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Contents

Guided Visual Vocabulary Practice: Spanish Language Vocabulary Instruction for Students with Learning Disabilities and Possibilities beyond the Foreign Language Classroom

Joshua B. Tolbert
Huron High School, USA

Belinda Davis Lazarus
University of Michigan-Dearborn, USA

Kim Killu
University of Michigan-Dearborn, USA

Abstract—**Students with Learning Disabilities (LD) frequently struggle to learn and utilize vocabulary in the general education curriculum. The growing requirement that foreign language courses be completed to earn a high school diploma can be both a challenge for LD students and an area to more closely examine strategies to promote student success. Guided Visual Vocabulary Practice (GVVP) has been developed as one approach to helping students with LD more effectively learn concrete Spanish nouns. A demonstration of how to use GVVP for this purpose is provided, along with theoretical underpinnings of the strategy. Further suggestions are also provided for how GVVP may be used in other content areas and in future research.**

Index Terms—**learning disabilities, foreign language instruction, vocabulary, ESL**

I. Introduction

The learning and usage of vocabulary has often been a challenge for students with learning disabilities (Shamir, Korat, & Fellab, 2012; Simmons & Kameenui, 1990); LD students may not implicitly understand the meanings of words and typically benefit from more explicit vocabulary instruction (Gersten, Fuchs, Williams, & Baker, 2001; Jitendra, Edwards, Sacks, & Jacobson., 2004). Difficulty with vocabulary acquisition can create obstacles in all academic areas, and has likely contributed to foreign language study as a major source of anxiety for students with LD (Barr, 1993; Scott & Manglitz, 1997). At present, numerous states require students to earn credits in a foreign language in order to earn a diploma (National State Council of Supervisors for Languages, 2012). This expectation rightfully includes many students with LD who are intellectually capable of succeeding in the general curriculum, with reasonable supports provided. Guided Visual Vocabulary Practice (GVVP) was developed as a resource to aid LD students in learning concrete Spanish nouns (Tolbert, 2013). The following discussion will address how GVVP can be used in the Spanish classroom, how GVVP might be applied in other content areas, and the potential use of GVVP for students learning English.

Development and Testing of GVVP

A guiding principle of GVVP is the importance of providing more engaging experiences in creating memories which can be stored and retrieved to enhance vocabulary learning. Medina (2008) synthesized a body of research on sensory engagement and memory by stating that "The more elaborately we encode a memory during its initial moments, the stronger it will be" (p. 119). GVVP was designed to facilitate the heightened learning and engagement promoted by Medina through prompting students to practice concrete Spanish nouns in a multi-sensory framework. Additionally, the Spanish nouns were divided into thematic groups, as recommended by Folse (2004), to aid memory and avoid merely reinforcing superficial recognition.

GVVP was also intended to utilize an explicit approach influenced by graphic organizers and guided notes. Archer and Hughes (2011) endorsed the use of graphic organizers, which rely upon a consistent structure and prompt students to perform tasks and provide responses in an interactive process. Guided notes similarly rely upon a structured format and appropriate guidance and corrections to help LD students participate more actively in learning (Hamilton, Seibert, Gardner, & Talbert-Johnson, 2000; Lazarus, 1996). Heward (2001) asserted that guided note formats aid with allocation of memory and attention and keep students engaged; a priority shared by Medina (2008). Konrad, Joseph, and Eveleigh

(2009) noted that guided notes not only increase student interest, but can be adapted to course content and to teaching styles.

GVVP was therefore designed as starting from a simple, adaptable template which could be filled with different elements and used to engage students in learning Spanish vocabulary. GVVP uses a consistent template of six panels, with each panel divided into three spaces, as demonstrated in *Figure 1*.

Figure1.

Each section of a completed GVVP template will contain a concrete Spanish noun, its English translation, and an illustration of the noun. When presented to students, each section of the GVVP template is missing one element (see *Figure 2*), and different templates can contain one of three possible iterations for each noun (see *Figure 3*). The style of a GVVP template is intended to resemble the format of a comic strip, as suggested by McVicker (2007) as an effective and visually appealing method to teach vocabulary to students.
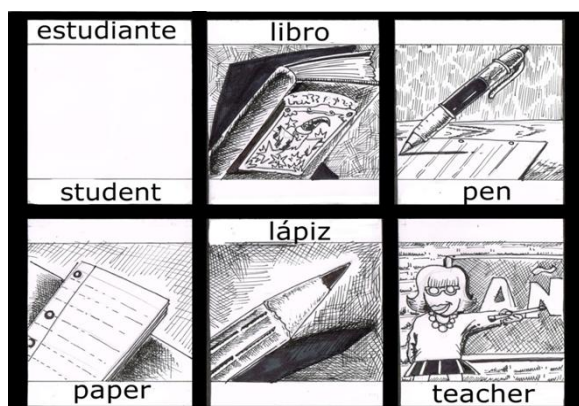
Figure 2.
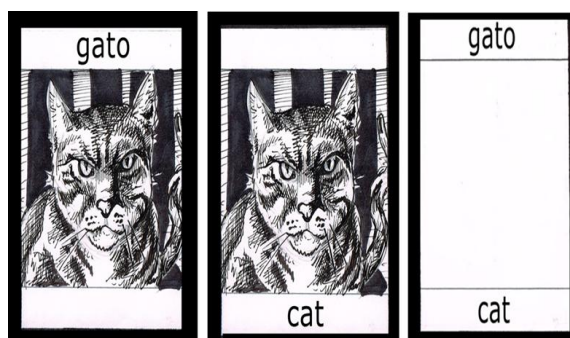
Figure 3.

A preliminary investigation of GVVP indicated that the strategy resulted in a moderate effect size for participants in grades 5-12. The largest effect in the study was found with middle school students, though it was emphasized that the small sample size limited the conclusions which could be drawn (Tolbert, 2013). Of the participants in the study, the students enrolled in grades 7-12 typically experienced a greater ability to recall the English translations of concrete Spanish nouns learned with GVVP than with traditional flashcards. Social validity data obtained from participants, parents, and teachers indicated support for explicit and multi-sensory approaches to learning Spanish vocabulary, as well as a generally positive attitude about using GVVP instead of flashcards (Tolbert, 2013).

II. METHODS FOR TEACHING CONCRETE SPANISH NOUNS WITH GVVP

Effective use of the GVVP strategy depends upon the instructor guiding a student through the GVVP template. To begin each session, the instructor should explicitly state the theme and ask the student to provide four English nouns related to the theme. For example, the instructor would begin with a statement like "Today we will be working with Spanish words for people or things you find in a classroom" before asking the student to provide four examples in English. If any of the four words were included on the GVVP template, the instructor can use this as a bridge into working with GVVP with a statement like "We will see some of the Spanish versions of that word today," followed by presenting the GVVP template to the student. Students should be guided through one section of the GVVP template at a time. Proceeding from top to bottom and left to right is advised, in order to simulate and reinforce the process of reading text.

When reading or writing a Spanish noun, the instructor divides the word into syllables. For example, *gato* (cat) would be divided as *gah/toe*, and then pronounced in its entirety. Repetition should be used as necessary until student pronunciation is accurate.

When students are asked to provide an illustration, it is advisable to provide a reasonable time limit. Tolbert (2013) employed a time limit of three minutes in order to create a standard expectation for the process and to encourage enough detail to keep students engaged while minimizing the possibility for distractions.

A. Panels Missing the English Words

When a panel lacks the English word (see *Figure 4*), it will contain the Spanish noun and an illustration. First, the instructor guides the student through pronouncing the Spanish noun by syllables by modeling the sounds and running a finger or pencil under the relevant letters. For example, the instructor would underscore the letters *ga* and have the student repeat */gah/* and then underscore the letters *to* while the student repeats */toe/*. This procedure is practiced as necessary, and followed by the student repeating the entire word.

Figure 4.

Once the student has practiced the Spanish word, the instructor should gesture down to the illustration and use this as a hint to prompt the student to provide the equivalent English word. In this case, the student would say "cat," and would be guided to write the word letter-by-letter so that c-a-t appears in the bottom section of the panel.

B. Panels Missing the Spanish Words

In panels where the Spanish noun is missing from the top section of the panel (see *Figure 5*), the instructor begins by drawing the student's attention to the illustration in the center. Then, the instructor gestures at the English word at the bottom of the panel and ask the student to which noun that panel pertains. When the student replies "cat," the instructor confirms and proceeds to guide the student in filling in the space at the top of the panel with the Spanish word.

Figure 5.

After drawing the student's attention back to the top section of the panel, the instructor instructs the student to write the Spanish word in syllabic sections. For example, the student would first be instructed to write the letters *ga*, then the

letters *to*. Once the word has been written out correctly, the instructor underscores the syllabic sections and has the student repeat the syllables */gah/* and */toe/* before ultimately pronouncing the entire word *gato*.

C. Panels Missing the Illustrations

Some panels will have an open space in the middle in which the student will ultimately provide an illustration (see *Figure 6*). First, the instructor should focus the student's attention on the Spanish word at the top of the section. The instructor helps the student pronounce the Spanish noun by syllables, modeling the sounds and running a finger or pencil under the letters being pronounced. For example, the instructor would underscore the letters *ga* and have the student repeat */gah/* and then underscore the letters *to* while the student repeats */toe/*. The instructor then gestures to the English word at the bottom of the panel and asks the student to read the English equivalent (cat) aloud.
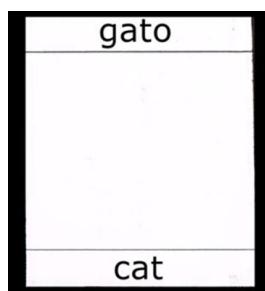
Figure 6.

Once the connection between the Spanish and English words has been established, time is provided for the student to create her own illustration. Instructions for this illustration should include both an explicit time limit and exclusive use of the Spanish vocabulary word. For example, the instructor might prompt the student by pointing at the center section and saying, "Please use the next three minutes to draw the best *gato* you can in this space."

D. Considering GVVP for Spanish Vocabulary beyond Concrete Nouns

At present, research and practice involving GVVP has centered mainly on concrete Spanish nouns. Concrete nouns represent a logical starting point, largely due to tangibility and recognition, which are also conducive to illustration. However, GVVP could certainly be used as a tool to teach other parts of speech in the Spanish language. For example, an adjective like *feliz* (happy) or *alto* (tall) could reasonably be introduced and practiced using GVVP. Verbs in the infinitive form, such as *hablar* (to speak) or *correr* (to run) would also be good candidates for use with GVVP. Conversely, more advanced Spanish grammatical processes like noun-adjective agreement or verb conjugations which require multiple steps and an established understanding of the relevant vocabulary would be better served by a strategy other than GVVP.

III. IMPLICATIONS FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

The GVVP strategy was deliberately designed to be both multi-sensory and multi-lingual. Essentially, students are asked to connect Spanish and English vocabulary with pictorial representations while utilizing visual, auditory, verbal, and motor skills. Although GVVP was specifically designed as a strategy to support students with LD in learning one particular aspect of the Spanish language, the strategy could be applied as a method to teach concrete English nouns to students whose first language is Spanish.

GVVP was devised to incorporate the syllabic and phonetically friendly nature of Spanish spelling and pronunciation, as well as the need to explicitly learn spelling and sight-reading of many English words. The existing GVVP procedure could largely be maintained, but some adjustments and considerations are recommended. First, instructions may need to be translated and delivered in Spanish; discretion could be used in gradually using more English as students become familiar with the process. Second, more time would understandably need to be devoted to practicing the pronunciation of English words. Finally, it should be emphasized that existing GVVP templates focus on very basic concrete nouns; this would be most appropriate for students who are just beginning to learn English and/or quite young. The use of GVVP with languages other than Spanish and English is also considered an future area for exploration in research and practice.

IV. BEYOND THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

As previously noted, successfully learning vocabulary is challenging for students with LD in both foreign languages and other core curricular areas. Groves (1995) reflected upon the sheer volume of vocabulary in secondary education, suggesting that more new terms were introduced in a typical science unit than a comparable unit in a foreign language course. Scruggs, Mastropieri, Berkeley, & Graetz (2010) promoted visual strategies as effective across settings and content areas, and Bryant, Goodwin, Bryant, & Higgins (2003) emphasized both the importance of vocabulary for LD students and the need for engaging strategies conducive to deeper meaning and recall. Because GVVP relies upon

connecting concepts to both words and visual images, there is potential application to providing students with LD additional practice with key terms and concepts.

Although the basic format of GVVP can be maintained, understandable alterations would be needed for the strategy to be effective. First, the only language involved will be English, so translating between languages will not be necessary. However, the process can be adapted so that new vocabulary words are placed in the top space of a given panel, while definitions are placed in the lower section of the panel. Second, because the target vocabulary is likely to be much broader than concrete nouns, GVVP may be applied to abstract nouns or actions. In these applications, GVVP serves as an opportunity to explore new concepts more deeply, rather than a bridge between different languages.

A. Methods for GVVP in the Science Classroom

In consideration of Groves' (1995) assertions about the volume of vocabulary words relevant to science, many opportunities exist to use GVVP. The following examples concern the concept of covalent bonds, which may be covered in both Biology and Chemistry courses. As a general rule, definitions provided on GVVP templates have been streamlined to convey information as directly and succinctly as possible.

1. Panels Missing the Definition

Some GVVP panels would contain a vocabulary word and an illustration, but no definition (see *Figure 7*). In such cases, the instructor would run a finger under the vocabulary word while reading aloud, then asking the student to repeat. Next, the instructor would draw the student's attention to the illustration in the center of the panel and ask the student to describe what she believes is being represented visually. Once the instructor is satisfied that the student can describe the meaning of the vocabulary word, the student should be instructed to write a definition in the space at the bottom of the panel. It is recommended that definitions emphasize brevity and use of the student's own words.
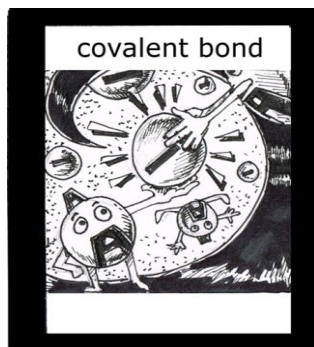
Figure 7.

2. Panels Missing the Vocabulary Word

In panels where the vocabulary word itself is absent from the top section (see *Figure 8*), the instructor should begin by covering up the definition with her hand or a sheet of paper. The student should first be asked to describe what she believes is happening in the illustration. Once this occurs, the instructor should uncover the definition and read it aloud to the student. The student should then summarize the definition in her own words, to the extent possible. The instructor then asks the student if she can recall the relevant vocabulary; the instructor can provide the word if the student has forgotten or the word or term is still unfamiliar. Finally, the instructor should gesture to the space at the top of the panel and guide the student in writing the word or term letter-by-letter.
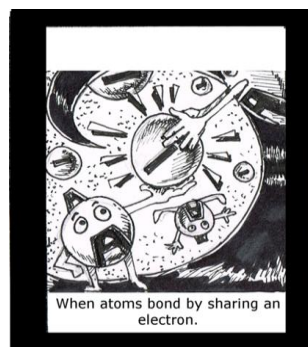
Figure 8.

3. Panels Missing the Illustration

The remaining panel contains the vocabulary word and its definition, but has a blank space in the center for an illustration (see *Figure 9*). The instructor should first cover the definition with paper or her hand and focus the student's attention on the vocabulary in the top section. The instructor should run her finger under the vocabulary word while

saying it aloud, having the student to repeat. Next, the student is asked to define the vocabulary word to the best of her ability. Once this is done, the instructor uncovers the definition and reads it aloud to the student. After establishing the relevant vocabulary and definition, the instructor should gesture at the space in the center and direct the student to create an illustration. A prompt such as, "Please use the next three minutes to draw the best *covalent bond* you can" may be used.
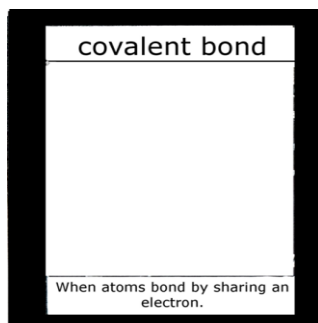
Figure 9.

B. Methods for GVVP in the Social Studies Classroom

Like science, various disciplines of social studies require students to learn a substantial amount of vocabulary. Additionally, much of this vocabulary may be more abstract nouns or concepts. Although some vocabulary does not lend itself easily to illustration, the mere act of attempting to do so may promote a more elaborate understanding of less tangible concepts.

In some instances, social studies vocabulary is more concrete or applicable to daily experiences. Terminology used in economics, for example, benefits from being based largely in the creation and exchange of material objects. The use of GVVP for such terms and concepts would adhere to the same procedures discussed previously for science vocabulary. In panels missing the definition like *Figure 10*, the process of oral practice and describing the illustration should culminate in the student writing a succinct definition in her own words.

Figure 10.

Panels which lack the vocabulary word itself like *Figure 11* would again rely upon description of the illustration and presentation of the written definition to lead the student to supplying the relevant vocabulary word in the top section.
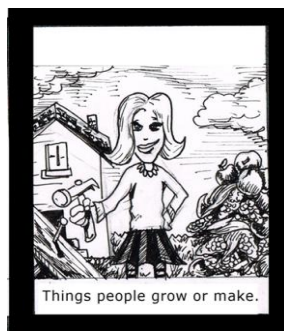
Figure 11.

In the instances requiring the student to create an illustration like *Figure 12*, oral practice with the vocabulary and paraphrasing of the definition should lead to a visual depiction created by the student.
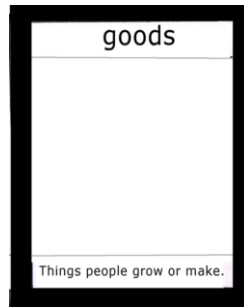
Figure 12.

C. Methods for GVVP in the Mathematics Classroom

As with the previously discussed content areas, secondary mathematics courses introduce students to an array of vocabulary which must be learned. However, mathematics already involves a fairly abstract system of symbols (numbers, signs and shapes) which must be integrated into operations and practiced toward mastery. While GVVP can certainly be used to develop recognition of terms and phrases, it is also important to also practice writing mathematical expressions and determining solutions.

Higher-level mathematics courses, like algebra, have often been problematic for students with disabilities (Gagnon & Maccini, 2001). As detailed by Muschia and Muschia (1995), there are a number of verbal phrases which can indicate a corresponding algebraic expression. In order to be successful in algebra, students need to not only recognize phrases which signal addition, multiplication, subtraction, or division, but will also need to be able to translate these phrases into algebraic expressions. The ability to communicate mathematically was emphasized by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (2000); difficulty with processing information or identifying important ideas were considered characteristic challenges of students with disabilities in secondary mathematics courses (Maccini & Gagnon, 2000). One means of incorporating GVVP into the algebra classroom guides students through converting verbal phrases (Muschia & Muschia, 1995) to algebraic expressions. The first stage in the process can be seen in *Figure 13*, which presents the template used to guide a student from an English phrase to an algebraic expression. In *Figure 13*, each panel has a phrase at the top and an integer or variable in the center. The instructor would begin by pointing to the phrase at the top and asking the student to read it aloud, providing assistance as needed.
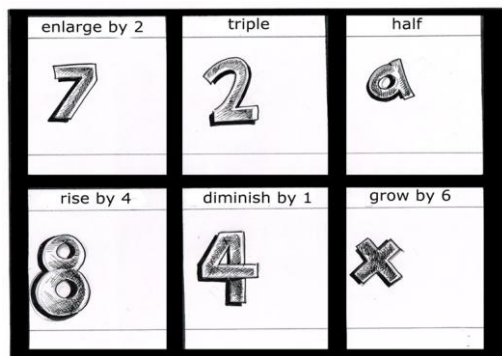
Figure 13.

Once the student has correctly surmised that, for example, "enlarge by 2" means to add two, the instructor should gesture to the box at the bottom and have the student write the correct operation and quantity in the space provided. An example of this can be seen in *Figure 14*, which presents the mathematical operations for all the verbal phrases.
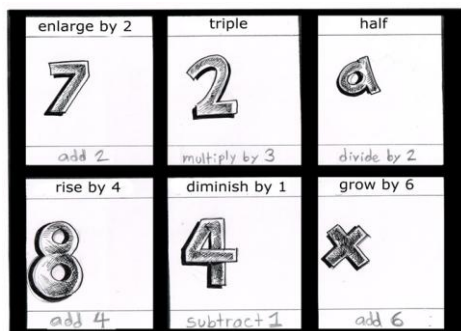
Figure 14.

The final stage of this process is shown in *Figure 15*, in which the instructor would gesture to the center panel and instruct the student to add the appropriate sign and integer to a pre-existing integer or variable. Instructor discretion can be used to emphasize practice writing algebraic expressions, or to prompt a student to write her solution to the expression. This determination will naturally depend upon the needs of an individual student. Completing equations with GVVP not only affords an opportunity to practice mathematical operations, but also a way to reinforce that an expression like "X + 6" cannot be taken further without additional information provided.
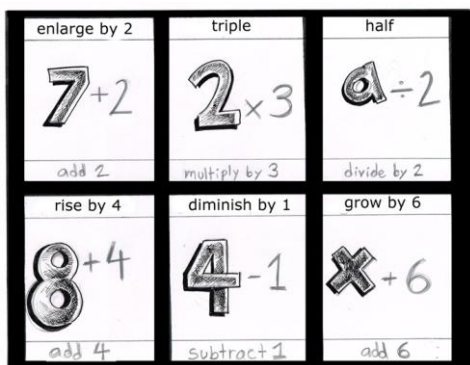
Figure 15.

V. CONCLUSION

Successful learning of vocabulary is crucial to academic success for students with LD, particularly in content areas at the secondary level involving specialized terminology. Foreign language courses are often challenging for this reason, as are courses in science and social studies. While LD students certainly possess the ability to succeed, individualized dysfunctions of the central nervous system mean that multi-sensory strategies are necessary to help these students realize their full potential. As a strategy, GVVP can be implemented to help students practice concrete Spanish nouns by connecting vocabulary in the target language with images and existing English vocabulary. With some alterations, the format of GVVP has the potential to be applied to other content areas by providing more elaborate practice with new terms, images, and definitions meaningful to the student. Although the effectiveness of possible applications of GVVP is considered an area for future research, the need to continue developing and implementing strategies to assist LD students in learning vocabulary is essential for their academic success.

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Joshua B. Tolbert earned a B.A. from Western Michigan University, with a double major in Spanish and art education. He later earned an M.A. in liberal studies and an Ed.D. in special education, both from the University of Michigan-Dearborn. He currently serves as a teacher of students with learning disabilities at Huron High School, and has previously been an instructor of Spanish and visual arts. In both research and practice, Dr. Tolbert is exploring effective strategies for teaching vocabulary to students with disabilities, with particular emphasis on learning a language beyond English.

Belinda Davis Lazarus is a Professor Emeritus of Special Education in the College of Education, Health, and Human Services at the University of Michigan-Dearborn. She taught students with learning disabilities and emotional disorders, supervised special education teachers, and developed and taught college courses in learning disabilities and related services. Dr. Lazarus has also authored numerous articles in the areas of inclusion, assessment, and collaboration.

Kim Killu is Professor of Special Education at the University of Michigan-Dearborn, in Dearborn, Michigan, U.S.A. She earned her B.S. in psychology from Michigan State University, her M.S. in Clinical Behavioral Psychology from Eastern Michigan University, and her Ph.D. in Special Education and Applied Behavior Analysis from The Ohio State University. Dr. Killu has practiced as a psychologist with the full spectrum of disability categories in a variety of clinical, vocational, and educational settings. She is also a doctoral level Board Certified Behavior Analyst. Dr. Killu's interests focus on the assessment and treatment of individuals with severe behavior disorders, community inclusion, social and instructional strategies for individuals with behavior disorders, and Functional Behavior Assessment and Behavior Intervention Planning policy and practice.

Negotiation for Meaning and Feedback among Language Learners

Jiyon Cook

Sogang University, Seoul, South Korea

Abstract—**Negotiation for meaning (NfM) in second language acquisition is defined as an attempt to overcome comprehension problems. This paper addresses a level of NfM: Requests for clarification in terms of communicative intent that are not generated from linguistic problems or communication breakdowns. It also explores reasons for the emergence of this level of NfM from the view of a language user. With particular reference to the meaning of utterances, the paper discusses whether certain inputs are able to be resolved through NfM. This paper points out that this type of negotiation may provide the learner with an opportunity to acknowledge language use in terms of intentions, rather than solely focusing on achieving comprehension.**

Index Terms—**negotiation for meaning, feedback, semantic meaning, pragmatic meaning, maxim of manner, maxim of quality**

I. INTRODUCTION

It has been acknowledged that when L2 learners interact with one another or with native speakers through conversation, their language development is promoted (Lightbown & Spada, 2002). The benefit of conversational interaction in the classroom has been a focus of research in the contexts of both nonnative speaker/native speaker (NNS/NS) interaction (e.g., Long, 1996; Oliver, 2000; Pica, 1994; Pica, Young, & Doughty, 1987; Swain, 2000) and nonnative speaker/nonnative speaker (NNS/NNS) interaction (e.g., Adams, 2007; Storch, 2002; Swain & Lapkin, 1998; Varonis & Gass 1985). One area of frequent focus is *negotiation for meaning* (henceforth NfM). In second language acquisition (SLA) theory, NfM is "the process by which two or more interlocutors identify and then attempt to resolve a communication breakdown" (Ellis, 2003, p. 346). It is a repair-oriented process that involves the intentional resort to a meaning-based as opposed to a grammar-based repair, distinct from generic negotiation of meaning. Research has been carried out exploring the question of the existence of NfM and its function and frequency (Foster, 1998; Foster & Ohta, 2005). Research has also considered the relationship between task types and the amount of NfM, as well as between the language proficiency of learners' speech partners and the amount of NfM the learners engage in (e.g., Ellis, 2003; Pica & Doughty, 1986; Storch, 2002).

Long (1996) suggests that by causing learners to do the work of negotiation with native or more competent speakers, NfM triggers beneficial changes and results in a more effective language learning experience. This is because NfM "connects input, internal learner capacities and output in productive ways" (p. 452). According to Long (1996, p. 418), NfM is defined as "the process in which learners and competent speakers provide and interpret signals of their own and their interlocutor's perceived comprehension, thus provoking adjustments to linguistic form, conversational structure, and message content." Lightbown & Spada (2006, p. 203) define NfM as "interaction between speakers who make adjustments to their speech and use other techniques to repair a breakdown in communication." Long (1996, pp. 422–423) gives the examples of adjustments such as *simplification* and *elaboration*. Simplification truncates complex sentences by employing fewer verb tenses and modifiers, as well by the reduction of semantic content, whereas elaboration makes use of repetition and paraphrasing in order to explicate semantic structure. This is illustrated as follows (Long, 1996, p. 422):

a. NS baseline version

   Because he had to work at night to support his family, Paco often fell asleep in class.

b. Simplified version

   Paco had to make money for his family. Paco worked at night. He often went to sleep in class.

c. Elaborated version

   Paco had to work at night to earn money to support his family, so he often fell asleep in class next day during his teacher's lesson.

As Long states, learner comprehension is achieved through these kinds of adjustments. NfM may help comprehension, but some confusion still remains for L2 learners trying to understand the message content of L2 productions at a level beyond their proficiency. The concept of NfM may be somewhat difficult to interpret in part, because previous studies on NfM do not specify the types of meaning or the details of the underlying assumptions and motivations at work in initiating negotiation. This paper presents a critical view of the range of meanings that are difficult to resolve at the level of meta-awareness (by indirectly involving in the process of inferring), and whose automatic resolution is not universally or cross-culturally guaranteed. Ultimately, the paper will address the ways that

this type of NfM and feedback play a role in L2 learning. It will show that NfM, in some cases, can serve as an opportunity for learners to become aware of aspects of language use, rather than helping them achieve full comprehension.

The paper is organized into the following sections. Section 2 presents a theoretical discussion of interactionist perspectives on SLA, focusing on the ways in which NfM and feedback play a role in the classroom. Section 3 looks at negotiation from the language user's perspective by exploring some reasons for its occurrence. Finally, learner responses are considered in light of the role of feedback during interaction.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

A. The Role of Negotiation: An Aid to L2 Comprehension

Krashen (1985) claims that language acquisition takes place as learners come to be able to process input that contains language slightly above their current developmental level of language comprehension (thus, increasing that level). Employing the notion of *comprehensible input*, Long (1996) argues that input is made more comprehensible through the NfM process. The term *negotiation* here refers to the *modification* and *restructuring* of interaction between interlocutors when they experience comprehension difficulties (Pica, 1994, p. 494). The features of negotiation in this case include the listener's *request for message clarification* and *confirmation*; the speaker may then *repeat*, *elaborate*, or *simplify* the original message (Pica, 1994; Long, 1996).

The majority of NfM is particularly concerned with lexis, as unfamiliar words can be *substituted* or *defined* in isolation (Pica, 1994). Consider the example below (Pica, 1993, p. 437; cited in Pica, 1994, p. 513):

(1) NS: it's a rectangular bench
NNS: rectangular?
NS: yeah it's in the shape of a rectangle with um you know a rectangle has   two long sides and two short sides
NNS: rectangle?
NS: re-rectangle it's it's like a square except you you flatten it out
NNS: square except
NS: uh a rectangle is a square
NNS: uhuh[1]

In this example, the learner (the NNS) signals with "rectangular" and "rectangle". The partner (the NS) tries to repair the failure in communication by providing descriptions. When the learner interprets the meaning incorrectly, "square except," the NS rephrases his previous statement by positioning "square" as similar to a rectangle. In such a situation, opportunities to negotiate meaning help language learners obtain comprehensible input (Pica, 1994; Long, 1996).

These opportunities occur most frequently during NNS/NNS interactions (Pica, 1994; Varonis & Gass, 1985) and expert/novice interaction (Storch, 2002). The role NfM plays in terms of feedback in L2 learning will be discussed below.

B. Negotiation and Feedback

Signals (or as Long calls them "negotiation strategies") such as *repetitions*, *clarification requests*, *confirmation checks*, and *recasts* are examples of negative feedback (Long, 1996; Oliver 2000). When there is a communication breakdown, negative feedback can be implemented *explicitly* through overt error correction or *implicitly* through NfM strategies (Long, 1996). Consider Long's (1996, p. 429) example from an NNS/NS conversation:

(2) NNS: Uh, yes, … a woman drinking (and bottle) wine, uh, bottle and man   drinking (a) beer
NS: Yes and she's drinking a glass or a bottle of wine?
NNS: No, uh, she? She's drinking in (no) glass.

The NS's question here exemplifies implicit correction. Feedback of this type is helpful because it occurs when the NNS is unsure whether he or she has been understood.

The learner's error can be successfully corrected by the NS's feedback, since the learner understands the change the NS is trying to elicit in the previously produced utterance, as shown in the following example (Pica, 1994, p. 515):

(3) NNS: and tree with stick
NS: you mean the trees have branches?
NNS: yes

The NS's signal provides the learner with an alternative form and meaning by focusing on the subject, "tree," and by modifying it to plural form "trees," and also by introducing "branches," which replaces "stick".

Negotiation leads interlocutors to modify their output as they receive feedback on their utterances (Pica 1994). In the following example, the NS explicitly asks the learner to elucidate the meaning of "patton" (Pica, 1989, p. 88 cited in Pica, 1994, p. 517):

(4) NNS: we have common patton in this case
NS: I don't know that word … can you describe what it means
NNS: yes uh uh if I can explain the car's nature, we understand easy because car has a few a lot of nature …

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[1]That is, presumably, *uh-huh* 'yes', not *uh-uh* 'no', although Pica's notation does not make this clear.

As Pica states, negotiation contributes to the processes and outcomes of L2 learning; NS's utterance influences the learner's modification.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) examine the effectiveness of various types of feedback in ESL classrooms. They find that types such as *negotiation strategies* (clarification requests, repetition), *elicitation*, and *metalinguistic feedback* (feedback "which contains either comments, information" pertaining "to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form", p. 47) lead to student-generated repair, while explicit types such as *correction* and *recasting* do not. Lyster (1998) argues that recasts (yes/no questions functioning as a confirmation check), which are mostly used by teachers rather than learners, do not lead to negotiation and are not as effective in promoting language learning as teachers expect. In a similar vein to Lyster's (1998) analysis of contexts, Oliver (2000) identifies some cases of negative feedback through NfM and establishes how negative feedback is utilized by learners in ways that vary by age and context. He considers interaction patterns contextually (teacher-fronted lessons vs. pair-work tasks) and concludes that negative feedback occurs in both contexts, and that young learners especially tend to use this feedback in their subsequent utterances.

C.   Issues

Prior examples of negotiation work (Foster, 1998; Long, 1996; Oliver, 2000; Pica, 1994) are limited in their scope to lexis, phrases, and syntax. In these cases, acts of NfM aimed to resolve problems related to these aspects of language, as learners' ungrammatical utterances were followed by feedback in the form of implicit corrections (negotiation strategies such as clarification requests, as in (3), (4) and confirmation checks, as in (2)). In my experience these aspects of negotiation and negative feedback commonly occur when learning languages. It seems, however, that NfM does not necessarily lead to comprehension in some cases. For example, in the interaction in (4), contrary to expected modification, although modification by the learner does occur in the example above, it does not affect the success of comprehension; the interlocutor may still have trouble getting the meaning of "patton".

Furthermore, it appears that there is also another level of meaning that learners attempt to negotiate, revealed in the form of the repetition or clarification request. Some examples exhibit partial understanding relating to "what is said" in an utterance and let it rest there, while some students seek "what is meant" in an utterance, as discussed in detail in the following section. According to Grice (1975, 1989), an utterance's meaning is composed of "what is said" and "what is meant"; Grice's term for the latter is "implicature". "What is said" here refers to the lexical-semantic meaning (or sentence meaning), rooted in linguistic knowledge, whereas "what is meant" indicates the pragmatic meaning (or speaker meaning), which cannot be understood on the basis of knowledge of linguistic structure alone, but also requires knowledge of language use in context and of social norms.[2] In some cases negotiation of comprehensibility does not necessarily require a complete communication breakdown (as Long (1996) Ellis (2003) and Lightbown and Spada (2006) suggest); rather, it can also emerge and be useful in situations characterized by insufficient understanding. To help understand the distinction of the two levels of meaning and negotiation of them, consider the following conversation:

(5) Peter: Did you eat all of the biscuits?
    Mary: I ate some of them.
    Peter: some of them?

In this conversation, Mary has a meaning such as {*I had some of the biscuits*} (semantic meaning) and has another meaning in context such as <*I did not eat all of the biscuits*> (pragmatic meaning). The latter is not the literal meaning of her words, but can be conveyed in the context of conversation. Here, Peter's concern is more in understanding the pragmatic meaning rather than the lexical-semantic meaning. This kind of particular meaning negotiation should also be addressed.

III.   Negotiation for Pragmatic Meaning

In 2011 I taught a General English Reading class conducted in L2 English over the course of a semester at a university in Seoul. The class consisted of 40 first-year students who were intermediate-level English speakers. In order to involve those students more in class, I used a task-based method to encourage them to interact with each other. The aim of the task was to connect reading, speaking, and writing skills. The students discussed the content of an article from a text and gave presentations in groups of four.[3] The textbook was *Strategic reading 2* by Richards and Eckstut-Didier (2003). While I was teaching, some students asked me the meaning of the second pronoun "you" in the text. The students had noticed unusual uses of "you" in the sentences "The sensations you feel are sometimes awful" and "You often pick up the pain of the victims" (paragraph 3, p. 100); however, the students were unable to articulate

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[2]The terms "pragmatic meaning", "speaker meaning", and "intended meaning" are roughly equivalent; similarly, "linguistic meaning," "semantic meaning", and "sentence meaning" are all treated as rough synonyms in this paper. For Grice, recovering the sentence meaning is equivalent to recovering the propositional form; any other meanings communicated by the utterance fall into the category of implicatures (Carston 2002, pp. 101–115).

