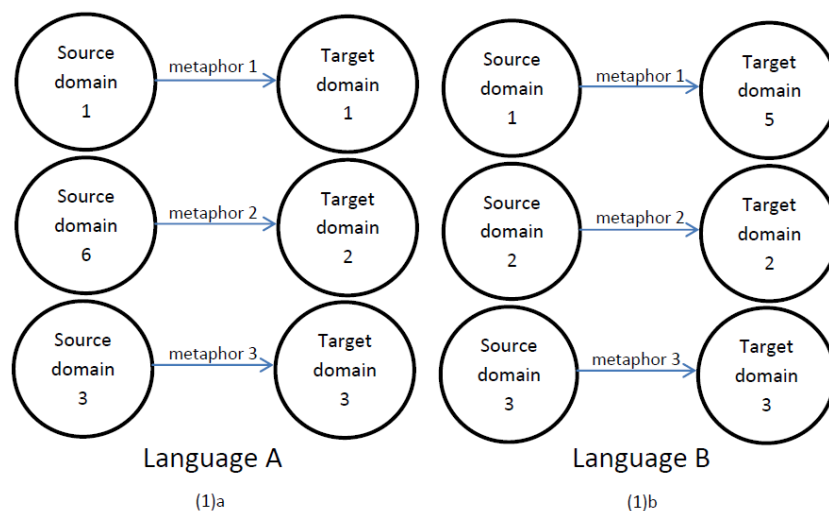
Berendt & Tanita (2011), compare three languages, English, Japanese and Thai, to figure out similarities and differences in using metaphor of HEART between these three languages. Heart in Thai is used in metaphors such as HEART AS ENTITY, HEART AS PERSON more specifically, HEART AS LOCUS OF THINKING, and, HEART AS A LOCUS OF EMOTION. These metaphors are used in Japanese as well but with replacing the word HEART for HARA which literally means ‘abdomen’ which covers a wider range of functions than the English equivalent does. However, in English not all these three examples of conceptual metaphors are used. The HEART AS LOCUS OF THINKING metaphor is not used. The authors argue that this third metaphor that is excluded from English actually had been used in English before. They say that Japanese and Thai use a monistic view of communication and that English uses a dualistic one. The monistic view means that there is a merger of different ways of understanding, while the dualistic view means that there is a dichotomy of the way to refer to rational and emotive modes by using the expression mind and heart respectively for example.

By looking at these studies that compare metaphors across languages, we can conclude that schematic metaphors are used more universally than more specific metaphors. And that the more specific a metaphor the more cultural specific it is; however usually conceptual metaphors are more interculturally shared than culturally specific. According to Li (2010), different metaphors result from different thinking modes and different cultures. Lie reached this conclusion after comparing English and Chinese cultures by analyzing and comparing examples for anger metaphor from each culture. Chen (2010) argues that geographic environment, personalities of speakers, values, concepts, thinking modes, and views of the world are criteria that decide if conceptual metaphors are similar or different in two languages. He concludes that after he analyzed Anger metaphors form English and Chinese. An additional study that compares metaphors form English and Chines is the study by Liu and Zhao in 2013. This study is dealing with happiness metaphors and concludes that metaphor differences are due to cultural influences. An additional study that compares metaphors includes English and Persian in the comparison. This study was done by Mashak, Pazhakh, & Hayati (2012). This study concluded that English and Persian speaking cultures are very similar with regard to conceptualizing metaphors of emotions to the extent that most of the metaphors used in either of these languages is transferable to the other while still retain their same meanings and functions. The last study I refer to above is the one by Berendt & Tanita (2011). In this study, metaphor of Heart of three languages, English, Japanese, and Thai is compared. They conclude similarities in basis of metaphorical uses except for one use of the metaphor of heart which they claim to be used but not anymore; this metaphor is HEART IS LOCUS OF THINKING metaphor in English. They imply that this difference is due to different cultural construct in how thinking, feeling, human relationships, and understanding are understood. To sum up the conclusions for differences or similarities in metaphors across cultures according to the studies we refer to in this paper, we can say that extent of different cultures, geographic environments, speaker’s values and personality, thinking modes, mental concepts, views of the world, feelings, and human relationships all of these are factors that play critical roles in shaping conceptual metaphors and metaphorical expressions in languages³, I will refer to these factors as conceptual metaphor shaping factors throughout this paper. A very detailed and through investigation needs to be done by applying each of these factors, and other factors, in order to arrive at reliable conclusions.

III. METAPHOR SHAPING FACTORS

When we have a conceptual metaphor in one language that does not have a matching conceptual metaphor in another language then we need to bear in mind two different situations in which this mismatch is represented. As we stated above, we need to have two conceptual domains in order to have a metaphor. The two conceptual domains are a source and target domains for every metaphor. A change in one of them renders a change in the metaphor hence results in two different situations where metaphors of a language are not matching metaphors of another. One of these situations where the target domain is matching but the source domain is not, compare metaphor 1 in (1)a and metaphor 1 in (1)b, and the other situation where the source domain is matching but the target is not, compare metaphor 2 in (1)a and metaphor 2 in (1)b.

³ These factors are not inclusive to all factors that shape conceptual metaphors however they are used as basis in this study.



How if we introduce a nonmatching metaphor in a language? Then it will depend on acceptability of speakers according to any of the conceptual metaphor shaping factors summed up above. Metaphors in general map a target domain, which could not be readily fully understood, to a source domain to help in the understanding of it. If a source domain needs to be defined to be understood by the respective speakers of a language, then it is not serving its purpose as a source domain and probably is more confusing when it is mapped to a target domain. Let us take the example HEART IS LOCUS OF THINKING and apply it to English. The example from Berendt & Tanita (2011) “Look in heart then choose.” does not make sense in English; although it makes perfect sense in Thai since heart is locus of thinking in Thai. A speaker who is not familiar with the conceptual metaphor HEART IS LOCUS OF THINKING and is familiar with the conceptual metaphor HEART IS LOCUS OF EMOTIONS would probably think that the second conceptual metaphor is applied to this metaphorical expression. In this example the target domain does not have a match in English. And even if we introduced such example we would not be successful in having speakers of English use it unless one or more of their conceptual metaphor shaping factors is changed.

I presume that conceptual metaphor shaping factors are constantly changing. As a support for this claim we can take the metaphorical expression “learn by heart” which is a reminiscence of old metaphorical usage in old English according to Berendt & Tanita (2011) which does not exist anymore except in that example. This example is a strong support for the idea that metaphors die once they are well entrenched in mind of speakers of a culture. This metaphor probably retains its function although it has lost a great deal of its meaning due to deep entrenchment. This means that such entrenchment had been happening before one or more conceptual metaphor shaping factors have changed. In the next section, we will deal with some examples of differences in conceptual metaphor mapping between WS Arabic and English.

IV. COMPARING METAPHORS IN ARABIC AND ENGLISH

The general conceptual metaphor A PERSON IS AN ANIMAL entails more specific conceptual metaphors as A HAPPY PERSON IS AN ANIMAL⁴, A COURAGEOUS PERSON IS AN ANIMAL, AN UNGRATEFUL PERSON IS AN ANIMAL, just to mention a few. A metaphorical expression that entails A HAPPY PERSON IS AN ANIMAL as mentioned by Kovecses (2002) is “He was happy as a pig in slop.” The source domain here is “pig in slop” and the target domain is “very happy person” while in WS Arabic the target domain is “very ungrateful person” in such a metaphorical expression in Arabic that translates as “As ungrateful as a pig”, so the only difference between these expressions are the target domains while the same source domain is used in both of these Arabic and English metaphorical expressions. By only changing the target domain in such examples, the meaning and function of the whole metaphor is changed. This different conceptual mapping is due to the fact that pigs are of the lowest status animals in the culture where WS Arabic is spoken. Another probable reason for not using names of most animals to refer to people is that using Animal names to refer to people is generally a kind of cursing in WS Arabic culture, except for names of some high status animals, according to WS Arabic culture, that refer to courage or strength like falcons, lions, tigers, wolves etc., which are more commonly used as metonyms that stand for persons than metaphors. We can draw a conclusion for having these animals as high status animals that these animals are advantageous to have in the environment where WS Arabic is spoken, like falcons and horses especially in the past, or which are conceptualized as strong opponents, such as wolves which use to attack sheep at night, in areas which WS Arabic is spoken now. Another example is the metaphor LOVE IS A NUTRIENT. This conceptual metaphor entails the metaphorical expression “I am starved for love.” in English and the metaphorical expression that is translated as “I am thirsty for love.” in WS Arabic

⁴ Some of these conceptual metaphors are adopted from Kovecses (2002) or Lakoff & Johnson (1980).

which only changes part of the meaning of the metaphor. The metaphor “starved for love” is not used in WS Arabic which is not as appropriate as “Thirsty for love” in a desert environment in which water is scarce and more precious than food, hence adds more to the value of love. The difference between metaphorical expressions in this comparison is in the source domain as opposed to the situation in the previous comparison. SADNESS IS LACK OF HEAT is another conceptual metaphor in English that does not have an exact match in WS Arabic. Lack of heat in WS Arabic is associated with lack of feelings. The following example for SADNESS IS LACK OF HEAT is from Kovecses (2002: 25), “Losing his father put his fire out; he’s been depressed for two years.”; on the other hand, “LACK OF HEAT” is used in WS Arabic in examples such as “inta matifrah lahom! inta mara barid” literally translated as “You don’t feel happy for them! You’re so cold.” ‘Happiness’ in such example can be replaced by any of the other feelings such as “sadness, love, etc.” and the metaphor would be valid. Lack of heat is viewed negatively in both points of view, since sadness and lack of feelings are negative attributes. In the case of English, lack of heat is mapped to lack of happiness, which is lack of a feeling, which can be noticed from Kovecses’s example above, while in WS Arabic lack of heat is mapped to lack of feelings including lack of happiness. In other words, in English, happiness is heat while in Arabic feelings are heat; a sort of similarity can be noticed when looking at it this way.

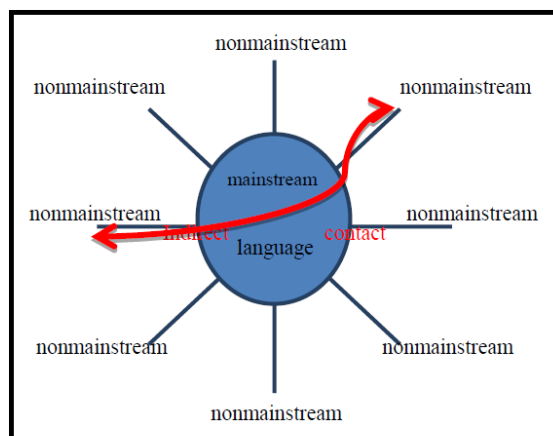
Some metaphor similarities between WS Arabic and English are exemplified in the following table:

TABLE (1)

conceptual metaphor	metaphorical expression	
	in English	in Arabic (followed by lit. translation)
ANGER IS A HOT FLUID IN A CONTAINER	She is boiling with anger.	xalla dammo jiqli He made his blood boiling.
ANGER IS INSANITY	The man was insane with rage.	elli qultu zannanni What you said made me insane.
THE CAUSE OF ANGER IS TRESPASSING	Here I draw the line.	La titšadda huddudak Do not cross your limits.
FEAR IS A FLUID IN A CONTAINER	The sigh filled her with fear.	Alxof šabba almakan Fear filled the place.
HAPPINESS IS BEING OF THE GROUND	I was so happy my feet barely touched the ground.	šar min alfarha He flies of joy.
HAPPINESS IS HEALTH	It made me feel great.	atnašat min alfarha I got freshened up of happiness.
HAPPINESS IS A FLUID IN A CONTAINER	He was overflowing with joy.	Almawldah alžadidah šabbat šaleihum hajatahom forhah The new born baby has filled their lives with happiness.
SADNESS IS A BURDEN	He staggered under the pain.	šail hamm addunia foq rasoh He is carrying all the burden of the world over his head.
LOVE IS A UNITY OF PARTS	We’re as one.	Ana wa inti wahid You and I are one.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION: WHY METAPHOR SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES?

By looking at metaphors such as the ones in table (1), I notice that there are similarities and some differences in metaphors in WS Arabic and English. I presume that similarities could be due to similarities in human minds, borrowing, or chance, while differences could be due to pragmatic, morphosyntactic, and/or typological differences between WS Arabic and English. Interestingly, I found the process of coming up with similar conceptual metaphors relatively easy; however, when I was coming up with nonmatching conceptual metaphors it was much harder. From this I conclude that there are much more similar conceptual metaphors in WS Arabic and English than metaphors with no match in the other language; hence, similar to what was concluded or explicitly or implicitly in previous studies, the schematic metaphorical systems of WS Arabic and English are very similar, and that differences are based on cultural, environmental, and other factors. Moreover, similarities in metaphorical expressions can be due to borrowing from different languages by speakers of other different languages. Logically, this borrowing, which also needs to be based on factors such as the conceptual metaphor shaping factors, needs speakers of one language to get access to the language from which metaphors are borrowed. Probably that is why most of the metaphorical concepts and some metaphorical expressions in English, to which most speakers around the world have access, are shared with other languages. Therefore, there is a need to look into already done studies and do more studies that compare two languages that are nonmainstream to attempt to figure out if human mind innately comes up with conceptual metaphors and metaphorical expressions or that partial conversion of metaphorical systems of different languages is due to borrowing and language contact. Even if speakers of two nonmainstream languages are not in contact and do not have access to the other language, there is still the possibility that these languages are indirectly in contact with one another through one or more mainstream languages, and at such situation, metaphor transfer is possible to happen between these two languages once conceptual metaphor shaping factors are similar enough for speakers of these two languages, see diagram (2). A carefully designed study that would exclude all possibilities of contact is needed to arrive at better conclusions.



(2)

This paper starts by introducing some ideas about metaphors. Then it refers to some previous studies that deal with metaphors and cultures. After that it discusses some similarities and differences between WS Arabic and English metaphors.

I conclude that metaphor similarities are more likely to be the case than metaphor differences cross-culturally. Decision about such metaphor similarities or differences is driven by looking into some factors such as extent of different cultures, geographic environments, speaker's values and personality, thinking modes, mental concepts, views of the world, feelings, and human relationships. Bearing in mind such factors while doing a cross-cultural study of metaphors, would result in better understanding of reasons for metaphorical systems convergence and divergence of languages at hand.