[3]Presentations included several tasks: stating the main idea of each paragraph, summarizing information, and providing related background knowledge, as well as sharing personal experiences. During the presentations, I was able to observe students' group-related interactions. I noticed that these interactions helped students focus on meaning by assisting in text comprehension. This experience inspired me to learn more about NfM.

why these usages were different from the norm. My students' question prompted me to consider "what is meant" in cases when communication breakdown does not occur. This question had never been raised when I used the grammar-translation method, or when students had not had the opportunity to interact in a teacher-fronted class.

The students discussed potential interpretations of "you" during group work, as shown in the following example:

(6) A: … "you," … who is "you"?
    B: … what?
    C: what are you ... thinking?
    A: I mean "you" in the sentence "The sensations *you* feel are sometimes awful"
    C: … writer?
    B: no… not me ...
    D: it should … could … be "they"

The deictic expression "you" is often used non-deictically (Levinson, 1983). This non-deictic meaning is often confusing to Korean learners because the corresponding usage is uncommon in the Korean language. In English, when the speaker refers to nonspecific, generic people, "you" can be used. For example, in "*you* can never tell what sex they are nowadays" (Levinson, 1983, p. 66), "you" does not signify any particular person, even though it sounds like it refers to a specific person, the listener. That is, without context, this utterance actually could refer to a deictic "you", but the non-deictic usage is more natural in most contexts and given most plausible speaker intentions. In Korean, *ne* ("you") as a second person singular pronoun is rarely used unless the speaker is referring to a specified listener. The forms *saramtul* ("people") or *nehuytul* ("you", as a second person plural pronoun) are instead adopted for generalized use. Crosslinguistically, deictics are used to keep the text coherent (Hatch, 1992); however, in the text, "you" is used empathetically to involve the listener (cf. "empathetic" meaning; Grundy 2008, p.25). Although for NSs, this type of non-deictic use of "you" is natural, for native Korean speakers speaking English as a foreign language (EFL), it may cause confusion. According to Long (1996, p. 414), negative feedback "obtained during NfM" can facilitate L2 development in relation to lexis, morphology, and syntax, and is "essential" when learning certain L1/L2 contrasts. But the pragmatic meaning of "you" was unresolved through negotiation, but the process helped the learners notice the different uses of the pronoun. This was despite the fact that there was no explicit instruction on the use of "you" during the class.

Words in English (or any language) can have a variety of meanings. Students may negotiate the intended meaning, as shown below:

(7) A1: "… refusing seconds" … what is "seconds"?
    B1: what? … second?
    A2: … seconds … not second
    C: …um…
    D: second …second call… no… second menu ... dessert
    B2: uh … second plate?
    A3: … oh maybe second plate … another dish

This conversation between students took place during group work in my classroom. The task was to discuss the contents of a passage from the book *Strategic reading 2* and prepare a presentation on it. A's repetition of the phrase "refusing seconds" (paragraph 4, p. 78) signals a clarification request. Here, the meaning of "seconds" is a second serving of food. The students are inferring the intended meaning by providing unspecified content related to the context. A was able to understand "seconds" via B2's provided enriched meaning, even though B2 and A3 use the non-standard "plate" and "dish" rather than "serving" or "helping".

Some learners are interested in the *way* something is said rather than *what* is being said. Consider the following:

(8) A1: um ... "He thought he was being polite by refusing seconds, when he should have followed my father's example, who made …"
    B1: what are you saying?
    A2: huuh
    C: he thought he was being polite by… uh, … however, he should have …
    A3: no … why is this sentence too long?
    D: … uh … but it's one sentence …
    B2: um … the writer's mind...?

Student A's repetition of the sentence from the text ("He thought he was being polite by refusing seconds, when he should have followed my father's example, who made …"; paragraph 4, p. 78) may have come about for a number of reasons. It is apparent in the example that student A is struggling with input, though it is unclear why; perhaps he is having difficulty understanding the sentence's meaning or is unable to comprehend its structure. His subsequent utterance, as shown in A3 above, helps to elucidate this confusion. Interlocutor C acknowledges A's struggle by interpreting the repetition as a request for an explanation of the sentence's structure. C provides this assistance by parsing the original complex sentence: he uses simple sentences and adds the conjunction "however" in order to make input comprehensible ("simplification" and "elaboration" in Long's (1996) term). That is, C uses his linguistic

knowledge to help A comprehend the text; however, A seems less concerned with the text's message and more with its delivery.

Intermediate learners can easily understand the meaning of sentences like these. However, some of them still have difficulty understanding the speaker's meaning. The following is a good example:

(9) A1: why does she say her dish has no flavor?

   B: she's saying … the dish has no taste because it is less salty to satisfy her taste

   C1: uh … she's just saying that …

   A2: … so?

   C2: she doesn't mean … you know …

Another group also discussed the same part of the text:

(10) A1: "This dish" is "not salty enough, no flavor" … what does she mean?

   B1: … right …

   C: she is saying … the dish is not delicious

   B2: oh no … people can say that … like … my mom always says her food doesn't taste good although it's very delicious

   D: uh? What?

   A2: really? my mother doesn't say that way … she says, "this is very delicious food, try it!" …

   B3: … it's … but … here …

A1's repetition of the sentence ("This dish not salty enough, no flavor"; paragraph 6, p. 78) in (10) does not occur due to some issue with the structure of the L2, because he added the missing verb ("is"), which is not in the original sentence, to the subject "dish." In (9) and (10), A1's questions do not originate from a lack of linguistic knowledge, although some of interlocutors' responses (B in (9) and C in (10)) relate to semantic knowledge.

A. Beyond Negotiation for Linguisitc (Semantic) Meaning: Intrusion of Gricean Maxims

According to Grice, people communicate by observing certain maxims (Grice, 1989, pp. 26–28) that allow them to meet one another's expectations. For instance, people are expected to speak truthfully, as expressed in the maxim of Quality, "do not say what you believe to be false," and succinctly, as in the maxim of Manner, "be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity)" (Grice, 1989, p. 27). The expectation that these maxims will be observed by a speaker seems to influence the listener in some cases of negotiation of meaning. Speaker A1 in (9) and (10) might have expected the speaker in the text to speak truthfully, and thus may have been confused when he encountered the situation described in the text. The passage the students were discussing was about a misunderstanding between a Chinese host and an American guest. The Chinese host, who is also a mother, says "This dish not salty enough, no flavor". The context involves Waverly, her daughter, inviting her American fiancé, Rich, to dinner with her parents. The family is Chinese but now lives in the United States. The mother's utterance is a display of the expression of a humble attitude that is commonly found to be part of Asian values. She would rather minimize her contribution to the dinner party than overtly express her belief that her food is really well prepared and delicious. Rather than observing the maxim of Quality, the mother expresses politeness by conforming to the maxim of Modesty ("minimize praise of self and maximize dispraise of self"; Leech, 1983, p. 136). But her meaning is intended to be interpreted as <*this food is really delicious, please enjoy yourselves*>. To Rich, the American boyfriend, however, the mother's utterance is likely to be taken literally in relation to his expectation that she is following the maxim of Quality. Accordingly, Rich provides a suggestion, saying "You know, all it needs is a little soy sauce" (paragraph 7, p. 78). However, from a Chinese perspective, his suggestion may be interpreted as criticism. Some of my students who encountered the Chinese family's reactions were confused, and, like Rich, did not understand the Chinese mother's meaning.[4]

If we accept Grice's (1975, 1989) distinction between "what is said" and "what is meant", or between linguistic meaning and pragmatic meaning in utterances, we can consider A1 in (9) and (10) to be examples of learners looking for the latter. Student A1's negotiation in these cases occurs due to the *partial* understanding of the utterance's meaning; his concern is with the pragmatic meaning and not with understanding the linguistic meaning. There is a low correlation between linguistic and pragmatic comprehension among language learners (Garcia 2004). As Garcia (2004, p. 1) asserts, the understanding of pragmatic meaning is important for overall understanding, in that "learners need to be able to understand a speaker's intentions; interpret a speaker's feelings and attitudes". Pragmatic comprehension involves a different set of skills than semantic comprehension, for example, recognition of implicatures; it includes comprehension of underlying meanings and recognition of "sarcasm and joking" (Garcia 2004). In this case, understanding the implicature of the utterances ("This dish not salty enough, no flavor", "You know, all it needs is a little soy sauce") requires specific knowledge about language use in Chinese culture and American culture.

Another example of initiating NfM in repetition can also be explained with reference to the Gricean maxim of communication. In (8) student A may have expected brevity, instead of a long sentence. Thus, the input is not consistent with A's expectation under the maxim of Manner, which he struggles to express (in the form of a clarification request). This may lead him to question beyond linguistic meaning, and start to think about the underlying meaning.

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[4]This example can be seen as a clash between the Quality maxim and the Modesty maxim. Rich's attitude might be seen as critical or rude in China but approved as an example of friendly banter (intended to build rapport) in the United States.

In summary, like most people, learners often have expectations about language use. If these expectations are not met, they can attempt to (re-)negotiate the meaning in a way that meets expectations. Often, some learners have difficulty understanding specific implicatures even without a complete communication breakdown.

B.   Clarification Requests, Metalinguistic Cues, and Exemplification as Adjustment

The initial turn in each of the above interactions relates to an implicit or explicit clarification request. The interlocutors readily use explicit clarification requests such as "what?" "what are you saying?" or "what are you thinking?". Contrary to Aston's (1986) claim, I do not think this indicates that learners regard NfM as a face-threatening act; it may instead be related to intimacy among group members. The speakers' reactions are multifarious; some speakers provide more comprehensible input by using paraphrase as a form of simplification or elaboration. This kind of feedback, however, fails to identify speaker A's intended question and respond in a way appropriate to it. Some acknowledge a disjuncture between sentence meaning and speaker meaning but are unable to articulate it fully, as in "she's just saying", "she doesn't mean", and "you know". One speaker avoids providing clear corrective feedback: "um … the writer's mind". In another case, an interlocutor provides information about his own mother's use of a specific expression as a response to A's question. Interestingly, some interlocutors use metalinguistic cues such as "people can say that", which acknowledge the difference between what people say and what they mean. The negotiation involved in the students' exchange in (10) is shown below:

(11) a. *Original L2 sentence*
       This dish not salty enough, no flavor.
    b. *Implicit clarification request as meaning adjustment*
       "This dish" is "not salty enough, no flavor" (repetition)
    c. *Explicit clarification request as meaning adjustment*
       what does she mean?
       why does she say?
    d. *Simplification as meaning adjustment*
       she is saying … the dish is not delicious
    e. *Metalinguistic cue as meaning adjustment*
       people can say that
       my mother doesn't say that way
    f. *Elaboration as meaning adjustment*
       she's saying … the dish has no taste because it is less salty to satisfy   her taste
    g. *Exemplification as meaning adjustment*
       like … my mom always says her food doesn't taste good although it's very delicious

As shown in (11d) the speaker deletes the word "salty" from the original sentence, and changes the phrase "no flavor" to "not delicious", in an application of semantic knowledge. In (11f), the speaker incorporates a consideration of the relationship between cause and result by adding "because". However, speaker A's problem has more to do with communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980) rather than linguistic competence.[5] The social perceptions underlying the speaker's use of language are related to sociopragmatic competence (Leech, 1983). Sociopragmatic knowledge helps them to interpret the host's meaning in situations where the host deliberately uses humble language to describe her well-prepared meal. In this case, due to a lack of sociopragmatic knowledge, some intermediate EFL students interpret the Chinese mother's utterance literally. Some students, who have been exposed to pragmatic input or acquired knowledge of discourse strategies, are able to adjust their perception of meaning by referring to other people's language use. They may not fully understand however, and use an utterance such as "like" as in (11g). Using 'like' exempts one from commitment to the truth of a statement (Channell, 1994). Some learners use language in a way that relies on their schematic knowledge when reading a dinner invitation as in (11e).

C.   Negotiation and Feedback as Aids to Inference of Speaker Meaning

The interactions shown in the above conversations do not focus on correcting errors; neither do they provide an answer. This is partly because the required comprehensibility is not related to structural linguistic problems such as problems of lexical meaning or structure. We have seen above that A's repetition and clarification requests can be influenced by the maxims of Quality and Manner, which govern conversation. This is related to expectations about language use, which leads listeners to look for implicit meaning. Lexical meanings can be found in a dictionary, and thus feedback on lexical issues can refer back to specified meanings—solid ground. It has been acknowledged that NfM makes input comprehensible and functions as a source of negative feedback (e.g., Long, 1996; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Oliver, 2000; Pica, 1994; Adams, 2007). In terms of pragmatic meaning, however, negotiation between NNSs does not seem to guarantee comprehensible input. Providing feedback for pragmatic meanings is much more difficult. The responses in (11b)–(11g) do not relate to corrective strategies in the sense that they are not followed by ungrammatical

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[5]According to Canale and Swain (1980), communicative competence must also consider pragmatic ability in a second or foreign language. Pragmatic ability for the language learner is "to be able to comprehend the pragmalinguistic action" and "also be able to produce it in a target language (TL) and following its cultural norms, using one's own pragmatic knowledge of a TL" (Yamashita, 2008, p. 202). For discussion of the teaching of pragmatics, see Ishihara & Cohen (2010, chapter 6).

utterances; and this is because learners at this level do not have enough expertise to correct these aspects of language use. The pragmatic knowledge we need occupies a different level of language use than semantic and linguistic knowledge (cf. Leech, 1983; Levinson, 1983; Thomas, 1995). EFL learners have been less exposed to pragmatic knowledge (cf. Thomas, 1983), so it is natural that they may be deficient in pragmatic ability. Accordingly, students may have lower expectations regarding their peers' feedback and may be more tolerant of incomplete understanding on their peers' part (for discussion regarding learners' expectations and the perception of feedback, see Sheen, 2004).

Feedback can, however, satisfy the desire for reciprocity by encouraging successful inference of meaning. Making sense of meaning requires complex cognitive inferencing (Sperber & Wilson, 1995; Carston, 2002). Although A's interlocutors do not provide solutions to some of his clarification requests, such feedback types as (11e) and (11g) may reveal language use in a different context or aspect. Thus, by identifying the context, speaker A may ascertain the (pragmatic) meaning. The examples shown above do not show modification of output on the part of the learners. This negotiation work may, however, encourage consciousness in the sense that learners are made aware of certain pragmatic features in the input.[6] This may be beneficial to the process of learning by fostering several goods, as follows.

● *Consideration of context and agent:* Students paid attention to the context of the expression during negotiation and feedback (as in Examples 7-10). This indicates that negotiation for (pragmatic) meaning may lead learners to recognize that a nonlinguistic problem can exist in a given case, and thus to emphasize both the context and the language user. When students scaffold their peers, some of them reflect a self-image as language users, rather than language learners. Thus, by engaging in this behavior, learners are taking advantage of the opportunity to approach language as a communicative tool to use, rather than as a resource or content to memorize.

● *Giving opportunities to notice use, meaning, and form:* Negotiation helped students realize that they were not familiar with the use of "you" exhibited in Example 6. This indicates that negotiation for (pragmatic) meaning encourages listening learners to recognize the purpose of a speaker in making a specific linguistic choice. Inferring an unspecified meaning also encourages learners to attend to form (as in the use of "seconds" in Example 7). This kind of acknowledgment of meaning and form will be essential when learners use language in real life outside of the classroom.

IV. CONCLUSION

This paper addresses a level of negotiation for meaning which is generated for reasons other than those that previous researchers have identified (such as linguistic problems or breakdowns of communication). The reasons for this difference have been explored from the language user's point of view. Key features of feedback as used in this particular type of meaning negotiation have been discussed, including clarification requests, metalinguistic cues, and exemplification. This discussion may ultimately help us find ways to better foster learners' communicative competence as part of their language development, including explicit pragmatics instruction. Additional research, however, will be necessary to further explore the complexities of NfM in relation to L2 proficiency and cultural difference and awareness.

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[6]According to Ellis (2002, p. 29) two kinds of linguistic awareness can be distinguished. The first relates to learners' coming to notice the "properties of the language" from input. The second relates to learners' output in terms of fostering the "explicit representation of a target form".

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Jiyon Cook is a lecturer in the department of English Literature and Linguistics at Sogang University, Seoul, Korea. She completed her Ph.D. in English Linguistics from Sogang University. She has taught General English, Linguistics related courses, and TESOL in various universities in Seoul. Her research interests include semantics, pragmatics, and second language learning.

A Lexical Analysis of an Inaugural Speech of the Speaker of Benue State House of Assembly in Nigeria

Akinkurolere Susan Olajoke
Department of General Studies, Rufus Giwa Polytechnic, Owo, Ondo State, Nigeria;
Department of English, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Osun State, Nigeria

Abstract—**Language of Nigerian politics has been given attention in previous studies from various linguistic approaches such as pragmatics, pragma-stylistics, stylistic, syntax and discourse strategies. However, most of the research works that border on the political speeches are mainly concerned with the speeches of the executive leaders in Nigeria. This study, therefore, investigated the pattern and functions of lexical devices in the Inaugural speech of the Speaker of State House of Assembly as an avenue to expand the frontiers of knowledge on language of politics by legislators. The data were drawn from the speech of the Speaker of Benue State House of Assembly (2011-2013) and analysed based on the Lexical Cohesion theory of Halliday and Hassan (1976). The study reflected that legislators employed lexical cohesive devices such as repetition, synonymy, antonym, collocation, superordination to achieve certain purposes such as interconnectivity, directness, emphasis, appreciation and appeal in the process of negotiating meaning in their use of language.**

Index Terms—**lexis, linguistic, stylistic, cohesion, legislature**

I. INTRODUCTION

The legislative branch is one of the three branches of government in Nigeria, others are the executive branch and judiciary branch. The legislative arm of government is important as it is the arm responsible for making and changing laws. These laws are made effective by the executive while the judiciary interpret the laws of the country. The legislative branch of government in Nigeria is tasked with symbolic functions, most of which are accomplished through the avenue opened up by language because they use language to debate legislative issues such as passing of bills. Consequently, the network of language usually provides the tool for making formulating laws and policies that govern a given state, including Nigeria.

A critical survey of the legislative structure of state government in Nigeria as a country portends a cliché of lawmakers that it is made up of individuals that represent different constituencies at the state level. Each state is usually divided into electoral units known as constituencies. Hence, the lawmakers, who are specifically referred to as legislatures are led by '*The Speaker*' in all legislative functions. Ojo (1973) identify certain legislative functions which include but are not limited to 'checking the Executive by questioning, policy criticism, annual budget criticism, motion of censure'. The various legislative functions can be summed up as basically three: representation, making laws and oversight functions according to Section 4 of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. All legislative procedures from passing bills to moving motions depend largely on language use.

Be it as it may, a legislature is an elected member whether at the federal level or state level. Each State House of Assembly or State Parliament is headed by a Speaker, who presides over the legislative functions of the House just there exists a *Senate President* in the Senate and a *Speaker* in the House of Representatives at the Federal level in Nigeria. The government structure in Nigeria is akin to the British structure of government. The reason for this is perhaps based on the fact that Nigeria was colonized by the British (Kolawole 1998).

Inaugural speeches are precisely the first speeches presented by people occupying leadership positions. In Nigeria, such speeches serve as a major means of winning people's hearts after a major selection, election, or appointment is announced or confirmed. Especially, to people that were not initially in support of such candidates either by signifying express disapproval or by not casting their votes. More so, leaders know the level of acceptance from the result of votes cast for and against them after election. The presentation of inaugural speeches further serves as a diplomatic means of selling new leadership to the people or subjects.

The Inaugural Speech of the Speaker of State House of Assembly can also be referred to as Acceptance Speech, as the speech serves different purposes: to make the appointed Speaker lay claim to leadership; to make other legislators accept his selection; and to commence assignment as Speaker by performing linguistic acts. An Inaugural Speech could also be regarded as a Maiden Speech. Usually, a maiden speech is popular as the first speech delivered by military rulers on assumption of power which are meant to inaugurate the government and prepare the ground for their consolidation (Ayeomoni 2007).

The socio-political history of Nigeria has revealed various crises that have followed the emergence of candidates that were not acceptable by a major minority of the people. Against this background, Nigeria has over four hundred languages from various ethnic groups divided into six geo-political zones, hence, the nation is susceptible to political crises which have heated up the polity of Nigeria many times. By implication, inaugural speeches are meant to promote and make leadership acceptable to the people through the avenue opened up by language, when this fails; or is not done properly or accordingly to achieve a desirable effects, a leadership crisis cannot be ruled out.

It is essential that all legislators are duly elected to represent their constituencies in the States House of Assembly. Each member is qualified to be appointed as a Speaker. Several instances abound whereby a Speaker is removed by a majority of the legislators, and immediately replaced with another legislator. In Delta State, the speaker has been changed two times in the 2011-2013 Assembly. Therefore, leadership tussles and crises are major factors affecting the socio-political development, whether at the state or federal level in Nigeria. But, when dialogue or communication works effectively through the resource of language, such a leadership crisis can be averted.

Though one cannot rule out the possibilities that most of the political speeches were not personally written by the Speakers, at the same time, one cannot deny the fact that they are the originators of the messages. The writers only employed language to encode their various thoughts and ideas. More so, nobody will deliver a speech that is against his wish, opinion or intention. Hence, the concept of 'ghost writing' which Johnson (1988) cited in Ayeomoni (2007) is referred to as a problem does not really pose difficulties in the lexical analysis of speeches of government functionaries.

Language is distinctively a human phenomenon. In fact, Akinkurolere (2013) argues that language as the best gift to man is as old as man himself. More so, the society at large depends so much on language for its continual existence; this is to say that survival of an individual will be difficult without language. Once an individual acquires a language, it becomes the greatest tool in his hand as a social being. No wonder, Akindele and Adegbite (1999) define language as a system of sound or vocal symbols by which human beings communicate experience. Considering this definition, it is therefore obvious that language is not an end on its own but a means to an end.

In Nigeria, the English language serves as an alternative to indigenous languages. Opeibi (2009) posits that English serves as the language of wider communication in the socio-political context of the Nigerian nation. It is obvious that the English language is employed in political activities such as campaign, election, speeches, meeting, etc. As such, language has been a powerful tool in the hands of political leaders as they manipulate the tool to suit their purposes since politics is basically about struggling to control power. Then, it is only through language that such could be accomplished, thereby making language a very strong political weapon.

The English language functions from the field of education to other spheres, politics inclusive, within and outside Nigeria. Owusu-Ansah and Torto (2013) posit that, in Ghana, English serves 'as the language of formal education, English had to be learned at school. Without it, there could be no full participation in the social, economic and political life of the urban societies that were emerging…political, social and economic prestige was attached to English alone'. We are not oblivious of the fact that major indigenous languages function along side with the English language in Nigeria polity. Thus, Ayeomoni (2012) rightly observes this and submits thus:

The three major languages in Nigeria perform official functions side by side with the English language. They are used in some cases for conduct of business in the civil service, law, commerce and education and other official domains. For instance, English, Hausa, Igbo, Yoruba are allowed for the conduct of legislative functions in the States' Houses of Assembly in Nigeria. They also play a prominent role in education in recent years.

The various functions allotted to the English language and various other indigenous languages are clearly stipulated in the National Policy on Education (NPE) and the Constitution. Despite the fact that the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria that major indigenous languages should function with English language in the legislative houses. In implementation, documentations in legislative houses are done though the English language solely. Ayeomoni (2012) argues that 'as far as the written mode is concerned, English can be said to be the predominant language at all levels of government'. He further posits that government publication and documents are published in English and so we experience isolated cases of records in the indigenous languages.

Languages spoken in Nigeria are many to the extent that the actual figure is not clear but it falls within the range of 450 and 500 (Omodiagbe 1992, Adegbite 2010 and Ayeomoni 2012). These languages perform various functions. Majorly, three indigenous languages are given official status in Nigeria. The fact remains that various instances of political rallies and campaigns are characterized with the use of indigenous languages apart from the three major ones.

One basic function of language as a social activity is that it serves as instrument of making laws that govern day to day human interactions. The legislative system provides one of the contexts through which this function is carried out. Legislative discourse is a sub type of political discourse and thus, legislative speech is one of the legislative discourses. Legislators as political actors are meant to perform appropriate linguistic acts, in a preordained sequence, and within the context of the procedural expectations of legislative sittings (Oyeleye and Ayodele 2012).

The speeches of the speakers in Nigeria reflect features of legislators' speeches as politicians and law makers. The importance of speeches in politics can never be over emphasized as Adeyanju (2009) acknowledges this and opines that 'right from the colonial era to date, eminent personalities in the nation's political landscape have made notable speeches that have had a long lasting effect not only on individual, but also on the destiny of the entire nation'.

Objectives of the Study

The study aims at investigating a lexical enquiry into the Inaugural Speech of Speaker of Benue State House of Assembly in Nigeria as a distinct variety of political speech. Thus, the main thrust of this research is to achieve the following objectives:

i) to identify the lexical features of the speech;

ii) to analyse the identified features of the speech; and

iii) to determine how the analysed features project the messages in the speech as a political speech.

Linguistic Approach

Diverse options in linguistics are opened to any scholar embarking on research on language of politics. It ranges from sociolinguistic, psycholinguistic, discourse analysis, linguistic- stylistic, stylo-semantic, grapho-syntactic, pragmatic to stylistic. However, this study is based on the approach of Linguistic-stylistics as modern linguistic approach derived from the field of stylistics. This approach has been tested and adjudged reliable for analyzing and interpreting discourses (Dada 2012, Friday-Otun 2004). The Inaugural speech of Benue State Speaker in Nigeria offers a rich data for stylistic analysis. There is the need to define stylistics as an insight into the research paper.

Stylistics is a sub-linguistic field that grew out of the work of great scholars like Sebeok (1960), Fowler (1966), Leech (1969) and Freeman (1971) in the second half of the twentieth century (Ayeomoni 2007). Alan B.et al (1988) gives an all encompassing definition on the concept of style and stylistics thus:

A branch of linguistics which studies the characteristics of situationally distinctive uses of languages with reference to literary language, and tries to establish principles capable of accounting for the particular choices made by individuals and social groups in their use of language.

Communication occurs in diverse ways and manners. So also, individuals and community have particular ways of utilizing language. Hence, the peculiar way and manner through which language is utilized by an individual or community is style. It is observable that in studying the style of any language, linguists attempt to account for all the linguistic devices that serve specific purposes in the text.

In essence, Language does not occur in vacuum, but in context. There various and different contexts such as court, church, marketplace, school, hospital, politics and several others through which language is utilized. Thus, the context has a great influence on the choice made as 'style' at every level of language consideration.

II. METHODOLOGY

The linguistic framework of any linguistic research serves as the tool for the analysis of data. Legislators perform linguistic acts in the process of performing their statutory functions. Oyeleye and Ayodele (2012) aver that the linguistic acts performed by legislators are reflective of their political role as law makers and politicians. Although, we acknowledge the fact that linguistic acts are important in speeches of legislators, but more important are the lexical choices made in the process of performing the acts, which are of high significance. It is this background that informed the choice of the theoretical framework for this study as the lexical cohesion of Halliday and Hasan (1976).

The data for the present research were drawn from the Inaugural Speech of Speaker of Benue State House of Assembly in Nigeria. Precisely, the Assembly of 2011 to 2013 was chosen as it is the current assembly all over Nigeria. It is pertinent to state that the data was got from State House of Assembly Hazard where such Inaugural speech is usually documented. The data is adjudged suitable be considered for lexical analysis based on its length since it comprises about 1,300 words apart from the title. The present study is adopting a linguistic-stylistic approach that goes beyond superficial analysis to an in-depth method of capturing meaning through lexical analysis. Lexical cohesion of Halliday and Hasan (1976) serves as the framework for the purpose of enhancing our interpretation of meaning as the lexical choices of the texts are context-influenced. Thus, the speech is subjected to analysis in line with the empirical goal of data within the ambit of linguistic-stylistics.

The purposive choice of Systemic Functional Linguistics as the grammatical model for this study is premised on the fact that it enables linguists to account for the forms and functions of language as Bloor and Bloor (2004) posit that' For Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), a language is a 'system of meanings'. That is to say that, when people use language, their language acts produce or more technically construct meaning'.

III. RESULT AND ANALYSIS

The lexical analysis was based on Halliday and Hasan (1976). Its choice was based on the relevance to the subject matter and the intention to limit the focus of the work. The lexical cohesion ties that manifest in the whole speech are identified and classified according to Halliday and Hasan (1976) schema of lexical cohesion. Lexical cohesion provides for identification of lexical items or words that have relationship in one way or the other. The speech for this study is a discourse that is made up words based on the choices of the Speaker. Therefore a schema that is based on words is important to the study of the speech as a political speech. The lexical cohesion devices that were explored in the data according to Halliday and Hassan (1976) analysis are: Repetition, Synonymy, Antonymy, Superordination and Collocation. The following tables represent the lexical cohesion devices, words employed and their frequencies.

TABLE 1
THE RESULT OF REPETITION TERMS

Serial	Simple Repetition Terms	Frequencies
1.	members	8
2.	house of assembly	2
3.	speaker	5
4.	legislature	3
5.	responsibility	2
6.	congratulate	2
7.	last four years	2
8.	God	8
9.	opportunity	7
10.	elected	2
11.	state	3
12.	trust	2
13.	constituency	3
14.	seventh assembly	4
15.	His Excellency	4
16.	address	2
17.	collaborate	2
18.	ladies & gentlemen	3
19.	privileged	2
20.	doubt	2
21.	colleagues	2
22.	parliament	2
23.	staff	3
24.	endeavours	2
25.	thank	3
26.	party	4
27.	legislators	2
28.	let	2
29.	me	2
30.	leadership	2
31.	agenda	4
32.	assembly	13
33.	people	3
Total	**33**	**114**

TABLE 2

Serial	Complex Repetition Terms	Frequencies
1.	development… developmental	2
2.	legislature … legislation …legislations	8
3.	honourable … hon.	2
4.	develop…developmental… development	4
5.	strength … strengthening	2
6.	trained … training	2
7.	appreciate … appreciates …appreciation	6
8.	member … members	2
9.	priviledge … priviledged	2
10.	constituency … constituents	2
11.	elected … election … reelection	5
12.	responsibility … responsibilities	3
13.	lawyer … lawyers	2
Total	**13**	**42**

TABLE 3
THE RESULT SYNONYMY TERMS

Serial	Synonym Terms	Frequencies
1.	legislative… parliament	1
2.	legislators … lawmakers	2
3.	consolidate … collaborate	1
4.	problems … challenges	1
5.	understands… appreciate	1
6.	efficient… competent	1
7.	congratulate … salute	2
8.	gratitude … appreciation	1
9.	the leadership …the speaker	1
10.	opportunity …priviledge	1
11.	first … foremost	1
12.	rare… exceptional	1
13.	trust … confidence	1
14.	deeply …sincerely	1
15.	state … say	1
16.	filed … industries	1
17.	assembly … hallowed chamber	1
18.	dynamic… hardworking	1
19.	unprecedented … monumental	1
Total	**19**	**21**

TABLE 4
THE RESULT ANTONYMY TERMS

Serial	Antonymy Terms	Frequencies
1.	last … another… first	3
2.	doubt … trust	3
3.	like … hesitation	1
Total	**3**	**7**

TABLE 5
THE RESULT OF SUPERORDINATE TERMS

Serial	Superordinate Terms	Frequencies
1.	lawyers … businessmen … captain of industries	1
2.	6th assembly /7th assembly 1st… 5th assembly	6
3.	PDP … CAN	2
Total	**3**	**19**

TABLES 6
THE RESULT OF COLLATION TERMS

Serial	Collation Terms	Frequencies
1.	Governor… His Excellency… tenure… political party	1
2.	party… men … women… associates	3
3.	separation of powers… checks and balances	3
4.	legislators … legislative agenda … chamber … assembly	16
5.	staff … training	4
6.	speaker … deputy speaker … legislators	6
Total	**5**	**43**

TABLE 7

TYPES OF LEXICAL DEVICE		NUMBER OF WORDS	FREQUENCIES
Repetition		47	156
Synonymy		19	21
Antonymy		3	7
Superordination		3	19
Collocation		5	43
Total	**number of lexical ties**	**77**	
Total	**number of sentences**	**35**	
Total	**number of frequencies**	**246**	
	Mean ties per sentence	**7.02**	

IV. DISCUSSIONS

From Tables 1 – 7, we observed that the five categories of lexical devices manifested in the Speaker's speech. Repetition in this study was divided into two for a clear interpretation: Simple and complex repetition. It was obvious from both simple and complex repetition tables that words that relate to the field of legislature are frequently repeated. Though, instances of simple repetition identified are more that of complex repetition. The reason for this is not far fetched as the Speaker had a large audience which cuts across all walks of life to address. He therefore needed to ensure

simplicity as much as possible. The use of repetition in speech enhanced clarity and emphasis. In fact, words such as 'members', 'Assembly' and 'God' are words with higher frequency under simple repetition. This implies that the Speaker gave prominence to God as a major determinant of whatever happened in the lives of members and people of the state. At the same time, he ensured that he gave due recognition and reference to members of the Assembly, each of which is qualified to be appointed to the position of Speaker.

Wu (2010) opines that such could achieve special rhetorical effect such as the repetition of a word in a sentence. The speaker repeated Benue State in the first sentence of his speech thus:

A while ago, distinguished Honourable members of the *Benue State* House of Assembly gave me the exceptional opportunity and privilege to lead them as Speaker of the Seventh *Benue State* Legislature.

Apart from the rhetorical effect, there is emphasis on Benue State, this implies that the speech is important, relates and central to the Assembly of Benue State. As such, repetition whether simple or complex is a ready tool in the hands of the Speaker as a political leader as he wishes to make himself understood by his colleagues and public. Repetition, whether simple or complex, makes less room for synonyms. That is, synonyms are alternatives to repetitions. It is clear from the speech that the Speaker employed 177 instances of repetition. Hence, there is high dependence on repetition. This further demonstrates the level of competence the Speaker based on his knowledge of vocabulary.

There were 19 instances of synonymy and 3 instances of antonymy in the Speaker's speech. The skillful use of synonymy enhances rhetorical device in parallelism in order to avoid repetition (Wales 1989). It is observed that the Speaker might have actually avoided the use of repetition in the few instances of synonyms. But, instances of synonyms are just about 11% of instances of repetition. More so, the Speaker employed the use of synonymys which is mostly in form of coupling; 'first and foremost', 'deeply and sincerely', 'dynamic and hardworking', and the likes for the purpose of enhancing and emphasizing meaning in the speech. This demonstrates simplicity which is greatly desired on such occasion considering the linguistic background of majority of the people that attended the inauguration ceremony. Most of the people are Tiv/English Bilinguals that learnt English language as second language. Therefore, the Speaker needed to be as simple as possible since the speech was written and delivered in English, which is the official language in Nigeria.

It is important to state that synonym as 'sameness in meaning of words' and antonymy as 'opposite in meaning of words' were employed by the Speaker to create variability in meaning in the process of passing across his messages. It is more important to emphasise the fact these instances were rather too few for such a speech, but for the linguistic background of the audience in the state. This implies that the status of English language among other languages in the environment directly influences choices made by the Speaker, especially at this lexical level which the lexical cohesion schema has brought to fore. Though, the essence of communication is for the message to be understood. The skillful employment of more instances of synonyms when compared to antonyms is highly significant for meaning in the speech. It is a way of enabling deeper understanding of lexical items utilized in the process of passing across the goodwill messages as a newly elected Speaker of the Benue State House of Assembly.

Instances of superordination and collocation are few compared to repetition and synonyms, yet, they have contributed in no small measure towards cohesion in the speech. Thus, achieving one major function of cohesion in discourse, that is, enabling readers or listeners to rely on continuity that eventually creates interconnecting relationships of words in the process of filling the missing information, by this, lexical devices that manifested in the Inaugural speech of the Speaker enhanced the interpretation of the speech as a legislative discourse.

V. CONCLUSION

In the study of political speeches, one of the major theories that have been effective and adequate for analysis is lexical cohesion theory. It provides the framework for researchers to explore the connectedness between what is said and the effects such achieve through the choice of lexis. The connectedness that is brought to fore in lexical analysis is not important for its own sake but for its usefulness in aiding meaning. As observed from the research paper, it was realised that the use of lexical cohesive devices makes a legislature discourse to be easily interpreted as result of the predominant use of indigenous language in the state to cater for different parties with different linguistic background from Tiv ethnic group because the audience were predominantly people of Benue. These lexical devices emphasize feelings, expressions for purpose of clarification.

No doubt, the lexical analysis of the Inaugural speech of a Nigeria Speaker from the linguistic - stylistic approach through the framework of lexical cohesion has added an academic contribution to debates that bother on political speeches in Nigeria and lexical cohesion. Hence, it is therefore recommended that further researchers should beam their searchlight on other speeches of Speakers in Nigeria. Also, linguistic approaches that differ from linguistic-stylistics could be applied to Speakers' speeches. Subsequent researchers could also throw light on linguistic- stylistic approach through other frameworks.

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Akinkurolere Susan Olajoke was born at Ogori, Kogi State, Nigeria on 23rd March, 1980. Susan graduated with a Second Class Upper Degree from the Department of English, University of Ado-Ekiti, Ekiti State, Nigeria in 2002, M.A. English Language from Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria in 2012 with specialization in the field of stylistics and pragmatics and currently, a Doctoral Research Student in the Department of English, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife.

She worked as English language teacher after National Youth Service Corps (NYSC) Scheme before she was employed as an Assistant lecturer and currently Lecturer II in the Department of Languages, Rufus Giwa Polytechnic Owo, Ondo State, Nigeria. She has over fifteen local and International published articles. Among which are:

• Akinkurolere Susan O. (2013) 'Students' Perception on the Use of Humor in the Teaching of English as a Second Language in Nigeria'. *International Education Research*. Science and Education Centre of North America. 1, 2: 65-73.

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She is interested in the fields of applied linguistics, discourse analysis, multimodal discourse analysis, pragmatics and stylistics. She is currently working on pragma-stylistic features of speeches of Speakers of in Nigeria.

Mrs Akinkurolere is a member of Association of Nigeria Authors (ANA) and Development Studies Association, UK. Currently, she is the Assistant Secretary of ANA, Ondo State Chapter and also, a reviewer with Online International Journal of Arts and Humanities (OIJAH).

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Supamit Chanseawrassamee
TOT Academy, TOT Public Company Limited, Thailand

Abstract—With the approaching full form of ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) in 2015, while some Thais may still keep their traditional way of living, but many others have to be faced with English requirements, especially in the internationally competitive arena of global trade and business. Both the unemployed and the employed have to accordingly adjust themselves to the ongoing change in terms of linguistic competence. Nonetheless, there is rare research delving into how Thai adults learn to translate from Thai to English. This paper thus aims to report the attempt and learning process of a group of employees who tried to upgrade their English proficiency to cope with such significant alteration. Conducted with 18 adult learners, this qualitative research study used a questionnaire, a follow-up informal talk, and a comparison of the participants' final examinations at intermediate and advanced level. The training course was provided at a state-owned telecommunication company in Thailand. At the time of the study, the subjects' average age was 46.6 years. The research findings revealed that translation practices could help these learners to develop a higher degree of English proficiency after the one-and-a-half-year translation course.

Index Terms—Thai-English translation, adult learner, in-house training

I. INTRODUCTION

Despite the ever-increasing need for English demand in global communication at work, especially in international telecommunication companies, there is currently little research on English-Thai translation or proficiency. The forthcoming ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) in 2015 is said to be a dominant force for many Thais, if not all, to learn English in a more meaningful manner as English will be used as the international language in AEC communication and documentation. With the slogan "One Vision, One Identity, One Community," the skilled labor and professional experts can cross the borders more legally and conveniently, whereby an exchange of personnel appears more smoothly and widely for the affluence of this region (Association of Southeast Asian Nations, 2009, pp. 29-30). One standard that all these labors and professionals have to reach is the English proficiency, though.

A dramatic increase of concern about Thai-English bilingual capability became clear through a steady increase in English programs. According to the report compiled by the Office of the Educational Council (2004), there were 46 international schools (elementary and secondary private schools where only English is used in their curricula) in 1999, 67 in 2002, and 89 in 2003. Likewise, higher education (both private and public) provided by universities, institutions, colleges or other types of institutions had 356 international programs in 1999, 465 in 2002, and 521 in 2003 (p. 149). These figures evidence an increase in demand for high English proficiency in order to cope with the upcoming enforcement of AEC Agreement in 2015.

Another piece of tangible proof is that more and more Thai government agencies and private sectors call for their applicants' score of 550+ TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) as an essential precondition for job application eligibility. According to the document on Strategy in Production and Developing Workforce of the Nation in the Second Decade of Education Reform from 2009 to 2018 reported by the Office of the Educational Council, Ministry of Education, newly-emerging industries require people with high proficiency in foreign languages with economic significance including English, Chinese, Japanese, or Southeast Asian languages (2011, p. 13). The number does not only represent the growing requirements for high English competence achievement, but also the propensity of Thai society to become more and more Thai-English bilingual rather than Thai monolingual as in the old days. According to Wimolchalao (2000), Thai-English translation is even more salient when being used as a recruitment examination for job applicants for government and/or state-owned enterprise jobs (p. 7). Graduates with honors, but with low English proficiency, may also struggle for well-paid jobs in the current labor market, where high level of English proficiency is determined the top priority.

This paper therefore will begin with a brief overview of adult-learner theories and some viewpoints of the participants in the current study. After that, AEC, as the most important factor which calls for a high level of English proficiency, will be discussed. The author also provides the nature of her translation course as well textbooks and activities offered to her adult students in the methodological section. The final outcomes come last.

II. ADULT LEARNERS

Unlike young learners, adults are exceptional as they will learn only when the materials or lessons mesh together with their real-life experience and expectations (*see* Crandall, 1979; Nunan, 1999; Burt, Peyton, & Adams, 2003). "Adults who need English for access to technical texts or training for employment have a strong motivation to acquire

the language" (Crandall, 1979, p. 7). If the lessons are unfitted for this age group of students' belief, present concerns, or life experiences, such materials may hamper their learning progress or even impose some negative impact on the learners' success (Nunan, 1999, p. 15). Based on the questionnaire distributed on July 18, 2013, the same attitude toward English learning is also evidenced by the participants' viewpoint. Many students in the present study mentioned that they take great pleasure from enrolling in this Thai-English translation course because the course positively affects their jobs in numerous ways, as follows:

— The course provides me with friendship which can become connections at work. Coordination, cooperation and assistance in the team lead to work success. I can apply these experiences to my work and my team.

— Knowledge I gained from this course is a way to teach others to learn by doing. This strategy can be applied to my work and my daily life.

— Looking around me, difficulties and problems—be they minor or major—always arise, but what I learned from the course is that I have to myself handle all obstacles in my life and at work efficiently and happily. I can clear all hurdles in my life. After that, I feel great with myself and my progress. English was once something I hated, but now English taught me to become more confident as I can do something I once couldn't. English proficiency I gained is not just an academic subject, but a proof for my determination, which can change my negative world to a surprising degree.

— I can speak in front of the public without nervousness any longer. When I was scolded or yelled at by the customers, I would not feel anything any more. I am brave to be faced with anything coming to me—be they rude customers or tough jobs. Ideas got from translation—e.g. systematic cognitive thinking, teamwork, etc.—can be applied to my job and my family life.

— This course taught me to learn from and correct my own mistakes. It made me feel more determined to complete my work routines nicely. I learn to know myself, my capability, and do my best. This is very important to my future. I also gain more confidence in my English writing for my department.

— I learn to know that doing anything can be a good way of self-development. This means that we have to try our best all the time in everything we're doing—whatever it is. A vast variety of translation texts must be related to my work so that I can apply them to my real-life jobs [July 18, 2013].

All these comments are focused on the significance of relationship between the course content and the participants' work. Such comments are thus put as the first goal of this translation course. In other words, all texts, activities, and materials must provide these participants good applications to their work. The comments made by the participants in this study are real and clearly conform to gurus in this field.

As mentioned above, Thai education has drastically changed during the past ten years, it is interesting to know how translation can become a way for Thais to become Thai-English bilinguals in the following year—2015.

III. Translation from Thai to English

There are many translation experts, e.g. John Cunnison Catford (1965), Peter Newmark (1981), Woranart Wimolchalao (2000), Supannee Pinmanee (2006), Siribuppa Utarntada (2006), Associate Professor Sunchawee Saibua (2007), and Hui-Chen Wang (2013), among many others. The author started to become a translator 30 years ago. Thirty years has passed and this is the first time of her teaching translation. To prepare herself, the author hence studies these gurus' way of teaching. Interestingly, these gurus concur with the concept that translation is hard to both translation students and instructors.

Catford defined translation as "the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)" (p. 20). Likewise, Newmark (1987) asserted that "translation is a craft consisting in the attempt to replace a written message and/or statement in one language by the same message and/or statement in another language" (p. 7). Saibua (2007) stated that a good translator should have four characteristics: (1) outstanding ability in source language (SL) and target language (TL), (2) background knowledge of the SL text, (3) ability to replace the SL writer, and (4) writing skills (p.15). Based on these experts' definitions, the first difficulty translators are faced with is the fact that it is difficult to be balance their bilingual ability in the two languages—SL (Source Language) and TL (Target Language). Utarntada (2006) concurred that good translators should be competent in vocabulary, idiom, grammar, word order, and linguistic culture of the two languages, i.e. SL and TL. The present paper will hence look into these areas of English development gained from learning to translate.

Newman (1981) classified translation into (1) SL emphasis—which tends to be word-for-word or literal translation and (2) TL emphasis—which tends to be freer and more communicative translation. Many translation students always complained why they need to do the SL way first because in reality, they may need to accomplish the TL emphasis more. Wimolchalao (2000) and Pinmanee (2006) proposed that if translation teachers want their students to become good translators, the teachers should teach their students to know the grammar and structure of the TL first. When they become more competent translators, they can do what they want. Wimolchalao (2000) emphasized the importance of translation that it is a subject which enables students to demonstrate this ability directly in their daily life and job. Many workplaces also use translation as a way to measure the applicant's English proficiency (p. 7). Wang (2013) agreed that translation can help raise her students' English proficiency and is set as one of Taiwan's educational goals. Because of such importance, students should be well prepared with good grammar.

More importantly, as Thai and English are dissimilar in countless features, translation teachers should explain such differences to their students at the first place (Wimolchalao, 2000; Pinmanee, 2006; Utarntada, 2006, Saibua, 2007). For more details about differences between Thai and English structures, it would be wise to go and look up in the dissertation produced by Chanseawrassamee (2007). Following Wimolchalao (2000) and Pinmanee (2006), the author paved a strong foundation for her students by providing lessons on English grammar and structure along with their translation practices. The issue of the lessons and materials used in the present course will be discussed in a more detailed manner under Section IV Methodology.

IV. ASEAN ECONOMIC COMMUNITY (AEC)

As a State Member, Thailand, where multilingualism or multiculturalism has long been highly lauded, has warmly embraced the new economic requirements in rich varieties of realms, especially employment and education. Although Thailand has never been colonized, English—*a world language*—has been taught to Thais fundamentally for economic and trading reasons (Fasold, 1987, p. 10). In Thailand, at least one foreign language is compulsory for all students (Pufahl, Rhodes, & Christian, 2001) and that language is English. For the time being, AEC has become a new requirement for English proficiency. The National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB) accordingly specified in its Eleventh Plan that Thailand must make some arrangements to conform to such regional unity. "All Thais should realize the significance and potential impact of the AEC. The competitiveness of business should be enhanced and benefit from the AEC. Labor force skills that are in great demand in the AEC market should be developed. Regulations and institutional management should be made to comply with ASEAN's rules" (Office of the National Economic and Social Development Board, 2013, pp. 18-19). Such stipulation entails the necessity for Thai citizens to be able to use English as a communicative tool in their daily life and at work. Thai-English bilingualism will become the social norm. Currently, it is not unusually surprising to see street vendors, pharmacists, house maids, cleaners, cashiers, and even security guards, speaking English fluently with non-Thai customers. Taxi drivers who wish to serve foreign customers at the airport must at least pass an English test to be licensed as well.

For employment, both government and private sectors have begun assessing and hiring foreign staff from Cambodia, Myanmar, and Viet Nam. Similarly, Thai applicants must have the 650+ TOEIC score. For conglomerates like PTT and its subsidiaries, their employees can move upward the career ladder when they achieve 850+ TOEIC scores. In addition to language requirements for promotion, if existing employees want to apply for the company's scholarship for higher education abroad, they need very high TOEFL scores. In Japan, the TOEIC score is very important for both employment and admission to a master's degree. At leading Japanese universities, high TOEFL scores can guarantee a seat for the applicant. Two exemplars of this idea can be found in the works of Wimolchalao (2000) and Chanseawrassamee (2012).

In the current study, the author looks particularly into how a group of employees at a leading telecommunication company become more competent in English via translation. At their average age of 46, it is interesting to know their learning process, materials they use, and the progress they can make. It is also remarkable to discern how they perceive the course in terms of their English development and their career advancement. This is an obvious attempt of a company to endeavor to develop their employees to be on a par with the standard of the current labor market.

V. METHODOLOGY

A. Nature of the Thai-English Translation Course at TOT Academy

The Basic, Intermediate, and Advanced Thai-English Translation (T-ET) courses are a free-of-charge three-course series which is provided to TOT employees. TOT Academy is the training center which belongs to TOT Public Company Limited—a leading state-owned telecommunication under the supervision of the Ministry of Information and Communication Technology (MICT). The entire English translation course takes approximately one and a half years. Each level takes 120 hours. In each course, the class meets once a week for 6 hours per day (from 9 to 16 hrs) for 20 weeks. The course is provided at the company's training center for the purpose of pulling out the students from their routines. Nevertheless, in an urgent case, students are permitted to go back to work because the training center is about 15-30 minutes far from the headquarters.

The Basic Thai-English Translation course ran from September 1, 2011 to March 8, 2012. This course was interrupted by the mega flood from October to December in 2011; the course was postponed until the following year. Because this is a mixed-ability class, students had to adjust themselves to level first. During the basic course, students' grammatical foundation was first paved by the book, "Grammar Builder: A grammar guidebook for students of English" (2004) published by Cambridge University Press. The *Grammar Builder* series consists of five books. Books 1 and 2 were used during the basic level. The first book was used in class, while the second was distributed to students to work on during the flood so that they did not forget English when they were away from school. The other topics of lessons include Thai-English transliteration rules, good English readings, writing skills like parallelism, capitalization, punctuation markers, etc. Weekly in-class assignments involved translating newspaper articles, advertisements, brochures, announcements, to mention a few.

The Intermediate Thai-English Translation course ran from May 10 to September 27, 2012. The students went back to the center. As students became familiar with the *Grammar Builder* series, they were assigned to do the drills at home themselves. After they finished each book, they submitted their book and the book was then checked by the instructor—the author in this study. Their grammar gradually progressed. At this level, students learned about English idioms, sentence improvement, vocabulary words, etc. To enlarge the students' vocabulary repository, they were assigned to read four books comprising: (1) *The Present* written by Spencer Johnson (2003, 2004), (2) *Freedom Is Blogging in Your Underwear* by Hugh MacLeod (2012), (3) *Do you want to keep your customers forever?*—The Harvard Business Review Classics series by B. Joseph Pine II, Don Peppers, and Martha Rogers (2009), and (4) *Managing Oneself*—The Harvard Business Review Classics series by Peter F. Drucker (2008). At the end of this intermediate course, students took the finals on September 27, 2012.

The Advanced Thai-English Translation course ran from February 28 to July 25, 2013. To enrich their vocabulary, students were assigned to read the three-book series: Well Read 1-3 published by Oxford University Press (2008). To formulate their grammatical concepts, students did the drills in the Grammar Links Levels 1-3 published by Heinle, Cengage Learning (2005). For in-class activities, students translated Thai texts into English, ranging from articles, PowerPoint slides, exhibitions, captions, poems, songs.

In this study, the author acted both as the participatory researcher and the teacher of the translation course. She thus compiled the finals taken on September 27, 2012 and July 25, 2013 to see if there was any significant change or development in her students. A one-page questionnaire was distributed on July 18, 2013—the penultimate week—of the advanced translation class. Students were asked to complete the questionnaire in either Thai or English as they wished, but they all preferred Thai. For the betterment of the course in the future, students were asked to express themselves in terms of benefits or drawback of the course.

B. Nature of the Thai-English Translation Finals

In the finals of the Intermediate Thai-English Translation course, there were 30 items. For the finals of the advanced course, only 10 items plus three extra items were chosen. This study will then look into these 13 items for comparison. During both finals, students were assigned to read and write more along with practicing translation in class. As the first final examination at the basic level was different, no students expected to have a similar examination. After the finals, some could not even remember the finals, while some felt that the finals looked familiar. As a matter of fact, the author made some minor changes, e.g. the proper name as the subject of the subject so that students used their existing proficiency in their translation, without an attempt to reminiscence their performance in the previous text on September 27, 2012. Based on such arrangements, the total of 234 sentences was analyzed and salient examples were presented in the Findings and Discussion section.

C. Participant

The subjects in this study were all employed by a Thai state-owned telecommunication company. There were 29, 22, and 20 students at basic, intermediate, and advanced levels, respectively. To compare the development, these participants had to take the same finals at intermediate level on September 27, 2012 and advanced level on July 25, 2013. As they had a different final examination at basic level; therefore, they did not anticipate the same finals for both intermediate and advanced levels. With such unpredictability, they did not prepare themselves by reviewing their previous exams and their answers could be compared. In the penultimate class of the advanced course (July 18, 2013), 18 questionnaires (male: 5, female: 13) were completed and returned from 20 students (male: 5, female: 15) in the "Advanced Thai-English Translation" course provided at TOT Academy, TOT Public Company Limited, formerly Telephone Organization of Thailand. Two students were absent that day. At the end of the three-course series, the 18 participants ranged in age from 37 to 53 years, with an average of 46.6 years. As they had taken and passed the "Basic Thai-English Translation," "Intermediate Thai-English Translation," and "Advanced Thai-English Translation" courses at TOT Academy for a year and a half in total, they are believed to gain some advancement. Unfortunately, due to a small number of participants, the author did not look into the difference in gender term. As adult learner research is infrequent, this current research needs to be conducted, thereby having the value in its own rights.

VI. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This section discusses the development of the participants in three areas: vocabulary, grammar, and idiom. The subjects took the similar finals twice—on September 27, 2012 and July 25, 2013. Such an identical test was entirely unexpected; thus, the participants did not review the test beforehand. The word "similar" is used here because some names/pronouns in the finals were changed. The information of the questionnaires was also presented along with each category of development. As many translation experts, e.g. Utarntada (2006), suggested that good translators should be proficient in vocabulary, idiom, and grammar, the author will look specifically in these three issues to see the participants' development.

A. Vocabulary Expansion

Many foreigners have found that non-native students usually said or wrote something around the bush. Still, this was proved later on that the real reason is the lack of vocabulary. This means that when their vocabulary expands, these learners are assumed to become more adept at English understanding, speaking and writing. Therefore, in this research, the author provides some examples of such development.

Ex. 1 Student # 18

Although Ploy is aggressive, the audiences *like* her because she is beautiful and ***confidential herself***. [September 27, 2012]

Although Ploy is aggressive, the audiences *love* her because she is beautiful and ***self-confident.*** [July 25, 2013]

In the above example, Ploy is a proper noun—a nickname of a Thai famous superstar. There are two lexical changes. At first the student chose to use *confidential herself* which is a word-for-word translation instead of *self-confident*. She might have been confused with the words ***confidential*** and ***confident*** as well. For the second test, she learned more and could use the correct word in this context. She also replaced the word ***like*** (*chob* in Thai) with ***love*** (*rak* in Thai). In this case, such replacement means that even though the English word ***like*** is exactly equivalent to *chob* in Thai, when the translator become more proficient, she could interpret and use another word which shares the same meaning or conveys the same feeling.

Ex. 2 Student # 15

Although Ploy is ***impolite, but*** the film's audiences like her because she is beautiful and *confident*. [September 27, 2012]

Although Ploy is ***aggressive***, the audiences like her because she is beautiful and confident. [July 25, 2013]

This example was translated by another student who made some slight changes from the first examination to the second one to get the exact meaning across. It can be seen that the use of a comma followed by ***but*** was changed to a comma only. This student may have learned that contrastive markers like ***but*** and ***although*** should not be repetitively or redundantly used in the same sentence. It is worth mentioning here again that grammatical concepts are taught along the course. This means that, in a way, the grammar lessons enable this novice translator to become more sensitive with the use of a contrastive markers like ***although*** and ***but***. Also, the word ***impolite*** (*mai supaab* in Thai) was replaced by the word ***aggressive*** (*kaw raw* in Thai) which is more precise to the Thai word *kaw raw* in the source text.

Ex. 3 Student # 14

The foreigners who would like to work at Thailand must have a work permit ***only***. [September 27, 2012]

The foreigners who want to work in Thailand must have a work permit ***with exception***. [July 25, 2013]

This example showed that this student could not think of the work ***with any exceptions*** at the first time of her translation. For the second time, she could think of the exact words while also correcting herself in the preposition use from ***at Thailand*** to ***in Thailand***. Presumably, this student may have mixed up the use of "work at/for a company" with "work in a country." Learning a lot can lead to confusions sometimes. When this student became more proficient in English grammar, this problem will diminish. This example is meaningful in the sense that this student could correct herself and also add some more words she learned from reading texts to the finals she retook. At times, novice translators could not think of a word. However, in real-life translation, this problem may not arise very often because dictionaries can help.

In terms of lexical development, students made the following comments at the end of the advanced course.

— The rules of Thai-English transliteration allow me to change the Thai alphabets into Roman ones in a systematic manner. I have learned a great deal of vocabulary when reading textbooks and proof-reading. This course enables me to use vocabulary words appropriate to a particular situation and real use.

— Reading can be a source of vocabulary. Even though we read a little bit a day, we can learn a lot more new words. Some words are unfamiliar or even unknown because I read a little or rarely read even in Thai.

— I gained some new vocabulary words from reading texts provided for translation. I also gained some new ideas for my work and daily life.

— A direct advantage of this course is a large repository of vocabulary. There are a lot of words—be something I know or have not known before. There are also their synonyms with different uses and suit different purposes or situations. Like Thai words, English ones have a lot of definitions. If we use the word in a wrong place, its meaning can be different. The meaning of words can be found from reading a lot of texts.

— Whether the translation version is good or not depends on the knowledge of vocabulary.

— Vocabulary has its own hierarchy like formal, informal, royal, jargon, slang, etc. There are many rules of word usage, so we need to read a lot. Reading-aloud in our classroom also developed my pronunciation and confidence.

B. Grammatical Development

Ex. 4 Student # 11

Although Ploy *is an aggressive, but* people like her because she is so beautiful and ***self-confidence***. [September 27, 2012]

Although Ploy *is aggressive,* the audiences like her because she is beautiful and ***self-confident***. [July 25, 2013]

This student has shown that she became more susceptible about the rules of parallelism. To explain, the use of ***self-confidence***—a noun—in the first finals is not parallel with ***beautiful***—an adjective. Nevertheless, in her second finals, she automatically changed ***self-confidence*** into ***self-confident*** in order to make the word conform to the rules of

parallelism. Likewise, the use of verb to be followed by an article and an adjective (*is an aggressive*) but without a noun in the first finals disappeared, and an adjective is correctly used with verb to be (*is aggressive*) in the second. This example illustrates her grammatical improvement.

Ex. 5 Student # 9

Today, because there wasn't much time the students promised me *to finished* the exams within 2 hours *attended to have fun the farewell party* for the final exam. [September 27, 2012]

Today the examinees don't have much time, but they promised *to finish* the exams in one hour *in order to attend the farewell party* after the finals. [July 25, 2013]

In this instance, this student has rectified her first version by using a complete sentence rather than a word-for-word translation as in the first time of her translation. For example, in the first sentence on September 27, 2012, she used the past form of verbs, e.g., *finished*, with the proposition *to*, where an infinitive should be used. On the contrary, in the second finals, the words are more systematically used and neatly arranged, whereby a complete sentence was presented. The more complex structure like the use of *in order to* was added and the use of *…attend the farewell party…* sounded more comprehensible and grammatically correct.

Ex. 6 Student # 3

My family always *would be dinner* and *your* father likes to talk about *study of her*. [September 27, 2012]

My family always *has dinner* together and *my* father asks about *my study*. [July 25, 2013]

This example includes three major grammatical points: (1) verb to be vs. verb to have, (2) word order of possessive and noun, and (3) a consistent use of possessive adjectives. First, this student has shown grammatical development in the way she used *would be dinner* at the first finals. This is incomprehensible or can even lead to misunderstanding because my family cannot *be* dinner. However, later she changed *would be dinner* into *has dinner*, which makes more sense. This shows that she has developed her understanding of verb to be and verb to have. Second, the word order of *study of her*—which is arranged in the word-for-word translation way—was improved to be grammatically correct into *my study*—where a possessive adjective precedes the noun—in the second finals. The use of possessive word order becomes grammatically correct in the second time. Last of all, the use of *my* varied from *your* and *her*, but finally became consistent in the second finals. All these improvements reveal that this student has gained some more knowledge, thereby expressing herself in English with greater grammatical precision.

In terms of grammatical development, students made the following comments at the end of the advanced course.

— I have learned a lot of grammar since young, but I just learned how to apply those grammar rules into real use today. I can write more fluently. I know that grammar is necessary for writing a good sentence. Even though my translation version is not automatic, but I can write a communicative sentence.

— I have a great chance to see grammatically correct English sentences which foreigners can understand. It's a good opportunity for me to review the grammar rules which are an essential foundation for Thai-English translation.

— Good grammar can improve our translation version. Grammar drills made me practice grammar everyday. The drills help me to learn more and better.

— Grammar lessons are a good review of my grammatical experience and concepts.

C. Idiom Use

Ex. 7 Student # 13

After she replied the letter as soon as after she had read stat carefully. [September 27, 2012]

After she had read the letter carefully, she answered it *as soon as possible*. [July 25, 2013]

In the first sentence, the student made many errors. He may have known something about the idiom *as soon as* but not *as soon as possible*. He also learned about the use of past perfect to show the difference in the past time. In this case, he may have thought of a word but could not recall, thereby producing the meaningless or non-existent word *stat*. When a student learned how to use an idiom correctly, he would like to play with the word and the use of it takes time to be perfectly correct.

Ex. 8 Student # 5

Aliens who desire to work in Thailand must have *license of work permit*. [September 27, 2012]

Forigner [Foreigners] who desire to work in Thailand must have *a work permit* without exception. [July 25, 2013]

In the first sentence, it is clear that the translator did not know the idiom *without exception* in the first final examination. However, in the second one, he learned more and could use it correctly. In addition, on the way to become a fluent translator, he tried to change the word *alien* to *foreigners*, but with incorrect spelling. The use of *license of work permit* shows his word-for-word translation strategy. This is replaced by a more specific terminology *a work permit* in the second finals.

There is no comment about the idiom use. The author thinks that this may be because the students do not use this knowledge in their translation very much. Idiom practices will be an important improvement the author will take into the course (if any) more in the future.

D. Some Drawbacks

Ex. 9   Student # 2

He *has taught* at a university since he *graduated* from *the USA* and moved to stay permanently in Thailand. [September 27, 2012]

He *has touch* [taught] at a university since he *gruduated* [graduated] from the United State*[s]* of America and moved to stay *permanatly* [permanently] in Thailand. [July 25, 2013]

In the first sentence, this student produced a perfect sentence in terms of grammar and spelling. However, for the second finals, she made many errors, especially in terms of spelling. When asked, she said she just kept writing without caring much about grammar and/or spelling. She just felt that she could do it and this sentence was really easy. She also paid attention to the full form of the USA, but she made typo.

Ex. 10   Student # 6

At 9.00 *p.m.*, she felt asleep; therefore, she *stopped read* a book because of her very *tried*. [September 27, 2012]

She felt very sleepy at 9.00 *a.m.*, so that she *stopped read* the book because she was very *tried*. [July 25, 2013]

As a matter of fact, it is quite clear that this student made some progresses in many places. For example, the use of the transitional marker *because of + noun phrase* is replaced by the *because + clause* correctly in the second finals. However, there are many other places where the translator became confused, e.g. p.m. and a.m. The time of this context is at night; therefore, p.m. is already correct in the first sentence. The use of *stop + read* is incorrect in both finals.

In addition, *therefore* was already used in a grammatically correct way according to the contextual meaning in the first final examination. However, in the second one, it appears that this student made a bold change to *so that*, which entirely alternated the meaning of the whole sentence. The confusion of transitional markers can inevitably happen when students have learned a great deal.

All the mistakes this student has made may not exactly mean that she does not improve her English version. Rather, the author regarded this phenomenon as an in-progress status while becoming proficient in the TL or English language her. Another example is the use of the word *tried*, which should be *tiredness* and *tired* in the first and second sentence, respectively. The word is not revised even though it is a common mistake the author always emphasizes.

Like 5.3, there are not so many unrevised sentences, but some comments are provided by the participants which can best explain this phenomenon, as follows:

— As this course has provided me with knowledge about a lot of fields of study, there are times when I spend too much attention to one thing/rule and ignore another one I used to do correctly. The one I ignore because I think I know usually goes wrong. That made me sad. I love the revision my instructor made because it helps me to move forward.

— I learned a lot from friends. The instructor is mean sometimes and she always scolds us or makes jokes about our mistakes. But, unbelievably, those mistakes made me laugh in class but also made me remember better in the real job and the finals.

— The best way to translate well is to understand the text in the source language (SL) first. Then, we start translating. If not, the TL text can never be good or precise.

— A good translator must be a good reader, a good listener, and a good writer.

— Before attending this course, I thought that I just come to class and translate. I have never known that to be able to become a good translator, I need good grammar and vocabulary. I just enlightened when joining this class.

VII. What Did We ESL/EFL Teachers Learn from This Study?

This research clearly showed that in spite of 1.5 years' time, students did not achieve the same goals or levels of learning English. While some students are making a dramatic leap in all the three areas of vocabulary, grammar, and idiom; others may be making some slight advancement and the rest are staggering or even backsliding. For some students, it seems extremely difficult to get through the course and earn pleasure from their accomplishment in all these three domains. At times, students may feel miserable because the author is always too heavy-handed in rectifying and revising their masterpieces. She did it on purpose realizing that it is rather difficult for her students to have developed their English thus far, thereby not wanting any person to devastate their self-esteem. Following her teaching philosophy of "Just make it better," the author thus cannot ignore even minor errors like spelling or capitalization. She agrees with the saying, "Practice makes perfect." As a result, the author always pays careful attention to every word her students wrote/used. This may be a cause of their staggering or backsliding. Presumably, the author may not have explained to them explicitly enough about her goals and expectations. In return, the way she has pushed them bit by bit to meet the requirements in this translation three-course series may not fulfill their expectation of learning English.

For her personal career development, the author has learned a precaution for all instructors. That is, we all instructors should not undermine our students' competence. Some students may be good at grammar, but cannot translate well. Some may be not good at speaking, but they have some experiences in their translation, thereby being able to translate well on a particular topic. Even though it is true that some students may get bad grades, they may know some jargons which perfectly fit the context. Strong students may make serious mistakes. Instructors should use everything available—their own knowledge, textbooks and/or materials, and students—to enhance students' language development. Unsurprisingly, such open-mindedness made the author learn something new all the time while driving her novice translators to learn to translate. For the author, at least, she learned how to teach her students to translate, to what degree she should revise, and which item fits the finals, among many others. The problem in her research may not even fit the

items she chose. She also learned to churn her disappointment with their drawbacks into her own lessons to fill those gaps.

Another important thing the author learned from this study is that she has to be more careful with the prompts she has made. When she prepared the items to investigate, the author picked up the first 13 items in the finals at intermediate level simply for her convenience. She did not look specifically into the possibility of producing the idiom as she should have done. As a consequence, plenty of the results fall into the development in the categories of grammar and lexicon rather than idiom. The author should have thought of or created sentences which could draw out the students' ability in idiom usage more appropriately and proportionally. This is an important lesson to be learnt from this big mistake.

The author's last words—when teaching students to translate, instructors should think of the lexical and grammatical foundation of each student first. Based on her experience as an instructor and a translator, these two elements are essential to translation learners' success. It would be nice if all novice translators are well equipped with both capabilities, but this may be true only in fictional classrooms. Instructors should not feel disheartened or depressed. Rather, they should take on board such existent foundation of their students and establish a stronger one for them each along the course. This process may take some time, but we instructors have to believe in our students in the same way as they do in us. Being open-minded to all undertakings, both instructors and learners can become successful at their own pace, in their own track, and to the peak of their own career.

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Supamit Chanseawrassamee was born in Thailand in 1963. She obtained her doctoral degree in 2007 from the Language, Literacy and Culture Interdisciplinary Program, the University of Maryland Baltimore County (UMBC) in the United States of America. The title of her doctoral dissertation is "Bilingual development of two Thai brothers during their sojourn in the U.S." Her 10 publications evolve around her classroom related to English reading, business English, and Thai-English translation. Currently, she is a Senior Lecturer Level 9 of English at TOT Academy, TOT Public Company Limited (formerly, Telephone Organization of Thailand), where she provides language skill courses including business English, writing, and translation. Her research and teaching interests include bilingual language acquisition, code switching, and Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL).

Diglossia as a Result of Language Variation in Arabic: Possible Solutions in Light of Language Planning

Mahmoud A. Al-Sobh

Department of English Language and Literature, Ajloun National University, Ajloun, Jordan

Abdel-Rahman H. Abu-Melhim

Department of English Language and Literature, Irbid University College, Al-Balqa' Applied University, Irbid, Jordan

Nedal A. Bani-Hani

Department of English Language and Literature, Irbid University College, Al-Balqa' Applied University, Irbid, Jordan

Abstract—**This study aims at investigating the nature of diglossia in Arabic, the different varieties of Arabic and the problems that cause diglossia. It discusses the current linguistic situation in the Arabic-speaking world and suggests a lingual plan for overcoming the problems caused by diglossia. The researchers survey what scholars and linguists claim about diglossia in Arabic and arrive at some conclusions and recommendations.**

Index Terms—**diglossia, language planning, Arabic language, Arabic socio-linguistics, Arabic varieties**

I. INTRODUCTION

The first problem in any study of 'Arabic' is for one to specify what is meant by 'Arabic', because a diglossic linguistic situation exists in that language. The term 'diglossia' was first used in 1930 by the French Arabist Marçais (*diglossie* in French), and introduced to English by Ferguson (1959) in reference to the situation in Arabic today as Ferguson explains it:

Diglossia in Arabic refers to the phenomenon of co-existence of two distinct language varieties in the same speech community each of which is used for specific linguistic and communicative purposes by its speakers. In the case of Arabic, the standard variety (classical Arabic) is used in formal speeches, university lectures and news media. In contrast, the colloquial variety is used in everyday speech in informal conversational situations by ordinary educated and uneducated Arabs alike.

II. PURPOSE

The primary function of this paper is to discuss the nature of diglossia as it exists in Arabic today as a result of language variation, the researchers first discuss the phenomenon of diglossia and linguistic variation in Arabic dialects. Second, they explore the concept of diglossia in its historical context. Third, they explain the present linguistic situation in Arabic. Finally, they propose a lingual plan for using modern standard Arabic before arriving at several significant socio-linguistic conclusions regarding the phenomenon of diglossia in relation to language planning in the Arabic-speaking world today.

III. METHODOLOGY

Since this study is theoretical and qualitative in nature, the researchers relied primarily on reviewing the already existing body of literature related to diglossia and the linguistic problems associated with it in various speech communities throughout the world. The diglossic situation in Arabic was compared and contrasted to similar diglossic situations in other speech communities taking in consideration how such communities and the governments in which they exist dealt with the linguistic problems that came as a result of diglossia. The researchers also conducted several personal and telephone interviews with linguistic scholars whose research mainly focused on the concept of diglossia in various speech communities both outside and inside the Arabic-speaking world. The interview questions concentrated mainly on issues related to the existence of diglossia and possible suggestions to tackle the problems caused by its existence with special focus on the Arabic-speaking world since diglossia in Arabic is the primary focus of this particular study.