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Exploring Flow Theory in TOEFL Texts: Expository and Argumentative Genre

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Abstract—The present study attempts to examine optimal experience of test takers in Expository and Argumentative Genres of TOEFL texts. Flow theory was originally used by Csikszentmihalyi in 1970 to represent “optimal experience” that is characterized by intense focus, control, interest and skill challenge balance which leads to enhanced performance on a task, and provides the basis for peak performance. Different researchers have examined Flow in different fields of studies as sports, music and surgery but there has been less attention toward International proficiency tests like TOEFL. This study tries to examine the role of genre which creates more flow in text readers of TOEFL. So, two different texts from a TOEFL actual test with different genres were chosen. Then, 33 participants who were MA English students were asked to read the texts and fill out the Flow perception Questionnaire (Egbert, 2003) in the Likert format to report their perceptions of flow. By calculating mean of both texts, it was indicated that the Expository genre creates more flow in readers. In addition, to get more information, two participants were interviewed to shed more lights into findings.

Index Terms—concept of flow, sense of control, flow and motivation, expository and argumentative genres

I. INTRODUCTION

Because people do not like to do time-consuming, difficult and dangerous activities, they often tend to do easy activities for which they receive noticeable extrinsic rewards. This is finally called the “flow experience”. The most crucial point in flow is paying much attention to do the certain job in a way that there is not any attentiveness toward the other objects beyond it. In fact there is a kind of a failure in self-consciousness throughout flow. In order to create a kind of interaction between actor and action a sort of attentional resources are needed. Indeed, during the flow “me” disappears through flow, and the “I” takes over. According to Mirlohi, Egbert, Ghonsooly (2011) Flow Theory was built up by Csikszentmihalyi (1996), who proposes that learners can experience best learning during tasks characterized by a skills-challenge balance and by a person’s concern, control, and intense focus.

During our life all of us experience that reading some of texts are more interesting and challenging in comparison with the others which are boring, tedious and monotonous. For the first one we have control over the texts and we may wish to read it again and again but for the second one we may leave the text before it is finished because it is not interesting for us to continue. So, this may be type of texts that can create reading motivation and flow in readers. This effect might be created in reading passages like TOEFL. So, in this study two important genres-Expository and argumentative - are compared in TOEFL texts.

Flow

According to Csikszentmihalyi, Abuhamdeh, Nakamura (2005), in fact persons talk about flow whenever they are completely engaged in doing a task as if they forget about everything around them that is a kind of subjective characteristic of the flow. A sort of feeling that we experience during playing our favorite game or reading a book that we are interested in. Influential and deep connection in a certain task so that a person can feel every second of it can be regarded as flow as well (Csikszentmihalyi, Abuhamdeh, Nakamura, 2005).

There are three other features whenever a person experiences flow in doing a task: integration of task and awareness, feeling of management, and no feeling of passing the time. Absorption and attentiveness are entirely provided in doing a task other than forgetting the time. Consequently, people intensely absorb in an action normally talk about rapid passages of time (Csikszentmihalyi, Abuhamdeh, Nakamura, 2005).

Skills-challenge balance, attention, interest and control are different dimensions of flow. Moreover, some other features like intrinsic motivation, enjoyment, and enhancing growth have been found to be associated in creating flow. To sum up, obvious objectives, best confronts, and apparent, instant reactions are necessary aspects of actions that encourage the basically satisfying practical contribution that distinguishes flow. Certainly, these elements are not the only factors that affects on being involved in an activity. There are various studies that show the significance a person puts in doing well in an action foretells the individual's involvement in that activity.

However, it has been shown that there are variations across people and tasks and some people are likely to experience flow more often than others even while doing unpleasant chores (Hektner & Csikszentmihalyi, 1996).

A Sense of Control

According to Csikszentmihalyi, Abuhamdeh, Nakamura (2005), typically experiencing a sense of control—or, more precisely, not having anxiety about the loss of control that normally we experience during lots of job in our everyday life are all the characteristics of flow. This is a kind of feeling that we all experience in doing our favorite tasks (Conti, 2001). The possibility for learners to exercise control while learning, especially in difficult circumstances, has been regarded as essential in experiencing flow (Jackson & Marsh, 1996). It can be said that flow is a reason to change our distressing about doing a task into something pleasant and satisfying. This kind of distress can be happened during our job or even having relationship with others. By experiencing flow in our daily life we enjoy every moments without any stress or tiredness or fatigue. It can be a good decision to create certain situations in every stage of our life even our study or religious ritual.

Previous research provides three important situations that are central and crucial. First, when a person connects to an activity that includes obvious purposes and objectives flow takes place. Having purposes direct and leads our routines. Paying much attention to the task and emerging in the situation structure a satisfying and gratifying realm. Second, when a person provides a balance among *between perceived challenges and perceived skills* flow happens. (Csikszentmihalyi, M., Abuhamdeh, S., Nakamura, J., 2005). At the time of corresponding between these two factors a person completely and fully absorbed in the action. However, this stability is fundamentally easily broken. If confronts start to surpass talents, a person generally becomes worried and uneasy; but if talents commence to surpass confronts, a person calms down and becomes exhausted. At last, existence of obvious and instant reaction is one of the main prerequisites of flow. To involve in an action, one requires to frequently changing environmental needs (Reser & Scherl, 1988). Immediate reaction informs a person how improving in the action will be happened well, and states that is it necessary to correct and change the way or to carry on the certain action. In such a way there remains a very little uncertainty about what to do subsequently. Flow happens during a task that is certainly contains negative act feedback in such a way that flow creates in a high level of challenging. But there isn't any dangerous or damaging to the activity associations. Certainly, that's easy to suppose circumstances that we deliberately educe negative reaction with the purpose of direct attention and behavior (e.g., a pianist practicing with a metronome).

Flow and Stimulus

Theories of stimulus indicate the basis of an activity that happens by practice in which the conclusions are more important than the ways and methods to do a certain task (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 1996). Inclination of a person during an action should be disregarded. So far people who are involving in an activity constantly review their deed and test the significance and worth of their behaviors and decide whether to carry on the action or change it according to the assessments. The persons who are stimulated in an action and do it by their own choice, they will enjoy doing that and simply do it without any exhaustion. In fact they like to perform an action not because of getting a reward but because of being interested in that action (Hektner & Csikszentmihalyi, 1996). When a person is deeply immersed in an activity, the inclination of being satisfied and motivated and enjoyed is regarded as prevailing power.

This kind of motivation is similar to the feeling we have whenever we decide to start playing our favorite games. These kinds of actions never go on unless they are agreeable or individuals are stimulated by outer prizes (Reser & Scherl, 1988).

As a whole, flow indicates the possibility that perhaps a person at first bored of doing an action such as playing with a friend or studying or even working with the computer. But, when they understand the occasion and they become more and more interested in the task doing it will change to be more attractive and pleasant. So that task will become an encouraging task as well. There will be a kind of improvement regarding ones objectives and aims in addition to progress of skills to do the certain task (Csikszentmihalyi & Nakamura, 2001).

Expository and Argumentative Genre

Notifying, clarifying and identifying the writer's topic to the readers are the main objectives of Expository genre. Such writing is enormously used by students in different levels. The best expository text pays much attention to chronological incidents and its subject and theme. Giving directions and instructions to the reader or listener includes expository genre. The words signaling sequential events and ordering stages are important in this regard. Because its language is used as teaching or tutoring so second person pronoun is more dominant. In this genre, authors may extremely exaggerate about the topic. An important factor should be kept in minds that the writer should writes about the things done not every kind of discussions or deliberate talking. In fact it is informing and explaining genre. Accordingly, giving a direction or instruction needs an exact organization with improved mechanisms to describe all details in their own right places.

Argumentative genre presents a essential claim (or claims, depending on length and purpose) and supports the claim(s) using an argument derived from evidence and warrants. This type of genre is where you prove that your attitude, theory or hypothesis about an issue is exact or more truthful than those of others. In short, it is very analogous to the persuasive essay, but the dissimilarity is that you are arguing for your opinion as opposed to others, rather than straight trying to persuade someone to adopt your point of view.

II. METHODOLOGY

Participants

Thirty three MA students studying in the University of Borujerd, Iran took part in the present research. All of the participants majored in English. In order to be sure that all of them have enough competence to take the TOEFL texts, only the second year university students were recruited. Their average age was 26 and the group included 20 females and 13 males. Of the participants, 15 had passed TOEFL exam before entering the university. All of the subjects expressed a positive attitude to experience testing different genres of TOEFL texts and they were so excited to know the results of the study.

Instruments

The instrument should set the ground for further studies in the realm of finding flow in reading different genres. For gathering data in the present research, two TOEFL texts were used. These instruments were used for 33 participants who were MA English students. The participants were asked to read the texts and fill out the Flow perception Questionnaire. According to Conti (2001) numerical sources of data were used to provide sufficient evidence to capture flow experiences. Consequently, the significant difference among two mentioned discourse genres in terms of magnitude of inducing flow in TOEFL text readers was calculated and this was done by using paired samples t-test for the significance of the difference among flow scores. In this way $\text{sig}=.000$ which is less than .05. Therefore it can be concluded that there is statistically significant difference among two obtained means of discourse genres that shows a significant change in flow scores across two texts. As the table indicates, the calculated effect size is -0.23 which shows a large effect. That is, the difference between the means is large and meaningful and also it is worthy for the present research.

Tasks and Texts

In order to start the present study, two discourse genres from a TOEFL exam were selected: expository and argumentative (see Appendix A for the passages). These two texts were chosen based on the same length of words (around 200 words each text). Choosing the related texts from TOEFL passages made us sure about their reliability. In argumentative text, there are both giving information and presenting an argument with the supporting ideas and opposite ideas of a contrary issue. We should clearly take our stand and write as if we are trying to convince an opposing audience to adopt new beliefs or actions. The most important purpose is to persuade people to modify beliefs that many of them do not want to change.

Flow Perceptions Questionnaire

To measure flow, the Flow Perceptions Questionnaire adopted directly from Egbert (2003) was used. The Perceptions Questionnaire (see Appendix B) consisted of 14 items in the Likert format, having a 5-point scale from 5 (strongly disagree) to 1 (strongly agree). According to Mirlohi, Egbert, Ghonsooly (2011) for the purpose of item intelligibility, the questionnaire was pilot-tested before given to a group of 12 university juniors and the results showed that it was intelligible.

The received data from participants were entered into a SPSS 17 database. In fact each participant filled out the questionnaire two times for both texts. So, for the first time all of the expository passages were collected. After calculating each form score, the average of all questionnaires was measured. Then, the same process was repeated for argumentative genre too. The average of all the participants flow scores across the task made it possible to conduct analyses involving descriptive and inferential statistics.

Interview

After calculating the mean of flow scores of all subjects for both texts, it seemed to be necessary to interview those participants with highest and lowest scores in each text to know more about the participants' optimal experience measured through the Flow Perceptions Questionnaire. So, four students were selected accordingly: two with highest and lowest scores for the argumentative genre, and two with highest and lowest scores for the expository text. Gender of informants was not important here.

Procedure

Data collection was performed during students' regular class hours. In the first section of this study, students received expository text and its related Flow Perceptions Questionnaire. The second section was two weeks later with the same process, time and conditions for argumentative genre. It was strongly emphasized that the questionnaires had to be filled immediately after reading each text. The participants were made sure that they had enough time to fill out the questionnaire. So there was no limitation of time so that students have more control over reading the passages. Then, with two weeks interval four students were chosen for open interview. Before conducting the interview, the students were asked to review the texts not to forget any point in their assessments.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 summarizes the statistic of flow scores during all tasks as a result of paired Samples T-Test. As can be seen, there is a difference between the means of the argumentative text (46.09) and the expository text (71.96).

TABLE 1.
STATISTICS OF FLOW SCORES ACROSS EACH TASK.

Paired Samples Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range
Pair 1 Argumentative	32	46.09	11.57962	2.04	26	76	50.0
Expository	32	71.96	13.02970	2.30	54	88	34.0
Valid N(listwise)	32						

It is important to say that according to Egbert (2003), the participants who scored 70 or above on any survey are designated as having experienced flow. In this way, the text in which the average score of all participants are 70 or above creates more flow. This score for the expository text is 71.96. So it can be easily understood that this kind of text created flow in participants.

By comparing the results of Table 1, this fact can be easily found that the expository genre created more flow among applicants because only one applicant scored 76 for the argumentative text and sixteen participants with 70 score or above for the expository text. Although both texts were quite understandable and kind of easy, some texts aroused participants' curiosity, interest and attention because of the text content or topic so that it was probably boring for one and interesting for the other. Also, vocabulary and unfamiliar structure could be the other reason for this difference among the two texts. In fact, text topic, participants level of interest in the text, text characteristics, language issues such as structural difficulty, content germane to lifelike situations, individual appreciation of the text are important issues that have determinative affects on readers.

TABLE 2.
RESULTS OF PAIRED SAMPLES OF BOTH GENRES.

t-test

	differences of both genres					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Effect Size
	mean	Std. Deviation	Std. error mean	95% confidence interval e difference					
				lower	upper				
Argumentative- Expository	-25.87	19.06	3.36	-32.74	-19.00	-7.67	31	.00	-0.23

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

According to Table 2, there is a significant difference between the results obtained from both argumentative and expository texts (sig= .000).

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

There is a significant differences among discourse genres regarding flow in reading different discourse genres (sig=.000). By calculating mean of scores for each questionnaire in the first phase, and then measuring mean score of all questionnaires for each genre, significant effect of texts with different genres was indicated (effect size=-0.23) Statistics shows that the average flow score for the expository genre is 71.96. On the other hand, the average flow score for the argumentative discourse genre is 46.09. This result showed that the expository discourse genre created more flow in participants and they were more likely to read this kind of text more than the other one.

The results of the study support and affirm the findings from the numerical phase. Necessarily, it was important for the researchers that the selected texts are quite similar in all respects and they are only different in terms of their genre. In the last phase of this research, four participants were interviewed: two participants with the highest flow score for each genre and the other two with the lowest flow score for each genre. Participants with the highest flow score declared that the related text was so interesting for them that they wish to read it again and again and also narrate it for others. They added that they never felt to be bored of reading the text. In contrast, the results of interview with those with the lowest flow score showed that the text was so boring that they left the text and never liked to continue and repeat to read it again.

The conditions under which the participants in the present study just like the previous one experienced flow with the expository text and subsequently engaged in reading fit the flow model: 1) they were very interested in the subject of the text; 2) they established some kind of relationship between the text content and their world knowledge and experience; 3) no task features prevented them from focusing intensely; and 4) the task could emotionally arouse the participants and optimally engage them. However, whenever a text can emotionally arouse readers and optimally involve them (like the expository text in this study); it is more likely to produce flow. This is clearly seen in the present study as nearly two thirds of the participants reported that they experienced flow while reading the expository text.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The ability to enjoy challenges and then master them is a fundamental skill that is essential to individual development. Some people may not understand flow because of some obstacles. These obstructions may have roots in genetic failure to create inability to start pleasant relationship and connection. At that time there isn't any independence. These obstacles reduce learning and performing successful tasks. In such a way flow will be so difficult to be got. On the other hand, throughout flow, we are fully and deliberately engaged in performance so that we may not understand the world around us.