IV. LIMITATIONS

Since this study primarily deals with diglossia in Arabic as mentioned above, it limits itself to the discussion of the diglossic situation in the Arabic-speaking world in particular excluding any other diglossic situation that exists in other parts of the world. Although the researchers know very well that similar diglossic situations exist in other speech communities outside the Arab world today; they do limit their study to diglossia in Arabic as a result of language contact and linguistic variation and the possible communicative and conversational problems that could come about as a result of this unique socio-linguistic situation in Arabic today.

V. Literature Review

Accordingly, there are different versions of the language for different purposes. There is the 'high' (H) variety, used for government, media, education, and/or religious purposes, and the 'low' (L), or colloquial, used for everyday purposes—shopping, with the family, and so on. Hudson-Edwards (1984) elaborates on Ferguson's definition thus:

• There is sharp complement functionality between the codes in the code matrix.

• The elevated variety enjoys a greater measure of prestige than does the vernacular variety.

• The elevated variety has associated with it an extensive literary tradition.

• The vernacular variety is acquired through the normal processes of language acquisition while the elevated variety is acquired through some kind of explicit, formal educational process.

• The elevated variety alone is standardized.

• The functional relationship between the elevated and the vernacular varieties is stable over the long term, often over a period of centuries.

• The vernacular variety is grammatically simpler than the elevated variety.

• Despite sharing the bulk of their vocabularies in common, the elevated and vernacular varieties contain phonologically unrelated lexical doublets for common, everyday items.

• The phonology of the elevated variety is more marked than the phonology of the vernacular variety. (p. 8)

Varieties of Arabic

Arabic is a popular language spoken by millions of people and used in literature for over a millennium and a half. It offers an astonishing range of variation in terms of language varieties and dialects used in the Arabic-speaking world today. First, there is the classical variety the use of which extends from pre-Islamic poetry to modem technical journals. This variety shows the same sound systems and morphology but with a big difference and change in vocabulary, syntax and forms of discourse. Second, there is the colloquial Arabic, the regional dialects of the Arabic mother tongue spreading over different regions of the Arab countries.

Intermediate between the two varieties or sets of varieties (classical and colloquial) are many shadings of middle language. Some of these varieties may be viewed as Koines. In certain areas where Arabic has been used for limited purposes, pidginize forms have been developed with reduced vocabulary items and grammar, such as the Turku of the Lake Chad and Central Africa and the Bimbashi Arabic Southern Sudan (Furgeson, 1970).

a. Classical Arabic (CA)

Arabic has been in existence in the Arabian Peninsula for at least 2000 years. Classical Arabic is the formal dialect which was used in Hijaz area 1500 years ago. Written records of the language include poetry that was composed in pre-Islamic times. The Qur'an was revealed in classical Arabic, which is the main reason why the language has been preserved throughout the centuries. Thus, Arabs consider classical Arabic as an important and extremely significant inseparable part of their culture.

b. Modern Standard Arabic (MSA)

Modem standard Arabic is the modem counterpart of classical Arabic. It is the official language of the Arab countries where it is used in the oral and written form on all occasions. The main difference between MSA and CA lies in the vocabulary items used in each variety.

c. Colloquial Arabic

Colloquial Arabic is the spoken variety of Arabic used by Arabs in their daily lives in informal conversational settings. Unlike MSA, colloquial Arabic is subject to regional and geographical variation; not only between countries, but also among areas in the same country.

VI. Discussion

The situation in Arabic is even more complex than this, in effect what one might call multi-glossic, in that two 'high' varieties coexist—Classical Arabic (CA), the traditional language of the Qur'an, used for religious purposes; and Modern Standard Arabic (MSA), the written language of contemporary literature, journalism, and formal education—as well as an intermediate variety, known as Educated Spoken Arabic (ESA), between the high (standard) and low (colloquial) varieties. (However, in this study the term diglossic, or diglossia, will be used as a cover term, as it is still the standard term used for this concept). MSA is essentially CA, but with some modifications, particularly in vocabulary, and also in syntax. MSA is the Standard written Arabic of the entire Arab world, linguistically unifying it

today as CA once did (Kaye, 1990). Both of these varieties are 'learned languages', being no one's 'mother tongue'. Then we have (ESA), of which El-Hassan says:

Educated speakers in the Arab world use the variety of Arabic which we ... call Educated Spoken Arabic (ESA), which draws upon both MSA and Colloquial Arabic [regional spoken varieties of Arabic] (1978, p. 32).

However, this form of Arabic was recognized well before El-Hassan. Frayha (1955) calls it 'Common Educated Arabic', the Arabic spoken by educated speakers when conversing with other educated speakers of other varieties of Arabic, or in some occasions with speakers of their own colloquial variety of Arabic, especially in an educational context (Shaaban, 1978, p. 7-8).

Kaye (1990) speaks of ESA as 'mixed language' or 'inter-Arabic'. Citing the speeches of former president Bourgiba of Tunisia as an example. ESA could, in fact, be considered a middle, or intermediate, variety. At the other end of the continuum are the local spoken varieties that are learned as 'mother tongues'—what Ferguson (1959) calls the 'low' (L) varieties. These varieties are the spoken language, used in everyday informal conversations, among family and friends, shopping, and so on. One characteristic of these colloquial varieties is that they may not be mutually intelligible to speakers of other regional colloquials.

The phenomenon of diglossia existing in Arabic today causes considerable problems to the linguistic community both inside and outside the Arabic-speaking world. It tends to contribute significantly to the obstruction of educational and economic development in the Arab world. Sotiropolous (1977, p. 7) in a serious attempt to summarize the effects of diglossia on the Arab world states that:

….. if diglossia, objectively, is an ingenious device of necessity, nonetheless from the point of view of educational efficiency of hindrance. The presence of diglossia in a speech community has limiting and even crippling effects on its expressive capacity.

Although the problems caused by diglossia in speech communities are similar, the solutions are often different. The Arabic diglossic situation is linguistically unique. This comes as Arabic tackles a major socio-linguistic and educational problem that faces the Arabic-speaking countries today. Although several Arab and non-Arab linguists have dealt with the concept of diglossia over the past few decades, this phenomenon has not received the level of linguistic attention it deserves beyond the descriptive level. Moreover, no serious efforts were made by scholars and linguists to propose possible solutions for linguistic problems resulting from the existence of this phenomenon in the Arabic-speaking world. Freeman (1996) asserts "No discussion of Arabic is complete without at least a cursory discussion of diglossia" (p. 1).

The development of diglossia in Arabic has been the subject of discussion among linguists who attempted to come out with varying linguistic theories. Fuek (1981) for example, speaking of the Koine hypothesis, states that:

There were no more than tens of years through the Arab conquest, the Arab tribes took their dialects north to Palestine, Syria, borders of Turkey and Armenia to the east through Iraq to Iran; to the west through Egypt to North Africa (p. 18-19).

Language contact between Arabic and the conquered areas produced a lingua franca, which used simplified expressions, sound system and structure. This simplified language serves as the base for the development of the colloquial dialects of Arabic.

Another major theory attributes the development of the colloquial to language drift. Hashem-Aramouni (2011) for example claims that colloquial developed when marriages occurred in the days of the Islamic conquest which led to communication between the Arabs and the people of the conquered places. Their children acquired the pidgin turning it into a Creole. This language served as the bases for the colloquial. She further states that:

In many ways, the idea that Arabic is the language of Allah has defined how the Arabic language has behaved over the centuries. Of course, in the early years, before the advent of Muhammad, Arabic developed and grew, though it was largely localized among the tribes of Arabia. As the Islamic conquest took place, however, Arabic became the language of the conquered peoples both because it was the language of their conquerors and because it was the language of their newly adopted religion (p. 24).

Ibn Jinni, a pioneering Arab linguist in the field of socio-linguistics in particular, who lived during the tenth century, discussed the nature of the Arabic language in his book Al- Khasaais republished in (2006), states that classical Arabic was the dialect of the tribe of Quraysh. He wrote a brief description of how the Qurayshi dialect differed from other known Arabic tribal dialects phonetically at the level of sound. Ibn Jinni asserts: "The dialect of Quraysh has gone above the level of '9anqanah' of the Tameem tribe, the "Kash Kashah" of Rabeeaah, the "Kaskasah" of Hawazen, the "TaDajjua" of Qays, the "qajrafiyyah" of Dhabbah and the "Tatalah" of Bahraa" (p. 10-l1).

Zughoul (2007) summarizes some of the peculiarities of Arabic dialects that survived till today. He asserts:

The 9an9anah is replacing the initial glottal stop (hamzah) /ʔ/ by /9/ (voiced pharyngeal fricative) as by saying 9annak (you are) instead of 9annaka .The Kash Kasha is changing the /k/ to /sh/ when followed by /i/ specifically in the pronominal affix of the second person feminine singular as in 'alayki' (On you) going to "alayshi". The Kaskasa is changing the /k/ to /s/ when followed by /a/ in the pronominal affix for second person masculine singular as in /9alayka/ (on you) going into /9alaysa/. TaDajju9 is the deletion of /T/ and addition of /i! thus a word like [iDTaja9aj becomes [ilDaja9a]. The "9aajrapfiyyah" of the tribe of Dhabban refers to the way connected speech is characterized by over-articulation of the emphatics and the plosives. The "Taltalah" of the tribe of Bahraa? is a change that survived in many contemporary Arabic dialects in which the /a/ of the second person future tense is changed into the vowel /i/ and thus a

word like '9lamuun' meaning (you know) is pronounced as ti, 9amuun. Anees (1965) in his known work about Arabic dialects collected other references to the variation in the speech of different Arab tribes. These include the 'FaHfaHa' of the tribe of Huthaylin in which the /H/ of 'lahm' (meat) is replaced by /9/ to become 'la9m'; the '9aj9aja' of the tribe of QuDa9a which is characterized by a shift of final /i/ to /j/ as in ma9ii (with me) becoming ma9ij; tarxiim or 'quT9a' of the tribe of lay characterized by the omission of the final unstressed consonant; 'TamTamaaniya' of the tribe of Himyar a known feature of the speech of Yemen in which the /L/of the definite article becomes /m/ as in Fialsafar (in travelling) changing to 'fi amsafar' and 'fimsafar' in connected speech; 'Shanshanah' of the Yemen where /k/ is changed to /sh/ as in labbayaka (Here, I come O' Lord) realized as 'labbayasha'; ?istinTaa? many Arabic dialects of today, as in '?a9Taahu' (he gave him) becoming '?anTaahu', ?alwatm of the Yemen, where the Is! shifts into It! as in '?nnaas' (people) becoming '?annaat' (p. 34).

Badawi (1985), distinguishes five levels of contemporary Arabic. These levels are interesting as they reflect the views of an Arab scholar, who states that:

The classical language of *heritage* or tradition (Fusha al- turaath): It is the Fusha of the Holy Qur'an and it is restricted in use to the men of religion specially the 'ulama' (religious authorities) of Al-Azhar. It is also restricted in use to the religious programs on radio and TV which are prepared well in advance of casting. The *modern-classical language* or the Fusha of the time (Fusha Al- 9asr). This level represents a wider area and includes the news programs on radio and TV, formal talks and whatever is used in what has been called the variety other than what has been isolated as the classical language of the heritage. The colloquial or the *spoken Arabic of the educated*. (9aammiyyat al-muthaqqafeen). It is the variety of language used by educated people. This variety in its lexicon, expressions and flexibility has become "the storehouse of Egyptian civilization and the medium of contemporary knowledge". The colloquial of the *enlightened* (9aammiyyat al-mutanawwireen). It is the variety used by non-illiterates in conducting daily business like informing, selling, buying, talking to friends about food, clothes... .etc. The colloquial or the *spoken Arabic of the illiterates*. (9aamiyyat al-ummiyyeen). It is the kind of Arabic used in plays and drama (p. 27-35).

A. Problems

Problems of diglossia start with the Arabs at a very early age as Arab children acquire the colloquial language first before they learn the modern standard variety at school, so their communication becomes distorted. Shoubi (1951) explains that there is a gap between the real self of the Arab and his ideal self. Also, those who use modern standard Arabic face many linguistic problems since they do not master it, therefore, most of their speech is not fluent, exerting a lot of efforts to produce a real modern standard Arabic sentence which gives the correct message.

Diglossia has spread to all Arab countries with the discovery of oil in the Arab Gulf countries. There was a need for manpower, which primarily came from India, Pakistan, Bangladesh and other countries. The languages spoken are mainly Asian which included Hindi/Urdu, Persian, Bengali, Tamil, Russian and other languages. This language contact produced a pidgin variety. Also, another pidgin developed in Southern Sudan which has been termed as Juba Arabic.

B. A Plan for Using the Classical Model

In light of the wide language variation that exists in the Arab world today as discussed above, there is a need for a linguistic solution to overcome the difficulties that could result from diglossia and language variation in Arabic today. This problem causes a great confusion among native speakers of Arabic as well as learners of Arabic as a foreign language. This necessitates an urgent need for language planning. In a serious attempt to find a solution for this problem through language planning, Al-Mousa (1987) asserts that there should be a lingual transfer within a modern theoretical vision supported by practical action steps based controlled lingual planning. At the same time, a political decision by governments is necessary to implement this project successfully.

Al-Mousa suggested that writing a book on spoken Arabic benefits from the relationship between classical Arabic and colloquial Arabic on the vocabulary and structural levels of the classical origins, saying the sentence without nomination except when necessary.

C. The Practical Side of the Plan

Re-accomplishment of using classical Arabic should start with the educational sector. The modern standard variety should be the language of teaching and learning Arabic and other subjects at schools. Using modern standard Arabic in television programs, series and radio programs will serve the purpose. An institution for children's literacy in modern standard Arabic should be established. Also, learning programs for the illiterate should be implemented in modern standard Arabic. To arrive at sound results, there is an urgent need for a political decision. These steps can be categorized as mass media, literature and arts and political decision (Al-Mousa, 2003).

D. Mass Media

It is important that any media material should be broadcasted or transmitted in classical Arabic, preparing the specialists in these fields linguistically.

E. Literature and Arts

Literary and artistic materials including novels, stories, plays and films should be written and implemented in classical Arabic. TV and Radio programs can be produced in classical Arabic addressing families at home, talking about farmers, workers, merchants and others.

F. Political Decisions

It should be noted that a plan for classical Arabic transference cannot succeed without a political decision which should be decisive and leads to a comprehensive solution in terms of using classical Arabic (Mousa, 2008).

VII. CONCLUSIONS

Based on the linguistic facts and logical theoretical principles outlined above, it becomes clear that classical Arabic is going through real problems, such as the lower standard achievement in the language and lower level competence, shift in language use towards foreign languages and cultural alienation, using alternatives other than Arabic media in instruction.

Scholars, linguists, researchers, language academics and people concerned about Arabic exerted a lot of efforts to face the diglossic problem by encouraging translation into Arabic and Arabization of university education. Modern Arab linguists including Nehad Al-Mousa suggest comprehensive lingual plans to use classical Arabic to keep Arabic away from lowliness, weakness and colorlessness in the spoken and literary varieties. However, the plans, suggestions and recommendations which can bridge the gap between classical and colloquial Arabic continue to wait for decisive linguistic, social and most importantly political decisions.

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Mahmoud A. Al-Sobh is currently serving as chairman of the Department of English Language and Literature at Ajloun National University in Jordan. He received his Ph.D. degree in English language curriculum and instruction from Yarmouk University in 2010. Prior to that, he obtained his Master's degree in methods of teaching English as a foreign language from Yarmouk University in 1999 preceded by a Diploma in education with emphasis on methods of teaching English as a foreign language in 1992. His Bachelor's degree was in English language and literature also from Yarmouk University in 1981. His major area of concentration is Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL). He published numerous articles in CALL and other related fields in a number of international peer-reviewed academic journals.

Abdel-Rahman H. Abu-Melhim was born on February 14, 1958 in Jerash, Jordan. He is a Jordanian-American, currently teaching as an Associate Professor of English language and literature at Al-Balqa'a Applied University in Jordan. He graduated from Texas A&M University, College Station in 1992. His Ph.D. degree was in English with emphasis on socio-linguistics. His research interests include: Socio-linguistics, Applied Linguistics, Psycho-Linguistics, and Cross-Cultural Communication.

Nedal A. Bani-Hani was born in Irbid- Jordan on the 6th of April 1965. The author got his B.A. degree in English language and literature from Yarmouk University- Irbid- Jordan, 1989. He obtained his M.A. degree in methodology from Yarmouk University – Irbid – Jordan, 1993. The Ph.D. degree was obtained in methodology from Yarmouk University – Irbid- Jordan, 2010. The major of the writer in the Ph.D. degree was Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL).

Dr. Nedal Bani-Hani is now the Head of the Department of English Language and Literature at Irbid University College at Al-Balqa'a Applied University in Jordan. He has been teaching English language at colleges and universities since 1993. He has published seven articles so far; the most important of which are:

(1) "The Effect of a CALL Program on Jordanian Sixth-Grade Students' Achievement. *Teaching English with Technology* (Journal of the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language), 11(3), 3-24, Available on line at http://www.tewtjournal.org//VOL%201 1/ISSUE3/ ARTICLE1.pdf.

(2)Jordanian EFL students' and teachers' perceptions of the implementation of CALL in TEFL *Journal of Instructional Technology and Distance Learning*" 9 (12), 3-16. 2012.

Syntactic and Semantic Functions of Deictic Expressions in EFL Saudi Students' Writing

Mohammad Hamdan

College of Languages and Translation, Al-Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Abstract—The main purpose of the study was to investigate the ability of EFL Saudi students of Department of English Language and Literature at Al-Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University to use deictic expressions in their writing from a semantic perspective. To achieve this aim, the sample of the study was all level five male students majoring in English and studying the semantics course 363 at the English Department of Al-Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University in summer 2014. The sample consisted of 18 B.A students. All of them belonged to the same homogeneous group since they all belonged to the same level (level 5). To collect the data, the students were assigned a writing test for this study at the very last session of the course. The students were asked to write a topic of 150 words about a place they know, and a person who attends this place. They were inquired to use as much as they can of deictic expressions they have studied in their semantics course. Data were analyzed by using mean scores, standard deviation, t-test and covariance. The findings data analysis revealed that EFL Saudi students were capable to use the target deictic expressions more in syntactic functions than in semantic functions. The results also indicated that there were statistically significant differences between the subjects' representation of the deictic expressions in the syntactic functions and the semantic functions.

Index Terms—semantics, syntax, deictic expressions and writing

I. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the study was to investigate the ability of EFL Saudi students of Department of English Language and Literature at Al-Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University to use deictic expressions in their writing from a semantic perspective. Use of Deictic expressions of EFL Saudi Students in English writing classes is rarely investigated. The study aims at finding whether this group of students is able to use these semantic terms effectively in their writing.

The phenomenon of deixis "pointing to a real object" is one of the most obvious ways of connecting language to a non -linguistic physical object that exists our real world. The use of this phenomenon can be described in terms of the ability of using gestural deictic terms with reference to a visual, physical entity expressed in a linguistic context. Deictic expressions can belong to one of the following categories: personal pronouns (I, we, you), demonstrative pronouns (this, that, these, those), verbs of psychological shifting (come, go), adverbs of time (today, yesterday, tomorrow), tenses (present, past, progressive, future, perfect), adverbs of place (here, there), and reported speech.

Diewald (1991), portraits the efficient representation of deictic expressions in an author text in a specific universe of discourse. "The writer can reconstruct the addressees' knowledge through using deictic expression by focusing their attention on a referent already presented in their knowledge of their physical exiting world' (pp. 110-111). The notion of Knowledge reconstruction of the addressees through using deictic expressions presented by Diewald was supported by others scholars (Bluhdorn, 1995; Ehlich, 1983; and Lyons, 1977).

Bosch and Umbach (200) indicated that the use of deictic expressions is not a syntactic process rather it is a semantic discourse function where the addressee can determine his choice of a referral deictic expression based on the language discourse within a linguistic topic and context.

Hanks (2005) indicated that deictic expressions in English like (this, that, here and there) have a special occurrence in a linguistic context that determines their meaning through a referential entity that exists in the real world of the hearer. Redder (2008: 141), Rehbein and Kameyama (2006) stressed the significant use of deictic expressions in daily discourse of written texts as they contribute to reconstruct the hearer knowledge of the surrounding objects of physical referents.

In a contrastive analysis study, Lewandowski (2007), confirmed that the verbs of psychological shifting (come and go) are deictic on pragmatic grounds among three European languages (Polish, German and Spanish). The two verbs appear in context of movement towards the speaker and addressee, but their referent is always different in each situation depending on who the speaker is and who the addressee is. According to him, the phenomenon of the deictic expressions of the psychological shifting verbs has been the spot of research done by a multiple of linguists such as (Fillmore (1971, 1975, 1982, Lyons 1977; Rauh, 1983; Levinson, 1983, 2004; Sennholz, 985; and Lenz, 2003). All the studies of such scholars emphasized the notion that the two verbs (come and go) are coded grammatically, but their meaning is semantically interpreted according to the context of the linguistic expression of the speaker and the addressee.

Becher (2010) indicated that other personal deictic namely (he, she, it) cannot be treated as other personal deictic such as" I. we and you" as they have their syntactical function rather their referential semantic representation. His perspective is based on the notion of expressions whose function is a semantic deictic reference, not a syntactic reference.

The current study focuses on Saudi EFL students' ability of using deictic expression in their writing from a semantic perspective, not from a syntactic function as Becher (2010) confirmed in his study.

A. Research Problem

The researcher has noticed that his EFL Saudi students in a semantic course he was teaching in different semesters were confused about the semantic functions of the deictic expressions presented in their semantics course book. For instance, if students were asked to use the personal pronouns semantically in a deictic manner, they would use them syntactically as each pronoun was expected to have a grammatical and lexical antecedent. The student may have a legitimate reason for using deictic expressions as they study several courses of grammar, while they study one semantic course during the whole B.A program of English. In addition, if the students were asked to do a drill and practice exercise where they were asked to use the set of deictic expressions they studied in their semantics course, they failed to use them semantically, rather they commonly used them syntactically. Therefore, they study came to address this problem aiming at raising the students' awareness of the semantic use of deictic expressions and enhance their semantic knowledge of these expressions to be used pragmatically and contextually, where students can reach a distinctive point of realization that deictic expressions are semantically different from their syntactic use.

B. Research Questions

The study begins with the hypothesis that when EEL Saudi students were given a writing task, they tended to use deictic expressions in grammatical and syntactic functions more than they used them in semantic functions. Thus, the study attempted to answer the following three questions:

1- To what extent can EFL Saudi students use deictic expressions semantically when given a writing task?
2- What deictic expressions are more semantically used in EFL Saudi students?
3- Are there any significant differences between using deictic expressions syntactically and semantically?

C. Significance of the Study

The study is significant for the following reasons: First, at a theoretical level, the results will contribute to a cumulative body of research based on the theory of the differences in relationships between the syntactic and semantic use of deictic expressions in students' writing. The results will contribute to raise the awareness of students who may become more capable to distinguish between the syntactic and semantic functions of deictic expressions. Second, the study results may contribute to some significant teaching implications for the writing teachers of English to prompt his writers to focus more on the semantic functions of deictic expressions in their writing classes. Finally, the study may open new venues of research in the Kingdom that focus on semantics and writing. The researcher has noticed that there was a minimum of research done so far in the field of semantics and writing in educational institutions of Saudi Arabia.

II. METHOD

A. Participants

The population was all level five male students majoring in English and studying the semantics course 363 at the English Department of Al-Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University in summer 2014. The sample consisted of 18 B.A students. All of them belonged to the same homogeneous group since they all belonged to the same level (level 5), and all of them have passed all the perquisite courses that qualify them to register in this course.

The class was chosen on availability rather than random selection since it was the only one section offered by the English Department for the semantics course 363 in summer 2014.

The age of participants' age was controlled as a confounding factor; their age was ranging between 19-20 years old, and that ensured age would not affect their writing efficiency level. The participant's gender is also controlled as a confounding factor since all of the subjects of the study were boys in the male branch of the university.

B. Material

Semantics -A Course book, second edition by Hurford et al, (2007) was used to teach them the deictic expressions and in particular unit seven. The first six units of the course book were mainly about referring expressions and reference/referent. Unit seven comes as a practical application of referring expressions where the students were prompted to identify the referent of each deictic expressions.

After, the completion of summer course, the students were assigned a writing test for this study (Appendix 1) at the very last session of the course. The students were asked to write a topic of 150 words about a place they know, and a person who attends this place. They were inquired to use as much as they can of deictic expressions they have studied in their semantics course. The deictic expressions they were expected to demonstrate in this writing task were seven categories as follow: personal pronouns (I, we, you), demonstrative pronouns (this, that, these, those), verbs of

psychological shifting (come, go), adverbs of time (today, yesterday, tomorrow), tenses (present, past, progressive, future, perfect), adverbs of place (here, there), and reported speech.

The researcher prompted the students to present deictic expressions as much as they can in their writing task from a semantic perspective. It was explained to them that the main purpose of this test was to serve the goal of this study, and their final product would not affect their grade in the course. Therefore, they were encouraged to accomplish the writing task with full ease and with a minimum level of stress. The time assigned to this test was one hour.

The students were also asked to sign a consent form if they were willing to participate in the study, and to have their papers examined by the researcher for the purposes of the study.

C. Data Collection

The researcher himself conducted the test toward the end of 2014 summer semester. The students who originally signed in the semantics course for summer course were 32, but 25 students participated in the study. The other seven students either dropped the course, or they were absent on the day of the exam session. Out of 25 papers, seven exam sheets were excluded from data collection because five students intentionally or unintentionally did not sign the consent form, while two students decided to withdraw in the middle of the exam session. Therefore, the writing sheets were incomplete and cannot be considered for analysis.

At the end of the writing task, students were asked to list all the deictic expressions in a table, and along with their categories used correctly in semantics functions of the writing topic.

Students' representation of deictic expressions syntactically or semantically in their writing was collected, sorted out and tabulated as shown in table 1 (Appendix 2).

The table demonstrated the process of data collection. The researcher categorized the deictic expressions used by the subjects of the study as shown in the table; they were seven categories. Each student's sheet was attached to a separate table, the researcher started filling the table for each student's sheet according to the type of the deictic expression, and according to its functional occurrence; whether it was syntactic or semantic.

The main goal of such tabulation was to help the researcher identify which type of deictic expression was used more in syntactic representations, or semantic representations. This categorization was congruent with the researcher's assumption demonstrated in the study questions that there might be significant differences in students' representation of deictic expressions in syntactic and semantic functions.

D. Data Analysis

To analyze the data, the following statistical techniques were used:

- The mean scores and percentages of frequencies were employed to answer the first two questions. These statistical procedures were conducted to measure the representation of the target deictic expressions of the writing task in the semantic and syntactic functions:

1- To what extent can EFL Saudi students use deictic expressions semantically when given a writing task?

2- What deictic expressions are more semantically used in EFL Saudi students?

- Covariance analysis, T-test and standard deviations were used to answer the third question, and in order to find where there were significant statistical differences between the syntactic and semantic representations in the writing task:

3- Are there any significant differences between using deictic expressions syntactically and semantically?

III. Results

The first two questions attempted to find out to what extent EFL Saudi students can use deictic expressions semantically when given a writing task and what deictic expressions EFL Saudi students can use more semantically.

Table (2) showed that the study subjects were able to use the deictic expressions syntactically and semantically. However, the personal pronouns received the highest percentage (77.78), followed by demonstrative pronouns and adverbs of time (66.67), verbs of psychological shifting and tenses (55.56), and finally adverbs of place (44.44). Obviously, the reported speech received the lowest percentage (11.11).

On the other hand, table (2) indicated that the study subjects were less capable of using the target deictic expressions in semantic functions than syntactic functions. In other words, the EFL Saudi students were more efficient in using these deictic expressions in syntactic functions than in semantic functions. The mean score percentage for the syntactic function was (68.71), while it was (31.29) for the semantic functions.

TABLE 2.
MEAN SCORES AND PERCENTAGES OF THE SYNTACTIC AND SEMANTIC USE OF DEICTIC EXPRESSIONS

Deictic Expression Category	N=18	Actual use of Deictic Expression	Percentages	Frequency of Semantic Occurrences	Percentages	Frequency of Syntactic Occurrences	Percentages
Personal pronouns	18	14	77.78	5	35.71	9	64.29
Demonstrative pronouns	18	12	66.67	4	33.33	8	66.67
Psychological shifting verbs	18	10	55.56	2	20.00	8	80.00
Adverbs of time	18	12	66.67	3	25.00	9	75.00
Tenses	18	10	55.56	3	30.00	7	70.00
Adverbs of Place	18	8	44.44	6	75.00	2	25.00
Reported speech	18	2	11.11	0	0.00	2	100.00
Mean Score	18.00	9.71	53.97	3.29	31.29	6.43	68.71

The third question attempted to find out if there were any significant differences between using deictic expressions syntactically and semantically.

Table (3) showed that the mean score for the syntactic function was (68.71) with a Standard Deviation (4.63). Whereas, the mean score for the semantic function was (31.29) with a Standard Deviation (4.63). Descriptive statistics in this table indicated the study subjects were more efficient in using deictic expressions syntactically than using them semantically. The statistical (T- value was (-9.75) at the level of probability (0.010), which is significant at the level (0.05), this indicated that there were statistically significant differences in students' performances on the syntactical and semantic functions of the deictic terms.

TABLE 3.
MEAN STANDARD DEVIATION AND CO-VARIANCE OF THE SYNTACTIC AND SEMANTIC FUNCTIONS

P	Deictic categories		Chi-Square	F-Value	T	DF	Source of variance
	Standard Deviation	Mean Score					Function
0.010	4.63	68.71	286.36	0.00	-9.75	1	Syntactic
	1.14	**31.29**	59.55			1	Semantic
						17	Error
						19	Total

IV. DISCUSSION

As for the first two questions, data analysis revealed that EFL Saudi students were capable to use the target deictic expressions more in syntactic functions than in semantic functions. Other researchers have supported this result. Jonson and Lepore (2002) argued that semantics is undetermined by syntax. Therefore, they suggested there should be conceptually tight connections between syntax and semantics. An interpretation for this finding was that English classroom teachers at university level make a complete segregation between syntax and semantics. The researcher, thus, recommends English teachers to teach syntax and semantics in an interdisciplinary approach and in a manner that makes students understand the two fields are conceptually related and tightly connected. The rationale behind this recommendation is that students may be able to produce syntactic structures, but they may fail to comprehend the meanings underlining these structures on a semantic basis. The data presented in the subjects' responses of the study showed that the students were more able to identify the grammatical reference or antecedent than identifying the semantic referent of a deictic expression.

Another possible reason for such a low performance of the study subjects on the semantic use of the deictic expressions is that English Departments offer more courses for syntax and grammar than they do offer for semantics courses. The researcher recommends that there should be a balance between syntax and semantics courses offered to students majoring in English.

Consequently, the finding of the third question was congruent with argument presented above. The results revealed that there were statistically significant differences between the subjects' representation of the deictic expressions in the syntactic functions and the semantic functions. The finding of question 3 may be attributed to the effect of L1 on L2 syntactic and semantic functions. Al-Sabagh etal (2013), in a study about Using the Semantic-Syntactic Interface for Reliable Arabic Modality Annotation, found that Arabic syntactic and semantic functions have more regular sub categorization patters than these functions have in English. Such regularities in Arabic may constitute a compounding factor that hinders EFL Saudi students to understand the connection between the syntactic and semantic functions.

The researcher has concluded that some of the problems that the EFL students face can be related to the curriculum design of the English departments in the Arab world. Therefore, one of the educational implications based on the findings of the study is that the syntax courses and semantics courses should be taught in an interdisciplinary manner. Besides, Semantics courses should be offered in balance with grammar and syntax courses. A final educational

implementation is that the writing teacher should reflect on the strong tights between syntax and semantics when teaching writing. The writing teachers should be syntactically and semantically oriented when they teach writing classes for EFL students.

APPENDIX 1. THE WRITING TASK

Deictic Expressions in Saudi TEFL Students' Writing; A semantics perspective
Summer 2014
Date: July 1, 2014
Dearest student,
This piece of writing is for a research study conducted on deictic expressions. Your participation in this study is appreciated and the results of the study will be confidential, will not be shared with third party, and will not affect your evaluation in this course. If you are willing to participate, please write your name and sign in the space provided.
Sincerely,
Researcher, Dr. Mohammad Hamdan
Consent signatory form
Student's Name -------------------------. Level (--). Signature ---------------------------
1- Write a topic of 150 words about a place you know and a person who attends this place. Use as much as you can of deictic expressions you have studied in your semantics course. The place can be a university and the person is a student, an office and worker, a hospital and a nurse or a doctor, etc.

2- After finishing your writing task, In the table below, please list all the deictic expressions along with their categories you think you used correctly in semantics functions of the writing topic. Please follow the example in the first row in the table.

Deictic expression	Category
Example (this, that)	Demonstrative pronouns

APPENDIX 2. TABLE 1. SYNTACTIC AND SEMANTIC REPRESENTATION OF DEICTIC REPRESENTATION IN STUDENTS' WRITING

Deictic Expression Category	Frequency of Semantic Occurrences	Frequency of Syntactic Occurrences	Percentages
Personal pronouns			
Demonstrative pronouns			
Psychological shifting verbs			
Adverbs of time			
Tenses			
Adverbs of Place			
Reported Speech			

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Mohammad Hamdan was born in Meqbeleh, Jordan in1962. He received his PH.D degree in Reading and Language Arts form Oakland University, Michigan, America in 2001.

He is currently an assistant professor in t the College of Languages and translation, Imam Muhammad IBN Saud Islamic University, Saudi Arabia. His research interests include reading, TEFL, semantics and translation.

Dr. Hamdan is a member of the Association of Professors of English and Translation of Arab Universities, Jordanian Association for Professional Translators, Jordan Society for Scientific Research, IRA: International Reading Association, ISTE: International Society for Technology in Education, NRC: Committee of the National Reading Conference, and TESOL Arabia:

Vocabulary Knowledge: Malaysian Tertiary Level Learners' Major Problem in Summary Writing

Anis Ashrafzadeh
Faculty of Languages & Linguistics, University of Malaya, Malaysia

Vahid Nimehchisalem
Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

Abstract—The ability to summarize and paraphrase written pieces is one of the essential skills tertiary level students need in order to succeed in their academic endeavor. It involves the process of decoding a text, and then re-encoding it by making changes to the structure and vocabulary of the original text while maintaining its content. The present study analyzes a group of tertiary level students' written samples to diagnose their main areas of difficulty in writing business report summaries. For this purpose, a sample of 69 samples was collected from an intact group of learners. Two raters used an analytic writing scale to score the samples individually. Based on the results, majority of the students (about 70%) achieved 'excellent to very good' scores for the 'content' of their written samples. However, regarding the 'organization' and 'vocabulary' of their written pieces, respectively 75% and 97% of these students scored 'Fair to poor'. 'Good to average' results were achieved for a majority of the students' 'language use' and 'mechanics' skills. The findings of the present study accentuate the urgent need for remedy courses to help these students improve their organization and vocabulary skills in ESL writing. Further research is necessary to diagnose the learners' difficulty areas in other genres of writing such as argumentative and narrative modes.

Index Terms—summary writing, vocabulary knowledge, English as a second language writing, paraphrase, writing problems

I. INTRODUCTION

The crucial role of English in international business has been widely accepted by researchers (Shaohua, 2011). English is being used by over 80% international corporations as the language of business (Zhang, 2007). Scholars have recognized English as "the primary language for doing international business" (Estaban & Pérez Cañado, 2004, p. 137). The importance of English, as the language of business, has promoted its explicit instruction in universities. English as the language of business has long been regarded as a branch of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Many universities around the world teach English for Business Purposes (EBP) at tertiary level to prepare students for competition in the world of commerce and business. In Malaysia, teaching EBP begins from the tertiary level in Business schools and universities.

Among the skills related to EBP, summary writing has a special place and is considered as one of the most important components of teaching writing in business. Business students must be able to write business plan summaries besides being able to read them. According to Hirvela (2004), summarizing is widly used to select the most important knowledge or information allocated in a text, to prepare students for exams and for a larger writing assignment. The term *summary* has been defined differently by different researchers. For example, Wohl (1978) states "to summarize is to report information using a lot fewer words than were used in the original communication" (p. 127). For Hidi and Anderson (1986) "a summary is a brief statement that represents the condensation of information accessible to a subject and reflects the gist of the discourse" (p. 473). Langan (1993) defines summary writing as "the reduction of a large amount of information to its most important points" (Langan, 1993, p.120). According to Friend (2001), summarizing is "the process of determining what content in a passage is most important and transforming it into a succinct statement in one's own words" (p. 3).