This study faced some difficulties and limitations as measuring flow, sample size and even motivated participants who were willing to spend their time for reading the texts that may be uninteresting and boring for them. The first conclusion obtained from this study regarded that the expository discourse genre created more flow in students in comparison with the argumentative genre. The second conclusion declared that participants with the highest flow score believed that the related text was more attractive, motivating and exciting as if they were very interested in the subject of the text, the texts were neither overmatched nor underused, they found some kinds of relationship between the text content and their knowledge and experience, the texts didn't prevent them from focusing intensely, and the text optimally engaged them. All of these features were more likely to produce flow. But students with the lowest flow score reported that they never experienced these issues during reading the text. They declared that the text didn't make them motivated and it wasn't challenging as if they couldn't have any control over the text.

The results of the present study are in accordance with previous research by Mirlohi, Egbert and Ghonsooly (2011) who studied the optimal experience for translation trainees. In their research the results indicated that flow existed in the classroom and that there were significant differences in the flow scores engendered by different genres just as the present research. The conclusions of both studies regard the adequacy of the Flow Perception Questionnaire that is a reliable instrument to gauge flow which may be indicative of the participants' true experiential states.

These findings are in a line with previous study regarding flow. The present research indicated examinees that distinguish feeling of inefficiency; they will experience distress or boredom, relating to the worth of well doing a job.

Initially, this study focused on expository and argumentative genres to see if they create flow in examinees or not. The same process can be performed for a wider range of genres. Second, this research has been done among TOEFL examinees. This issue can be expanded to other national and international exams. For example, placement test of university entrance for national and language proficiency tests like: IELTS, TOLEMO, GMAT, GRE for international ones. Third, gender is not noticed in the present study. So a study can be instructed to compare the reaction of each gender toward certain genres. Forth, the age of participants can also be an important variable to choose a special genre as more attractive and interesting one to create flow. Fifth, as other variables that can affect this issue are religious and cultural beliefs. A text with particular characteristics may be more fascinating and exciting for special culture than the other one or even some people with their own religious beliefs may accept texts contain their faiths and principles.

In the final step, the value and excellence of daily life must be noticed to be improved in any subjective or objective level. Maybe changing an action in to a useful and pleasant task is a hard job, but for those who wish to perform skillful and mastered job can be regarded as continual opportunities.

APPENDIX A

Argumentative Genre:

Your eyes are about three inches apart. It is the reason why you see the world in three dimensions. The separation gives your eyes two slightly different views of every scene you encounter. In the brains' visual cortex, these views are compared, and the overlap is translated into a stereoptic picture. To estimate relative instances, your brain takes a reading of the tension in your eyes muscles.

But you only see in 3-D up to about 200 feet. Beyond that, you might as well be one-eyed, your eyes are not far enough apart to give two very different views over long distances. Instead, you rely on experience to judge where things are; the brain looks for clues and makes its best guess. For example, it knows that near objects overlap far ones; that bright objects are closer than dim ones; and that large objects are nearer than small ones.

These "monocular cues" are what painters use into thinking a flat canvas is three-dimensional and miles deep. That's why paintings are much more convincing if you close one eye: Your brain hunts down all the clues the painter has dropped. But when both of your eyes are open, the brain gets more information and mixed signals. The paint may say miles, but the muscles in your eyes say inches.

Expository Genre:

After two decades of growing student enrollment and economic prosperity, business schools in the Unites States have started to face harder times. Only Harvard's MBA School has shown a substantial increase in enrollment in recent years. Both Princeton and Stanford have seen decreases in their enrollment. Since 1990, the number of people receiving Masters in Business Administration (MBA) degrees has dropped about 3 percent to 75000, and the trend of lower enrollment rates is expected to continue.

There are two factors causing this decrease in students seeking an MBA degree. The first one is that many graduates of four-year colleges are finding that an MBA degree does not guarantee a plush job on Wall Street, or in other financial districts of major American cities. Many of the entry-level management jobs are going to students graduating with Master of Arts degrees in English and humanities as well as those holding MBA degrees. Students have asked the

question “Is an MBA degree really what I need to be best prepared for getting a good job?” The second major factor has been the cutting of American payrolls and the lower number of entry-level jobs being offered. Business needs are changing, and MBA schools are struggling to meet the new demands.

APPENDIX B

Flow Perception Questionnaire:		strongly agree	somewhat agree	neutral/no opinion	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree
1	This task excited my curiosity.					
2	This task was interesting in itself.					
3	I felt that I had no control over what was happening during this task.					
4	When doing this task I was aware of distractions.					
5	This task made me curious.					
6	This task was fun for me.					
7	I would do this task again.					
8	This task allowed me to control what I was doing.					
9	When doing this task, I was totally absorbed in what I was doing.					
10	This task bored me.					
11	During this task, I could make decisions about what to study, how to study it, and/or with whom to study.					
12	When doing this task I thought about other things.					
13	This task aroused my imagination.					
14	I would do this task even if it were not required.					

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A Contrastive Analysis of Connotations of “蛇 (*she*)” and “Snake”

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Abstract—A certain group of cultural-loaded words in the same language can form a vocabulary category. In order to facilitate systematic and refined research work, language researchers tend to classify the vocabulary which belongs to the same category systematically that provides possibility for cross-cultural research of language. Regardless of different points of view, it has been widely recognized that culture has taken an important place in foreign language teaching and learning studies. As an important category of the vocabulary of a language, animal expression is not only an indispensable part of human language, but also conveys cultural messages to people from different cultures. Words evolve over time, semantic shifting, generalizing, progressing, drifting. Although *snake* falls in the commendatory, neutral and derogatory category in English as well as in Chinese, its derogatory connotation has been highly stressed both in English and Chinese with the rapid process of globalization and human cognitive development. In an attempt to enhance cross-cultural awareness of L2/FL instructors and learners and improve their foreign language proficiency, this paper presents an exclusive study of different cultural connotations between “Snake” and “蛇” by virtue of contrastive analysis, corpora collecting and Associative Group Analysis.

Index Terms—snake, “蛇”, connotation, Chinese, English

I. INTRODUCTION

It is well understood that language is a social and cultural phenomenon and language learning and teaching involve not only knowledge of grammar, phonology and lexis but also a certain features and characteristics of the culture. Every language has its cultural norms, and the use of language in general is related to social and cultural values. The second language learners would become confused and lost when coming across some new phrases and expressions with every word they know. Their connotations thereof are beyond the definitions in dictionaries and requires. To deal with communication problems in the L2/FL acquisition, the learners and teachers need to learn the target culture within the syllabus, and should be sensitive to cultural differences while practical application.

A certain group of cultural-loaded words in the same language can form a vocabulary category. However, the fact is that each word has multiple definitions and connotations in dictionaries with confusing cultural backgrounds, which often makes language learners feel frustrated. Therefore, it is necessary and urgent for teachers to strengthen learners' cross-cultural awareness and guide them to acquire both linguistic and cultural meanings of words. The most effective way is to contrast the native culture with the target culture in SLT so that students can be equipped with the knowledge of cultural characteristics of L2 as well as of the native language.

The concept of cross-cultural awareness is put forward by Hanvey (1979) and he formulates four levels of cross-cultural awareness:

the first level is awareness of superficial or very visible cultural traits, such as tourism; the second level is awareness of significant and subtle cultural traits that contrast markedly with one's own; the third level is theoretical understanding of the cultural differences; the fourth level is awareness of how another culture feels from the standpoint of the insider (p.13)

In terms of the relationship between three language elements and culture, vocabulary is the one with which the closest and can most directly reflect it compared to pronunciation and grammar (Hu, 1991). That is to say, among all linguistic structural levels vocabulary contains the largest amount of cultural information, such as history, geography, religion, customs, and thought patterns. As an integral part of vocabulary, animal words also convey a large amount of cultural information. In ancient times, people maintained frequent contact with animals and recognized their different attributes such as instinct, habit, brainpower, and function in their long-term living and production practice. With all these attributes having similarities or relevance with other objects and conceptions, animal words have become the embodiment of some people, lifeless things or phenomena and evolved over time metaphorically in terms of feelings, emotions, personalities, appearances and so on. Generally there are two types of cultural metaphors: animal word individually and animal word as a morpheme in idioms and expressions.

While seeking an overall perspective into the related research on animal words, the author finds out that many language researchers and scholars take a certain kind of animal as a study subject, although they are aware of the research value of different connotations of animal words and published piles of works and papers. In addition, the conclusions they come up with are usually regarded synchronic rather than diachronic. These studies are focused on the most familiar animals like *dog*, *horse*, *pig* and so on while there are few systematic and elaborate researches about *snake* which is frequently used in English and Chinese language. When it comes to *snake*, people may immediately think of several images or expressions in history, myths, legends, books and movies. In the process of exploring different connotations of “snake” and “蛇”, this paper presents a contrastive study and associative group analysis with an aim to facilitate foreign language learning and teaching.

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND THEORY

A. Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive analysis is the systematic study of a pair of languages with a view to identifying their structural differences and similarities, and came into fashion in the 1960s starting with describing comparable features of the native language and target language (e.g. tense, words, or expressions etc.). Contrastive linguistics is the systematic comparison of two or more languages, with the aim of describing their similarities and differences expressed in terms of correspondence and equivalence between the elements of those languages. The publication of Lado's book *Linguistics Across Culture* (1957) marks the real beginning of the application of contrastive analysis. In this book, Lado argues that “we can predict and describe the patterns that will cause difficulty in learning, and those that will not cause difficulty, by comparing systematically the language and culture to be learned with the native language and culture of the student”. (Dai & He, 2002, p.132)

Contrastive analysis compares the forms and meanings across the two languages to spot the mismatches or differences so that people could predict learner's difficulty. In the second language learning and teaching, the basis of language instruction is the difference between native language and target language (Liu et al., 1992). That is to say, contrastive analysis is an important method to learn foreign language and it has profound influence on second language acquisition and language research study.

In a word, contrastive analysis is a main language research method to probe into similarities and differences between different languages. “snake” and “蛇” refer to the same animal in two different languages, English and Chinese respectively. In this paper the author proposes a boosting application of contrastive analysis on connotations of “snake” and “蛇” from a cross-cultural perspective.

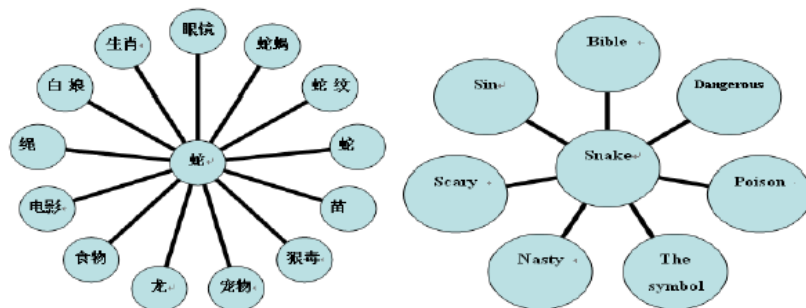
B. Associative Group Analysis

Associative Group Analysis (AGA) is an inferential approach to analyze people's mental representations, focusing on subjective meanings and images to assess similarities and differences across cultures and belief systems.¹ Culture can be regarded as “a group-specific cognitive organization or world view composed of the mosaic elements of meanings” (Salay, 1973, p.33).

Lorand B. Szalay and Glen H. Fisher (1979) hold that the meaning of the word, to a large extent, is decided by the unique “frame of reference” of each person (p.57). To understand the meaning of a word accurately, we need to catch the “frame of reference”, which means subjective meaning or psychological meaning. Namely that the subjective and psychological reactions stimulated by the language user according to their life experience. Everyone in the different countries of the world has their own interests, concepts, attitudes and faiths, which is the “frame of reference” of their unique life experience. The words people use reflect not only their cognitions, but also their affections and behavioral intentions. Therefore, Szalay and Fisher put forward the AGA to contrastively analyze the cultural meaning of a word given by people from different backgrounds. AGA is an analytical approach aided by a word association technique which produces semantographs, and then people proceed to contractively analyze the connotative meanings of a word in cross-cultural communication (Bi, 2011).

In virtue of AGA theory, the author interviewed twenty Chinese college students, and five foreign students and two foreign teachers in China Women's University about their free associations of “蛇(*she*)” in Chinese and “snake” in English. The findings are organized and presented in the following Fig. 1.

¹ Associative Group Analysis (no date). http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Associative_group_analysis#cite_ref-1 (accessed 19/3/2014).



There are both similarities and differences between the Chinese and English associations of *snake*, which are based on the interviewees' personal experiences, emotions, education, well-developed beliefs and so on. On the one hand, all interviewees are familiar with this word or character and associate “蛇” or “snake” with some derogatory meanings like scary, poisonous and dangerous. On the other hand, Chinese students have more neutral associations with “蛇”. There is a famous dish in Guangdong Province, called “the Fight between the Dragon and the Tiger”, which is actually braised snake and leopard cat. The image of “蛇” is literally associated with slim figure of women and zigzag movements, and even a household snake-woman in a Chinese legend. Some traditional Chinese medicine is extracted from the gallbladder of snakes. “蛇” ranks among the twelve Chinese zodiac animals. Owing to religious records or literature, “snake” in English is always associated with derogatory meanings. When it comes to snake, some foreign students even say “Oh. I don’t like snake!” in a direct way and are loath to talk about “蛇”.

C. Corpora Collection

Corpus is a collection of linguistic data, either compiled as written texts or as a transcription of recorded speech. The main purpose of a corpus is to verify a hypothesis about language - for example, to determine how the usage of a particular sound, word, or syntactic construction varies. Corpus linguistics deals with the principles and practice of using corpora in language study. Corpora collection is a method to present (list) all the collection of all the writing of a particular kind that is used for studying the language (Crystal, 1992).

In order to ensure the research reliability and comprehensiveness, this paper proposes the related corpora collection in an exhaustive way to contrastively analyze the connotations of “snake” and “蛇” from a cross-cultural perspective. Therefore, the author collected all the phrases and expressions containing “snake” or “蛇” through the nine most authoritative dictionaries: *the English-Chinese dictionary (second edition)*, *A new English-Chinese dictionary (enlarged and updated)*, *Oxford advanced learner’s dictionary of current English with Chinese translation (the commercial press & oxford university press)*, *A complete dictionary of English-Chinese idiomatic phrases*, *the Chinese-English dictionary (third edition)*, *Longman dictionary of English language and culture*, “汉英语林”, “现代汉语巨典”, and “汉语大词典”.

III. SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN “蛇(SHE)” AND “SNAKE”

Connotation means “the implication of a word, apart from its primary meaning”, according to *Longman Modern English Dictionary*, or “an idea suggested by a word in addition to its main meaning” according to *Oxford Advanced Learner’s English-Chinese Dictionary*. The same word or character may be entailed with different connotations in different languages. In term of “connotation”, it has the following interpretation:

“Any language sign may be simultaneously of a denotative, connotative, or iconic kind of meanings. All these types of meanings are bound with cultural encodings or associations, for the meanings of words cannot be separated from their associations. Each language has its own metaphors that provide semantic cohesion within its boundaries. Motivated by the need and desire to influence others, people choose to use words which emphasize denotative meaning, connotative meaning or iconic meanings or all of them, during the same process its cultural meanings are created.” (Witherspoon, 1980, p.175)

Language is instinctively influenced and shaped by culture. English and Chinese expressions in dictionaries are abstracted from people’s long-term practice and throw great light on the different cultural connotations of “snake” and “蛇”.

A. An Analysis of Chinese Expressions

Chinese idioms, proverbs, colloquialisms, allegorical sayings and slang are considered concisely organized, vividly expressed, culturally featured, and chronologically evolved. In other words, they embody Chinese history, religion, literature, customs and life style of human beings (Yang, 2008). The different connotations of “蛇” are collected in the commendatory, neutral and derogatory category.

• Commendatory Category

Among all the 35 dictionary entries, there're 11 commendatory expressions:

1. 笔走龙蛇: 形容书法生动而有气势。Dragons and snakes follow one's writing brush—an expression used to show good penmanship with a vigorous calligraphic style. The strokes are forceful and characters full of vitality—superb handwriting.

2. 虺蛇螫手, 壮士解腕: 手腕被腹蛇咬伤, 便立即截断, 以免毒液延及全身, 危及生命。比喻事到紧要关头, 必须下决心当机立断。也比喻牺牲局部, 照顾全局。 This means to make a prompt decision in urgent situation and preserve the whole situation at the expense of partial interest.

3. 骇龙走蛇: 龙蛇被掠走, 形容声势浩大。 The expression means great in strength and impetus, and influential and large-scale.

4. 灵蛇之珠: 即隋珠。 原比喻无价之宝, 后也比喻非凡的才能。The pearl spat out by the Scared Serpent—a certain duke of Sui once saw a wounded serpent and kindly healed the wound with some ointment. He was rewarded with a pearl which the serpent subsequently fished out from the "Great Yangtze River". This means something that is priceless and precious or means remarkable capability.

5. 蛇无头不行: A snake without a head cannot go forward which lay emphasis on the leader.

6. 龙蛇飞动: 仿佛龙飞腾, 蛇游动。形容书法气势奔放, 笔力劲健。 The expression used to show swift movement of calligraphy and the free, fluid, vivid, vigorous, crisp, graceful and elegant style of calligraphy.

7. 打蛇随棍上: “打蛇随棍上”其实是“木棍打蛇, 蛇随棍上”这句话的简略说法。它寓意人能瞅准机会, 顺势而为, 争取更大的利益或好处。以“打蛇随棍上”比喻人间争斗, 指的是: 被攻击者善于利用对方手段中的破绽, 灵敏地反击, 使对方大感棘手。

This means depending on the beneficial opportunities to achieve the biggest advantages or seize the chance to strike back at adversary.

8. 打蛇打七寸: 比喻说话做事必须抓住主要环节。 To touch somebody's tender spot or to hit somebody where it hurts, which means we must seize the main point when we do something.

9. 蛇灰蚓线: 比喻有相应的线索可循。 The expression used to show that there're some relevant clues to seek.

10. 蝉蜕蛇解: ①如蝉脱壳, 如龙蛇换皮。比喻解脱而进入更高境界。②后世道教多以指羽化成仙。 Extricate oneself and enter a higher realm.

11. 蛇雀之报: 指大蛇衔明珠、黄雀衔白环报恩的故事。隋侯出行见大蛇被伤中断, 以药封之, 蛇乃能行, 岁余, 蛇衔明珠以报之, 谓之隋侯珠、明月珠。杨宝幼时见一黄雀为鸢枭所搏, 坠于树下, 为蝼蚁所困, 宝救之养百余日飞去, 其夜有黄衣童子以白环四枚相报, 并云当使其子孙洁白, 位登三事, 有如此环。后以“蛇雀之报”为报恩的典故。 An allusion which means repay an obligation to show one's gratefulness.

From the enumeration of Chinese expressions, we can draw the conclusion that “蛇” in Chinese has 31% commendatory connotations, which accounts for a considerable portion of all Chinese expressions with “蛇”.

• Neutral Category

There're only three entries in neutral sense:

1. 打蛇不死, 转背咬人: Insidious intentions must be thwarted before they can inflict harm.

2. 斗折蛇行: 斗折: 像北斗星的排列一样曲折。像北斗星一样弯曲, 像蛇一样曲折行进。形容道路曲折蜿蜒 The road is winding

3. 一朝被蛇咬, 三年怕草绳: 比喻在某事上吃了苦头, 以后碰到类似的情况也会害怕。 When a man is bitten by a snake, he starts with fright at the sight of a grass rope for the next three years.

Chinese expressions of “蛇” with neutral connotations take up only 9%, most of which are literally based on physical features of snake.

• Derogatory Category

There're 21 items which can be regarded as derogatory:

1. 蛇入竹筒, 曲性不失(犹在): 比喻本性难改 Even though a snake enters a bamboo tubes, it still inclines to wriggle. This means inherent quality is hard to change.

2. 蛇鼠横行: 比喻恶人得势, 胡作非为。 Wicked people run rampant.

3. 蛇头鼠尾: An expression to show the person who have a sneaky and crafty look

4. 蛇头鼠眼: 形容人的面相丑恶, 心术不正。亦作“蛇眉鼠眼”。 The expression means wily and cunning.

5. 蛇蝎心肠: Have a heart as malicious as snakes and scorpions. Cruel, merciless

6. 蛇口蜂针: 比喻恶毒的言词和手段。 Refer to malicious words and means.

7. 蛇影杯弓: 将映在酒杯里的弓影误认为蛇。比喻因疑神疑鬼而引起恐惧。 Mistake the reflection of a bow in the cup for a snake; take alarm at the shadow of a bow in the cup, extremely suspicious, illusion caused by suspicion.

8. 画蛇添足: 用来形容做多余的事, 不能锦上添花反而弄巧成拙。 Carry water to rive or painting legs on a snake which means ruining the overall effect by doing something superfluous.

9. 打草惊蛇: 比喻做法不谨慎, 反使对方有所戒备。 Beat the grass and the snake will be startled. Frighten away someone by raising a scare. Act rashly and alert the enemy.

10. 拨草寻蛇: 比喻招惹恶人, 自找麻烦。Provoke villain and then make oneself in trouble.
11. 封豕长蛇: 封: 大; 封豕: 大猪; 长蛇: 大蛇。贪婪如大猪, 残暴如大蛇。比喻贪暴者、侵略者。The giant boar and huge python—covetousness of corrupted officials
12. 佛口蛇心: 比喻话虽说得动听, 心肠却极狠毒。Buddha's words and a serpent's heart which means malicious and a villainous hypocrite.
13. 虎头蛇尾: 头大如虎, 尾细如蛇。比喻开始时声势很大, 到后来劲头很小, 有始无终。To begin with tigerish energy but peter out towards the end. Fine start and poor finish. Eg: No matter what we do, we should not let the work tail off once it gets started (Bernard, 2005).
14. 贪蛇忘尾: 比喻只图眼前利益而不考虑后果。Only emphasize short-term interest and overlook consequence.
15. 龙头蛇尾: A beginning with no end
16. 龙蛇混杂: There were snakes and vipers creeping around among the dragons. The good and the evil were mixed together.
17. 牛鬼蛇神: 牛头的鬼, 蛇身的神。形容作品虚幻怪诞。比喻形形色色的坏人。牛鬼蛇神原是佛教用语, 说的是阴间鬼卒、神人等, 后成为固定成语, 比喻邪恶丑陋之物。在文化大革命中, 牛鬼蛇神成了所被打倒、“横扫”的无辜受害者的统称。The expression means monsters, freaks (demons) and all sorts of bad characters.
18. 蛇食鲸吞: 蛇食: 像蛇一样吞食。鲸吞: 像鲸一样吞咽。比喻强者逐步并吞弱者。The strong overwhelm the weak gradually.
19. 强龙不压地头蛇(强龙难斗地头蛇): A mighty dragon is no match for the native serpents. Even a mighty dragon should not attack a serpent in its haunt (lair). This expression means even a capable and powerful person cannot contend with vicious power in that area. 比喻有能耐的人也难对付盘踞当地的恶势力。In this term, “地头蛇” literally means snake in its local haunt and it's connotation meaning is local bully or local villain.
20. 人心不足蛇吞象: dissatisfied or discontent as a snake trying to swallow an elephant.
21. 虚与委蛇(yi): 虚: 假; 委蛇: 随便应顺。指对人虚情假意, 敷衍应酬。Pretend to have interest and sympathy, courteously but without sincerity.

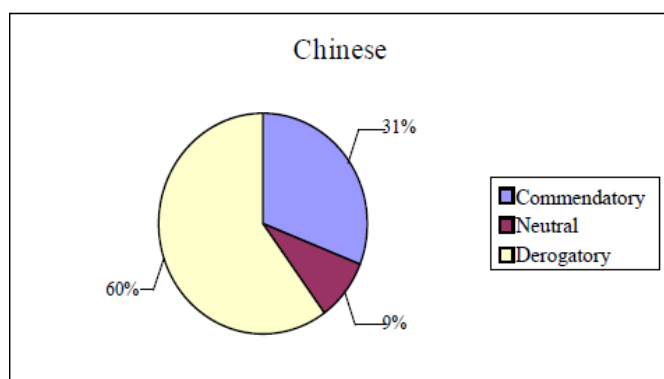


Figure 2. “蛇(she) in Chinese Expressions”

Obviously, “蛇” has more derogatory connotations in Chinese expressions, amounting to 60%, which originate from Chinese history, literature, folklores or legends and are frequently applied in Chinese written and oral communication. Therefore, getting familiar with these expressions and connotations is an inevitable part of Chinese language acquisition.

B. An Analysis of English Expressions

Snake itself has abundant meanings in English expressions. For example, an individual word of “snake” means wicked, crafty, despicable, worthless or treacherous fellow. In American slang, it refers to whisky of inferior quality, or man (usually young man) who chases after and cheats girls. As a verb, to snake implies “to move like a snake, in long twisting curves, to go in a particular direction in long twisting curves”. E.g. *The road snakes its way up and down hill.* In addition, “move in twists and glides”. E.g. *The centipede snaked swiftly away.* Besides, snake has a hint of fudge. E.g. *I can get along and snake through.*

• Commendatory Category

Among all the 18 dictionary entries about “snake”, there’re only three commendatory expressions:

1. raise snakes = wake snakes—cheer up
2. snake the pool, to—obtain all the wagers
3. scotch a \the snake—restrain harmful act

• Neutral Category

There’re nine items classified as the neutral category, and they’re used as nouns and verbs all based on snake’s physical features.

1. the snake—a kind of floating exchange rate system that used in European countries.
 2. plumber's snake—a long thin tool that is used to clear out blocked pipes.
 3. snakes in Iceland—something that not existed.
 4. snake charmer—an entertainer who seems to be able to control snakes and make them move by playing music to them.
 5. a black snake—a long whip; the train carrying coal.
 6. snakes and ladders—a children's game played on a special board with pictures of snakes and ladders on it; a succession of success and frustration.
 7. see snakes—have hallucinations; equal to have snakes in one's boots; get wildly drunk.
 8. snake in, to—run into or slip into a place silently.
 9. snake out, to—haul\drag out e.g. The trees were cut down in the woods, trimmed close, and snake out.
- Derogatory Category
- There're six entries in derogatory sense:
1. (Cherish) a snake in the bosom—the people who are ingrate and treacherous.
 2. a snake in the grass—An offensive term for somebody perceived as betraying or deceiving others. Refer to the person who are sly, sneaky and cannot be trusted.
 3. snake out, to—chase, persecute eg. The present is a fair opportunity to snake him out.
 4. wake snakes—alarm sb; make trouble; arouse turmoil and furious quarrel.
 5. snake eyes—misfortune, failure.
 6. snake pit—a hospital for mental diseases; a place or situation of aggression and destruction.

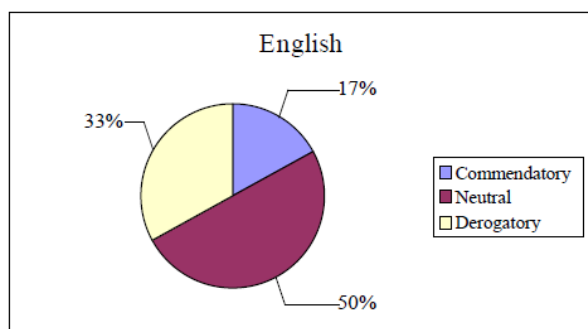


Figure 3. "Snake" in English Expressions

TABLE I
CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF “蛇” AND “SNAKE”

	Chinese		English	
Commendatory	11	31%	3	17%
Neutral	3	9%	9	50%
Derogatory	21	60%	6	33%

According to English expressions with “snake” listed above, the commendatory, neutral and derogatory connotations take up 17%, 50% and 33%, respectively. While reading through the dictionaries, we find out that there are not so many expressions with snake in English-speaking countries as dog or horse. However, snake is culturally featured to a great extent with a stereotyped image of evil, wicked or malicious. In some religious records snake is thought of as very dishonest and likely to trick people, among which the most famous one is the serpent that seduces Eve to eat a forbidden fruit in the Bible. In the *Harry Potter* series, the leading evil character is described as having eyes like a snake. Snakes also frequently appear in a lot of scary movies or fictions because many people are afraid of them. What's more, nouns or verbs with snake are often used to resemble the shape or movement of snake.

The findings of corpora study on “snake” and “蛇” can be presented in the following Table 1.

IV. EXPLANATIONS FOR CROSS-CULTURAL DIFFERENCES

The whole culture, to some extent, is expressed through language. Therefore, to achieve an interpretation of language as a whole, we should summarize our diverse experiences of language and place it in its cultural context.

In ancient times, due to difficulties in understanding nature in a scientific sense, human beings inclined to worship creatures or images like Flora, Fauna, and Gods. Snake, as a kind of primeval reptiles, is among animals people worship. There're many myths, legends, religious literature, and totems related to snake all over the world. Snakes have been evolving gradually since the Early Cretaceous period. However, they are not extinct like dinosaurs, and survive into the current period by virtue of strong vitality. Snake is regarded as a magical creature, and the very first ancestor of human—Ntiwa and Nvwa having a combination of human's head and snake's body. The god in ancient Egypt is also epitomized by cobra. Egyptian, African and Malaysian people all have traditions of snake worship. Nevertheless, snake has played an important role in both English and Chinese culture.

A. 蛇(she) in Chinese Culture

In China, twelve earthly branches correlate with twelve zodiac signs, that is, rat, ox, tiger, hare, dragon, snake, horse, sheep, monkey, cock, dog and boar in turn based on a 12-year circle. In the zodiac sequence, snake runs after dragon, which is the reason why snake is also called “little dragon”. Therefore, snake enjoys long-term fame next to dragon in China. The people of China have a long held belief that they are descendants of the dragon, a tradition that is firmly embedded in their culture and one that is encountered across all aspects of Chinese society and in the minds of its people (Yuan, 2010). Dragon: a large serpent, a fabulous animal usually represented as a huge winged scaly serpent with a crested head and large claws. Sometimes our ancients didn't make a distinction between snake and dragon.

In totemic cultures, snake is respected as a symbol Chinese forefather, who is a combination of Ntiwa and Nvwa, as recorded in “*Lu Ling Guang Dian Fu*” (鲁灵光殿赋 Wang Yanshou) “上纪开辟，遂古之初……伏羲鳞身，女娲蛇躯。”According to some research, Xia Yu(夏禹)’s surname is “姒”, “姒” equal to “巳” which means “snake”. In addition, “禹” is the same as “巳” in Oracle(甲骨文), so “禹” is a name of snake itself. Some people hold a point of view that “snake totem is the predecessor of dragon totem because snake totem is a part of dragon totem(dragon totem consist of horse’s head, antler, tiger’s paw, eagle’s claw, fish’s scale and beard, snake’s body, turtle’s abdomen and bovine ears)^[错误! 未定义书签.], which can be traced in “*Shan Hai Jing*” (山海经): “有神，人面蛇身而赤...是谓罔龙。(Luo, 1998)” Moreover, in ancient Chinese history, “蛇” is the symbol of genitals. Another reason that explains why Chinese people established strong snake worship is that snake’s ecdysis is regarded as rebirth and eternal life (Xu, 2009).

All of these evidences witness that snake is most respected and worshipped by Chinese clans in ancient myths and legends. What’s more, snake is described as a good-image portfolio and kind-hearted character in Chinese culture. For example, “The Legend of the White Snake” is one of the most famous Chinese tales, in which a 1000-year-old snake-woman pursues true love courageously and helps poor and sick people. In addition, snake stands for luck and holiness. Another positive connotation of snake is wealth, so people who want to be rich are apt to pray piously at snake temple. In China, people also believe snake has precious medicinal values. There are at least three features of snakes that capture the attention of traditional healers: they have an incredible flexibility and speed, they shed their skin, and certain snakes are extremely poisonous when they bite. Among the earliest recorded use of snakes in Chinese medicine was the application of sloughed snake skin, described in the *Shen Nong Ben Cao Jing* (神农本草经). The use of snake gallbladder is first recorded in *Ming Yi Bie Lu* (名医别录) (Dharmananda, 1997).

B. Snake in English Culture

When we shift our focus from the east to west, it can be noticed that snake which enjoys high status in Chinese culture always symbolizes evil and cursed object in the west. Snake frequently plays an inglorious role in the Bible, myths, legends of ancient Greek and Rome. In ancient Greek mythology, Typhoeus is a monster with mass of snakes moving below the waist, opposing Zeus and chasing the other gods away. Zeus’s wife, Hera sent avenging angel—a pair of highly toxic python to kill Zeus’s illegitimate son Heracles. The tragic fate of Laocoon and his sons is also closely related with snake. In addition, Medusa’s hair is composed of snakes. Anyone who sees her head will be turned into stone right away (Powell, 1995).



Figure 4. Medusa

Source: <http://www.allartnews.com/united-states-exclusive-berninis-medusa-at-the-legion-of-honor-in-san-francisco/>

In addition, there are many mythological creatures mentioned in the Bible, the dove holding olive branch in the mouth, the camel threading the eye of a needle, the pig wallowing in the mud, the brave lion, greedy leech and crow providing for Elijah, among which the most noticeable one is the serpent who seduced Eve to eat the forbidden fruit in Eden. Hence, human violated god’s prohibition, and was expelled from paradise, and never got rid of curse. Snakes were punished accordingly, without legs forever (Edmond, 2004). The ancient serpent, who is the devil and Satan², rules over mankind as the “prince of the power of the air, the spirit who now works in the sons of disobedience”³. Satan is the instigator of much of humanity’s misery.

Another case in point can be found in *Aesop’s fables*. There’re many stories about snake, among which the story of the farmer and the snake indicates that snake is ingrate and treacherous. Not only did not that snake be grateful to the

² The ESV Bible. “Ephesians 2” < <http://biblehub.com/esv/ephesians/2.htm> > (accessed 20/4/2014).

³ The ESV Bible. “Ephesians 2:2” < <http://biblehub.com/esv/ephesians/2-2.htm> > (accessed 20/4/2014).

farmer, who saved its life by holding the snake that stiff and frozen with cold in bosom, if anything, when it revived by warmth and then bit the farmer—its benefactor, inflicting on him a mortal wound conversely (Grant, 2010). This story also preaches to us that the greatest kindness will not bind the ungrateful.

In addition, in *The interpretation of dreams* written by Freud snake signifies sex. There is a statement that snake is the symbol of penis and it often stands for undesirable sexual behavior. This explains the reason why snake is not desirable and popular to some extent.

Despite of a large number of derogatory connotations of snake, it is worth pointing out that snake appears in the emblem of World Health Organization (WHO) and some other western countries' medical logos, such as the Star of Life which is originally designed and governed by the U.S. National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA). The logo is used as a stamp of authentication or certification for ambulances, paramedics or other EMS (emergency medical services) personnel. The snake and staff in the symbol portray the staff of Aesculapius, son of Apollo according to the *Greek Mythology*, and the staff represents medicine and healing⁴.



Figure 5. Emblem of WHO
Source: http://www.japanfocus.org/-g_de-wildt/2476

V. CONCLUSION

The contrastive analysis of “蛇” and “snake” in dictionaries presents that “蛇” in Chinese culture enjoys higher status and more frequent use in commendatory sense than “snake” in English culture. Meanwhile, connotations evolve gradually over time.

A British scholar named Geoffrey Leech in his book *Semantics* come up with that semantic meaning can be divided into seven types which are the conceptual meaning, connotative meaning, social meaning, affective meaning, reflected meaning, collective meaning, and thematic meaning (Leech, 1990). The connotative meaning is based on conceptual meaning. It differs in different societies, ages and so on. Hence, the connotative meaning is unstable (Wu, 1980).

New connotative meaning may emerge and old one may die. Therefore, although Chinese and English cultures have different attitudes toward “蛇” and “snake”, economic and cultural globalization blur the distinction, with more commendatory and neutral meanings in English “snake” and more derogatory meanings in Chinese “蛇”. People will gradually pay more attention to the physical features of “蛇” and “snake” rather than myths or worship of ancient records.

However quickened the pace of globalization is, there are always culturally loaded elements in any human language's vocabulary.

Culture and language are intertwined and shape each other. It is impossible to separate two. Language is not a matter of neutral codes and grammatical rules. Each time we select words, form sentences, and send a message, either oral or written, we also make cultural choices. Language helps in communicating with people from different backgrounds. However, we may be less aware that cultural literacy is necessary to understand the language being used. If we select language without being aware of the cultural implications, we may at best not communicate well and at worst send the wrong message (Xu, 2009, p.58).

This paper proposes a contrastive analysis of “蛇” and “snake” to gain an insight into cross-cultural differences between Chinese and English language. Language is a main media for intercultural communication. L2/ FL learners may have different expectations and understandings of the same word in their native language due to lack of knowledge of the target culture. To cultivate learners' language proficiency and achieve successful communication, instructors shall arouse learners' cross-cultural awareness and integrate language acquisition with cultural background.

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On the Translation of Advertisements: A Comparative Study of English-Persian Verbal Metaphors

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Abstract—Every act of translation deals with some problems and challenges. Translation of advertisements may be more challenging than other types of translations due to the importance of both form and content in cross-cultural translation and audience response. In translating advertisements, the most important issue to be addressed by the translator is the cultural representation of the original texts. However, little attention is accorded into culture-bound parts of advertisements and their translations. The present study aimed to investigate the translation of verbal metaphors from English to Persian. To achieve this aim, a number of home appliance English and Persian TV commercials were recorded from national and international channels. The verbal metaphors from English were compared with their translations into Persian. Moreover, Black's (1962) interaction theory of metaphor was taken to analyze the data. This theory examines whether or not the source and target texts are equivalent from the metaphor perspective. Also, the study investigated the localization, domestication, adaptation, addition, and reduction in the translation process. The verbal metaphors in English advertisements were compared to the Persian translations in line with the interaction theory of metaphor to achieve the above goals of transferring idea from the source language into the target language. The results indicated relatively lack of awareness of cultural approach to the translation of advertisements and revealed the similarity and divergence between the two languages.

Index Terms—advertisements, verbal metaphor, translation, culture, domestication, localization, adaptation

I. INTRODUCTION

More recently, there has been a growing interest in metaphor in a number of researches (e.g., Amouzadeh, 2002; Aristotle, 1952; Barcelona, 2003; Black, 1962; Coğnarts & Kravanja, 2012; Forceville, 1996; Goodman, 1968; Hashemian & Forouzandeh, 2012; Kaplan, 1990; Kittay, 1987). A metaphor is the result of the interaction between two different domains, that is, one considers one domain in terms of another domain. The past few decades have witnessed a great deal of research on metaphor. In fact, metaphor has influenced communication of knowledge for centuries. It is obvious that people have applied metaphor to all walks of life such as politics, economy, and the entertainment industry. As stated by Gibbs (2008), metaphor is not simply an ornamental aspect of language, but a fundamental scheme by which people conceptualize the world and their own activities. It sets two unlike things side by side and makes one see the resemblance between them. Different scholars subscribe to this phenomenon of languages, namely metaphor, to different degrees and in different ways. Nevertheless, it seems useful to attempt to relate each approach to metaphor which is an essentially feature of the creativity of language.

In line with above discussion, it is notable to say that this study aimed at investigating intercultural relations involved in the translation process of advertisement verbal metaphors. Translation as intermediary role between two cultures plays a great role in creating meaning. It is also proper here to refer to the problematic parts of translating advertisements due to certain constrains of money. Translating as an art demands highly creative and rewarding exercise; however, there are constrains such as length and existing material. But if translators have all the above, they should acquire the source and target cultures and languages when translating. Translators are supposed to handle translating metaphors in advertisement in a way to present a product that is perceived as an original and not as a second-rate translation. According to Forceville (1996), pictorial metaphors play an important role in guiding the translator to find signs and culture codes which can achieve this objective. Moreover, Ghaneh and Rezae (2013) assert that pictorial metaphors affect the verbal metaphor interpretation and translation; moreover, they believe that colors have considerable effects and roles in advertisements. So, it is inferred that a translator should be able to achieve all the information needed for translation to transfer and recreate the meaning for the target language. It is believed that where the ubiquity of metaphor is made apparent, its reflection in most of our everyday language and rather than being left behind on the outskirts of linguistic analysis is proved. Therefore, advertising language and non-linguistics content of

advertising message have over the years received the attention of many scholars, namely Williamson (1978) and Dyer (1982).

In addition, translators should employ linguistic means to manipulate visual materials. For example, the translator has to change the statement into a question or reduce word's idea that could lead the target receiver to make his or her deduction. Translators are supposed to apply methods used to target new consumer market. Translators have to find different angles and methods to address the needs and to attract the attention of consumers in the new millennium. In the current study, we have applied Black's (1962) interaction theory of metaphor to examine whether or not the source and target texts are equivalent from the metaphor perspective. In addition, this study investigated the localization, domestication, adaptation, addition, and reduction in translation process. The verbal metaphors in English advertisements were compared to their Persian translations in line with Black' (1962) interaction theory of metaphor to achieve the above goals of transferring idea from the source language into the target language. To achieve this aim, a number of *Home Appliance* English and Persian TV commercials were recorded from national and international channels. As this research is a descriptive study, the researchers chose the utmost TV commercials among them and then extended the results for the other. So, the verbal metaphors from English were compared with their translations into Persian. In fact, translation is undoubtedly an act of intercultural communication, and the results indicated relatively lack of awareness of the cultural approach to the translation of advertisements and revealed the similarity and divergence between the two languages. In sum, this study investigated the translatability of verbal metaphors in advertisements and analyzed the factors that influence the verbal metaphors' translation procedures.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

As indicated in the Introduction section, the emergence of metaphor as an omnipresent principle of language creates not only a remarkable transformation in business, but also in all walks of life. Particularly, advertisements, as a technical and practicable means of communication in order to transfer their verbal and pictorial messages successfully throughout the world, are not exempt from the conceptual metaphor. Furthermore, companies in general and advertisers in particular demand a key commercial tool for transferring their products and verbo-pictorial messages. Here, the advent of translation paves the way for communication between/among companies and advertisers.

It is obvious that many people have commented over the years on ads and billboards in seminars, lectures, papers, and during conferences (Amouzadeh & Tavangar, 2004; Enschoot, Hoeken, & Mulken, 2005; Forceville, 2002; Ghaneh & Rezaei, 2013; Hashemian & Fadaee, 2013). Among those researchers, Forceville (1996) started to study the role of metaphor in advertisements, mostly on pictorial forms. He grounds his account of pictorial metaphor on Black's (1962) interaction theory of metaphor. Forceville claims that despite minor shortcomings of this theory, the interaction theory raised by Black is the most satisfactory theory of metaphor. He also uses of two distinct subjects of metaphor primary subject and secondary subject.

Shehab (2011) explored the issue of translated advertising brochures in terms of translation strategies and linguistic inaccuracies by examining a corpus of 35 English-Arabic brochures promoting personal care products. Specifically, the study identified the translation strategies adopted in translating advertising headlines, body copies, and images. It also focused on a few remarks of linguistic inaccuracies, and the researcher attempted to clarify the possible causes in order to help translators produce more adequate translations. Shehab applied the descriptive and analytic approach to put the collected data under investigation. For more concrete analysis, the researcher interviewed 18 personal care market staffs to enhance the quality of the study. The analysis demonstrated that translating advertising brochures does not always involve giving the direct equivalent meaning in the target language, but translators sometimes have to manipulate the source texts to produce readable and acceptable target texts. Overall, the findings showed that the strategies ranged from complete transference of the source language to complete substitution or adaptation.