What is evident from all these definitions is that in order to be able to summarize a written text, one must first read and comprehend it before one can reproduce it in one's own words. It is also obvious that in both stages of comprehension and production vocabulary knowledge plays a crucial role. According to Yovanoff, Duesbery, Alonzo, and Tindal (2005), "vocabulary knowledge is a significant and constant predictor of overall reading comprehension irrespective of grade level" (p. 4). The importance of vocabulary knowledge has made language teachers consider the vocabulary instruction as a separate subject which usually involves students in the process of learning definitions of new words and using them to construct sentences. While understanding a word has a variety of levels, knowing it in-depth will provide many benefits to students (Donohue, 2000). The concept of words' knowing in-depth has been

argued by Jensen and Duffelmeyer (1996). Jensen and Duffelmeyer (1996) mention that "the meaning of a word can only be understood and learnt in terms of its relationship with other words in the language" (p. 22). Furthermore, Donohue (2000) argues that the deeper understanding of words will be created in the connection between new and known information. Additionally, Biemiller (2012) states that learning to read a written text does not warranty learning to understand the text. Biemiller (2012) contends that while vocabulary knowledge is not the main reason for comprehension of a written text, lack of this knowledge causes failure to comprehend the text. According to Bauman and Gravers (2010), it is the combination of words, reasons and understanding joined together, which makes the process of reading comprehension (Bauman & Gravers, 2010). While paraphrasing a text, the learner should think of the appropriate synonyms and/or different forms of words. Obviously, a wide vocabulary range provides student writers with "a multihued palette of colors with which to paint their experience" (Robinns, 1991). However, what most students should learn is that they should not neglect that "the writer's real pleasure comes not from using an exotic word but from using the right word" (Fletcher, 1993, p. 23).

Besides vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension skills, reducing a text to its main points is an ability which involves recognizing and deleting irrelavant and unneccessary information from a written text. It is indeed creating something new from the original text by focusing on its important points (Marzano, 1982), a process that can be difficult for tertiary level L2 learners. According to Cho (2012), the difficulty in writing an L2 summary returns to the readers' interpretation of a text through writing a new and summarized version, which is considered as "an act of composition" (Hirvela, 2004, p. 9). For students with difficulties in reading a text, summarizing is "the best reading gift" (Hirvela, 2004, p.91). On the other hand, for teachers and reserchers, examining the students' summaries could have "a diagnostic function" (Hirvela, 2004, p. 91) to achieve a deeper insight of their L2 students' writing abilities (Cho, 2012).

Choy and Lee (2013) argue that using English, as a medium of instruction in universities and colleges in Malysia has posed problems for students because of their lacking ability to paraphrase texts. Malaysian tertiary level students are regarded as a mixed group of students who have learned English in both ESL and EFL settings (Osman, Ismail, & Darus, 2014). Teaching academic writing, as an important skill, mainly starts at tertiary level in Malaysia. In business schools teaching Academic Writing for Business Purposes (AWBP) begins from the first semester. Tertiary level students of business have to pass the AWBP course, which especially aims to improve summarizing and paraphrasing skills. A study on Malaysian Form 4 students indicated 'fair to poor' levels of writing skill performance regarding their content, organization, vocabulary, and mechanics scores and 'very poor' levels regarding their language use scores (Mukundan, Mahvelati, Mohd Amin Din, and Nimehchisalem (2013). However, literature is limited on the problems faced by Malaysian tertiary level students in summary writing, which necessitates research in this area. The current study tries to diagnose the problems of tertiary level students of business in summary writing.

The objective of this study is to diagnose the specific areas of difficulty in tertiary level ESL students' summary writing. To meet the objective of this study the following research questions were addressed:

1. Based on the scores assigned to the content of the university students' written summaries, to what extent are they able to summarize the main ideas in the original texts?

2. To what extent are the students competent in organizing the ideas in their summaries?

3. To what extent are the students able to use their own words effectively in their summaries?

4. How competent are the students in using the language accurately in their summaries?

5. How competent are the students in spelling, punctuating, capitalizing, and paragraphing the summaries correctly?

II. METHOD

This cross-sectional study was conducted to find out an intact group of tertiary level students' specific areas of difficulty in summarizing business reports. Quantitative method was followed.

Task

The students were to choose a source from the Internet or newspapers on business reports and summarize the report in their own words. The summaries had to be 150 words in length. The students wrote the first draft in class for half an hour, but they were given one week to revise and submit the final draft.

Written samples

The participants of this study were an intact group of bachelor degree students (n = 70) of Business and Accounting from a semi-private university in Malaysia. They were all freshmen in their first semester. The students were aged between 18 and 20 and were mostly females (67%). The samples were collected during the first semester in November, 2013. The students were given a week to work on the task individually. They were free to use dictionaries and other references to improve their writing. After they were collected, one of the samples was discarded since it was merely a copy of the original text. This left the researchers with 69 samples to be analyzed.

Instrument

The rating scale that was used for scoring the samples was the ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs, Zingraf, Wormuth, Hartfiel & Hughey, 1981). This scale is a generic instrument with five subscales of content, language use, organization, vocabulary and mechanics. The subscales carry different weights. Content is given the highest weight (30% of the total score). Language use, organization and vocabulary have moderate weights (25%, 20% and 20% of the total mark,

respectively), while mechanics receives the lowest (only 5% of the total mark). The total score can range from 34 (the lowest possible score) to 100 (the highest possible score).

Raters

Two experts scored the samples individually. The first rater was a female PhD candidate in English Language and the second held a PhD in Teaching English as a Second Language with 5 years of teaching experience. The second rater was a male lecturer with a PhD in Teaching English as a Second Language and with 18 years of teaching experience. Pearson Product Moment coefficients indicated high inter-rater reliability between the two raters: content (r = 0.89), organization (r = 0.91), vocabulary (r = 0.85), language use (r = 0.82), and mechanics (r = 0.96).

Data analysis

For data analysis IBM SPSS (Version 21) was used. Descriptive statistical tests like frequency, percentage and measures of central tendency; including mean, mode, and median were used in this study.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, the results of the study will be presented and discussed. The first research question concerned the Malaysian students' performance level regarding the content of their summaries. Based on the results illustrated in Table 1, the majority of students (69.6%) showed 'Excellent to very good' performance levels regarding the content of their written works.

TABLE 1
CONTENT RESULTS

Level	Frequency	Percentage
Very poor	0	0
Fair to poor	1	1.4
Good to average	20	29
Excellent to very good	48	69.6
Total	69	100
Measures of central tendency		
Mean	3.7	(Good to average)
Median	4	(Excellent to very good)
Mode	4	(Excellent to very good)

Such good results were expected since to write summaries students do not need to generate ideas. Rather, the content is provided for them, and they are only supposed to select the highlights and paraphrase them. The subscale of content becomes more important when writers are obliged to create their own ideas as is the case in timed-composition tasks that prompt students to create their own arguments. The high scores assigned to the sample with respect to content therefore could be attributed to the relative simplicity of the task.

The next research question focused on how well the students could organize the ideas throughout their written samples. Table 2 shows the students' organization scores.

TABLE 2
ORGANIZATION RESULTS

Level	Frequency	Percentage
Very poor	0	0
Fair to poor	52	75.4
Good to average	17	24.6
Excellent to very good	0	0
Total	69	100
Measures of central tendency		
Mean	2.2	(Fair to poor)
Median	2	(Fair to poor)
Mode	2	(Fair to poor)

As the results show, only a quarter of the students (24.6%) were able to obtain 'Good to average' scores. The remaining samples (75.4%) were scored 'Fair to poor' by the two raters. This means that majority of the students failed to express the ideas fluently and clearly following a logical and cohesive sequence. English is a 'writer-responsible' language as opposed to some other languages, like German or Japanese, which is 'reader-responsible' (Hyland, 2002, p. 39). In writer-responsible languages clarity is of primary significance and the writer must make sure that the message is conveyed to the reader as clearly as possible. By contrast in reader-responsible languages, writers do not have to be concerned about the clarity and organization of their written work. One possible explanation for the relatively low organization scores obtained by the participants in this study could be attributed to the assumption that they came from a reader-responsible L1 background. Therefore, their L1 habits made them fail to realize the importance of cohesive and well-organized writing and what contributes to its cohesion and organization. Further research is required on the students' L1 before such an assumption can be verified.

Vocabulary was the next feature of the students' writing ability that was examined. The scores were assigned to the students' samples regarding their vocabulary range, choice, usage, form mastery, and register. Table 3 summarizes the vocabulary results.

TABLE 3
VOCABULARY RESULTS

Level	Frequency	Percentage
Very poor	0	0
Fair to poor	67	97.1
Good to average	2	2.9
Excellent to very good	0	0
Total	69	100
Measures of central tendency		
Mean	2	(Fair to poor)
Median	2	(Fair to poor)
Mode	2	(Fair to poor)

The results indicated that almost all the students (over 97%) achieved 'fair to poor' vocabulary scores based on their performance in the summary writing task. One of the important skills in writing summaries is to re-write the selected content in one's own words. Replacing a word by its synonym may require changes to the overall structure of the entire sentence. Moreover, not all synonyms can be used interchangeably since they may have different registers. These results clearly show the importance of teaching paraphrasing skills to ESL students particularly when it concerns their mastery of word forms and vocabulary choice. Based on the related literature, vocabulary knowledge is considered as a need in reading fluency and text comprehension (Bryant et al., 1999). It is a need, because "students with poor vocabularies do not acquire the meaning of new words as quickly as students with richer vocabularies" (Bryant et al., 1999, p. 3). According to Laflamme (1997), "studies on vocabulary instruction unequivocally identify vocabulary knowledge as a major factor influencing reading ability where comprehension was improved as a result of pre teaching the vocabulary" (p. 374). Having both background knowledge of the subject matter and vocabulary, as the base of comprehending a text, is necessary for comprehension (Donohue, 2000). As Jensen and Duffelmeyer (1996) say, "pre-reading vocabulary instruction enhances students' ability to construct meaning from text" (p. 658). Increasing comprehension through vocabulary instruction points to the important role of vocabulary instruction in comprehension of written texts, and in turn, its role in writing summaries. The connection between vocabulary knowledge and academic success has been accepted widely (NICHD Report of the National Reading Panel, 2000); however, there are few studies to investigate the relationship between vocabulary instruction and writing (Duin & Graves, 1987). Among the few studies that examine the role of vocabulary instruction on writing, the projects conducted by Henry and colleagues (1999) and Scott (2004) have revealed the ways to improve the word consciousness and vocabulary knowledge to assist learners to transfer words encountered in text into their writing. In the projects, students faced with a rich literature by teachers and examined word use by authors. The result showed a significant improvement in the students' overall writing and attitudes which impressed teachers by increased awareness of students and appreciation for words.

The fourth research question was in relation to students' language use scores assigned by the two raters to their written samples (Table 4).

TABLE 4
LANGUAGE USE RESULTS

Level	Frequency	Percentage
Very poor	0	0
Fair to poor	11	15.9
Good to average	57	82.6
Excellent to very good	1	1.4
Total	69	100
Measures of central tendency		
Mean	2.8	(Fair to poor)
Median	3	(Good to average)
Mode	3	(Good to average)

Only a minority of the students (about 16%) had major problems with both simple and complex structures, made frequent errors of agreement, tense, number, articles, pronouns, and propositions. Most students (over 82%) obtained 'good to average' language use scores. As these results show, on average, it is not necessary to spend a considerable period on these students' language use skills as it is the case in most language classes.

The final research question concerned the students' performance in mechanics of writing. Table 5 illustrates the results.

TABLE 5
MECHANICS RESULTS

Level	Frequency	Percentage
Very poor	0	0
Fair to poor	20	29
Good to average	49	71
Excellent to very good	0	0
Total	69	100
Measures of central tendency		
Mean	2.7	(Fair to poor)
Median	3	(Good to average)
Mode	3	(Good to average)

Like their language use scores, majority (over 70%) of the students' mechanics scores were 'good to average'. However, the remaining proportion of the students exhibited 'fair to poor' performance in their writing mechanics. This necessitates some instruction regarding skills like paragraphing and punctuation. Errors of this type can affect the clarity of the text and confuse the reader.

Overall, the results show what tertiary level students primarily need in courses of English for Business Purposes is paraphrasing skills. Based on the present findings, it seems logical to conclude that attention should be paid to summary writing which specifically enables students to rephrase the ideas in the source text using their own words.

IV. CONCLUSION

Summary writing involves choosing the main ideas of a text (Cho, 2012), reflecting on the ideas, decision making, and narrowing the information in a text (Rinehart & Thomas, 1993). Brown, Day, Roberta, and Jones (1983) contend that "the ability to work recursively on information to render it as succinctly as possible requires judgment and effort, knowledge, and strategies" (p. 977). Hence, it can be concluded that in order to develop summary writing skills students need to work hard and practice continuously.

Our results have lead us to conclude that tertiary level students of English for Business Purposes in Malaysia are in urgent need for summary writing skills in general and paraphrasing strategies in particular. ESL writing instructors who teach these students will be able to improve the efficiency of their courses by emphasizing paraphrasing strategies. An outstanding finding of the present study was that the students seemed to lack the necessary vocabulary knowledge and the skills to manipulate their vocabulary knowledge efficiently. As it was discussed, vocabulary knowledge plays a significant role in writing summaries. Our findings showed that the participants achieved the lowest scores for their use of vocabulary in their written samples. This indicates these learners' need for interventions that focus on their vocabulary knowledge and skills. Extensive research in the area of vocabulary instruction has shown that vocabulary development is a continuing process which gradually occurs in a broader learning context (Flood, Jensen, Lapp, & Squire, 1991), and across the curriculum (Ediger, 1999). Donohue (2000) insists on learning vocabulary in the context of subject matter, and maintains that learning vocabulary in this way will help the learner acquire a better comprehension of the subject matter and ability of using new words. According to Stahl (1986), "vocabulary instruction improves comprehension just when both definitions and context are given, and has the largest effect when a number of different activities or examples using the word in context are used" (p. 663). It can also be argued that having learners do guided summary writing activities provides a useful opportunity for them to look for, make use of, and consequently learn new vocabulary items in a purposeful manner.

This study followed a cross-sectional design to explore a group of ESL learners' difficulties when they deal with summary writing tasks. Further research is necessary to investigate more in-depth profile of these learners' problems while dealing with a wider range of genres, including argumentative mode of writing.

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Anis Ashrafzadeh is a PhD candidate in Applied Linguistics in the Faculty of Languages & Linguistics, University of Malaya (UM)**,** Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia**.** She has an MA degree in TEFL/TESOL (2010) and BS degrees in Medicine and IT (2008).

Vahid Nimehchisalem holds a PhD in Teaching English as a Second Language. He is a Senior Lecturer in the Faculty of Communication and Modern Languages, Universiti Putra Malaysia. His main area of research interest is assessing ESL writing, but he has published on a variety of topics from English language teachers' professional development to vocabulary learning strategies.

A Study of EFL Learners' (Meta) Pragmatic Learning through Explicit (Teacher Explanation) and Implicit (Foreign Film) Interventions: The Case of Compliment

Jaleh Hassaskhah
English Department, Guilan University, Rasht, Iran

Hoorieh Ebrahimi
English Department, Guilan University, Rasht, Iran

Abstract—One of the controversies regarding teaching 'pragmatics' is whether the medium of instruction would make a difference in the development of learners' pragmatic awareness and pragmatic use in both second and foreign language contexts. The present study compared the impact of two types of teaching conditions: explicit teacher explanation and implicit foreign film watching, onthe process of (meta) pragmatic learning (here, compliment) of 32Iranian female elementary EFL learners. To examine the effect of each type of instruction, the data collected through a written discourse completion test (WDCT) werelater analyzed by a paired samples t-test, and the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). The results indicated that instruction of both types improved learners' awareness of compliments. Also both types of instruction were beneficial in terms of raising learners' (meta) pragmatic use. The findings provide insight into the facilitative impact of (meta) pragmatic instruction and present suggestions for EFL/ESL teachers and materials developers.

Index Terms—(meta) pragmatic instruction, explicit/implicit pragmatic instruction, speech acts, compliment, (meta) pragmatic use, pragmatic awareness

I. Introduction

Pragmatic awareness or meta-pragmatics is particularly difficult for those studying in an English as a foreign language (EFL) context and most learners fail to interact successfully with native and non-native English speakers due to pragmatic failure or negative L1 pragmatic transfer. In line with these facts, Kasper and Schmidt (1996, p. 160) state that "pragmatic knowledge should be teachable". Kasper (1997) argues that the classroom is a place where pragmatic learning can be explored. This motivated researchers in the last decade to investigate the role of instruction in pragmatic development, and it has been found that as textbooks alone do not provide sufficient pragmatic information and practice opportunities to the learners, those learners who received instruction on different aspects of pragmatics are at a distinct advantage" (Kasper, 1997; Jianda, 2007; Fahim & Ghobadi, 2009; Grossi, 2009; Ishihara & Cohen, 2010; Dastjerdi & Rezvani, 2010; Silva, 2010; Malaz, Rabiee & Ketabi, 2011; Farahian, Rezaee & Gholami, 2012, & Sadeghi & Foutooh, 2012). For instance, Wichien and Aksornjarung (2011) examined pragmatic features of some speech acts in English course materials used at a Thai university through line-by-line investigation of both Student's and Teacher's books. Results indicated that not every pragmatic feature focused in this study was presented in each book. They concluded that the quantity and quality of pragmatic information in the books are inadequate as a source to gain pragmatic competence for EFL learners.

Consequently language teachers were advised to resort to explicit and implicit instruction techniques such as teacher explanation and authentic video-driven materials, English stories and conversations to enhance the students' pragma-linguistic and socio-pragmatic knowledge and as a result help them avoid negative L1 pragmatic transfer. Soler and Martinez-Flor (2009), for instance, studied the role of explicit and implicit instruction on learners' pragmatic development of 'suggestions' to ascertain the instructional effects of these two types of teaching conditions. The findings illustrated the benefits of both explicit and more implicit instructional approaches to developing learners' pragmatic awareness in the classroom. Dastjerdi and Rezvani (2010) have investigated the effects of explicit and implicit instruction on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' ability to use requests in English. They considered three groups, two of which received explicit and implicit treatment (listening to short conversations and receiving their scripts) and one of which was the control group (providing with typographical enhancement of the target forms). The results indicated that both explicit and implicit groups showed significant effect on learners' production, although the explicit group outperformed the implicit group; however the observed difference was not statistically significant. However, close examination of the multiple choice test results revealed that findings were controversial with most showing that the explicit textbook/ teacher based groups outperformed those in video-driven instruction condition, which suggests

that the explicit instruction resulted in higher pragmatic awareness (Tateyama, 2001;Kasper, Mui,Tay&Thananart, 1997) (as cited in Wang, 2007).Yoshimi (1999) has studied the effect of explicit instruction on Japanese foreign language (JFL) learners' use of interactional discourse markers. The instruction provided information about the function and use of English items, exposure to native models of non-formal extended discourse and opportunities for communicative practice of the target items. The results indicated the overall beneficial effect on the learners' use of interactional markers (as cited in Kasper & Rose, 2001, pp.223-243). Maeda (2011) examined the efficacy of implicit and explicit teaching of the usage of request strategies to investigate to what extent two teaching approaches affect learners' pragmatic understanding. The results showed that explicit teaching groups' post-test scores were significantly significant over implicit teaching groups' post-test scores.

Ishihara and Cohen (2010) have suggested that an explicit approach with a provision of analysis of language and context is more effective than implicit teaching in experimental studies. They have also emphasized the use of technology—feature films and situational comedies, audio/visual materials and other forms of visual support-- which helps teachers diversify their instruction in ways that greatly benefit their learners through raising their motivation. As nearly all the studies sound their uncertainty by postulating that other intervening variables might have affected the effectiveness of instruction (Eslami & Eslami-Rasekh, 2008; Sedeghi & Foutooh, 2012; Ishihara, 2010; Farahian, Rezaee & Gholami, 2012), more studies to investigate the impact of teaching techniques even to beginners before they develop pragmatic knowledge in second language seems necessary.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Recent studies in inter-language pragmatics (ILP) have suggested that the attention to the pragmatic ability of EFL learners can determine the areas of difficulty in their pragmatic development process and also help learners to improve their communicative competence. This caused second and foreign language researchers to look for possible intervention in teaching target like pragmatic structures and routines to the ESL and EFL learners.

According to SLA research, the interventional studies are based on three interrelated hypotheses: "Schmidt's (1993, 1995) **noticing** hypothesis, Swain's (1996) **output** hypothesis and Long's (1996) **interaction** hypothesis, all of which being based on a cognitive perspective" (as cited in Soler & Martinez Flor, 2008, p.6). Noticing hypothesis which distinguishes noticing and understanding holds that the essential element which turns input into intake and also makes further processing available is *awareness*. Also Schmidt's *consciousness-raising* approach includes "paying conscious attention to relevant forms, their pragma-linguistic functions and the socio-pragmatic constraints these particular forms involve" (Soler & Martinez-Flor, 2008, p.6). This perspective necessitates conscious attention to pragmatic information, so that the input can become intake and be stored in long-term memory.

Whereas learners in a second language context are frequently and naturally exposed to the second language with lots of opportunities to communicate language with other native or non-native speakers, learners, who are learning the language in a foreign language context, might not have the chance to get involved in communicative situations. According to Kasper (1997), in order to communicate successfully in a target language, pragmatic competence in L2 must be reasonably well-developed. Also Alcon (2005) believes that "learners are exposed to pragmatic input through classroom interaction, textbook conversations and films. However, research conducted in FL settings reports that in this context the range of speech acts, realization strategies and opportunities for practicing them is quite narrow" (as cited in Soler & Martinez-Flor, 2008, p.9). "One way of remedying this lack of direct exposure to target culture may be through teaching pragmatics" by which teachers can raise learners' awareness about target pragmatic features (Jianda, 2007).

Sadeghi and Foutooh (2012) have tried to investigate the effect of explicit instruction of compliment responses strategies on intermediate Iranian EFL learners' ability to respond to compliments appropriately. They have considered the relationship between explicit instruction and Vygotsy's (1978) Zone of Proximal Development. They also investigated social and cultural norms and values that can affect the formulation of compliment responses strategies. The results showed that the instruction was effective, since the increase in the use of compliment formulas was observed. Also the results indicated the importance and power of a teacher's expertise in a classroom setting by which scaffolding can occur as a help to learners to construct new knowledge.

In the same vein, Fahim and Ghobadi (2009) have examined the effect of explicit teaching of English "thanking formulas" (compliments) on sixty Iranian EFL upper-intermediate level students at English language institutes to determine the students' socio-pragmatic and pragma-linguistic awareness. 12 conversation pairs taken from the New Headway and New Interchange and 2 anecdotes from "Anecdotes in American English" were chosen for the introductory phase. Two tasks were used for this study: a written discourse completion task (WDCT) and a series of four role-plays devised based on the situations presented in the WDCT. By analyzing the mean differences between the post-test and pre-test results (the T scores) for the DCT for both explicit and implicit groups, it was observed that the experimental group receiving the explicit instruction possessed a higher mean than the implicit group receiving no instruction on pragma-linguistic issues. However, they suspected that variables such as motivation, or students' academic performance might have affected the findings.

Kasper (1997) suggests that researchers consider the following three questions (1) what pragmatic components could be teachable, (2) what opportunities for developing L2 pragmatic competence are offered in the classroom, and (3) what kind of instructional approaches are available and how effective they are, if they intend to examine the impact of

instructional contexts and activities on pragmatic learning. In response to this suggestion, the present study explored the question of what kind of instructional approaches are more effective on pragmatic learning of beginner EFL students by selecting the speech act of complimenting as the focus of teaching, and offering the opportunities such as explicit teacher explanation, implicit foreign film driven activities, role plays, and other pragmatically oriented tasks the opportunities to promote the learning of the intended speech act were.

A. Research on Teaching Compliment

Research on compliments is traced back to "the work of Wolfson and Manes (1980-1983), which provided the first comprehensive description of the formulaicity of compliments in American English" (Kasper & Rose, 2001, Pp.145-146). They considered a corpus of 686 naturally occurring compliments and found that 97.2% of them fall into one of the following nine syntactic formulas as pragma-linguistic resources available for complimenting in American English:

1. "NP {is, looks} (really) ADJ (PP)
2. I (really) {like, love} NP
3. PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP
4. You V (a) (really) ADJ NP
5. You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)
6. You have (a) (really) ADJ NP
7. What (a) (ADJ) NP!
8. Isn't NP ADJ!"
9. How ADJ (PRO) (is/are)! (as cited in Kasper & Rose, 2001, p.146)

Among these formulas the first three were the most used compliments by American English speakers (85 % with 53.6 % of the first formula). Wolfson and Manes (1983) have also presented three dimensions based on which complimenting can occur: "*appearance, act* or *ability* and *possession"* (ibid).

Although the speech act of compliment enables the speaker to use available opportunities to express and interest in the hearer, linguistic and cultural differences regarding how and what is complimented may cause misunderstandings. Grossi (2009) believes that "culturally appropriate behavior can vary even when speakers share similar linguistic resources" (p.2). Wierzbicka (1991) has stated that "communicative interaction routines are realized with regard to different cultural norms in different communalities" (as stated in Karimnia&Afghari, 2011, p.20). Comparing compliment structures in terms of giving and responding to compliments used by different communities has been the subject of study by some researchers in recent years (Gass & Neu, 1995; Billmyer, 2007; Kim, 2009; Grossi, 2009; Fahim &Ghobadi, 2009; Yousefvand, 2010; Karimnia & Afghari, 2011, & Sadeghi & Foutooh, 2012).

There are several reasons compliments are targeted for many studies: (a) they reflect cultural values and norms of behavior; (b) they're detailed descriptions used by Ns and also their knowledge in appropriate contexts; and (c) complimenting is also really helpful for learners in various ways: "they can sustain interaction; they can soften the effects of criticism; they express gratitude or greeting; they can initiate conversations with Ns" (Billmyer, 2007, p.3).

Therefore learning how to compliment and how to respond to them, creates opportunities for learners to take part in meaningful conversations or negotiated interactions with Ns or other NNs. In other words failing to give compliments due to linguistic or pragmatic or sociolinguistic reasons may indicate an offence. Knowledge of compliments also helps learners to avoid pragma-linguistic and socio-pragmatic failure.

B. Teacher Explanation and Film as Influential Sources of Input

As stated earlier, the classroom is a place where pragmatic instruction can occur (Kasper, 1997); however, relatively less attention has been paid to how classroom-based instruction can contribute to the pragmatic development of foreign language learners. According to him, in order to communicate successfully in a target language, pragmatic competence in L2 must be reasonably well-developed. Explicit instruction can thus foster pragmatic competence development by raising ESL or EFL learners' awareness about pragmatic and cultural differences. This kind of instruction is particularly effective in an EFL context where there is no or really little opportunity outside the classroom for learners to communicate the target language and also keep their identity in cross-cultural communication. Although they may develop their grammatical competence well, most of them fail to get mastery of pragmatic features specific to the target culture regardless of their levels.

Takahashi (1998) has studied the effect of input enhancement on the learning of target request strategies. Participants were 138 Japanese college students who had received formal instruction in English for 7 to 10 years in Japan. They made up four intact general English classes, taught by the researcher, which were randomly assigned to the four input conditions: explicit teaching (ET) conditions, form-comparison (FC) condition, form-search (FS) condition and meaning-focused (MF) condition. Post-test results showed that for all situations, the target request forms were provided by the ET participants to a greater extent than any of the remaining three input conditions and also a significantly smaller number of ET participants provided non-target forms (as cited in Kasper & Rose, 2001, Pp.171-198).

Consequently teachers need to look for creative ways to make students aware of the cultural differences and provide them with a better knowledge of pragmatics by awareness-raising tasks and input enhancement techniques including role-plays, audio-visual materials, interviews, etc. "Learners need to attend to the language form and to the relevant factors that affect the form in the given context. This indicates that "merely exposing learners to the contextualized

input is unlikely to lead to students' learning of pragmatics" (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010, p. 102). They also need to be aware of the features they're exposed to explicitly, so that they can learn how to use them in meaningful contexts.

EFL learners who limitedly practice natural communicative interactions in English need to gain knowledge of pragma-linguistic and socio-pragmatic awareness and also cultural similarities and differences of L2 to communicate successfully. In this regard explicit instruction can also foster learners' pragmatic competence by providing supplementary materials and activities such as role-plays, stories and audio-visual sources (movies). Audio-visual materials—especially a film—with its rich context is a powerful instructional tool known to have a motivational, attentional, and affective impact on viewers, which in turn facilitates auditory processing. "Video clips from movies expose learners to speech activities as discourse and help them explore cultural differences in initiating or closing conversations" (Davies, 2004, p.6).

According to Massi and Merino (1996), "good films can serve as a valuable pedagogical aid, both for classroom use and self-study". In fact, "films present slices of life, and as such, provide a realistic, authentic and entertaining way of improving the learners' command of the language" (as cited in Ahangari & Mahammad Amiri, 2012, p.2). Ishihara and Cohen (2010) believe that the situational context, the high- interest content, and the rich visual imagery of films "combine to provide learners with multi-sensory input that tends to be reasonably close to what we find in authentic interaction" (p.245). Hence carefully selected video clips can be suitable sources of pragmatic models especially in foreign language contexts where learners' authentic input might be limited.

Although a growing body of research has demonstrated that there's a need for explicit pragmatic instruction to teach compliments (Kasper, 1997; Jianda, 2007; Fahim & Ghobadi, 2009; Schauer, 2009; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996 & Franch, 1998), a few of them have emphasized fruitful techniques to raise learners' pragmatic awareness (Davies, 2004; Ishihara & Cohen, 2010) or have tried to explore more effective kind of instruction. Moreover, only a few studies have focused on media-based teaching of compliments to beginner or elementary-level EFL learners. In other words most studies have been conducted at either intermediate or advanced level. However, Sessarego (2009) investigated the effect of instruction on pragmatic language ability in Spanish as a Foreign Language of beginner learners in an Anglophone classroom context. The results of his study indicated that form-function connections in discourse can start to be addressed at beginner levels of proficiency and learners do not have to wait till they reach higher levels of linguistic knowledge to use the target language to negotiate meaning in interaction.

In line with the facts above, we tried to bridge the gap by conducting a study on the effectiveness of two types of instruction--teacher explanation and film--on the development of the speech act of compliment in foreign language classrooms at elementary level.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

A total of 32 elementary level students (all female, age range: 16-35) from a well-known English language institute (Kish) voluntarily participated in this study. In order to determine the starting language proficiency of the participants and make sure that they are homogeneous, they took part in a sample of KET (Key English Test of Cambridge, 2004). Those who scored 70-100 in KET were identified as elementary-level learners. The elementary learners were then divided into two groups (N=16) each receiving a particular type of instruction (teacher explanation and film).All participants were native speakers of Persian who did not experience living in a foreign country, had English language learning experience ranged from 9 months to 2 years and were receiving two 90-minute sessions of English instruction weekly.

B. Materials

Teaching Materials

A number of family-related movies in which compliments have been used more frequently were employed. These movies include some episodes of 'Friends' (1994-2004) and 12 other films each of which have been cut for about 25 seconds to 2 minutes using Jet audio software and have been used during our film-based treatment sessions based on the compliment structure they represent. For each compliment structure 5-16 episodes have been played for the learners. Thus, not only were learners exposed to authentic uses of compliments but also they were able to notice cultural similarities and differences by which they could avoid pragmatic failure.

TABLE 1.
LIST OF STRUCTURES AND NUMBER OF RELATED EPISODES

1. NP{is, looks, sounds}(really) ADJ (PP)	16 episodes
2. PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP	16 episodes
3. What (a) (ADJ) NP!	10 episodes
4. How (ADJ) (PRO) (is, are)!	7 episodes
5. I (really) {like, love} NP	6 episodes
6. Isn't/Aren't NP ADJ?!	8 episodes
7. You have (a) (really) ADJ NP	6 episodes
8. You V (a) (really) ADJ NP	7 episodes
9. You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)	4 episodes

In addition to the instructional methods (films and teacher's explanation) used for 2 groups of learners, about 25 English stories containing different compliment structures were provided for the learners as situational contexts of giving compliments. These stories were selected from '*American anecdotes*' (Hill, 1980) and '*Steps to understanding*' (Hill, 2004). 2-3 stories were read each session and the required compliment structures were elicited by the learners.

Assessment-Materials

An open-ended Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT) (See Appendix B) was employed as the main procedure to collect data, both for pre- and post-test in the present study. The WDCT in this study was designed based on the situational descriptions found in the studies of Dastjerdi and Rezvani (2010), Sadeghi and Foutooh (2012), Grossi (2009), and Silva (2010) which were used to elicit learners' responses on different speech acts. However Golato (2005) state that the data collected by discourse completion tests "don not always represent actual natural data, because DCTs require participants to articulate what they believe would be situationally appropriate" and this makes generalizability of the results invalid (p.22).

Consequently a more reliable WDCT was devised which represented as much contextual and social clues as possible, so that learners are provided with situations which approximate authentic communication more. All situations were described with regard to the time and place of the event, participants, gender, names, social relations and distance, and purpose of speaker. We have also extended the number of situations to 10 prompts all of which require EFL learners' reaction when giving compliments. As Wolfson and Manes (1981) have stated compliments fall into three main domains of "appearance, someone's possessions and ability, character or accomplishments" (as cited in Yousefvand, 2010, p.8). Therefore our situations contained 5 prompts on character, 3 prompts on appearance and 2 prompts on possession.

C. Procedure

This study adopted a two-group pre-test experimental design to measure the effects of instruction medium on participants' aware-ness and use of compliment. The research involved 10 sessions of treatment (consisting of 5 weeks); with approximately 30-40 min of instruction for two sessions a week. The treatment that each group received is explicated separately as follows:

Group 1 (Teacher Explanation): This medium was aimed at developing learners' understanding of pragmatics by presenting the key elements of pragma-linguistics and socio-pragmatics and providing explicit information on the pragma-linguistic forms of L2 compliments. As stated above, participants (N=16) responded to WDCT (pre-test) in the first session and the following 10 instructional sessions started in the next session with each session focusing on teaching one of these compliment structures (Table 2):

TABLE 2.
LIST OF ENGLISH COMPLIMENT STRUCTURES AND THEIR EXAMPLES

1. NP{is, looks, sounds}(really) ADJ (PP)	*She looks really beautiful in that dress.*
2. PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP	*That's really a nice house.*
3. What (a) (ADJ) NP!	*What a beautiful sunset!*
4. How (ADJ) (PRO) (is, are)!	*How lovely you are!*
5. I (really) {like, love} NP	*I really like your voice.*
6. Isn't/Aren't NP ADJ?!	*Isn't the view fantastic?!*
7. You have (a) (really) ADJ NP	*You have really beautiful eyes.*
8. You V (a) (really) ADJ NP	*You did a great job.*
9. You V (NP) (really) ADV (PP)	*You play the piano beautifully.*

Group 2 (Film): The major objective of film episodes was to make students aware of the socio-pragmatic and pragma-linguistic aspects involved in giving compliments. This group received about 75 video excerpts and also 30-40 minute nine sessions of instruction on the video prompts twice a week. First some (5-16) episodes including the required compliment structure was played to the students and they were to write down any conversational exchanges they heard. They then compared their sentences with their partners and added any possible information. All sentences were written on the board so that students could find many similar structures used in the films. This facilitated giving more examples by the students. Students' examples were also written on the board and their components were discussed by the teacher and students. Final steps were exactly conducted as the first group.

D. Data-analysis

According to Brown (2004), a fundamental consideration of teacher-based assessment stipulates that the choice of criteria in the evaluation rubric aligns with the instructional goals in a consistent manner. Therefore the present study considered the Pragmatic Assessment Rubrics encompassing three constructs which are as follows:

a. Linguistic aspects (pragma-linguistic ability)

b. Cultural aspects (socio-pragmatic ability)

c. Analytic aspects "(ability to analyze and evaluate pragmatic use-referred to as *meta-pragmatic ability*)". In this regard pragma-linguistic aspect included vocabulary and phrases for compliments. With regard to socio-pragmatic aspects level of formality and politeness were taken into account.

In order to determine if any pragmatic development occurred between the pre- and post-test and to measure between groups differences paired samples *T-test* and ANCOVA (using Statistical Package of Social Sciences-SPSS version 19) were used respectively. Since more than one answer was regarded as the correct answer (due to different compliment structures), answers which were linguistically and culturally appropriate (appropriate L2 transfer) were assigned 2, those which were linguistically incorrect but culturally appropriate were assigned 1, and those which were linguistically incorrect and culturally inappropriate, or those which had emerged from L1 transfer were assigned 0.

IV. RESULTS

Research Question One: *Does the medium of teaching English compliments, i.e. film and teacher explanation make any significant difference in the pragmatic awareness of Iranian EFL students at the elementary level?*

In order to investigate the significance of the difference in each group, a paired samples *t-test* was used. Table 3shows the differences in learners' pragmatic awareness of complimenting for the first group before and after the treatment:

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND SAMPLES T-TEST OF GROUP 1(TEACHER EXPLANATION) BEFORE AND AFTER TREATMENT

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std.Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
pre-test - post-test	-8.938	4.597	1.149	-11.387	-6.488	-7.777	15	**.000**

As is evident in the table, the level of significance (Sig. two tailed) of pre- and post-test scores for explicit group (teacher explanation) is .000 which is less than .05; this implies that there is a significant difference between two scores of pre- and post-test in this group which means participants greatly benefited from the instruction and considerably improved their pragmatic knowledge of complimenting.

Table 4 shows the differences in learners' pragmatic awareness of complimenting for the second group before and after the treatment:

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVESTATISTICS AND SAMPLESPAIRED T-TEST OF GROUP 2(FILM)BEFORE AND AFTER TREATMENT

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std.Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
pre-test - post-test	-10.250	3.376	.844	-12.049	-8.451	-12.143	15	**.000**

As can be seen in the table the *sig.* value in the implicit group is also less than .05 (.000), so we can conclude that there was a significant difference in the pre- (before treatment) and post-test (after treatment) score in this group (films). Therefore instruction had a really positive effect on EFL learners' awareness of pragmatic strategies in the case of giving compliments.

By analyzing the *means* it can also be claimed that there was a statistically significant increase in the scores of the first group from pre-test (M=12.31, SD=3.807) to post-test {M=21.25, SD=2.671, t(15)=-7.77}, and the second group from pre-test (M=1.38, SD=3.86) to post-test {M=22.63, SD=2.12, t(15)=-12.14}.

Thus the results indicated that both explicit and implicit teaching of English compliments had a significant effect on raising Iranian elementary EFL learners' (meta) pragmatic information in the specified situations.

Research Question 2: *Is there any significant difference between two types of instruction, i.e. film and teacher explanation in terms of raising Iranian EFL learners (meta) pragmatic use?*

A one-way between groups analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted to compare the effectiveness of two different interventions designed to raise learners' (meta) pragmatic ability. The independent variable was the type of instruction (teacher explanation, film), and the dependent variable consisted of scores on the post-test administered after the intervention was completed. Participants' scores on the pre-intervention administration were used as the covariate in this analysis. Preliminary checks were conducted to ensure that there was no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, homogeneity of variances, homogeneity of regression slopes, and reliable measurement of the covariate. Therefore we could proceed with data analysis using ANCOVA (table 5).

TABLE 5
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	24.409[a]	2	12.205	2.139	.136	.129
Intercept	1077.766	1	1077.766	188.892	.000	.867
Pretest	9.284	1	9.284	1.627	.212	.053
Medium	14.925	1	14.925	2.616	.117	.083
Error	165.466	29	5.706			
Total	15590.000	32				
Corrected Total	189.875	31				

According to the data provided in the table, there was not a significant difference between two treatment groups on post-intervention scores [F(1,29)= .11, p=2.61, partial eta squared= .083]. This implies the fact that neither group outperformed the other, and both raised learners' (meta) pragmatic ability. In other words both groups greatly benefited from the medium-based instruction (explicit/implicit) and both types of treatment increased EFL learners' (meta) pragmatic awareness and ability to use grammatically correct and culturally appropriate English compliments.

In conclusion, as the results of one-way ANCOVA indicate the medium-based instruction of English compliments had a significant effect on Iranian elementary EFL learners' pragmatic behavior (use and cross-cultural transfer) and their hindrance of L1 pragma-linguistic transfer. They also showed that there was not a significant difference between two explicit and implicit instruction (teacher explanation and films) in terms of raising EFL learners' pragmatic behavior—the case of compliments.

V. CONCLUSION & DISCUSSION

This study intended to examine the impact of medium-based teaching on EFL learners' (meta) pragmatic awareness and development in terms of giving compliments. The results indicated that due to two kinds of treatment (teacher explanation and films) in this study the participants of both groups gained a noticeable improvement in their (meta) pragmatic information. Besides no significant difference was found between two types of instruction regarding raising learners' (meta) pragmatic information and behavior. The results are in line with the fact that many aspects of L2 pragmatics are not acquired without the benefit of instruction, or they are learned more slowly. "There is thus a strong indication that instructional intervention may be facilitative to, or even necessary for, the acquisition of L2 pragmatic ability" (p.8). The crucial role of pedagogical intervention (explicit/implicit) becomes even more dominant in EFL contexts such as Iran where learners are rarely exposed to any other target language materials and interactions outside the classroom and also the opportunities to practice pragmatic elements are too limited. That is why "even grammatically advanced EFL learners may use language inappropriately and suffer from pragmatic failures" (Mirzaei & Esmaeili, 2013, p.3). Therefore, English language teachers should help the EFL learners to develop and internalize their linguistic and socio-linguistic skills in expressing and interpreting compliments. In addition, the instruction should aim to develop students' awareness of target language's social and cultural norms and values related to complimenting "so that they will not be misunderstood by native speakers of English when they are engaged in conversation with them" (Kim, 2009, p.10).

Our first research question addressed the effectiveness of two different instructional approaches—teacher explanation (explicit teaching) and films (implicit teaching) on raising learners' (meta) pragmatic awareness and the second research question sought to answer which type of instruction could possibly lead to more awareness (in the case of complimenting). Although most pragmatic studies indicate that explicit instruction is more facilitative than implicit one and learners of the explicit group outperform the implicit group's learners in pragmatic awareness (Yoshimi, 1999; Suh, 2000; Maeda, 2011; Soler & Martinez-Flor, 2009; Kasper & Rose, 2001; Grossi, 2009; Ishihara, 2008 and Ishihara & Cohen, 2010), the results of our study indicated that both treatment groups significantly improved their (meta) pragmatic ability in terms of giving compliments after instructional sessions. It was also revealed that the two instructional treatments (explicit and implicit) did not differ significantly in raising EFL learners' (meta) pragmatic ability. It's noteworthy to state that the examined and controlled variables of the above-mentioned studies were quite different and this might have affected the results. These variables include: age, sex, English language background, various first languages, proficiency level, length of stay in an English language country, number of participants, length of treatment, English language learning context (ESL/EFL), different instructional media and the kind of speech act under investigation. For the purpose of narrowing down the scope of the study and controlling the extraneous variables, we investigated the effect of two instructional approaches on 32 Iranian EFL elementary level female students studying at a well-known language institute. Therefore further research on various speech acts with larger numbers of research participants of both sexes (male and female) of different language proficiencies, at different language institutes are recommended. The findings of this study confirm previous research on the positive effect of explicit and implicit instruction on learners' pragmatic development in terms of speech acts (Billmeyer, 1990; Kasper, 1997; Suh, 2000; Silva, 2010; Jianda, 2007; Grossi, 2009; Fahim & Ghobadi, 2009; Ishihara, 2010; Ketabi, Rabiee & Malaz, 2011; Sadeghi & Foutooh, 2012; Farahian, Rezaee & Gholami, 2012, & Dastjerdi & Rezvani, 2010) and indicate the fact that Iranian EFL teachers and material developers may need to revise their teaching methods with regard to (meta)

pragmatic and socio-linguistic field methods, if they are to gain more effective instructional outcomes. Moreover this study draws attention to the fact that although developing (meta) pragmatic ability of EFL learners can be well facilitated by the use of technology-based audio-visual materials and media such as films and video clips, undoubtedly teachers can foster (meta) pragmatic awareness of learners even without having to apply technology-based media, through giving clear explanations about the importance of cross-cultural pragmatics and its use in everyday communication, providing appropriate examples (i.e. stories and anecdotes which contain the required pragmatic feature), and also pair and group work activities (role-plays/conversations on different speech acts).

The results of our study contribute to previous research on the facilitative effects of instruction on second and foreign language learning in general (Billmyer, 2007; Kasper & Rose, 2001, Kasper, 1997; Silva, 2010 and Jianda, 2007), and the benefits of instruction on the development of learners' pragmatic ability of giving compliments in particular (Kim, 2009; Fahim & Ghobadi, 2009; Grossi, 2009; Sadeghi & Foutooh, 2012, & Karimnia & Afghari, 2011). Although considerable progress has been made during the past few decades in improving EFL learners' pragmatic ability by explicit and implicit instruction (Kasper, 1997; Suh, 2000; Sadeghi, 2012; Billmeyer, 1990; Jianda, 2007; Fahim & Ghobadi, 2009; Ishihara, 2010; Ketabi, Rabiee & Malaz, 2011; Farahian, Rezaee & Gholami, 2012; Silva, 2003; Dastjerdi & Rezvani, 2010, & Grossi, 2009) the present study, by applying two types of medium (teacher explanation and films), constitutes a step forward in the evaluation of Iranian elementary EFL learners' (meta) pragmatic information and opens up new avenues for future investigation.

Given the research questions of the present study, important findings were obtained. Obviously, the first outcome of research was consistent with previous studies. Like previous researches on the effects of instruction on EFL/ESL learners' pragmatic awareness—in the case of speech acts (Silva, 2003; Grossi, Fahim & Ghobadi, 2009; Karimnia & Afghari, Malaz, Rabiee & Ketabi, 2011, & Sadeghi & Foutooh, 2012), the current research confirmed strong positive impact of media-based teaching of English compliments on elementary EFL learners' (meta) pragmatic development regardless of the kind of instruction. In other words both media facilitated EFL learners' (meta) pragmatic ability in the case of compliments.

Surprisingly the results of the study showed that neither groups outperformed the other in terms of raising EFL learners' (meta) pragmatic development. This is different from some other studies such as Davies (2004) that revealed the use of authentic discourse such as video clips from films and television, illustrating prototypical discourse from both the native culture and the target culture, is extremely important and can easily foster learners' awareness of pragmatic routines and strategies. In contrast the present research found that meta-pragmatic instruction which combines explicit instruction, awareness-raising activities, guided practice and meaningful opportunities for language use also results in significant (meta) pragmatic gains for beginner EFL learners. Consequently it can be claimed that an unobtrusive method such as input enhancement by films can be as effective as explicit instruction which requires execution of various awareness-raising tasks and explanation of (meta) pragmatic information.

In light of the present findings which reveal that explicit instruction is significantly facilitative in teaching pragmatic speech acts, certain pedagogical implications may be proposed. First, a more direct link should be made between ILP research and the field of second language acquisition. In other words, materials developers and instructors should integrate pragmatics into their second and foreign language instruction to better develop learners' pragmatic competence. Learners should be made aware of native speakers' usage of the variety of compliment structures to realize a certain pattern, depending on the situation where they are used. Second, awareness-raising tasks and input enhancement techniques (authentic audio-visual materials) should be operationalized and implemented by language instructors to equip learners with a better knowledge of pragmatics. Teachers should develop learner understanding of target language compliments and provide them with knowledge of the linguistic forms or stylistic strategies appropriate to convey the intended meaning in different contexts or situations.

To thoroughly examine the effect of media-based instruction, further research should start with learners of other proficiency levels and follow them by delayed post-test. This provides researchers with beneficial opportunities to examine the relationship of learners' (meta) pragmatic development and their level of proficiency. Researchers can also find whether this development remains constant after treatment sessions.

For the purpose of narrowing down the scope of the study and controlling the extraneous variables, we investigated the effect of two instructional approaches (teacher explanation and films) on 32 Iranian EFL elementary level female students studying at a well-known language institute. As this is not comprehensive, further studies can consider gender, students' majors, the type of language institutions, type of speech act, and proficiency level as determinant variables.

APPENDIX. SITUATIONAL PROMPTS OF DISCOURSE COMPLETION TEST

Directions: Please read each situation carefully and write your response in the blank area. Try to respond as naturally as possible and as you feel you would say it in the situation.

1. *It's your birthday party and you've got many presents. Terry is your old best friend who has asked you to open her gift at the end. You finish opening presents one by one and finally you open Terry's and find a really beautiful white blouse. You've become extremely surprised. That blouse is the one you and Terry had seen two weeks ago. You really liked to have it but you didn't have enough money. Terry has bought it for you to express her love to you. What would you tell her?*

2. You had a great time with your friends when you went to high school. Anna, Isabel and Janet were your close friends. After a few years you had to move in to another city because of your father's job, so you were really upset. Now five years have been passed and you've come back to take part in Anna's wedding party. You've met your old friends, Isabel and Janet. Anna comes in and everybody is attracted to her beauty. She happily comes to you and your friends. You are also really surprised by her beautiful wedding dress and different appearance. What would you say to her?

3. You're studying mathematics at high school. You've been a successful student in most subjects but physics. You were always disappointed about it. After having studied very hard and purposefully you have passed a very difficult examination in physics and gotten one of the highest scores in the class. Your teacher is really delighted and surprised about your score. He comes to you and says....!

4. You've had the same hairstyle for a few years, so you've become tired of it. You go to a hairdresser's and ask the woman to change your hair in a way that looks nice on you. You've just gotten your haircut in a new style and you like it better than the old way. You go to see some friends and surprise them. All of them have been really pleased with your new haircut and start talking about it.

5. You have graduated from the university and have decided to go on a short trip with some friends to a popular island in order to have fun and make good memories. You've just arrived there. The weather is nice and every where's green and really beautiful. You take a taxi and go to your reserved hotel. It's near the sea and your room has an eye-catching view. The window opens to the sea and the fantastic shore. You're enjoying the view and say…!

6. It's a sunny afternoon in a busy street. You're walking along it to go shopping and buy something. You see a blind man who tries to cross the street but it's too busy and dangerous. So you help him to go to the other side of the street healthily. He's now an admirer of you and says…!

7. One of your great professors has passed away in a car accident. All students were really interested in his classes and he was really into his teaching. He respected all and also helped anyone as much as possible. Your university has held a ceremony in his honor. The dean of your university is giving a speech to thank all his efforts. Everybody starts expressing profound admiration for him. Then the dean starts speaking about him…!

8. You've bought a new mobile phone which is modern and beautiful. You haven't told anyone about it yet. You are in a restaurant with your friends when suddenly your mobile phone starts ringing. You take it out and answer. Everybody's attention is given to your new phone. They start talking about its model and nice design…

9. You've recently met a nice girl at work. Julia is very kind and funny. She has helped you a lot in your job and also has tried to make you feel confident and happy. Therefore you really like to appreciate her favors. You've talked to her about the beautiful and modern design of your house, various colorful flowers in your garden and a big aquarium with a lot of fishes, so she can't wait to see your house. It's Monday evening. You've put on your nice clothes and are waiting for her. She rings the doorbell and you invite her into the house. She's really astonished to see such an amazing house and says:

10. You've just started a job in a company for about six months. Your manager has been really satisfied with your work and has really admired you. The manager has held a meeting in the manager's office today to express his gratitude to faithful and hardworking staff. The meeting starts. He stares at you and says:

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Jaleh Hassaskhah is currently an assistant professor at the English Department of the University of Guilan. Her areas of interest include curriculum development, assessment and exploring new horizons in teaching language skills, which has led to the publication of different articles and books. She has also served as the reviewer and lecturer on these topics both nationally and internationally.

Hoorieh Ebrahimi holds an MA in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). She is currently a language teacher at Kish Language Centre (KTC).

The Impact of the Application of Paired-storytelling Technique and Personality Type on Creative Writing

Yasnur Asri

Faculty of Languages and Arts, Padang State University, Indonesia

Abstract—This research aims at finding the impact of application of paired-storytelling technique and personality type (extrovert and introvert) toward creative writing skill of students in Indonesian Language Education and Art FBS UNP. This research used experimental research factorial 2x2 with 48 samples of students in Indonesian Language Education and Art FBS UNP. The findings of the research showed that (1) the level of creative writing of students who taught using paired-storytelling technique was higher than students who were taught by conventional technique, (2) there was no significant difference between the level of students' creative writing skill who had extrovert and introvert personality, (3) there was positive interaction between paired-storytelling technique and students personality type toward the level of students' creative writing, (4) the creative writing skill of extrovert students who were taught by *paired-storytelling* technique was higher than students who were taught by conventional technique, (5) the creative writing skill of introvert students who were taught using conventional technique were higher than students' creative writing skill who were taught by paired-storytelling technique. The conclusion showed that the application of paired-storytelling technique in creative writing skill had significant impact toward students' creative writing skill by considering students' personality type.

Index Terms—impact, paired-storytelling technique, personality type, creative writing

I. INTRODUCTION

There are some thoughts concerning why it is important to study the impact of paired-storytelling technique and personality type toward creative writing skill of students in Indonesian Language Education and Art FBS UNP. *First*, the creative writing skill, especially writing short story, was one of the core competencies that must be mastered by bahasa Indonesia teacher candidate based on the demands of Bahasa Indonesia curriculum 2013. It means that creative writing skill was one of the skill that must be mastered by students, so that through this, it is hoped that they will success to do their professional job as bahasa Indonesia teacher in Junior (SMP) and Senior (SMA) High School. Creative writing skill is one of the skill that support students to live independently appropriate with the goal of high school education (Puskur Balitbang Depdiknas, 2006). The goal of high school education is to improve shrewdness, knowledge, personality, good attitude and the skill to life independently and continue the study. Bahasa Indonesia is one of the important lessons and has impact on students' ability in communication. Toward the bahasa Indonesia learning, students must master the formal knowledge that related to knowledge about the nature of language, language process, and also language skill. Writing short story skill is one of language skill that aims to express idea, concept, and feeling in written form. Using this skill, student will experience thinking process to express their idea and concept widely or divergent thinking. Writing process is strongly related to the factor of free thinking, based on the experience.

Second, creative writing (in this case was limited in writing short story) was one of the materials in bahasa Indonesia which is genre-based text, in junior and senior high school. In reality, there were some obstacles that faced by student-teacher candidates in creative writing skill, especially writing short story. Based on the interview with some bahasa Indonesia's teacher in SMP in Padang, most of the obstacle faced by the students-teacher candidate during teaching practice were: (1) exploring and organizing idea to story; (2) creating characters; (3) presenting conflict; (4) developing story and connecting story. Other obstacles that faced by students in writing short story was work on fictional element. This can be seen in the unclear flow of the story. They face difficulties in writing the event structures into the story, in the beginning, middle and ending. The events in the story flow without clear pattern, the characters were characterized accidentally. It was also happen with the choosing of background and point of view; it caused the story focus become unclear and makes readers difficult to understand the story. Next obstacle was related with the textual readability, the form of language element was categorized difficult. This reflected on the use of long sentences and distracted readers' concentration, it was also happened in the use of vocabularies; the terms and certain expression seemed to be forced.

Third, based on the observation of creative writing learning in the classroom, it was identified that in pre-writing teacher gave information through the discussion about nature, characteristics, and pattern of short story. The examples and illustrations were revealed from teacher's own experiences. It caused students did not mentally involved. They tend to positioned as note-taker and good listener. After that in while-writing, students did not have real image of good form

of writing short story. The task of writing short story was done by their potential. The impact of this learning was weak students' short story not only in finding and developing ideas but also in telling the story. Next, in post-writing, teacher rarely gave feedback and correction individually or classically. The giving of feedback and correction in small groups was not done.

The learning reality stated above, a solution was needed, so that the aim of creative writing skill (writing short story) as what stated in Bahasa Indonesia Curriculum 2013 can be realized. One of the solutions that were given was the use of appropriate learning technique. The learning technique has important role in teaching and learning activity; especially to improve creative writing skill of student-teacher candidates is paired-storytelling. The reason is this technique demand students to think imaginatively and creatively. By using this technique it is hoped that when students become teachers in the future they can help in activating students' schemata in order to make the material more meaningful. So that in the future they will be able to guide the students not only to master the learning material but also to stimulate their thinking to process the information from reading and key phrases that they get from pair. After thinking, students were demanded to imagine and develop information that they got become a narrative text. By using this technique it was hoped that it can improve students' skill in writing because they were stimulated to think and imagine.

Besides, in learning process, personality type of the student needs to be concerned. Personality is a dynamic organization that comes from individual psychophysics that determines the ability of self appropriateness that has unique toward the environment (Eysenck and Wilson, 1980). Thus, each individual has specific personality that is not identical and cannot be substitute by the others. The individual characterize in his/ her psychological aspects that differentiate them each other. Personality covered structure and process that reflect characteristics and experience. Personality is influenced by past and present events (Naisaban, 2003).

Based on the background above, this problem of this present study can be formulated as follow. (1) Creative writing skill of students who were taught by using paired-storytelling technique was higher than students who were taught by using conventional technique; (2) creative writing skill of extrovert students was higher than introvert students; (3) there were a positive interaction between learning technique and personality type in learning creative writing of short story text; (4) extrovert students who were taught by using paired-storytelling had higher creative writing skill than students who were taught by using conventional technique; and (5) introvert students who were taught by using paired-storytelling had higher creative writing skill than students who were taught by using conventional technique.

In order to answer the problems above, the theories that were used are the theory about creative writing of short story, paired-storytelling and personality types.

First, writing skill is the part of language in written form in order to express the idea to the readers (Fajri, 2005). The aims of writing are as follow: (1) deliver the main idea to the readers; (2) give information about a story to the reader; (3) entertain the reader, and (4) convince the reader through the writing. Based on the aims above, writing can be differentiating into some types: fiction and non-fiction. In this proposal, the type was focused on the effort to improve writing short story (fiction). Fiction writing use informal vocabulary and it is the combination of fiction and common story. It has logic and illogic characteristics. Narrative text is the text that is fictive and can be the form of writer experience. In narrative text, there is sequences story. It is presented in clear image, clear characters, plot and setting as whole. Thus, it seems that reader experience the story directly (Fajri, 2005, p. 952).

The basic of creative writing is similar with common writing in general. The element of creativity gets the important role in developing writers' creativeness in their work (Titik 2003, p.31). Creative process is needed in writing; it is started with idea as the source of the writing. The idea can be gotten anytime. The main sources were reading, socializing, traveling, contemplating, monolog, internal and external monolog, rebels, happiness, achievement, professional demand and etc. These things can be used as the gate to enter the creative process (Rokazakis, Laurie, (2004). The key is strong passion as the main modal to begin to write.

Writing is a productive and expressive activity. Writing short story refers to the activity of free writing including creative writing that is influenced by imagination of the writer. Writing short story is the most selective and economic way of writing. The story in short story is very sequence; there is no part of the story that functions as the supplement. There is no useless part in each part; each sentence and each word, each of them give important contribution to run the story, reveal the character and describe the situation. There is no empty and excess part (Diponegoro 1994, p.6).

Writing short story is the effort to portrait the reality into writing and expressing it using light language. It is both difficult and easy job. Writing story by our own line with up-and-down conflicts need imaginative and futuristic thought. It is about how to make the reader focus deeply in the story *(http://www.hrena.com/MENULISpersen20CERPEN.cfm?pt=2&rpt=1&kt=1,cerpen banten).*

Naning, Pranoto (2006, p.19) state that creative writing is an appreciative and expressive writing. Appreciative means that through writing, someone can recognize, enjoy and recreate creative text critically and make use of it into real life.

Expressive means that we are allowed to express many experience and communicate it to others through creative writing as something meaningful. One of the kinds of creative writing is short story.

Based on the explanation above it can be concluded that creative writing is creative activities that need imaginative and futuristic thought and the process is influenced by writer's imagination.

Short story is the set of events that bound into one unite and there is conflict of the characters in the background and plot (Kurniawan, 2012, p.60). In short, short story is a narrative fictive prose or fiction story. Short story tends thick and straight to the goal if it is compared to other fictions. Short story means that all short, in the events, story content, and amount of characters and words that is written.

Events in short story are in form of the relationship between character, place and time that unite. It is similar with real life; an event is happen because of human, place and time unity (Thahar, 2008)

In order to determine the length of the short story, especially related with the amount of the words used, some experts proposed their theories. According to Guerin (1979), short story usually use 15.000 words or 15 pages, meanwhile Nugroho Notosusanto states that the amount of words used is about 5.000 words or 17 A4 pages double space. Beside the amount of the words use, the events and content of the story are also short. The events told in the story are short but has deep impression.

Based on the theory above, it can be concluded that short story is a writing that create, tell, and unite events based on human act and experience that is arranged in chronological order.

As a form of writing, short story has five functions: recreative, didactic, esthetic, morality and religion. In recreative function, short story can give enjoyment, delight and entertain the reader. The other function of short story is didactic function that is to educate or lead the reader because of the truth value. Then esthetic function gives esthetic to the reader through the explanation of background (place and situation) and also the explanation of character using good language. Another function of short story is morality function is the value that is represented in short story can be a model for the reader for example helpful, patient, diligent and hardworking characters. The last function of the short story is religion function that contain of religion lesson that can be modeled by the readers.

There are two elements of short story; intrinsic and extrinsic element. Intrinsic element is the element that related with the existence of literature as autonomy verbal structure. It means that intrinsic element is the element that sticks in the short story or thing that can be observed and analyzed from the short story (Priyatni, 2012, p. 109). The intrinsic elements of short story are theme, character, plot, style, setting, point of view and mood and atmosphere. Meanwhile extrinsic element is the outside element that influences the creation of literature. There are two elements of extrinsic; socio-culture background and psychology aspect. By socio-culture background, a story can give clear image of a place in one period.

There are six structures of short story; title, introduction, complication, climax, resolution and moral value (Joni, 2006). Meanwhile the language feature in short story are: (a) including adjectives to describe characters, physical appearance or personality, (b) including adverb to describe setting (place, time and social condition), (c) including verb that shows the events that the characters experienced, and (d) having point of view.

In writing short story, there are some steps that need to be followed: (1) find sources to write short story, (2) develop the line of the story, (3) write the opening, (4) live the character using dialog, (5) develop the background and (6) write the ending.

Second is paired-storytelling. According to Anita Lie (2008, p. 71) paired-storytelling is a technique of cooperative and creative learning. It is called cooperative because the students are required to work together with others in getting and sharing information. It is called creative because in creative learning, students must activate their background knowledge. So that, it can be stated that in this technique teacher pay attention to the schemata or background experience of the students and helping students to activate the schemata in order to make the learning more meaningful. In this activity, students are stimulated to develop their thinking and imagination. Their thought will be appreciated and makes students encourage in learning. Paired-story telling can be used for all level of students. Isjoni (2011, p. 80) states that in this technique, students are demanded to work together and have many chances to get information and improve their communication skill. So that, in getting information, think creative and imagination can improve students active and participation in learning activity.

Based on the explanation, it can be concluded that paired-storytelling technique is a technique that combine four language skills. Teacher, students and materials are influenced each other. The appropriate materials are the narrative text. In this technique students are stimulated to develop their creative thinking and imagination toward schemata or students' background knowledge. Besides, students were work together to get and share information and create communication skill in written form.

Third, according to Sugiyanto (2010, p. 52) there are 7 steps of the application of paired-storytelling technique in writing short story: (1) teacher distributed materials that are given into two parts, (2) before the materials presented, teacher explains some topics that will be given, (3) students were divided into pairs. The first part is given to the first students and the second students get the second part. Then, students read or listen their own part; (4) while reading or listening, students write and list some key words in their parts and share the keywords with their pairs; (5) students who already read/ listen the first part try to rewrite what happen next based on the keywords from their pairs; (6) after writing, students are given chance to read their writing, and (7) teacher distribute the part that is not read yet to each students, and students read the part.

Based on the explanation above, it can be concluded that creative writing skill is the students writing skill in writing short story that three indicators: (1) students' skill in build story structure that can be seen in the way students begin the story, build complication, develop climax and the way they end the story; (2) students skill in developing story element

such as developing plot of the story, character and story background; (3) students' skill in developing the language features.

In general, personality type of students in learning can be divided into two types; extrovert and introvert. Extrovert is the tendency that leads the personality to outside than inside. Extrovert character is talk more, friendly, socialize, active, adventurous, easily feel bored and do not like monotonous things (Larsen, 2002).

According to Hall and Lindzey (1998), extrovert students easier to socialize, like to have fun, have many friends, need someone to talk, do not like to read and learn alone, need enjoyment, take a risk, impulsive, humorous, cheerful, and optimist. They like to move and do activity, aggressive and easier to lose patient. In general, their feeling is difficult to be kept.

Meanwhile, introvert students tend to pull themselves from social life. According to Jung and Naisaban, introvert is the silent person, and pulls him/herself from social life (Naisaban, 2003).Hall dan Lindzey (1998) add that introvert is the characteristic of shy, introspective, love books than human, unfriendly. This character plans something carefully before act and does not belief their heart easier. This character do not like crowded, take everything serious and like organized things. They always hide the feeling, not aggressive and not easy to lose patient. Extrovert and introvert person are not different in intellectual activity. Both of them are different and have different characteristic in doing activity, like to socialize, risk taking, impulsiveness, expressiveness, reflectiveness and responsibility (Eysensk & Wilson, 1980).

II. METHOD

This research used quasi-experimental research in 2x2 factorial design. The dependent variable in this research was the level of writing short story skill. Treatment variable was paired-storytelling; meanwhile the control variable was conventional learning technique. Attribute variable was students personality type (extrovert and introvert).

In order to make the same perception, creative writing skill here means students creative writing that was described in: (1) started, developed, appeared the conflict, and ended the story; (2) developed protagonist and antagonist characters; and (3) developed background of the story.

Personality type is the score that was gotten from all organized behavior and stated in someone that was used to response the stimulus from inside and outside and can be measured through tendency of activity, sociability, risk taking, impulsiveness, expressiveness, reflectiveness, and responsibility.

The technique of sampling was multi stage random sampling, which was the random sampling in some steps. *First*, took all students who take the creative writing lesson randomly in Indonesian Language Education and Art FBS UNP. semester 2013/2014. *Second*, from random sampling it was gotten 2 classes from 4 classes (class A and B) with 48 totals of the sample. *Third*, from two classes the experimental and control class were determined in random, experimental group was taught by using paired-story telling and another was using conventional technique. *Fourth*, did personality test from both classes. Personality test was done to know extrovert and introvert personality. The test that was used had been tested the validity and reliability.

There were two instruments in the research; writing short story and personality test. Each instrument was developed and tried-out in order to know the validity and reliability. The test was validated from the experts and personality test was validated using *Product Moment Pearson*. The measurement showed that instrument validity was about 0,321– 0,681. This number was fulfilling the rule of validity in collecting the data. The reliability was measured using *Alpha Cronbach*. The measurement showed the reliability 0.92 which mean it had high reliability

III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Based on the data analysis, the hypothesis testing, there were some findings. First, based on the measurement using Liliefors test, eight groups of the data came from the population that had normal distribution and based on Bartller test, all data groups has homogeny variance. Second, based on the Anava two lines measurement, it was known that there was significant differentiate between creative writing skill of students who were taught using paired-storytelling and students who are taught using conventional technique (F value > F table = 4,06). Besides, there was an interaction of learning strategy and personality type (Fh = 27,31 > Ftable = 4,06). So that, the result of analysis result and hypothesis testing fulfill the criteria, and the next activity was hypothesis test using Tukey Test to know the strength of each group.

The first hypothesis was true after analyzed using Anava and Tukey test. The average score of creative writing skill of students who were taught using paired-storytelling (33.42) was higher than students who were taught using conventional technique (30,46). So that, it can be concluded that creative writing skill of students who were taught using paired-storytelling technique was higher than students who were taught using conventional technique.

TABLE 1:
THE RESULT OF TUKEY-TEST

	Qh	Qt
μA1 > μA2	2,88	2,86
μ B1 < μB2	1,97	2,86
μA1B1 > μA2B1	7,25	2,86

TABLE 2:
THE RESULT OF CREATIVE WRITING TEST USING ANAVA

Variance sources	dk	JK	RJK
Paired-storytelling technique (A)	1	105,02	105,02
Personality type (B)	1	50,02	50,02
Interaction (A X B)	1	697,69	697,69
Error in cell (D)	44	1124,08	25,55
Total	47	1976,81	

The *second* hypothesis was true after measured using Anava and Tukey-test. The average score of creative writing skill of extrovert students (32,96) was different with the average of creative writing skill of introvert students (30,92). Although there were differences of the average score of students creative writing skill of extrovert and introvert students, but after did Anava test, the differences was not significant. So that, it can be concluded that the level of students' creative writing of extrovert and introvert was not different.

The *third* hypothesis was true. It was showed by the result of Anava testing, which F value= 27,1 > Ftable (0,05) = 4,06. So that, it can be concluded that there was interaction between the use of learning technique with personality type toward creative writing skill of students of Indonesian Language Education and Art FBS UNP.

The *fourth* hypothesis was true after analyzed using Tukey test. The average score of creative writing of students in Indonesian Language Education and Art FBS UNP who had extrovert who were taught using paired-storytelling (A1B1 = 38,25) was higher than students who were taught using conventional technique (A2B1 = 27,67). So that, it can be concluded that creative writing skill of extrovert students who were taught using paired-storytelling was higher than students who were taught by conventional technique.

Fifth hypothesis was true after tested using Tukey test. The average score of creative writing skill of introvert students who were taught using paired-storytelling technique (A1B2 = 28,58) was lower than the average score of students who were taught by using conventional technique (A2B2 = 33,25). So that, it can be concluded that the level of creative writing skill of introvert students who were taught using conventional technique was higher than students who were taught using paired-storytelling technique.

The creative writing skill of students who were taught using paired-storytelling technique was higher than students who were taught using conventional technique. It was showed that the result of the research was in line with the main theories that were used as the theoretical basis in this research. The creative writing learning that was focus on the aspect skill, more than the knowledge about short story. The learning of short story was not only to improve the ability of thinking but also reasoning, imagining, and wider the insight. So that, the learning of creative writing skill, short story, must contain the material about the concept, function, structure, elements and language features of the short story. The characteristic of short story text demanded students to do more reading and writing than theory, teacher was demanded to be able to apply the learning technique that was relevant with the lesson characteristics.

Paired-storytelling technique that was applied by the teacher as one of the supplement of other learning technique was appropriate with the characteristic of material. The characteristic of paired-storytelling demand the cooperation and have chances to get information and improve communication skill. So that, the activity of getting information, thinks creative and imagination can improve students' active involvement and also their participation in class

The form of social interaction was the exercise for students to communicate well, and this was the goal of short story learning. Besides the appropriateness characteristic of teaching material and strategy characteristic of cooperative learning, the success of paired-storytelling technique was also influenced by the students' characteristic. The subject in this research was students age 18-20 and can be categorized into adult (Hurlock, 1980). In social development, adult had tendency to form group with the same age. The influence of friends in behaves, talk, interest, appearance was great in adult and dominant than family influence.

The reality showed that there was appropriateness between the paired-storytelling, material characteristic, students' characteristic were strong basis to answer hypothesis that stated that creative writing skill of students who were taught using paired-storytelling technique was higher than students who were taught by conventional technique.

Creative writing skill of extrovert students was not much different with introvert students (Fvalue = 1, 96 < Ftabel = 4,06). Extrovert and introvert personality types were two groups in different behavior (outside and inside orientation) that were had by individual and become the characteristic of the individual in did adaptation with environment that can be seen in the activity, socialization, the bravery to take risk, feeling statement, deep learning and responsibility. According to Larsen (2002), extrovert and introvert individual were not different in intellectual activity. So that the differentiation of extrovert and introvert was just on the orientation toward the environment and was not on the cognitive ability. It did not mean that extrovert students were clever than introvert in accepting, thinking and solving the problem in building the knowledge toward all information/ stimulus that were faced. There was possibility of extrovert students have different result of study with introvert students, but the differences happen because they tend to focus the attention in learning and getting the material by making use of the appropriate stimulation with their characteristic.