DeMooij (2004) states that "translating advertising copy is like painting the tip of an iceberg. What you see are the words, but there is a lot behind the words that must be understood to transfer advertising from one culture to another" (p. 179). He adds that people understand the world differently because they live in different societies with different languages and cultures. So, consumer behavior and the way consumers communicate are heavily dependent on cultural values. He believes that one important influence of culture is on the consumer's needs, motives, and emotion. He claims that translation from one culture cannot necessarily be appropriate for another culture. In this paper, the researcher introduced the consumers as products of their cultures. DeMooij (2004) asserts that advertising has two kinds of contexts, namely low-context communication and high-context communication. Finally, he states that "advertising consists of concepts, ideas, copy, and visuals. Therefore, a concept or an idea that is relevant for one culture is not necessarily relevant for others" (p. 196). Also, According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980):

The most fundamental values in a culture will be coherent with the metaphorical structure of the most fundamental concepts in the culture. They explain that different cultures classify things of reality differently, so it is often very difficult to translate from one language into another. (p. 22)

Consequently, Baker (2001) states that culture will be transferred via translation; therefore, it seems that English advertisements are full of examples of metaphors which are culture-bound, and this fact makes the mission of translators problematic. According to Newmark (1988), "whilst the central problem of translation is the overall choice of a translation method for a text, the most particular problem is the translation of metaphor" (p. 120). In fact, different

types of metaphors can be encountered among verbo-pictorial advertisement metaphors. So, the recognition of the most common metaphor in advertisements and the application of appropriate method for translating create a great dilemma for translators. Overall, based on Black's interaction theory (1962) of advertisements, the researcher will review the advertisements translations in order to see whether it is possible to transfer the message and metaphorical concepts from English into Persian.

The present study specifically aims at defining the cultural aspects of metaphor in advertisements in the two cultures of SL and TL to demonstrate whether the message of the SL metaphor has been transferred sufficiently by appropriate choice of verbal metaphor or possibly appropriate choice of pictorial metaphor as a means of compensation in TL, and whether they posit the same sense and meaning to the target audience as these are inferred from SL.

In sum, the translator should consider not only translation process, but also take into account the cultural values and directory goals of advertising.

The followings are the research questions for the present study:

1. Are advertisement verbal metaphors translatable?
2. Are there any factors that influence verbal metaphors' translation procedures?

Consequently, the subsequent null hypotheses are formulated:

- H_{01} : Advertisement verbal metaphors are not translatable.
- H_{02} : There are not any factors that influence verbal metaphors' translation procedures.

III. DATA ANALYSIS

All over the world, people prefer to have a complete breakfast. This LG set gives all the things needed for preparing a complete breakfast. Here, we first analyze the English TV commercial. *LG breakfast set is wife!*

Firstly, there is a soundtrack with the theme of love. Secondly, it shows a very beautiful wife in the kitchen making breakfast. Moreover, there is a gentle air coming inside through windows. Thirdly, a man says this motto *breakfast set is wife*. Finally, the husband comes happily and kisses his wife and looks at the breakfast satisfactorily. It is inferred by this TV commercial that all things are collected together to achieve a desirable result. The video shows a satisfied housewife and husband, love and happiness, perfect housewife and kitchen. Then, it is notable that a wife in the English culture has these objectives such as luxury, exquisite, temptress, love, relaxation, life, kindness for a husband. So, this breakfast set is similar to a wife as a metaphorical statement. According to Black's (1962) interaction theory of metaphor, this commercial gives the audience all the nuances of the message that A IS B. A metaphorical statement has two distinct subjects: the primary subject and secondary subject. For example, MAN IS WOLF, MAN is the primary subject and WOLF is the secondary subject. Here, Black (1962) believes that metaphor obtains at the level of discourse. Therefore, *LG breakfast set is wife* demonstrates the primary subject as *LG breakfast set* and the secondary subject as *wife*. Here, we should thank the pictorial metaphor for interpreting this verbal metaphor. In fact, the characteristic of nonverbal metaphor in this TV commercial is a great help in the distribution of primary and secondary subjects. It is obvious that Forceville (1996) is right about this statement that verbal metaphor is merely possible without pictorial metaphor. Because most elements of this verbal metaphor are mostly inferred via pictures, colors, and music. The color that is used here for all the parts of this video is red, black, and white, green. Wife wears a very nice clothes involving little skirt, tops, and high heels shoes all in white. Her makeup is very fresh and mostly in red as lip line. She has a very happy smile on her lips. The view outside the windows is the nature mostly in green and red flowers. The husband wears a suit, ready to go to work, very happy, looking out to the window, his face absorbing the freshness of nature, he looks with affection at his wife, sends her a kiss to show the transference of freshness and love. Wife here is considered as the nature that gives life and energy to humans. The receiver of this TV commercial understands that *LG breakfast set* will give you all these elements which the wife gives to the home and the most important part, to the husband. In this English advertisement, the women play a significant role in attracting consumers by all her features, namely beauty, kindness, liveliness, love-affairs, and so on. So, as a perfect wife brings a comfortable life and time, then a perfect and complete LG breakfast set will bring us perfect life and time as much as a wife. As far as this advertisement is worldwide, particularly Iranian consumers express their demands towards these products; translation paves the way for consumers to view the products the same as the original.

This part will focus on the process of translation. Persian translation here is considered Iranian with the Persian language and culture. As for the above discussion, the equivalent for *LG breakfast set is wife* is *ست صبحانه ی تکمیل، کدبانوی کامل*, "set sobhaneye takmil, kadbanooye kamel." Here, not only the verbal metaphor is not transferred via translation perfectly, but also the pictorial metaphor is not adapted to the Persian language and culture. Because the Iranians are Islamic religious, the receiver in this TV commercial has not been acquired by a proper scene for the set of breakfast. Both kinds of metaphor (i.e., verbal and pictorial) are culture-bound; therefore, in the process of translation, all the categories of culture can influence the translation process. The first and most interesting factor here is color. The Iranian advertiser should follow the standards of advertising which are mostly based on their Islamic religion. As a result, blue, green, and white are preferred to the use of red, black, and white to show love affairs and power. In the Persian culture advertising, men have been used rather than women. Thus, their advertising campaigns have gender limitation. It is not also allowed for the Iranian culture to show love affairs between women and men in TV commercials. So, they mostly use children and teenagers for love and affection in the case of friendships, not romance.

But these pictorial metaphors have not been adapted to Persian culture. Therefore, the motto as "ست صبحانه ی تکمیل، کدبانوی کامل" could not transfer the equal message of the English advertisement. According to Newmark's (1988) two types of translation (i.e., semantic and communicative), this translation is not only literal translation, but also communicative translation. The translator totally changes the style and linguistic rules of the metaphor during the translation process. It seems that metaphor is merely translated as metaphor from the source to the target. In fact, advertisers expect the Persian receivers to analyze the data and information the same as the English receivers.

In sum, the word کدبانوی / *kadbanoooye* nearly brings this idea to the mind of the receivers with the Persian culture that mother is perfect in all walks of life for her children, and this understanding demands as many Persian TV commercials a unique family involving of mother and father and their children to gather and to show the mother as perfect part in the family. She is the one who shoulders all responsibilities to present an easy and happy life for her family. It is suggested here to replace the کامل کدبانوی تکمیل، ست صبحانه ی / "set sobhaneye takmil, kadbanoooye kamel" with ست صبحانه ی ال جی کدبانوی شماس. Here, it is more translated metaphorically than before. It also can handle the soul of the metaphor and the message. Moreover, it is translated linguistically. There are two sides here, according to Black's (1962) interaction theory: A Is B is equal to ست صبحانه ی ال جی = A and کدبانوی شماس = B. Overall, in this way of translation, with proper pictorial metaphors, the message is transferred metaphorically and equally to the original.

In sum, our findings show that these things are collected because their sets give us a complete breakfast. Secondly, each of these things does a special work and is not complete alone. So, they are summed with each other; therefore, their set gives us a complete breakfast. Thirdly, this set performs as perfect as a wife or کدبانوی شماس.

IV. CONCLUSION

This analysis from the linguistic view shows that translation and recreation of meaning from English to Persian may, on the one hand, result in new understanding of some sorts, either in the form or in the meaning. On the other hand, as regards the relationship between text and image, it is clear that the image, namely pictorial metaphors, often play an important role in transferring the message of verbal metaphors. In this respect, the text-image relation is similar to that in Forceville's (1996) verbo-pictorial metaphors. In this study, it is argued that some elements may occur in texts, some in visuals, and some in both, leading to a much more complex interrelation between the two.

Despite the interest in metaphors and their translation, particularly the linguistic aspect of metaphor, translating metaphors in advertisements still causes problems. The present study shows that knowledge in and application of the metaphor theory can facilitate the translation of metaphorical advertisements texts from English to Persian. The verbal metaphor sample and its translation process clearly confirm the part of hypothesis put forward in this work that verbal metaphor in advertisement is translated under the influence of many fundamental factors. These influential factors include culture, image, and music.

Culture has a number of categories as ecology, material, social, organization, and gesture and habit. These factors are very different from one language and culture to another language and culture. Furthermore, in translation of verbal metaphors in advertisement, adaptation and domestication should take into account to provide natural products. It is demonstrated that in the translation of verbal metaphors, the translator somehow loses the soul of the metaphor and mainly focuses on the message. This act of translating may be the result of the target language rules and convention, on the other hand, lack of enough knowledge and information about the source language and the target language leads to a weak translation. The ideal verbal metaphor translation, especially for advertisements, is the one in which a metaphor from English to Persian is an equivalent sentence or word—not necessary metaphorical. In sum, it should be short, easy to read and understand, and meaningful.

Metaphorical language goes beyond the surface meanings of texts or images in order to establish texts and images from one language and culture to another language and culture to present ideas and messages transparently. The language of advertisements rests under the blanket of metaphorical language. All over the world, people conceptualize ideas and messages in advertisement by means of metaphorical concepts because they experience one thing in terms of another thing to grab the gist of advertisement's designers (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Therefore, the re-creation between text and image plays a significant role in transferring messages from one language and culture in to another one. In connection to this, an example of metaphorical statement which elaborates the role of metaphors and consumer's perception.

Transferring message from one language and culture into another demands adaptation to the second language and culture. But analyzed data showed that in most of the cases pictorial metaphors which are culture-bound was not adopted to target culture. So, target consumer would infer the message totally different.

Another important fact which brings the problem for transferring the message from one language and culture into another is language rules and convention. Here, the individual rules and conventions limit the language of translation to create the source language and culture for the target language and culture. For instance, where a word brings smile on the face of consumer in source language, it may not affect the consumer in target language in the same way.

Overall, the results showed that it is merely possible to have the same effects and messages for target consumers, although the analyzed data for both pictures and texts show that they mostly transfer the message not the spirit of the advertisement.

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Politeness in Buginese Language as a Social Status Symbol in Wajo Regency

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Abstract—This study examined one aspect of qualitative-descriptive. It used the ethnography design of communication in the study of pragmatics. It explored in detail about the phenomenon in the context of real life. That is politeness in Buginese language related to social status in Wajo, including (1) the language devices used as a symbol of politeness; (2) politeness in Buginese language reflecting social status in Wajo. Words, phrases, clauses, sentences including diction are the language of data collected through direct observation and recording of the individual or group concerned. After that, the researchers analyzed the data through the five stages of data analysis procedures. They are transcription, reduction, interpretation, conclusion, and recommendations. The results of data analysis demonstrated that there is some language devices used as a symbol of politeness in Buginese language. They are honorific word meaning, second person singular pronouns, words, greetings, vocabulary as a symbol of politeness, speech in pragmatic meaning. Buginese speakers use these devices as part of a word, phrase, or sentence. The use of language devices in the speech as a symbol of politeness in Buginese language of Wajo is distinguished by social relations (position or social status). It is an evident that the politeness in Buginese language reflects the social status of the society in Wajo.

Index Terms—politeness, Buginese language, social status

I. INTRODUCTION

Politeness is very close in the Buginese life. Bugis Elders notice that the words that are the origins of human actions must demonstrate degrees. The message is contained in Bugis Lontarak and pronounced by children orally at specific times so that the children as the future inheritor do not say something to their fellow in interaction arbitrarily.

The commitment is manifested in words Sipakalebbi 'mutual respect,' sipakatau 'humanize each other,' sipakainge 'remind each other.' The series of the vocabulary shows that the social representation of the Bugis is paying attention to the harmony and politeness towards others in interaction. (Gusnawaty, 2011, p. 385).

The interaction is related to the relationship between the speakers (tau mabbicarae) and the listener (tau marengkalingae). Status related to the power is based on the parameters of age, occupation, education, economic level, gender, social strata, and social distance (solidarity) or level of familiarity. If someone puts herself in an interaction, she/he is a polite person. On the contrary, a person is rude if he/she cannot put herself in an interaction. It applies to anyone and in any situation, either formal or non-formal.

But, the reality now is when communicating, norms of language used and the social norms around it are not above begging again, including the issue of politeness language. A cultural shift began to occur. Not uncommon when communicating, especially among young people (teenagers) community of Buginese, more use of speech is abusive, swear or do not like using a greeting when the mention of the name of the older people (only name), rather than speech.

Language Politeness in Pragmatic Assessment

According, Llamas, et al. (2007, p. 226) implies that politeness is a form of language analysis showing the obedience to the acceptance of a set of social and cultural principles that emphasize solidarity and social distance.

Based on the above definition, politeness can be seen from various aspects in daily life. First, Politeness shows attitudes containing the value of good manners or etiquette in daily life. Second, Politeness is very contextual. It means that it applies to people, places or certain situations, but it is not necessarily for other people, places, or situations. Third, Politeness has a bipolar relationship. Fourth, Politeness is reflected in how to dress, how to act, and how to speak. (Muslich, 2006).

The Politeness Theories

Robin Lakoff

Lakoff (1973) argues that there are three rules that must be adhered to if we want to speak politely. The rules are formality, hesitancy, and equality or camaraderie (Fasold, 1990, p.159).

Brown and Levinson

Brown and Levinson (1978), express that the theory of linguistic politeness is about the notion face, which is inspired from the work of Erving Goffman (1956). Goffman defines the concept of face as an idea or impression of someone who created the social contact with others. In his opinion, every participant in the social process needs to be appreciated by others and need freedom and not be disturbed. He mentions that the need to be appreciated is "positive face" and the need not to be disturbed "negative face." In addition, (Renkema, 1993, p. 13) states that the face of every person can be separated (lost), maintained, or enhanced (Rohaedi, 2009, p. 108).

The negative face refers to the self-image that every rational person desires that someone is appreciated by allowing her/him to act freely (Brown and Levinson, 1978). It is in line with the opinion of Yule (1996, p. 107) that the negative face is the need to be independent, to have freedom of action, and not pressured by others. Furthermore, the same opinion is also expressed by Wardhaugh (2006, p.277) that the negative face is the desire to not be hindered by others to act. Brown and Levinson explain further that the negative face is a fundamental right to territory, personal protection, and the right not to be disturbed. (Wardhaugh, 2006, p.277 and Coulmas, 1997, p. 378).

The positive face is the opposite. Yule (1996, p. 107) argues that the positive face is the need for someone to be accepted, liked by others, treated as members of the same group and his desire is owned jointly with the others. It can be said that the positive face is the desire to gain approval from others (Wardhaugh, 2006, p.277). Brown and Levinson explain further that the positive face is positive suitability for self or "personality" (Wardhaugh, 2006, p. 277 and Coulmas, 1997, p. 378).

According to Brown and Levinson, a speech act can be a threat to face. It is called Face Threatening Act (FTA). Therefore, Brown and Levinson proposed three main strategies to perform speech acts. They are positive politeness, negative politeness, and off-record. Positive politeness is to keep a positive face. The negative politeness is to keep the negative face. Off-record is avoidance of specific coercion.

Furthermore, Kasper (ed. Coulmas) (1997, p. 378) explains that politeness is an activity that is used to raise, maintain, or keep the face. It refers to the negative face sourced from negative politeness, shown in indirectness, formally emphasizing social distance, and respects the rights and interlocutor. Positive face explains the positive politeness shown in continuity, the use of informal language that emphasizes the common basics, respect for the interlocutor.

The strength of this approach is to try to explain politeness to gain more ideas about being a human (being rational and having a need for face) (Fasold, 1990, p. 161).

Geoffrey N. Leech

Leech (1983, p. 132) proposed a theory of politeness based on politeness principles, which are translated into some provisions. They are 1) tact maxim: minimize cost to other: maximize benefit to other, 2) generosity maxim: minimize benefit to self. Maximize cost to self, 3) approbation maxim: minimize dispraise of other. Maximize praise of other, 4) modesty maxim; minimize praise of self. Maximize dispraise of self, 5) agreement maxim: minimize disagreement self and other. Maximize agreement between self and other, 6) sympathy maxim: minimize antipathy between self and other. Maximize sympathy between self and other

The Scale of Politeness

Robin Lakoff

Robin Lakoff (1973) cited in (Chaer, 2010, p. 63) and (Rahardi, 2005, p. 70, 2009, p. 27), states three provisions for the fulfillment of politeness in speech. They are formality scale, hesitancy scale and equality scale.

Brown and Levinson

Brown and Levinson (1987) cited in Chaer (2010, p. 64) and Rahardi (2005, p. 68; 2009, p. 27) offer three ranking scale determinants of politeness for a speech. They are determined contextually, socially, and culturally. They consist of social distance, social status of speakers and interlocutor, and speech act

Leech

Leech (1983) provides five measuring scales for language politeness based on each interpersonal maxim. They are cost-benefit scale, optional scale, Indirectness scale, authority scale, and social distance scale. The Cost-Benefit scale is representing the cost or benefit of the act to speaker and listener. The optionally scale is indicating the degree of choice permitted to speaker and hearer by a specific linguistic act. The Indirectness scale is indicating the amount of inference required of the hearer in order to establish the intended speaker meaning. The authority scale is representing the status relationship between speaker and listener. The social distance scale is indicating the degree of familiarity between speaker and hearer.

Politeness in language cannot be separated from the study of pragmatics. The first thing that must be performed to understand the politeness in language, in the pragmatic study is to elaborate on the substance of pragmatics. Yule (1996, p. 3) mentions four definitions of pragmatic. First, pragmatic is a field that examines the meaning of the speaker. Second, it examines the meaning based on context. Third, it is a field that exceeds the study of the meaning of the uttered, examines the meanings communicated by a speaker. Fourth, it is a field that examines forms of expression by restricting social distance participants involved in a particular conversation. Kushartanti (2005, p. 104), argues that

pragmatic study about what is meant by language users when interacting. In short, pragmatic study the meaning influenced by things outside language. Leech (1985) defines pragmatics as the study of how utterances have meanings in the situation.

Speak politeness in Sociolinguistics Study

Politeness Speak as Part of Social-Cultural

Socio linguistic theory studies that also have relevance to the study of linguistic politeness is politeness in the socio-cultural perspective. Politeness cannot be separated from the cultural context. Their relationship is based on the theory of the relationship between language and culture. One is the theory of Edward Sapir and Benjamin Lee Whorf. This view was later known as the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis and commonly known as the language of relativity. In a highly controversial, hypothesis was stated that the language not only to determine the pattern of culture, but also determine the manner and nature of the human mind, thus affecting also to follow his or her (Saleh, 2009, p. 115).

Based on statements it can be concluded that a language plays an important role in the totality of culture and wide. If the language of culture and the way it affects the human mind, than the traits that exist in a language will be reflected in the attitudes and culture of native speakers. (Hudson, 1987).

Selection of the appropriate words for the benefit of social interaction is highly dependent on the culture in which the language was used and certainly very related to the use of polite language. By using polite language that can put someone on the spot he wanted, which is respectable. Alternatively in other words, politeness associated with "respect" for others. It could be said that politeness is the result of one's consideration to the feelings of others to show a special relationship and attitude towards others. Socio-cultural variables that may affect politeness such as, culture, identity, social class, gender, age, and ethnicity.

Politeness Speak as Part of Social Stratification

The relationship between the languages of social class can be traced through several linguistic variables, such as accent, dialect, honorifics. Accent and dialect are a regional variation and social variations. In addition, accent and dialect are also evidences of social information. It is also well expressed by Nababan that, in some languages, the differences between the social levels the speaker to the listener is manifested in the selection of words and / or morphological systems of particular words (Ohoiwutun, 1997, p. 87). Aspect such as language is called "politeness or etiquette to speak the language (Geertz, 1960). Furthermore, Ohoiwutun, 1997, p. 88) explains that languages differ in the complexity of systems manners speak, but all have it and are commonly expressed by a personal pronoun, the system greeting, use of titles, and so on. This illustrates the socio linguistic issues raised by Fishman (1972) that "who speak what language to Whom, when, and to end" At the end of the description describes the relationship of linguistic politeness, which is connected to the power status, and social distance (social distance / solidarity) among participants said. Based on the formula for measuring the facial disorders compiled by Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 76):

$$W_x = D(S,H) + P(H,S) + R_x$$

Harris (2007, p. 123) concluded that the greater the degree of social distance and power between speaker and listener, the weight on the face disorder (FTR) is getting attached.

II. METHODOLOGY

This research was qualitative types of descriptive ethnography of communication based in the study of pragmatics that explore in detail about the phenomenon in the context of real life. Research Data obtained through observation and recording directly to an individual or group concerned. The result is focused on the explanation and interpretation of descriptive data of the research results.

The focus of this research was the Buginese language, politeness and Buginese community social status in this research so that the Wajo Regency is exercised four sub districts in Wajo Regency that Bola Sub district borders on Bone Regency, Pitumpanua sub district borders on the Luwu district of Tana Sitolo sub district, borders on Sidrap Regency and Tempe sub district was the center of Government in Wajo Regency so regarded could represent another sub.

The Data in this study include speech, such as words, phrases, clauses, or sentences spoken by the Buginese language speakers are distinguished based on age, gender, occupation, education, and the lineage with the proviso: the original buginese, good pronunciation, can_speak Buginese fluently, 20 to 60 years old, have a jobs, such as traders, farmers, workers, educated at least elementary school. Data sources in this study amount of 50 people. The 50 people are later seen from the age, occupation, and education. The following data sources in the research described in this table.

No	Data Source	Total
1	Ages 20-60	50
2	Occupation: a. Employee b. Dealer c. Farmer d. Lecture e. Driver f. Guard g. Tailor h. Salon Owner i. Workshop Owner j. Nurse k. Doctor l. Headman m. District	10 10 5 5 5 3 1 2 1 5 1 1 1
3	Education Elementary School Junior High School Senior High School Bachelor Degree Master	13 12 10 10 5

To obtain the necessary data in this study, researchers who act as the main instrument/key. Researchers directly observed and recorded in the field by using a recording device (tablet). The recording was done in such a way so as not to interfere with the conversation activities whether the researcher involved or not in the conversation. In addition, researchers also use the notes field so researcher digs deep the data against the Buginese language speakers. The recording field that records all data related to the research, both seen and listened.

After collected, the data is then analyzed through several phases of activity, such as do the transcription, that at this stage the use of recording language data routed to in the form of writing, the reduction, namely data that has been transcribed to be identified so they can be separated and reduced for easy analyzed, interpreted, that is, at this stage do the interpretation of the data has been reduced, concluded, based on data interpretations results, conclusion research findings taken, recommendations.

To get a valid research results, researchers doing trackbacks (triangulation). There are two forms of triangulation was done, namely (1) discussion (2) consultation with the three stages of triangulation, such as (1) triangulation data collected, (2) the triangulation of data analysis, and (3) the triangulation of findings. The third stages of the triangulation were done with colleagues as well as with community leaders who are fluent in Buginese and know well mannered of Buginese language.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Device-Device Language Used as Markers Politeness Speak Bugis

Based on this research, language devices are used as a marker of politeness in Bugis Wajo includes meaningful *klitik* [honorific], second person singular pronouns *idik*, said task, greetings, politeness marker's vocabulary, pragmatic and meaningful speech (indirect speech). The following devices are described in detail.

Klitika Significant (Honorific)

Based on the results of research, tools of language that used as a marker of politeness Bugis-speaking in Wajo Regency covers *klitika*, personal pronouns single second person, such as task, greetings, marker of politeness vocabulary and meaningful speech pragmatics (speech is not directly). The following tools are described in detail.

The Bugis community Wajo recognizes some *klitika* to indicate a linguistic politeness formulae. The *klitika* is *proclitic* *ta-*, *enclitic* *-kik* (*mukik*), *enclitic* *-nik*, *enclitic* *-tak*, *enclitic* *manak* and *enclitic* *di* that attached at the beginning or at the end of a word.

Klitika				Description
Pronomina of first person	Pronomina of second person		Tags	
	-Honorific	+Honorific		
<i>Manak</i> (polite)			<i>Di</i>	Attached at the end
<i>-ak/-kak</i> (impolite)				Attached at the end
	<i>mu-</i>	<i>ta-</i>		Attached at the beginning
	<i>-ko</i>	<i>-kik</i> (<i>mukik</i>)		Attached at the end
	<i>-no</i>	<i>-nik</i>		Attached at the end
	<i>-mu</i>	<i>-tak</i>		Attached at the end

Proclitic *ta-*, enclitic *-kik* (*mukik*), enclitic *-nik*, enclitic *-tak*, it is *klitika* that serves as a constituent in the speech is that it refers to people who talk or act as principals. It could be said that *klitika* is greeting as the second person pronoun.

While *enclitic manak* is *klitika* that serves as a constituent at a speech referring to the speakers. It could be said that *klitika* is greeting as a first person pronoun. Users show a politeness formula language (polite).

a. *Bingkakga tala, Pung Aji?*

'Do you take the cake bingka, Pung Aji?'

b. *Agapi ualekkik?*

'What else should I give to you?'

c. *Imonrinik tu.*

'You sit in the back happens.'

d. *Engkaga pissetak?*

'Do you have a ginger?'

e. *Mina, tapinrengeng manak cammittak!*

Mina, please lend me your mirror!'

However, *pkh ta-*, *ekh-kik* (*mukik*), *ekh-nik*, and *ekh manak* on the modus imperative utterances serve to soften or soften the illocutionary power of speech so it is considered polite because it implies messenger / commands, which are indirect. That is, *-lah*, please, in English called please. Speakers expect orders / his behests were well received, with no forcing tone, without causing offense hearer using the *klitika-klitika* alternatively, it could be said, the speaker tried to get on good terms. This is in line with the opinions expressed by White (1993, p. 195) that please beneficial to reduce the power of speech. As confirmation, White revealed the results of research Fukushima (1990) that research subjected Fukushima tried politer by adding please when faced with people who are more socially distant from them. In addition, Searle also expressed the opinion that the messengers / command can use please, although at the end of a sentence or before the verb. In fact, please, is an element of choice in the command / messenger.

In line with the above opinion, Rahardi (2005, p. 127) explains that the narrative imperative that section initially clung politeness marker, please be able to be politer than the speech without the use of politeness markers. With the use of politeness marker please, it will be imperative utterances have been meaning invited. So, please say that is attached to the beginning of the imperative utterance can serve as a smoothing politeness imperative utterance and deciding it. This is in line with the opinion Vilkki (2006, p. 327) that the use of linguistic politeness laying interpretation is the language used by someone to avoid continuity, speech-language formulations that exhibit certain manners like please and *-lah*, thank you, excuse me, or sorry.

However, different from *klitika-klitika* is *ekh manak*. *Ekh manak* is the first persona *klitika* form a stand alone or serve as a marker persona. *Ekh manak* ma-shape formed of first-person pronouns and son. *Ekh manak* containing messenger's speakers refer to themselves. In contrast, when using *oak-ak* considered polite in speech because it contains meanings that are straight messengers. It could be said that *ekh manak* and *ekh-ak* implies different connotations.

a. *Talani tellu!*

'Take three !'

b. *Tudang muki jolok!*

c. *Laonik mai! Accuenik lao monri!*

'You are here! You come to the back! '

'Please sit down!

d. *Taleng manak, nak wairenuttak dua!*

'Please give me water to drink two, son!'

In BB, *ekh -tak* be used to state-owned hearer. The use *ekh -tak* soften the speech so it is considered polite.

Aga desatak idik?

'What is the name of your village?'

Conversely, if the use is *ek -mu*, the speech is not considered polite.

Aga desatak idik?

'What is the name of your village?'

Although both refer belonging hearer, but *ekh -tak* and *ek -mu* implies different connotations.

Furthermore, *ekh* the emphatic *di*. *Ekh di* as a standalone without confirmation attached to certain words, unlike other enclitic. In BB, the usual position at the end of utterances or sentences, as a marker of familiarity, solidarity, respect, can follow the directive function as a follow-ban, errand, ask, demand, and so on.

Usessung bawannik sisebbu, pung di.

Meaning: I just returned the money a thousand dollars, yes sir.

In addition to use one by one in a speech, *klitika-klitika* is also sometimes used together in a speech when communicating. That makes these utterances have more than one device politeness marker.

The Second Person Singular Pronoun *Idik* [Honorific]

Bugis recognize the existence of two forms of personal *idik* both the singular and *iko*. Both words have the same inferential meaning, which refers both to the second person singular, but the two words are different connotations. Typically, *prh idik* especially used when communicating with people who are older or respected. But *prh idik* also sometimes used when communicating with a peer or a younger person.

Idik tu bawang.

Meaning: It's up to you (you only).

However, if the use of pronoun's *iko*, speech is considered not polite. Speakers considered arrogant, feeling self-ruling, and do not appreciate others so friendly at being uncomfortable.

Iko tu bawang.

Meaning: It's up to you (you only).