There was interaction between learning strategy and personality type toward creative writing skill (Fvalue = 27,21 > Ftable = 4,06). Extroverts students have characteristic of socialize with others and they are appropriate if taught using paired-storytelling technique that characterize to have interaction and dominant communication. Meanwhile, introvert students like to be alone and conventional technique was appropriate for them.

So that, based on the findings of this research can be interpreted that the impact of each learning technique strongly related with students' personality type. By knowing the personality type of the student, teacher can determine the strategy, model, approach, method and learning technique that is appropriate for students. This is done in order to optimize the learning process of short story and creative writing skill.

IV. CONCLUSION

Based on the findings and discussion, it can be concluded that: (1) the application of paired-storytelling technique in learning short story significantly gave impact on short story writing of introvert students; (3) there was level differentiate of short story writing skill of extrovert and introvert students, but the difference was not significant; (4) there was positive interaction between short story learning technique with personality type of the students. The interaction showed that extrovert students who were taught using paired-storytelling technique had higher score than students who were taught using conventional technique. It means that the implementation of paired-storytelling technique to extrovert students was more effective than students who were taught using conventional technique. Meanwhile, introvert students' skill in writing short story that were taught conventional technique had higher score than students who were taught using paired-storytelling technique.

Thus, these findings suggest Bahasa Indonesia teachers in Junior High School to apply the technique in learning short story based on students' personality type. For example for extrovert students, it is better for them to be taught using paired-storytelling technique. Then, since this research was still done in limited samples, it is suggested to the future researchers to do the experiment with more samples.

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Yasnur Asri is an Indonesian lecturer at State University of Padang (UNP) in West Sumatra, Indonesia. He has been teaching at UNP since 1986. He finished his doctoral degree in 20011 at UNP. Additionally, he finished doctoral program (in literature education) by having scholarship sponsored by DGHE (Directorate General of Higher Education of Indonesia). Yasnur is registered as the member of Indonesian Linguistic Society (MLI) and Community of Indonesian Literature Graduates (HISKI). In addition, he is interested teaching literature, feminism, creative writing and Indonesian studies.

Test-takers' Attitudes toward Taking Pictorial and Visual Modalities of Listening Comprehension Test in an EFL Context

Atefeh Elekaei
Islamic Azad University, Khorasgan Branch, Isfahan, Iran

Sajad Faramarzi
Islamic Azad University, Khorasgan Branch, Isfahan, Iran

Reza Biria
Islamic Azad University, Khorasgan Branch, Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—Listening comprehension test has always been a challenging point for language teachers and test developers. In order to scaffold students in taking the test and at the same time sustaining the authenticity of the assessment, pictures and video devices are proposed by scholars to be added to the test. Beside many advantages, these modified listening tests have a distracting nature too. In this study a sample of 80 EFL students were selected to inquire their attitude toward taking three different modalities of listening test. The results of 5-point scale questionnaire show that test-takers reacted negatively toward audio-only listening test. The attitude of test-takers toward taking the pictorial listening test was totally positive. However, students responded negatively toward taking the visual modality of listening test. Most of the test-takers were unanimous about the distracting nature of visual listening test.

Index Terms—visual listening test, pictorial listening test, listening assessment, video listening test, still-image listening test

I. INTRODUCTION

For many years, test administrators meticulously tried to monitor test-takers' behavior in taking different modalities of listening comprehension test. Listening test which has always been a challenging point for test administrators created a dilemma over how to use additional materials with the test. On one hand, many researchers (e.g., Kellerman, 1990; Baltova, 1994; Kellerman, 1992; Progosh, 1996; Shin, 1998; Sueyoshi and Hardison, 2005; Wagner 2010b) believed that providing students with visual and pictorial devices can improve the comprehension of the text and consequently improving the authenticity of the test.

On the other hand, it is believed that accompanying other resources like pictures or video materials or even multimedia resources means testing something beyond the listening skill. But accompanying listening test with pictorial and visual devices can make the listening test more integrative as listening in real-life situations involves the listener to watch the physical movements and facial gestures of the speaker(s) and even reacting to them (Sueyoshi and Hardison, 2005).

However, incorporating these devices with listening comprehension test needs more consideration as it is suspected to be the reason for test-takers' distraction (MacWilliam, 1986; Bejar et al., 2000; Alderson, Clapham, and Wall, 1995; Brett, 1997; Coniam, 2001; Ockey, 2007; Buck, 2001).

Therefore, apart from taking these sorts of tests and comparing the results, test-takers' attitudes toward taking these tests should also be taken into deliberate consideration. Some previous studies (e.g., Progosh, 1996; Wagner, 2002; Wagner, 2010b) showed test-takers' strong positive opinion for having video materials in taking the test.

In this study, the use of pictures in taking the listening test is referred to pictorial mode of listening test and the implementation of video materials is referred to visual modality of the listening test. Pictorial listening test involves providing a still-image with the test which represents some particular features of the context e.g. setting, and the character(s). This sort of test has been used by ® ETS in TOEFL CBT and TOEFL iBT tests since 2003. It is argued that pictorial test is less distractive and sidetracking for students as they can concentrate on the listening track after visualizing different aspects of the test situation immediately.

The visual mode of listening test, on the other hand, involves showing a video track of the test.

Although this mode of test seems to be more valid and facilitating, students are faced with some difficulties in taking the visual listening test. It is estimated if students want to get the most of the visual listening test, they may overlook reviewing the questions simultaneously. On the other hand, students may prefer following the track of questions instead

of watching the video on the screen in order not to get lost during the test. Although some textbooks (e.g, American English File) accentuated the use of video listening test in the form of multimedia test with direct feedback, there is no reputable test administrator which utilized the use of video materials yet.

In the current study students were assigned to take three different modalities of the listening comprehension test: listening to an audio-only test, listening with a still image and listening to a visual context. After taking the test, students showed their perceptions and attitude toward taking different test types.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. The Usefulness of Visual and Pictorial Materials in Listening Test

Visual and pictorial listening tests have been administered regularly by test administrators and the results were contradictory (Wagner, 2010a, 2010b; Baltova, 1994; Sueyoshi and Hardison, 2005; Shin, 1998; Gruba, 1997; Coniam, 2001; Kellerman, 1990, 1992; Burgoon, 1994; Progosh, 1996). In some studies (e.g., Baltova, 1994; Parry and Meredith, 1984), those test-takers who received the video listening test, scored higher and consequently performed better in the test.

Visual and multimedia listening tests were not always represented test-takers' higher performance. In a study by Gruba (1997) which was carried out on 91 ESL students in the United States of America, no statistically significant difference was observed between audio-only and video listening test.

The use of video listening test was also compared with multimedia listening test. Multimedia listening test which is the visual test by showing the video prompt on the computer and it is different in a sense that it has to be carried out on computer. Additionally, students receive direct corrective feedback closely after taking each test. Brett (1997) examined test-takers' performance by conducting three different test types of audio-only, Multimedia and visual listening tests. Among the three test types, students totally scored higher in the multimedia listening test. Among 6 test items, Multimedia listening test scored higher in 4 test items and video listening test received higher score in 2 test items.

Along the visual materials, pictorial resources were tested previously in order to compare the students' performance between listening test with audio-only materials and listening test with a still-image. The practice of still image listening test is still endorsed and authorized by ® ETS in TOEFLiBT and TOEFL CBT.In a study by Bejar, Douglas, Jamieson, Nissan, and Turner (2000), the implementation of still-image was tested in comparison to audio-only listening test. They outlined the still-image (pictorial listening test in this study) as a convenient way to anticipate the upcoming events while taking the test. When test-takers can envisage a general outline of the settings and the character(s) in the listening test, they would unquestionably have a better impression of what the testis about and which pieces of information are more substantial than others.

B. Test-takers' Reactions over Using Different Modalities of the Listening Test

The amount of test-takers' engagement with the video listening test has been investigated meticulously in different studies. Ockey (2007) found that students shown the minimum amount of engagement while taking the video listening test. On the other hand, Wagner (2007) investigated the test-takers' viewing rate and found that students showed 69% eye contact with the visual materials while taking the listening test. In another study, Wagner (2010b) argued that in his study, test-takers' declined watching the video prompts in order not to lose the track of the listening questions. He concluded that the total amount of test-takers' viewing rate was less than half of the test time.

A number of studies investigated the students' perceptions, attitudes and reactions over using different types of listening test. In some studies (e.g., Progosh, 1996; Wagner, 2002; Sueyoshi and Hardison, 2005) students gave optimistic and constructive responses over using video listening test. Likewise, in another study, Wagner (2010a) concluded that students' strong reaction in favor of using video materials in listening test might be the reason for reducing test anxiety and apprehension. It was concluded that students became more attentive and observant while taking the video listening test.

Feak and Salehzadeh (2001) believed because of the provocative judgments over using or not using visual and pictorial materials in the listening test, more research is needed in order to deliver these prompts to students in different conditions. Although implementing video materials might lead to improve the face validity of the listening test, there are some potential reasons for not using the test by professional testing administrators: firstly, it is difficult to administer and challenging in execution. Secondly, it is believed that testing listening by integrating some visual materials might be equal to test something beyond the listening ability.

Visual and pictorial listening tests received robust criticism too. Some researchers (e.g., Bejar et al., 2000; Alderson, Clapham, and Wall, 1995; MacWilliam, 1986) believed that the distracting and sidetracking nature of the visual resources makes the test encumbering rather than facilitating. Brett (1997) argued that students became busy reading the test books and neglected watching the visual materials. Coniam (2001) and Ockey (2007) believed that sidetracking and distraction are other factors that affect test-takers in this kind of test. According to Buck (2001), the ability to comprehend the language similar to those of the target language domain is different from the ability to understand "subtle visual information" (p. 172).

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The current study intended to investigate the following research questions:
1. What is the test-takers' attitude over taking audio-only listening test?
2. What is the test-takers' attitude over taking pictorial listening test?
3. What is the test-takers' attitude over taking visual listening test?

IV. Materials and Methods

A. Participants and Setting

This was a part of a larger study in which 85 Iranian intermediate students were selected. Students aged 16 to 20 speak Persian as their mother tongue. In order to make the participants homogenized, the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency was administered and students ranked in intermediate level according to ACTFL proficiency guidelines.

B. Audio-only, Pictorial, and Visual Listening Tests

After taking the pre-test, students took three different kinds of listening test. In the first test, students took a listening test in the form of audio-only test in which no additional material was included. The audio-only test consisted of multiple choice test representing the conversation in the form of a dialogue between two speakers. After the audio-only test, test-takers took the second kind of listening test which was the pictorial listening test in which at the beginning of each section, a still image was provided. The purpose of the still image was to provide necessary information about the situation of the test. In the third listening test, students watch a video track before taking the listening test. All three tests were extracted from American English File proficiency test. The speakers in the listening test were all native speakers of English. Various topics were selected like shopping, conversation in the Hotel's reception desk, conversation at the check-in desk at the airport, and conversation in the restaurant.

C. Questionnaire

After taking the test, a 5-point scale questionnaire similar to the 5-point Likert Scale questionnaire was given to the test-takers. The current questionnaire (see appendix A) was organized by getting assistance from the questionnaire of development and validation by Lotfi (2010). The questions were modified in order to meet the criteria of this study. Questions were designed in order to acquire test-takers' reactions, perceptions and attitudes on taking three different types of listening test. The questionnaire was intended to analyze a range of different issues related to three different tests. Different issues like the ability to predict the content and also predicting the upcoming events was probed in the questionnaire. Students were asked about comparing the visual with pictorial listening test as far as prediction ability is concerned. Test-takers' opinions were collected regarding the better understanding and the usefulness of visual materials by watching the physical movements and facial gestures. Whether implementing the video test could promote understanding the difficult words with unfamiliar stress patterns and intonations was also scrutinized in the questionnaire.

The negative aspects of the video listening test were also examined to see whether students could maintain the main idea while taking the test. The sidetracking aspect of the video listening test was also a key feature in the questionnaire. Additionally, students were questioned over the matter of managing the time to see whether they had enough time in watching the video track and following the track of the questions.

D. Procedures

After taking the pre-test, Students with (z) scores of 1 standard deviation below and above the mean were selected. The number of participants was reduced to 80. After homogenizing the participants, three different test types were taken. The tests included multiple-choice test in three formats: audio-only, pictorial and visual listening test. The tests were all extracted and randomized from American English File proficiency test including a range of different topics representing those of a target language domain. After taking the test and experiencing different modalities of listening test, students were asked about their attitude regarding different issues which had been presented in all three tests. The responses were collected and the mean and standard deviation of all answers were analyzed in detail. The internal consistency of the questionnaire was also obtained by using Cronbach's alpha.

V. Data Analysis, Results and Discussions

Table 1 represents the scores of each of thirty-one items of the questionnaire on a 5-point scale similar to the 5-point Likert Scale with three as the center point. According to Table 1, means above three reveal positive attitudes of test-takers and means below three indicate negative attitudes of test-takers. The mean of the overall questionnaire was 3.85 and the standard deviation was 0.17. The internal consistency of the questionnaire was $\alpha = 0.80$. Moreover, all of the items had item-total correlations of greater than 0.3. Therefore, the questionnaire items were reliably measuring the same construct.

The first research question sought to investigate the test-takers' attitude over taking audio-only listening test. First, consider the questions about audio-only test which are the questions 1, 9, 12, 13, 14, 20, 22, 25, and 26 (*It was difficult for me to predict the content of the test in listening to audio-only modality test, In Audio-only modality of listening test,*

it was difficult to relate what I heard with an earlier part of the listening test, In listening to audio-only modality test, I found it difficult to guess the meaning of unknown words by linking them to known words, In audio-only listening modality test, making a mental summary of information was difficult, In audio only modality of listening test, there was enough time to take notes while listening, I found it difficult to understand the listening tests in which there were too many unfamiliar words, I found it difficult to understand when speakers spoke too fast in audio-only test, I found the long audio-only listening text difficult to interpret, By thinking about the meaning of unfamiliar words in audio-only listening modality test, I got lost in the middle of the test). These questions had negative meanings investigating the hardness of audio-only test. The mean of these questions were higher than the central point (mean = 4.24, 4.40, 4.16, 4.53, 3.70, 4.39, 4.29, 4.38, 4.00) indicating that the attitude of students toward the audio-only test was totally negative (overall mean = 4.23). Figure 1 shows the results more conspicuously.

TABLE1.
QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS ABOUT TEST-TAKERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS AUDIO-ONLY, PICTORIAL AND VIDEO TESTS

| Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	'Strongly Disagree' ratings	'Disagree' ratings	'Undecided' ratings	'Agree' ratings	'Strongly Agree' ratings
1	4.24	0.57	0	0	6	49	25
2	1.20	0.40	16	64	0	0	0
3	4.89	0.31	0	0	0	17	63
4	4.33	0.47	0	0	0	54	26
5	3.78	0.76	0	0	34	30	16
6	4.24	0.71	0	0	13	35	32
7	3.83	0.68	0	0	27	40	13
8	4.89	0.31	0	0	0	29	71
9	4.40	0.62	0	0	6	36	38
10	4.41	1.07	4	4	0	19	53
11	3.81	0.95	54	26	0	0	0
12	4.16	0.73	0	0	16	35	29
13	4.53	0.50	0	0	0	38	42
14	3.70	0.66	0	0	33	38	9
15	4.55	0.50	0	0	0	36	44
16	3.96	1.24	4	13	0	28	35
17	2.38	0.91	11	41	15	13	0
18	4.55	0.50	0	0	0	36	14
19	4.61	0.49	0	0	0	31	49
20	4.39	0.49	0	0	0	49	31
21	4.38	0.76	0	0	14	22	44
22	4.29	0.76	0	0	15	27	38
23	2.36	0.95	12	42	11	15	0
24	3.09	0.75	0	19	35	26	0
25	4.38	0.62	0	0	6	38	36
26	4.00	0.65	0	0	18	45	17
27	3.33	0.77	0	15	24	41	0
28	4.05	0.98	0	12	0	40	28
29	1.64	0.71	40	29	11	0	0
30	3.90	0.64	0	0	21	46	13
31	3.36	1.33	11	9	19	22	19
Total of Responses			152	274	324	935	785
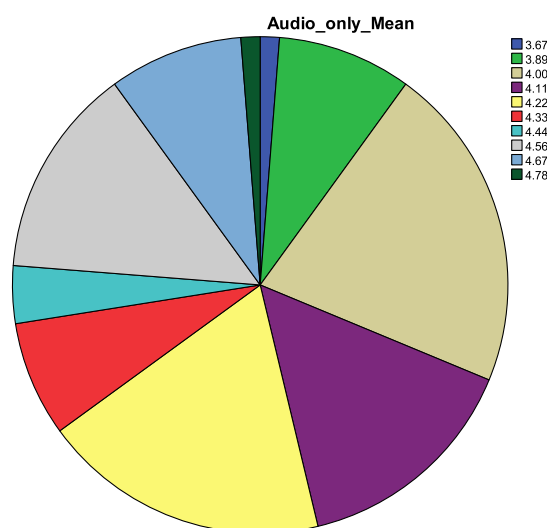
Figure 1. The Mean Differences of the Audio-only Mode Questions

The second research question sought to investigate the test-takers' attitude over taking pictorial listening test. Consider the questions about the pictorial test which are the questions 2, 3, 8, 11 and 21. Look at questions 2 and 11 (*Before listening, it was difficult for me to predict from the still-image modality test what I would hear, Listening to still-image test seemed to be more challenging*). The means of these questions were below the central point (mean = 1.20, 1.33) revealing that the attitude of students towards pictorial test was negative. In contrast, consider questions 3, 8, and 21 (*Still-image helped me to visualize the situation in which the conversation occurred, In still-image modality of listening test, there was enough time to imagine the topic and analyze the question, Video and still- image modality tests made the overall comprehension easier*).

The means of these questions were higher than the central point (mean = 4.89, 4. 89, 4.38) meaning that the attitude of students towards pictorial test was positive. Therefore, the attitude of students towards pictorial test was totally positive. Figure 2 shows the results more clearly.
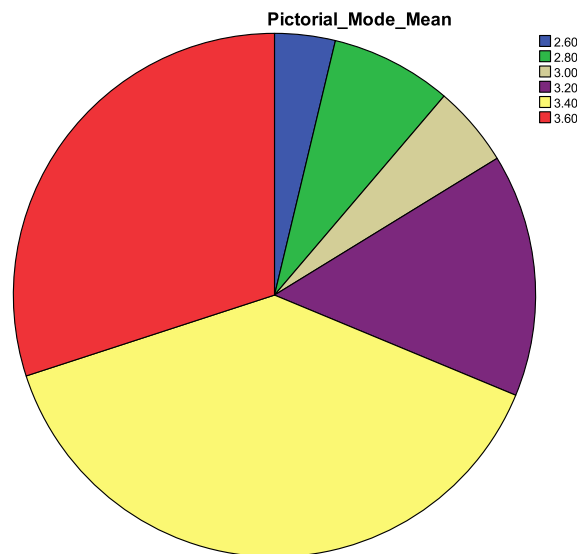

Figure 2. The Mean Differences of the Pictorial Mode Questions

The third research question sought to investigate the test-takers' attitude over taking visual listening test. Finally, consider the questions about the video test. The means of questions 4, 5, 6, 7, 21, 24, 27, 30 and 31 (*Watching video during the test helped me to understand the whole context better, By watching the video materials during the test, I could predict the upcoming incidents better, By looking at facial gestures and lip movements during the video modality test, comprehending the topic was easier, Understanding the questions which were related to content was easier in video modality listening test, Video and still- image modality tests made the overall comprehension easier, Video listening test made the understanding of unfamiliar stress and intonation patterns easier, Listening to video modality of the listening test made the consistency of the flow of speech easier, The problem of unclear sound resulting from poor quality speakers was obviated by getting help from the video track, Being able to see who the speakers were made me more interested to follow the video modality of the listening test more attentively*) were higher than the central point (mean = 4.33, 3.74, 4.24, 3.83, 4.38, 3.09, 3.33, 3.90, 3.36) meaning that the attitude of students towards video test was positive. In contrast consider the questions 10, 15, 16, 18, 19, and 28 (*When listening to video modality listening test, I missed the main idea of the passage by paying attention to the details, In video modality listening test, note taking was very difficult because of time spending on watching the movie, I preferred to ignore the video material in order to take notes on the questions, After video listening test, it was difficult to evaluate the overall accuracy of my comprehension, I was distracted many times during the video modality of the listening test, Paying attention to video modality of the listening test made me ignore paying attention to the questions*).

As it is clear, these questions investigated the hardness of the video test and how the students ignored the video or how they were distracted by watching the video. The means of these questions was higher than the central point (mean = 4.41, 4.55, 3.96, 4.55, 4.61, 3.33) revealing that the attitude of the students towards the video test was negative. At the same time, the means of questions 17, 23, 29 (*Guessing the difficult parts of the context was easier by paying attention to the video, Video listening test made the understanding of fast conversations easier, I found it easy to reduce my anxiety before doing the video listening test*) was lower than three (mean = 2.38, 2.36, 1.64) indicating that the attitude of students towards these questions was negative. Therefore, it can be reported that students' attitude towards video test was totally negative. Figure 3 represents the results more noticeably.
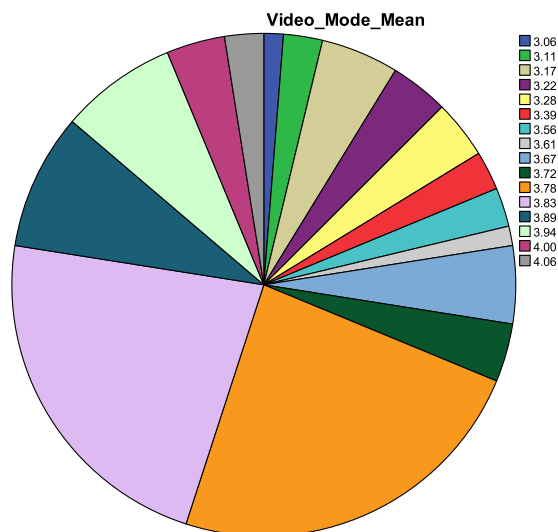
Figure 3. The Mean Differences of the Video Mode Questions

Figures 4 and 5 represent the full description of the frequency and mean of pictorial and visual listening test respectively.
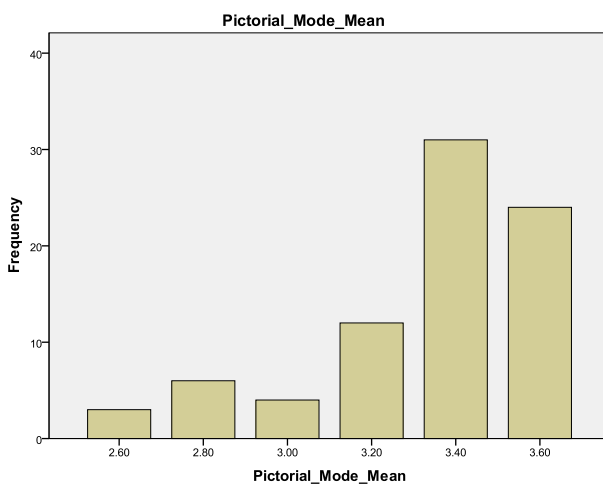

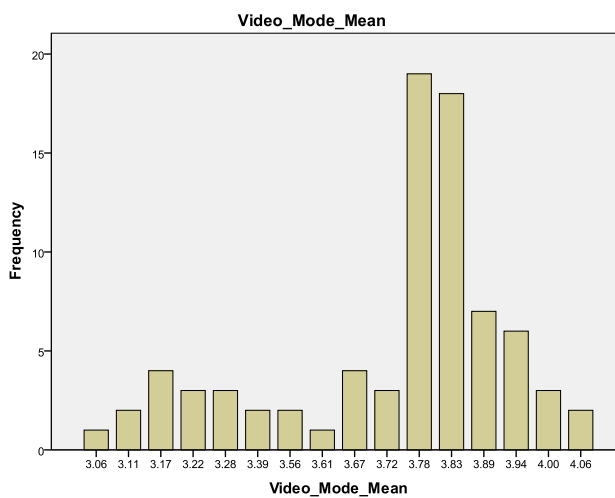Figure 4. Description of frequency and mean of the pictorial mode

Figure 4. Description of frequency and mean of the visual mode

VI. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

According to the results of the questionnaire, Test-takers' attitude toward taking the audio-only listening test was completely negative. These reactions are manifested in different questions.

Test-takers believed that while taking the audio-only test, predicting the content of the passage and relating different parts of the text were difficult. Furthermore, test-takers believe that audio-only listening test is not a suitable type in making comprehensive mental summary as it was difficult for them to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words. They also confirmed the fact that understanding long passages with fast pace of speech was a laborious task.

Interestingly, test-takers reacted positively toward the pictorial listening test in which a still image was included. According to the results of the survey, it is concluded that pictures in the form of still images can be a useful technique to predict and visualize the upcoming events. Moreover, in the pictorial listening test, students had enough time to imagine the topic and analyze the questions. Nearly all test-takers were unanimous that both visual and pictorial listening test were more challenging. Test-takers also believed that overall comprehension of the pictorial listening was easier.

Students showed mixed feelings regarding the visual listening test. Totally they reacted negatively toward taking the visual listening test. On one hand, students believed that visual listening test makes the overall comprehension of the passage easier and it provides a better chance of anticipating the upcoming events in the test. Body movements and facial gestures were also considered to be an advantage which made the content related questions easier to comprehend. The consistency of the flow of speech in the visual listening test was easier as long as this type of test made the recognition of unfamiliar words and phrases with difficult pronunciation, stress pattern and intonation easier. These findings are in agreement with the findings of the previous studies (e.g., Progosh, 1996; Wagner, 2002; Sueyoshi and Hardison, 2005; Wagner, 2010a). The problem of poor quality speakers has been obviated by the use of visual materials.

The results of this study corroborated the fact that test-takers missed the main idea of the passage by paying attention to the details of the questions in the visual listening test. According to the questionnaire, as long as note-taking was so difficult in the visual test, test-takers preferred not to take the notes. After taking the visual test, students remained hesitant about the overall accuracy of the comprehension. The majority of students believed that they had been distracted many times during taking the visual listening test and it was the main source of their anxiety. Some of the students believed that by watching the video track, they had forgotten following the questions.

The current study validates the fact that although the inclusion of visual materials may increase the face validity by helping students in understanding the difficult words and phrases, but hinders the test-taking process as students become confused and sidetracked over what to do during the test. Therefore, the use of such devices should be practiced cautiously.

APPENDIX. THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Student,

Please state your opinions about three types of listening tests that you had before. Please put a check mark (√) in one of the spaces for each statement which are about three different modalities of listening test: audio-only, pictorial mode and the video mode. Your sincere contribution will help us to improve the quality of instruction in your institution. Indeed your opinions remain confidential.

Thank you very much indeed for your cooperation in advance.

GUIDE TO THE TABLE: SA: STRONGLY AGREE, A: AGREE, U: UNDECIDED, D: DISAGREE, SD: STRONGLY DISAGREE

Items	SD	D	U	A	SA
1. It was difficult for me to predict the content of the test in listening to audio-only modality test.					
2. Before listening, it was difficult for me to predict from the still-image modality test what I would hear.					
3. Still-image helped me to visualize the situation in which the conversation occurred.					
4. Watching video during the test helped me to understand the whole context better.					
5. By watching the video materials during the test, I could predict the upcoming incidents better.					
6. By looking at facial gestures and lip movements during the video modality test, comprehending the topic was easier.					
7. Understanding the questions which were related to content was easier in video modality listening test.					
8. In still-image modality of listening test, there was enough time to imagine the topic and analyze the questions.					
9. In Audio-only modality of listening test, it was difficult to relate what I heard with an earlier part of the listening test.					
10. When listening to video modality listening test, I missed the main idea of the passage by paying attention to the details.					
11. Listening to still-image and video modality tests seemed to be more challenging.					
12. In listening to audio-only modality test, I found it difficult to guess the meaning of unknown words by linking them to known words.					
13. In audio-only listening modality test, making a mental summary of information was difficult.					
14. In audio only modality of listening test, there was enough time to take notes while listening.					
15. In video modality listening test, note taking was very difficult because of time spending on watching the movie.					
16. I preferred to ignore the video material in order to take notes on the questions.					
17. Guessing the difficult parts of the context was easier by paying attention to the video.					
18. After video listening test, it was difficult to evaluate the overall accuracy of my comprehension.					
19. I was distracted many times during the video modality of the listening test.					
20. I found it difficult to understand the listening tests in which there were too many unfamiliar words.					
21. Video and still- image modality tests made the overall comprehension easier.					
22. I found it difficult to understand when speakers spoke too fast in audio-only test.					
23. Video listening test made the understanding of fast conversations easier.					
24. Video listening test made the understanding of unfamiliar stress and intonation patterns easier.					
25. I found the long audio-only listening text difficult to interpret.					
26. By thinking about the meaning of unfamiliar words in audio-only listening modality test, I got lost in the middle of the test.					
27. Listening to video modality of the listening test made the consistency of the flow of speech easier.					
28. Paying attention to video modality of the listening test made me ignore paying attention to the questions.					
29. I found it easy to reduce my anxiety before doing the video listening test.					
30. The problem of unclear sound resulting from poor quality speakers was obviated by getting help from the video track.					
31. Being able to see who the speakers were made me more interested to follow the video modality of the listening test more attentively.					

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Atefeh Elekaei is a PhD candidate in Applied Linguistics at Islamic Azad University of Khorasgan, Isfahan, Iran. She received her M.A. in Teaching English as a Foreign Language from Islamic Azad University of Takestan, Iran in 2012.

She has a number of publications and conference papers. She currently teaches at different universities and institutes. Her major interests are Language Acquisition, Second Language Learning, Language Testing and Computer Assisted Language Learning.

Sajad Faramarzi is a PhD candidate in Applied Linguistics at Islamic Azad University of Khorasgan, Isfahan, Iran.

He has been working as a teacher, teacher trainer and educational manager for over 10 years in different language institutions in Tehran. Currently, he is a lecturer at Payam-e-Noor University, Qom, Iran.

Mr. Faramarzi has published several scholarly articles in the field of Applied Linguistics. He is also an experienced interpreter cooperating with different foreign embassies and consulates in Iran.

His major interests are Language Acquisition, Language Testing, Computer assisted Language Learning and Computer Assisted Language Teaching.

Reza Biria is a faculty member of English Language Teaching Department, Islamic Azad University of Khorasgan (Isfahan) Branch. He is an assistant professor at Khorasgan branch. He holds a PhD in Applied Linguistics.

Dr. Biria's major interests are Language Testing, Research Methodology, Linguistics, and Teaching Methodology. He has published a lot of articles and books. Dr. Biria has participated in several seminars and conferences and is an experienced professor of English.

Metadiscourse and Contrastive Rhetoric in Academic Writing: Evaluation of a Small Academic Corpus

Jabreel Asghar

English Language Institute, King Abdulaziz University, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—Metadiscourse is a popular concept among linguists and educators. It helps to understand how writers structure their texts in order to facilitate the understanding of the text successfully. This study explores various features of metadiscourse and contrastive rhetoric in a small corpus of academic writing of Pakistani learners at tertiary levels. The paper follows Hyland's (2004) interactive and interactional resources modal to determine metadiscourse features in the corpus. The analysis explores the data through quantitative examination as well as qualitative investigation into the texts. The paper emphasizes on developing awareness of metadiscourse features to make students' writing more effective and well structured.

Index Terms—metadiscourse, contrastive rhetoric, academic writing, discourse analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

The concept of academic writing is rather innovative in Pakistani academic context. Over the past decade, private universities in Pakistan have played a major role in bringing awareness to raise academic standards in terms of quality education, research culture and broader perspectives of knowledge in line with global development of higher education sector. However, the pace of this awareness is rather sluggish at schools that are the nurseries of prospective university students. Students trained in state and in a large number of private schools generally lack capabilities to compete the educational challenges at tertiary level due to inadequate academic training in various study skills.

The situation is complicated with two different media of instructions in Pakistan i.e. English and Urdu. English is rapidly replacing the medium of Urdu instruction alongside an on-going debate on selecting the right language for learning. The phenomenon of English language acquisition is intricate as Pakistani English is equally influenced by American and British English in terms of grammar and pronunciation as well as by Urdu in terms of syntax structures and other socio-linguistic aspects. These factors make students' task of language acquisition and language proficiency both in Urdu and English rather complex. Frequent and excessive mingling of English and Urdu impacts the linguistics identities of both languages in speakers' mind, and L1 and L2 influence hugely impact students' language acquisition with quality.

In this perspective, Pakistani university students in general, having no training, struggle to cope with using the academic discourse in their academic work appropriately. Many universities introduce courses in study skills for students to achieve the skills essential to meet the challenges of graduate studies. However this arrangement is not apparently sufficient as Asghar (2013) refers to his study of a group of students at higher secondary level in Pakistan who, at large, did not demonstrate the ability even to compose a piece of writing accurately on their own. In order to overview Pakistani students' skills in academic writing at university level, this paper has selected a small group of students from a private university who are studying for an undergraduate degree in business or IT. Through the analysis of the corpus, this study hopes to explore the problem areas in Pakistani university students' academic writing in order to increase awareness among teachers and course developers of writing.

II. METADISCOURSE

Metadiscourse is defined as the linguistic resources used to organise the discourse or the writer's stance towards either its content or the reader (Hyland, 2000). It helps writers to appropriately structure the discourse with logically connected ideas. In other words, metadiscourse refers to the thinking and writing process of a writer through signal words in text which inform readers on the development of thought as well as text. It reflects writer's attitude towards text and readers by:

• Indicating their attitudes through signal words/phrases e.g. *I believe, on the contrary, first, second, in order to explain* etc.

• Announcing the next event in text e.g. *I will show, compare, explain, conclude* etc.

• Expressing logical connections in text e.g. *therefore, however, on the other hand* etc.

• Hedging certainty e.g. *probably, it seems that, it might* be etc.

A number of studies, informing on various dimensions, have been conducted on written texts to investigate the importance of metadiscourse e.g. Chriosmore (1989), Swales (1990), Buton, (1999), Maurenan, (1993) and Velcro-Grace, (1996), Hyland (2000), Hyland (2004). Hyland & Tse (2004) argue that metadiscourse offers a way of understanding the interpersonal resources of a writer to uncover something of rhetorical and social distinctiveness of disciplinary communities i.e. it provides the devices which writers use to organise their text, show their attitudes towards the text and their audience. Hyland and Tse proposed a model to identify metadiscourse features in academic writing (Figure 1).

Category	Function	Examples
Interactive resources	Help to guide reader through the text	
Transitions	express semantic relation between main clauses	in addition/but/thus/ and
Frame markers	refer to discourse acts, sequences, or text stages	finally/to conclude/my purpose here is to
Endophoric markers	refer to information in other parts of the text	noted above/see Fig/in section 2
Evidentials	refer to source of information from other texts	according to X/(Y, 1990)/Z states
Code glosses	help readers grasp functions of ideational material	namely/e.g./such as/in other words
Interactional resources	Involve the reader in the argument	
Hedges	withhold writer's full commitment to proposition	might/perhaps/possible/ about
Boosters	emphasize force or writer's certainty in proposition	in fact/definitely/it is clear that
Attitude markers	express writer's attitude to proposition	unfortunately/I agree/ surprisingly
Engagement markers	explicitly refer to or build relationship with reader	consider/note that/you can see that
Self-mentions	explicit reference to author(s)	I/we/my/our

Figure 1: The model of metadiscourse by Hyland & Tse (2004)

At interactive resource level, the model informs the readers on the organisation of the text and how writers organise and present the content within the text. Interactional functions relate "to the writer's attitude towards the text through hedging, boosters, self-references" (Hyland & Tse, 2004: 159). It informs on how the writer shows response to the contents of the text. Bunton (1999) views meta-text as the writer's self-awareness to the text whereas Hyland & Tse (2004) claim that this model of metadiscourse represents the writers' awareness of unfolding the text, giving clues to their own thinking process of how they perceive and develop their thoughts within the text.