Said Task Garek

Garek word is mostly used in the modus imperative sentence or command sentence. The use of the word *garek* will refine / soften the illocutionary power of speech so it is considered polite as agents of indirect meaning. Its meaning can be meaningful or could you please try, which in English is called please. Keep in mind that in addition to the one meaningful and please, please also meaningful please. So according to proposed by White (1993, p. 195) that please beneficial to reduce the power of speech. He also cites research result's Fukushima (1990) that research subject's Fukushima tried politer by adding please when faced with people who are more socially distant from them. In addition, Searle also cites the opinion stating that the messenger / command can use please, although at the end of a sentence or before the verb. In fact, please, is an element of choice in the command / messenger. This is in line with the opinion Vilkki (2006, p. 327) that another example of the use of linguistic politeness laying interpretation is the language of polite speech showed specific formulations like please, and the one, thank you, excuse me (permission), or sorry.

According to Rahardi (2005, p. 125) that by using marker politeness please, speaker can refine the meaning of speech is imperative. It can be said that, because with use of the speech politeness marker please not solely regarded as imperative that meaningful command only but can also be regarded as an imperative meaning. Pranowo (2009, p. 104) suggests that through the use of specific words as word choice (diction) which may reflect a sense of manners, such as using the word please to ask someone for help.

In the same case with the word please, Rahardi (2005, p. 131) suggests that with use of the word try on imperatives speech will make the meaningful speech is more refine and more polite than the imperatives without the use of try. To state the meaning of the rule or to have the speech is imperative; the use of the word try will be lowered levels of the speech imperative. With the use the forms, as if the said partners are treated as being aligned with the speaker although it was in fact, ranking position (rank rating) in both the two too different. The supposition that the partner said misaligned with the speakers are will save face on both sides. Such things will sustain politeness in speech activity.

Tapenrek-penrek garek kacatak, nak!

Meaning: step up the windows please, kid!

The Greeting Words

The use of the greeting words are very tied to the local customs, the customs of politeness, as well as the circumstances of the conversation. The Bugis Wajo community using some greetings in speech, those are *pung*, *daeng/ndik*, *kak*, *nak/nanda*, *Ma'am*, *Sir*. Although not necessarily to used, says this greeting is used to declare the *ketakziman* and or familiarity to the partner said.

The word greetings *kak*, *nak/nanda*, *bu*, and *pak* absorbed from the greeting in the *Bahasa Indonesia*, which was originally a greeting word which belongs to kinship terms. However, the native BB Wajo accustomed to use it to greet partners said, although using speech is BB.

Greetings *pung* was originally used to greet someone who descendant of nobility. But now displaces. Greetings *pung* also used to greet people who are older, people who have a high position/job, people who have a higher education, or people who have more wealth.

Dek tona gaga pung modelek lainna iyatu.

Meaning: There is no other model, *pung*.

The greeting word is usual also used in conjunction with the designation of Aji, if said partner has been held the fifth Islamic pillars, namely the pilgrimage and the person's name. It is as well as other greeting words. For Buginese calling the name is not common except for children, especially if someone referred to an adult, have a position or power.

The greeting word *daeng/kak* shows kinship, which greets the elder siblings. However, the kinship greeting word *daeng/kak* is used as a greeting word. Greetings *daeng/kak* usually used to greet people who are older and who are regarded as a brother.

Melokik lao tega, Daeng Aji?

Meaning: Where do you want to go, *Daeng Aji*(Sir)?

The greeting words *ndik* shows the kinship, which greets the younger siblings. However, the kinship greeting word *ndik* is used as a greeting word. Greetings *ndik* usually used to greet people who are younger and who are regarded as siblings.

Siaga iyae cempatak, ndik?

Meaning: How much your tamarind, *ndik* (little sister/brother)?

The greeting word *nak/nanda* shows kinship, greet children. However, the kinship greeting word *nak/nanda* is used as a greeting word. Greetings *nak/nanda* is usually used to greet people who are younger and who were regarded as a child.

Taengkalingani jolok caritana, nak!

Meaning: Listen the story first, *nak*(kid)!

Greeting words *ma'am* shows kinship, which greets mother/older women. However, the kinship greeting word *ma'am* used as greeting word. Greetings *ma'am* is usually used to greet people who are older.

Akkatenni massekkik, bu!

Meaning: holdfast, *ma'am*!

The greeting word *sir*, shows kinship, which greets father /older men. However, kinship the greeting word *sir* used as greeting word. Greetings *sir* is usually used to greet people who are older.

Ready, Sir

How much, *Sir*?

Speech is noticeably more polite if using greetings *pung*, *daeng/ndik*, *kak*, *nak/nanda*, *Ma'am*, *Sir*. Otherwise, if the speakers are using greetings *anu* or *wee* as a greetings *pung*, *daeng/ndik*, *kak*, *nak/nanda*, *Ma'am*, *Sir*, it judged not polite, though equally used to greet partners but contain different connotation meaning.

With regard in this case, Pranowo (2009, p. 104) suggests that speakers should use the word *sir/ma'am* to describe the second person or other greetings as word choice (diction) that reflect a sense of manners.

Politeness Marker Vocabulary

Politeness marker vocabulary in question here is the word *tabek* (permission), *iyek* (yes), *weddigga* (can I). These words are usually allocated on the partners said they have high social status. However, often it is also allocated on a partner said that has not been known for its status, as triggered by psychological factors to be polite to other people referred to as *mappakalebbe* 'glorify' or *mappakaraja* 'appreciate'.

The word *tabek* (permission)

The word *tabek* said meaningful permission, which means asking for permission or approval. It is commonly used when wishing to pass in front of the people, especially the people we respect. In social communication, said *tabek* is more subtle and polite so that the speakers will get the appreciation from the interlocutor. It could be said that the use of the word *tabek* is a form of cultural value *sipakalebbe* 'realization of mutual honour'. But this time, the function or purpose of use the word *tabek* not only to ask for permission, but also pronounced when giving/ask for something to or from another person or apologize to others. When speakers use the word *tabek*, for example when giving something or apologize, then it makes a sincere feeling by speakers to the interlocutor delivered.

Tabek, ndik. Ukennanik tu.

Meaning: Excuse me (sorry), *dik*. I hit you.

In line with the opinion of Vilkki (2006, p. 327) that another example use of politeness language interpretation of placement is the language that exposes certain formulations of polite speech such as *silahkan/tolong* (excuse me, please, and other), *terima kasih* (thank you), *permisi* (excuse me), or *maaf* (sorry).

The words *iyek*

The word *iyek* means Yes/Yeah or affirming. It is used for approving, solidify, or soften. The use of the word *iyek* in the speech will refine speech thus considered to be polite because it shows appreciation to the interlocutor. It could be said that the use of the word *iyek* is a form of realization of cultural value *sipakalebbe* 'mutual honour'. However, if use the word *yyo*, the speech not polite because the words *iyek* and *yyo* are different connotations meaning.

Iyek, tataroni, Pung Aji!

Yes, Just save it, Pung Aji!

The word *weddigga*

The word *weddigga* means may, can, or could. It is used to certify the request for indirectly. The use of the word *weddigga* in the speech will refine speech thus considered to be polite because it shows appreciation to the interlocutor.

Weddigga pung tasentereki siseng matanna, Pung?

Meaning: May you light the eyes all, *Pung*?

A question that begins with the word *weddigga* is a suitable tool to soften the effect of imperatives. On the question which begins with *weddigga*, the speaker asks the ability of interlocutor to do a deed. The implication of *Weddigga* is 'you do not have to'. Thus, the question of *weddigga* seems to give the possibility to interlocutor says to ignore the suggestion of speakers. It is in accordance with the scale of politeness expressed by Leech, which optionally scale. The scale option refers into many or at least options that are passed to interlocutor in the speech. When a speech is expressed by the speakers does not provide options as an alternative to selected interlocutor added, then it can be said that the speech that has low levels of politeness. On the contrary, the more options a lot, or increasingly allow speakers or partners said a lot and make choices freely, a speech that will arguably higher level speech politeness. Likewise, the scale of politeness expressed by Lakoff, the scale of formality (formality scale) states that in order for the participants to feel comfortable in both speaking activities, then speech is using should not be worded and should not compel impressed arrogantly. In the speech of each participant is said to be keeping each other formalities and keep the distance reasonable and natural as possible between each other.

The usual insecurity is also called the optional scale shows that speakers and interlocutor could feel comfortable in each other to speak, then the choices in a speech to be given by both parties. In addition, it is not allowed to be too edgy and too rigid in the speech because it would be considered not polite.

Pragmatic Speech (indirect speech)

Indirect speech used to express something, for example an order, rejection, and others. The use of indirect speech is more polite than the direct speech. In line with the opinion Vilkki (2006, p. 327) that another example uses of politeness language interpretation of the language of someone who used to avoid continuity. Indirectness scale refers to rank of direct or indirect the “mean” a speech. The speech more direct is considered not polite. On the contrary, the more indirect purpose of a speech, more polite speech.

Tappettak i listrikta, Pak Amir.

Meaning: Switch your electricity go down, Pak Amir.

From the explanation above can be understood that politeness language used to indicate reverence, respect, and solidarity to interlocutor as a way to avoid conflicts and maintain harmonious relations among human beings. It is in accordance with the opinion of Vilkki (2006, p. 323) that politeness has been conceptualized in particular as a strategy of conflict avoidance or as a strategy of development cooperation social interaction. Politeness is the language that shows the direction of respect or concern for others (327). Huang (2008, p. 97) suggests that in general, people act politely to show the desire to start a friendship relationship to someone or to keep it if there has been a fix or if it has menacingly for several reasons. Likewise with Zhuand, et al. (2010, p. 848) suggests that politeness is a kind of social phenomenon, an approach that used in order to maintain the harmony of relations between individuals. To preserve the subtlety, harmony of interpersonal relationships is called by every community, politeness serves as a ready means/efforts.

The Buginese Language Politeness in Reflecting the Social Status of the Community in Wajo Regency

Explained earlier that the speech determined by the language used, If linked with politeness means participants should pay attention to the language used when communicating. Not to cause discomfort among the participants said. For that, participants being required to pay attention to who's talking and to whom speech is delivered. Based on the results of research reflect the social status of language politeness communities in Wajo Regency.

MB in Wajo Regency realization of politeness language according to social status, both in terms of education, age, employment, the economy, or descendants. Social Status, both in terms of education, age, employment, the economy, or descendants believe to be very important in realization politeness language. For Example,

Agana palek, Pung? Engkaga pessedak?

Meaning: So what should I give, *Pung*? Do you have any ginger?

Contexts: speech delivered by a seller to a buyer the older ones.

Usontikkik yolok di.

Meaning: I am injecting you once, yeah.

Contexts: speech delivered by a nurse to a patient when the health care process takes place.

IV. CONCLUSION

Based on the data analysis, the found language tools used as a marker of politeness Buginese-speaking in Wajo Regency was a reflection of the social status of the community in Wajo Regency in Buginese language politeness. Any other language tools used as a marker of politeness Buginese-speaking in Wajo Regency, covering *klitika*, the second singular person pronouns, words, greetings, politeness markers vocabulary, and a speech pragmatics meaningful (speech is not directly).

The social status of the community in Wajo Regency reflects/reflected in the Buginese politeness language, both in terms of education, age, employment, economy, or lineage i.e. employees using tools of language politeness markers in speech as a form of reverence, respect, solidarity to superiors, subordinate, a fellow employee, older, younger, as well as with the nurses, the dealer, and others.

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 - o Final submission due
 - o Time to deliver final package to the publisher

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- 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.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

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Exploring Flow Theory in TOEFL Texts: Expository and Argumentative Genre <i>Zeinab Azizi and Behzad Ghonsooly</i>	210
A Contrastive Analysis of Connotations of “蛇(<i>she</i>)” and “Snake” <i>Chen Chen and Xiaohui Shan</i>	216
On the Translation of Advertisements: A Comparative Study of English-Persian Verbal Metaphors <i>Shakiba Fadaee and Mahmood Hashemian</i>	225
Politeness in Buginese Language as a Social Status Symbol in Wajo Regency <i>Haerany Halim, Sjahruddin Kaseng, Zainuddin Taha, and Akmal Hamsa</i>	230

Exploring the Harmony between Jordanian EFL Teachers' and Students' Beliefs about Vocabulary Learning Strategies <i>Mohammad Abd Alhafeez Ali Ta'amneh</i>	78
Some Reflections on the Relationships between Bilingualism, Intelligence Quotient (IQ) and Error Making in Teaching of English as a Foreign Language in Mali <i>Mamadou Gueye</i>	85
EFL Undergraduates' Awareness of Translation Errors in Their Everyday Environment <i>Chin-Wen Chien</i>	91
Interactional Patterns in Face-to-face and Synchronous Computer-mediated Communication in Problem-based Learning Contexts <i>Worasiri Boonsue, Anchalee Jansem, and Sirinan Srinaowaratt</i>	99
Questioning Powers of the Students in the Class <i>Murni Mahmud</i>	111
The Impact of Linguistic Imperialism on Iranian EFL Learners' Home Culture Detachment <i>Mahshid Hejazi and Azar Hosseini Fatemi</i>	117
Graded English Series (GES)—A Possible Way Out for the Reform of the English Teaching in China <i>Tian Wang and Jianhe Xie</i>	123
The Impact of Undergraduate Students' Learning Preferences (VARK Model) on Their Language Achievement <i>Hessam Moayyeri</i>	132
Increasing Motivation at University Level: A Paradigm of Action Research <i>Illahi Bux Gopang, Abdul Fattah Soomro, and Faraz Ali Bughio</i>	140
The Impact of Group Formation Method (Student-selected vs. Teacher-assigned) on Group Dynamics and Group Outcome in EFL Creative Writing <i>Jaleh Hassaskhah and Hamideh Mozaffari</i>	147
Analysis of the Translators' Social and Psychological Trends from the Perspective of Intertextuality <i>Wenying Zhang and Nan Zhao</i>	157
The Comparative Impact of Visual Aids and Contextualization on Field-dependent and Field-independent EFL Learners' Vocabulary Retention <i>Behdokht Mall-Amiri and Masoomeh Arabgol</i>	163
Discourse Mastery Based on Indonesian Language Teaching Skills of the Second Grade Students in Senior High School, Pangkep Regency <i>Paris, Ide Said, Akmal Hamsa, and Mahmudah</i>	172
The Impact of Attending EFL Classes on the Iranian Female Learners' Attributional Complexity <i>Nazanin Saryazdi and Azar Hosseini Fatemi</i>	179
An Empirical Study of Blog-assisted EFL Process Writing: Evidence from Chinese Non-English Majors <i>Haiyan Zhou</i>	189
The Influence of Concept Mapping on Reading Comprehension of Iranian English Students Employing Persuasive and Descriptive Texts <i>Vahideh Beydarani</i>	196
When Metaphors Cross Cultures <i>Maisarah M. Almirabi</i>	204