Both of these types of functions are interrelated in the sense that the writer achieves interpersonal goals by using textual devices such as transitions, additive, endophoric markers, evidential markers, frames markers etc. These markers also serve as self-evaluation on the writer's part for they indicate the points writers want to highlight, explain, compare or contrast. They also inform the readers of the writer's linking, and/or, transition from one idea to the other. This paper follows the same model of metadiscourse in academic texts by Hyland & Tse (2004) to analyse text at interactive and interactional level.

Contrastive Rhetoric

Kaplan (1996) believes that contrastive rhetoric has been controversial in ESL research for many reasons: first early research on rhetoric focused only on the final product. Moreover, it did not compare texts from the same genres. Secondly, rhetoric research did not consider writers' writing skills in their first language and norms of writing in first language. Finally there is no universal rhetorical model to compare and evaluate the rhetoric researches. Kubota (2004) introduces the concept of critical contrastive rhetoric that investigates the issues of language and power in cultural thoughts within a text. However later work in the area addresses these issues for more valid studies and findings. For example see Liebman (1992), Mastuda (1997), Kubota (1998), Kubota (2003), Hirose (2003), Liu (2005), Jarrat, Losh & Puente (2006).

Grabe and Kaplan's (1996) claim that "language, and thus writing too, is the product of human mind and is therefore inseparable from that mind, and all its attendants subjectivity, value-orientation and emotion" (pp. 177). They believe that "contrastive rhetoric has its origin in notions of language structures, learning, and use" (pp. 199). The goal of contrastive rhetoric is thus to describe how written texts operate in larger cultural contexts. Contrastive rhetoric provides an increased awareness of the conventions L2 writers bring to composition classes and this awareness is pedagogically significant because it enables teachers to assist learners in analysing their expectations versus the expectations of their English reading audiences based on the rhetoric they have learned in contrast to the rhetoric they are learning.

III. THE DATA

The data for this study consists of 11 written texts, each of about 450 words at average written by three female and eight male students, studying as a class at bachelor level in a Pakistani private university. The class consists of male and female students from various disciplines such as business studies and IT studies at undergraduate level. All the students belong to mixed academic backgrounds of 'A' Level and mainstream Bachelor of Arts (BA) examination in Pakistan. This course is mandatory for all the students at this university. The selected texts for this study were randomly taken from one of the routine sessions on writing and the students' consent was taken to anonymously analyse the discourse of these texts for research purposes.

The writing task is opinion based writing. The prompt required the students to respond to an email by an American friend explaining their concept of a Pakistani national. The required length of the email was between 450 – 500 words. Few students wrote more than the limit whereas some could just reach the limit, constituting a corpus of about 4200 words.

The students were asked to reply to an email by an American friend who wanted to know more about various characterises of Pakistani nationals which western media failed to project in the west. Though all the students were supposed to be familiar with emailing system and use it as a part of their academic and personal routine, only four out of eleven students considered the intended audience and the genre required for this task. Rest of the seven students started writing as if they were writing an essay on a given topic.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

In order to analyse the data, all the interactive and interactional metadiscourse were counted and enlisted in tabular form for numerical analysis and presentation of the data. Though the discussion of the analysis repeatedly refer to male and female inclinations in using certain metadiscourse features, the study does not claim to generalise the gender based differences/similarities because of imbalanced gender proportion of the sample population as well as the limited scope of the corpus. However, it useful to highlight gender based priorities to initiate further possible research topics with a focus on these perspectives. The analysis does not take into account endophoric markers, evidentials and code glosses for these features did not occur in these texts. Likewise, in order to keep the discussion focused, the analysis does not consider the grammatical construction of the texts. Terms 'F' and 'M' in the discussion of the corpus refer to female and male participants respectively.

An overview of the data (Figure 2) shows that this group of writers made a more frequent and greater use of interactional devices (73%) as compared to interactive devices (33%). Excessive use of interactional devices to reflect the writers' attitude towards the topic is rationalised because of the opinion based nature of the writing task. Likewise, high frequency of self-mention (36%) is also understandable in such type of texts. However, other devices such as hedges, frame markers and boosters are significantly lower. The writers used hedges 4% and attitude markers 5% of all the metadiscourse devices which could have been increased to make the language of the texts more polite and cultural sensitive, particularly with the foreign audience. In the use of interactive resources, the writers used transitional devices but they do not seem to frequently use frame markers, which are important for well organised structure.
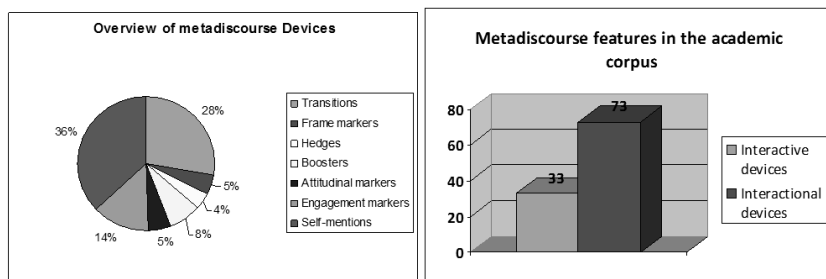

Figure 2: Overview of the corpus analysis

Figure 2 suggests that these writers are somewhat familiar with using interactional devices but they require further training on the use of interactive devices to organise their ideas and structure their writing more cohesively and

coherently. The following sections analyse the corpus at micro level by looking at each metadiscourse device individually.

A. Interactive Resources

1. Transitions

A high ratio in the use of transitions, representing internal connections in the discourse, is clearly an important feature of academic argument (Hyland & Tse, 2004). Transitional words and phrases link the sentences, paragraphs and the whole text in the form of a continuous thought. The writers use them to help readers recall what has previously been said or to anticipate the coming thought. Figure 2 shows that transitions constitute 28% of the whole metadiscourse devices used in the texts. The difference is not significant as compared to self-mentions i.e. 36%. But qualitative examination of corpus shows that use of transitions and self mentions was not used equally by all the writers. As figure 3 shows, all the three female writers used transitional devices more frequently as compared to the male writers.
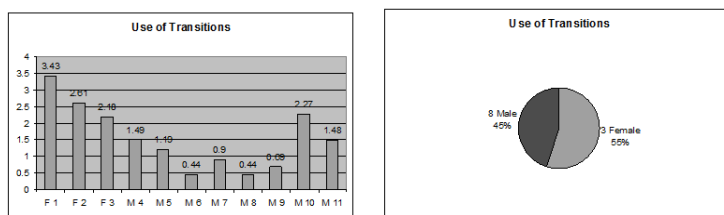

Figure 3: Use of transitions

Three female writers used 55% of transitions as compared to 8 males who used 45% transitions, which reflects that the female writers demonstrated a significantly greater ability to use transitional devices in writing. However, the quality of transitions is another issue to be considered in this respect. The most frequently used transitions are *but, and, this* and *that*. In this opinion based task, the writers were expected to use a variety of advanced transitions to illustrate, contrast, emphasize, make concessions, give examples and summarise details. Nevertheless, the corpus does not demonstrate much transitional support, to enable readers trace connections between the ideas conveniently. In the corpus, all the writers started a new sentence or paragraph without linking it to the previous one, which made the reading of the texts somewhat uninteresting and difficult to understand. Sometimes the writers use transitions awkwardly. For example:

*I heard a lot that Pakistanis are very negative thinkers **and** there is a lot of gender differences **and that** the life in Pakistan is very easy **and** tension free because no one thinks good about others….(F 3)*

This example, and quite a few more like this, emphasize that despite these writers have frequently use transitional devices, they require focused guidance on using appropriate and a variety of devices to suit the purpose of the writing task.

2. Frame Markers

Another metadiscourse feature is frame markers that help readers to understand the construction of the text and identify various stages in discussion. Reading of the text becomes more difficult in the absence of frame markers because readers do not know the beginning, end or development of thought. Frame markers represent 5% of all metadiscourse features in this small corpus. As shown in figure 4, a low percentage of frame markers indicate the writers' tendency of not using frame markers sufficiently in the task. They do not seem to make conscious efforts to use frame markers to signal the developmental stages in their thoughts. In the corpus most of the paragraphs and new ideas are introduced without signalling the stage of development in thought.
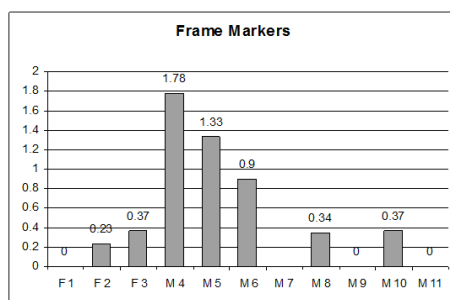

Figure 4: Use of frame markers

Interestingly, figure 4 reflects that male writers are higher frequent users of frame markers as compared to female writers. The latter used frame markers at a very low ratio whereas one female writer did not use this device at all. However, examination of the corpus shows that all the writers do not demonstrate a realistic use of interactive resources. For example, see the following quotations from the texts where writers produced sentences without continuing the sequence of thoughts logically:

1. *Speaking out the terrorism, Pakistan has played a major role in resisting the terrorist. They are very civilized……*
   The economy of Pakistan is increasing day by day. The education school is also increase. You can see millions of students in Pakistan are getting the scholarship from the foreign ministries……M 5.

2. *Our culture represents brotherhood, forgiveness etc. I am proud of being a Pakistani.*
   In Pakistan we have combined family……M 6

3. *A real and true Muslim in Pakistan is always loving his country. Every person wants to be well mannered and educated.*
   The education given in Pakistan is of two types……M 7

4. *Pakistani generally respects the elder and love with younger. I think 95% people are Muslims. I think one of the main targets of American world is always show the wrong picture of Islam. ….M 9.*

5. *Pakistani people are not so rude. They respect elders. Family institutions are strong in Pakistan. Younger respect their elders…..M 8*

In example 1 above, the second sentence is completely a new thought and not linked with the first sentence. It is not clear who the writer is referring to by using '*they*'. The next sentence is also a new thought without linking with the previous ones.

In example 2 above, the writer first talks about his culture and lifestyle, later switches to his feelings about being Pakistani, and finally switches back to Pakistani lifestyle without any transitional signals. The writer of example 3 does not show coherence between the first two sentences and starts a new paragraph, which is seemingly an attempt to start a new topic without justifying how description of a Pakistani national is related to Pakistani educational system. Similarly in examples 4 and 5, there is no connection among the three continuous sentences in the same paragraph.

The corpus does not reflect mind mapping or planning of the writing task and apparently the writers seem to have been carried away with their thoughts without organization and logical sequence between ideas. The students didn't indicate shift to the next thought or stage through frame makers. They make sudden shifts from one idea to the other. Only three male writers (M4, M10 & M11) indicated some sort of frame markers in the beginning or at the end. These are the same students as had considered their audience, started the task by addressing the main topic, and finished by saying farewell. With the exception of these three texts, there is no other evidence of properly used frame markers in the texts. Some writers used a frame marker 'first' but they seemed to forget to move to the next stage and kept writing all their thoughts as subsidiary thought to stage 1.

The intended audience of this writing task is most likely to be unfamiliar with the culture and might have required extra information to understand the writer's point of view. The writers could have used code glosses to explain or give extra information at certain points but there is hardly an example of code glosses in the texts, which denotes that the writers have most probably made exaggerated assumption about the intended audience's knowledge who is an American friend, in this case, and apparently request to be provided with more information to enhance his/her vision of Pakistani nationals.

B. Interactional Resources

1. Hedges and Boosters

Hedges indicate the scale of writers' involvement and their priorities to show how far they want to reveal their opinions vividly whereas boosters are used to emphasize the argument. Hedges also reflect writers' reluctance to communicate information categorically. This corpus is potentially capable of using both of these features. An opinion based piece of writing requires writers' to clearly indicate their viewpoint on the topic with a caution of not becoming insolent in making comments to the audience In this corpus, hedges and boosters constitute 5% and 8% respectively of metadiscourse features used (see Figure 2).

The female writer (F1, F2 and M5) have demonstrated high frequency of hedging (Figure 5). Overall tendency of using hedges only by two female writers at the ratio of 37% is substantial as compared with that of four male writers at the ratio of 63%.
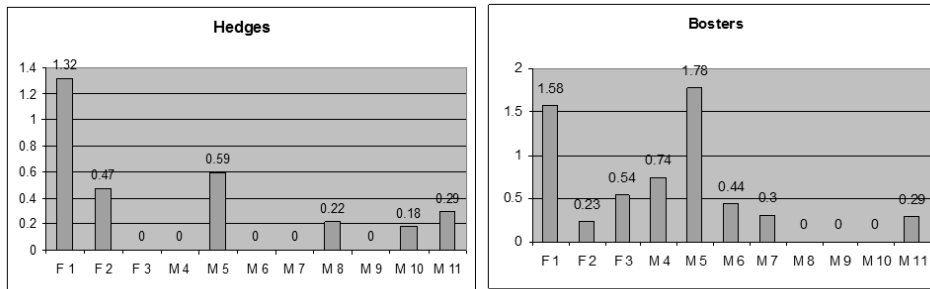
Hedges

Bosters

Figure 5: Use of hedges and boosters

The numerical examination of the data reveals that most of the hedges and boosters are used only by 55% students. Rest of the students did not show a tendency of using hedges in their writing. For example:

Pakistani people are very poor in obeying law………they do not respect or even do not bother to say hello to others. (M4)

..the difference which is in between Pakistani and American is that Pakistani is a Muslim and Americans hate Muslims…. (M7)

There are many mistakes in European nation but we don't know them because media is not presenting the real picture. M8

American society feels shame to live with old people. M 10

All the above facts could have been written in a more polite and indirect manner but all the writers have shown a tendency to express their ideas, at times rudely, that reflects that it is not an individual's style to communicate, rather they have not been taught how to use hedging in writing.

Likewise, the writers have not used boosters appropriately to emphasize their point. There is a ratio of 40% and 50% between the use of boosters among female and male writers respectively. Though, the male writers apparently seemed to use boosters more frequently than the female writers, considering their small number, the latter demonstrated greater tendency in using boosters (Figure 5).

Figure 5, however, indicates that only one writer from each gender (F 1 and M 5) used boosters at higher ratio that raised the scale in both groups. Otherwise overall the texts do not show moderate use of boosters. Three male writers, out of eight, did not use any booster in their writing. The following examples, and quite a few others in the texts, show that the writers have mostly emphasized the words, rather than the argument, and inappropriate use of bossters has at time spoiled the image of the argument.

*Pakistani people are **very technical**.* M 4

*Media is showing **very** wrong image…* M 5

*This is **really very** astonishing ....* M 7

2. Attitude Markers

Hyland & Tse (2004) observe that attitude markers express the writer's appraisal of propositional information, conveying surprise, obligation, agreement, importance, and so on. Use of a variety of attitude markers can convey the writers' mild or firm stand on an issue more effectively, without spoiling the writers' goodwill. Proportion of using attitude markers in the sample texts between male and female writers is 87% and 13% respectively (Figure 6). A close examination of the data shows that male writers have shown greater tendency to use attitude markers to appraise propositional information.

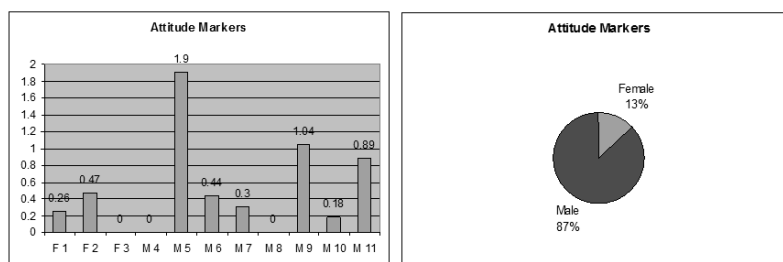**Attitude Markers**

Attitude Markers

Figure 6: Use of attitude markers

However a qualitative analysis of the texts reveals that out of 11, three students did not use any attitude marker at all whereas one student used the same attitude marker thrice. Three writers used only one attitude marker whereas only three writers used different markers with a ratio of two markers by each. Figure 6 denotes that male writers largely have broader awareness of using attitude markers in writing.

3. Engagement Markers

Writers use engagement markers to directly address the reader in order to involve them in discussion (Hyland 2001). It can be done in various ways, for example, by addressing them directly, or including them as participant in discussion. Overall use of engagement markers in the texts is 14% out which 4% markers were used by female and 10% markers were used by male writers (figure 7).
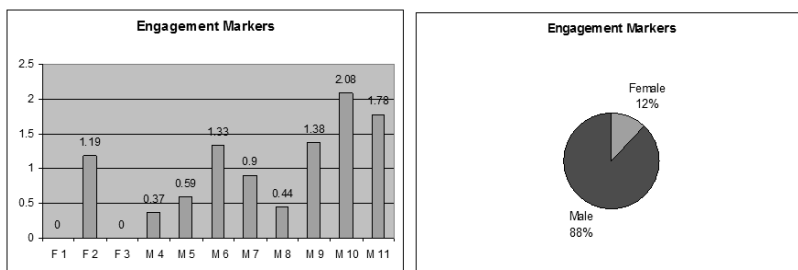
Figure 7: Use of engagement markers

Overall the percentage of using engagement markers between male and female writer is 88% and 12% respectively. Two female writers did not use any engagement markers, whereas four male writers used engagement markers with a marked high frequency as compared to others.

4. Self-Mentions

Self-mentions reflect the degree of author presence in terms of the incidence of first person pronouns and possessives (Hyland & Tse, 2004). The texts show 23% and 77% frequency of reflecting author presence by female and male respectively (figure 8). Male writers show larger frequency mainly because of their more frequent use of self-mentions and partly because of their greater number.
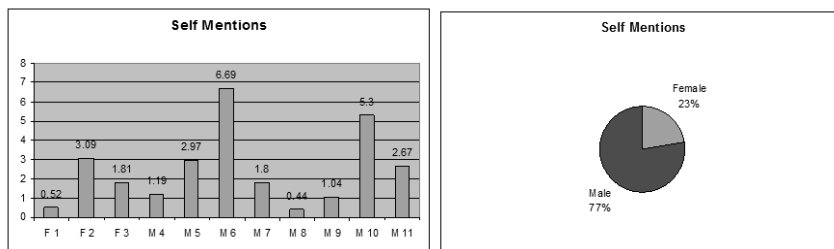
Figure 8: Use of self-mentions

It can be safely asserted that all the the writers were aware of the importance of being vocal in this writing task which involved personal view on a topic.

A comparative look at both male and female writers' use of metadiscourse (figure 9) reflects that female writers demonstrated greater tendency in using transitions, self-mentions, boosters and hedges at the rate of 38%, 31%, 11% and 9% respectively.
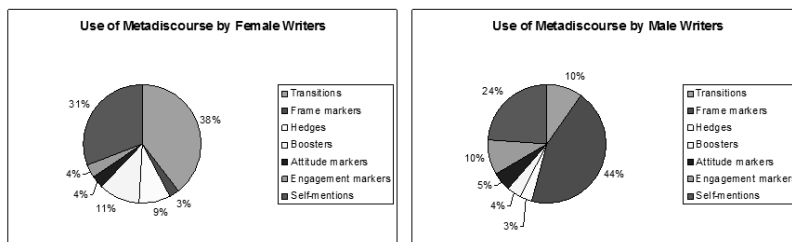
Figure 9: Use of metadiscourse by both genders

On the other hand male writers tend to use frame markers, self-mentions, engagement markers and transitions with a frequency of 44%, 24%, 10% and 10% respectively. Considering the difference in number between both genders, it can logically be concluded that female writers have reflected their presence in the texts with much higher frequency than the

male writers. On the other hand male writers have shown a higher tendency to use frame markers at a scale of 44% in contrast to that of female writers that is 3% only. Despite the findings indicate certain tendencies among male and female writers in terms of using metadiscourse features, I do not find it rational to generalise the findings on gender basis in such a small corpus. However, looking back at Figure 1, it can be suggested that this group of writers requires more attention towards using frame markers, transitions, hedges and attitude markers to make their writing more effective and more convincing. Particularly, female writers need guidance on using more of interactive devices to structure their writing whereas male writers require further training on using interactional or interpersonal devices in their writing. Use of code glosses will also help to illustrate ideas for readers by making text easier to understand.

C. Contrastive Rhetoric

Grabe & Kaplan (1996) suggest the types of knowledge which are important in teaching of writing from contrastive rhetorical angle.

i. Knowledge of rhetorical patterns or arrangement

ii. Knowledge of composing conventions and strategies needed to generate text

iii. Knowledge of the morpho-syntax of the target language, particularly as it applies at the inter-sentential level

iv. Knowledge of the coherence-creating mechanisms of the target language

v. Knowledge of the writing conventions of target language in the sense of both frequency and distribution of types and text appearance

vi. Knowledge of the audience characteristics and expectations in the target culture

vii. Knowledge of the subject to and specialist knowledge

(p. 200)

Discussing the data by the criteria of these types of knowledge strengthens the findings mentioned in the previous section. A good piece of writing contains description of process, classification, definition, more important to less important etc. With the exception of very few, the writers in this study generally did not demonstrate awareness to these devices. There is no pattern in the arrangement of ideas. Most of the writers started abruptly, without having any clear outline in their mind. They did not move from most important to less important, nor did they classify or define various entities. For example F 1 writes:

A typical Pakistani person can be an emotional ..

The word emotional has different dimensions and definitions in various cultures which she did not specifically define. M4 classified ideas by giving headings like family, education, law and order, but he did not maintain symmetry and moved to and fro between his classifications. He talked about family, education, law and order and then he discussed illiterate people, and talented people. He did not relate the ideas logically. On the contrary, M5 started his discussion with civilized nature of people and then moved to economy of the country, and later to Pakistani students' achievement in term of securing scholarships. All these ideas could have been more impressive if they were connected logically. M7 did not show any structure, organization, or classification of ideas in a pattern. All the writers demonstrated the same unorganised structure. F1, 2 and 3 showed more organised patterns because they had used transitions to link the ideas and they moved comparatively more naturally and smoothly in a sequence.

The corpus does not reflect the knowledge of strategies to generate texts. The stages of pre-writing, while-writing and post-writing are somewhat innovative in Pakistani main stream academics. This is probably one of the main reasons why the sample population of this study did not produce a coherent piece of writing.

Section 4.1.1 on transitions shows the level of knowledge of coherence-mechanism, the reflected in the corpus. As far as the knowledge of writing convention of target language is concerned, with the exception of three writers (M 4, M 10, M 11), none of the rest students showed awareness to this aspect. Rather they carried on writing in the form of paragraph. None of the writers showed awareness to the knowledge of the audience characteristics and expectations to have information on the portrait of a typical Pakistani national.

The writers also did not demonstrate the knowledge of the subject and specialist knowledge. Writers made vague claims to make their claims valid. For example:

I can tell you that according to the statistics of 2005 – 2006 the I.Q. level of Pakistani people.....M4

...the American top doctor of kidney specialist his name is Mr Butt. Its mean Pakistani are talented...M9

One more example I want to give you about intelligence of Pakistan is that one man his name is Mr Ahmad who teach the English in America.... M4.

Most of the writers seem to believe that whatever they claim will be acceptable by the audience, an assumption which reflects their underestimation and ignorance of audience expectations. The concept of research based writing or

argumentative writing is generally naïve to undergraduate students in Pakistan. Throughout their academic career, they usually have come across with reading and writing materials that is comprised of extracts from the original sources. This lack of exposure to original sources also causes lack of referencing to support their viewpoint with arguments in their writing. Likewise, this also denotes that these students heavily rely on guided writing and lack ability to think and produce critically as well as independently. The same deprives them of awareness of logically structuring their writing with well-connected ideas.

V. Final Word

The above analysis shows that both interactive and interpersonal resources in texts were not used quite effectively. Metadiscourse, as noticed by Hyland & Tse (2004), helps learner to "engage readers and create a convincing, coherent text peopled by readers, prior experiences and other texts" (p: 167). Absence of this awareness in almost all the texts denotes that metadiscourse features are not appropriately addressed in a Pakistani English writing classroom to equip learners with useful and effective wring techniques. If the corpus in question has demonstrated some awareness to using these devices, it is most likely due to students' unconscious effort based on their exposure to English language over a number of academic years. With the exception of four, the students failed to demonstrate their awareness of producing the appropriate genre required for this task, which denotes lack of training and awareness in selecting appropriate genre writing on students' part. The data analysis in section 4 proposes to essentially train learners on structuring their writing with logical organisation of their ideas. Evidence from the corpus analysis also emphasizes the need of training learners in academic writing with a keen focus on issues in contrastive rhetoric in order to avoid strong L1 influence in L2 writing.

This study potentially intends to bring awareness to educators and teachers of writing of the problem areas in academic writing, which needed to be addressed in order to help learners write appropriately to suit purpose and audience. The study also suggests the educators and the teachers to teach writing skills with consideration to audience and hence helping the audience through appropriate use of discourse markers for clear and effective communication. As Swales (1991) rightly points out, there might be no standard organisational structure for opinion based writings, there are certain preferred expectations and the way information should be organise. Teachers and curriculum developers need to be aware of these expectations and guide learners to realise how to encompass such characteristics in their writing. This study also intends to emphasize the issue of learner training in the context to encourage autonomous learning.

(2014) referring to the same context, also highlight that the textbooks used in this context do not foster autonomous learning. They highlighted how editors of one of the textbooks used their commentary on the texts to form the opinion of learners in a particular way. Such tact is most likely to discourage independent and critical thought on learners' part. This also deprives learners of the ability of structuring and refining their academic skills. Therefore, it is highly recommended that while learners are taught particular skills, such as academic writing, they should be trained to become autonomous and independent learners as well in order to perform more effectively in the academic set up and beyond for overall improvement.

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Jabreel Asghar holds a doctoral degree in Applied Linguistics and an MA in English Language Teaching, both from the university of Warwick, the United Kingdom. Besides he has an MA in English Literature from the University of Punjab, Pakistan. He has taught in the United Kingdom, the Middle East and Pakistan in the higher education sector. Currently he is teaching at the English Language Institute of King Abdulaziz University in Saudi Arabia. His major areas of interests include discourse analysis, corpus linguistics, curriculum and material design and ICT in ELT. He has been mainly published in the area of critical discourse analysis, linguistic analysis and material development. He is also a member of various publications as reviewer.

The Impact of Textual Enhancement vs. Oral Enhancement on Learning English Language Grammar

Hamidreza Fatemipour

ELT Department, College of Persian Literature and Foreign Languages, Islamic Azad University, Roudehen Branch, Roudehen, Iran

Somayeh Moharamzadeh

ELT Department, College of Persian Literature and Foreign Languages, Islamic Azad University, Roudehen Branch, Roudehen, Iran

Abstract—**Among features of second language learning, grammar has been given a prominent role. Learning grammar is important and it can affect other aspects of language learning. Learning grammar cannot occur without noticing for EFL learners. Learners should become aware of the rules and internalize those rules. Also, learning grammar should happen in a meaningful context. There are two techniques which may provide the desired conditions. Those two techniques are Textual Enhancement and Oral Enhancement. The purpose of this study was to compare the results of applying these two techniques. As the study followed a non-probability sampling, 92 students were considered as the research subjects. After administering a test of homogeneity, the number reduced to 70. There were two experimental groups in the study. Participants in one group were exposed to textual enhancement, and the participants in another were exposed to oral enhancement. There was a test which became standardized through piloting. And it was administrated to the two groups. Detailed statistical analyses were conducted to analyze the obtained data. The results indicated that there was a statistical significant difference between the oral and textual enhancement groups (t = -6.81, p < 0.05) regarding their performance on grammar achievement test. In other words, subjects in oral enhancement group outperformed the subjects in textual enhancement group.**

Index Terms—**consciousness, noticing hypothesis, textual enhancement, oral enhancement**

I. INTRODUCTION

In the history of language learning and teaching, there have been changes over teaching grammar. In grammar translation method, grammar rules were analyzed in details and those rules were applied to translate sentences and texts into students' mother language and vice versa. In direct method, grammar was taught in an inductive way. Another example of teaching grammar was the way that audio-lingual method used in which grammar was taught inductively, and they practiced grammar components through different drills (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

Cowan (2008) states that, grammar is a set of rules that describes how words and group of words can be arranged to form sentences in a particular language. The grammar of English language involves all the rules that govern the formation of English sentences and that are exactly what learners of English want to know. In explicit grammar teaching, the rules are explained to learners, or the learners are directed to find the rules by looking at linguistic examples. On the other hand, as Doughly (2003) states, implicit teaching "makes no overt references to rules or forms" (p. 263). There are some arguments against the explicit teaching of grammar. Hall (2011) states that, knowing grammar does not mean that the learners can use the language in and out of the classroom. It is also stated that the time spent on explicitly teaching grammar can be spent on engaging in meaningful communication.

The question is not whether to teach grammar or not, but according to Ellis (1997) *how* to choose a good way of teaching from among different pedagogical options and how to attract learners' attention to different forms. One way is, input enhancement. Input enhancement relates to noticing. In order to help learners to notice the forms, there are techniques such as: textual enhancement (TE) and oral enhancement (OE) which can help learners notice the rules.

According to Krashen's (1981) input hypothesis, when learners are exposed to a more complex language than their current level of language proficiency, their knowledge of that language increases. Schmidt (2010) rejects the possibility of subliminal or unconscious acquisition of language features. He believes that even comprehensible input becomes intake when it can be used as a basis for development of the learners own second language. According to him, this happens when it is noticed. As Schmidt (1995) argues the notion of consciousness is useful and even necessary in second language acquisition.

Developing a linguistic system needs linguistic data. To get this goal, the role of input enhancement becomes prominent. The role of input is to provide linguistic data. When learners receive input, they give the data to a linguistic

system and the linguistic system starts processing acquisition. Wong (2005) mentions that without input, successful language acquisition cannot happen. Many scholars in SLA (e.g., Gass, 1997; Van Patten, 1996; Wong, and Simard, 2001) agree that input should be noticeable or attended to, in order for acquisition to happen (qtd. in Wong, 2005).

Input enhancement is a concept which was introduced by Smith (1991) for the first time. He defines input enhancement as any pedagogical intervention which is applied to make specific features of L2 input more salient in order to attract learners' attention to target language features. There are different ways to enhance input, for example: textual enhancement (e.g., bolding, highlighting, and italics). Textual enhancement is mostly used in researches in the field of SLA. Textual Enhancement is used to draw learners' attention to form and meaning. There is an idea behind the textual enhancement. TE's purpose is to make particular features of written input more salient and noticeable. Less attention is usually paid to forms, because learners may not pay attention to target forms which are not enhanced. So the role of input enhancement and more specific one, textual enhancement can be very important in internalizing second or foreign language features.

II. THE STUDY OBJECTIVE AND RESEARCH QUESTION

Teachers are likely to be asked more questions about grammar than any other aspects of English. Some of the teachers who lack confidence about their knowledge of English grammar maybe asked about the points that they are not sure of. It can be important to have an accurate, comprehensive knowledge of English grammar in order to feel more confident. It is important for teachers to know how to teach grammar in a way that is useful for students. Furthermore, most of the teachers are looking for new ways of teaching grammar in order to get the best results of their teaching. Thus, the result of the study is beneficial for teachers who like to have a new way of teaching grammar and those who are interested in having an active class as well as teachers who like to engage students in tasks in order to stimulate their minds. Also, it will be important to students who are searching for new ways to get rid of traditional rigid grammar learning. Besides, it will help teachers to draw learners' attention and make grammar points more salient for them.

In the field of second language acquisition, there is an idea that attracting learners' attention to the formal properties of second language can be a good way of acquiring those properties. This has challenged many researchers to investigate the effect of pedagogical techniques, such as: textual enhancement, and textual simplification on learning formal features of the language. Also, most of researches that have been done so far did not use oral mode of enhancement and the researcher presupposed the effect of textual enhancement on learning grammar based on previous researches. This study was designed to investigate the effect of using textual and oral enhancements on learning grammar.

Relating to the purpose of the study, the following research question was posed:

Q- Is there a significant difference between Textual Enhancement and Oral Enhancement techniques in promoting Iranian EFL learners' grammar learning?

Relating the above mentioned research question the following null hypothesis was introduced:

H- There is no significant difference between textual enhancement and oral enhancement techniques in promoting Iranian EFL learners' grammar learning.

III. METHODOLOGY

In various publications, Ellis (2001) has explained that there are methodological options which are beneficial for both teaching grammar and researching the effects of applying different techniques of teaching language skills and components on learning as follows.

Input-based options, for example, manipulation of the input that learners are exposed to, which include: enriched input that is giving many examples of target structures. Enhanced input which involves salient target forms by means of emphatic stress, bolding or an instruction to attend to some specific feature. There is another type of input which has been devised to induce processing of the target feature for meaning. These options are all comprehension-based, and they are for both implicit and explicit learning (qtd. in Ellis et al., 2009).

Textual enhancement is a technique which is used to draw learners' attention to specific forms. Textual enhancement can be used with both written and oral texts. In written texts it is done by typographically highlighting certain target forms by modifying text. That modification includes: underlying, bolding, italicizing, capitalizing, color coding or a combination of these. For example, students can be presented with a reading comprehension text.

A. Participants

The population of the study consisted of intermediate EFL learners in one of the English institutes of Tehran. Regarding the method of sampling, the researchers chose the intermediate learners of the institute based on convenience sampling and conducted their research. In this study, both male and female learners were involved. Participants' first language was Persian. Best and Kahn (2006) believe that "a technique of sampling, consists of those people available for the study". They state that "educational researchers often use convenience sample, because of administrating limitations in randomly selecting and assigning individuals to experimental and control groups (e.g., available classes)" (p. 18).

There were 92 participants in this research. After administering the proficiency test called Preliminary English Test (PET), 70 students were considered as the sample of the research. The PET test was used to select homogeneous students according to the learners' language proficiency level.

B. Instrumentation

This study employed two instruments which were two tests. One of them was in the form of PET, which was administrated in order to make sure that all participants were at the same level of proficiency, regarding their knowledge of grammar. The other test was grammar achievement test which was administered after treatment. There were 30 multiple - choice items in grammar achievement test. Before starting the research, the researcher had considered the pilot study in order to see whether the test was reliable or not. There were 40 students in pilot study. All subjects were in intermediate level. In other words, both the pilot group and subjects in the experimental groups were at the same language proficiency level. Cronbach's Alpha analysis was performed to test the reliability of the test. The reliability index for the test turned out to be (0.82), which was a relatively high index of reliability.

C. Design

Regarding the research design, this research employed quasi experimental design. According to Best and Kahn (2006), quasi experimental is a kind of research which "provides a less satisfactory degree of control, used when randomization is not feasible" (p.177). Design of this research included: PET test (Preliminary English Test), Treatment and Grammar Achievement Test. Also there were two experimental groups in this research, and no control group.

IV. PROCEDURE

The study took place in 6 sessions in 6 weeks. The first week was spent on getting the agreement of students and institutes managers and briefing them on the research procedure. The second week was spent on administrating PET test and homogenizing students. On the third, fourth, and fifth weeks, students were exposed to different texts. On the sixth week, the grammar test was administered.

As it was noted before there were two experimental groups in this study. One group was reading group and the other one was listening group. The classes met once a week and each session lasted for 90 minutes. However, it is worth mentioning that instruction on reading and listening passages in any of the two groups took 50 minutes in each session. "The American Files" was the main textbook in both of the classes.

A. Piloting

Before starting the study, the researcher considered a pilot group in order to see whether the test was reliable or not. All the learners were in intermediate level. In other words, both the subjects in pilot group and the subjects in experimental groups had the same language proficiency. Moreover, the pilot group consisted of 40 students.

Descriptive statistics of the pilot test such as; mean, standard deviation, standard error of measurement and the item facility index (IF) of the test items were provided. Apart from 3 items which were either too easy or too difficult, the other items enjoyed good facility indexes. Then, Cronbach's Alpha analysis was performed to test the reliability of the test. The content validity of the test was checked by some educators in the field of ELT.

B. Reading Group

In reading group, the material consisted of three reading texts in which, grammatical points were bolded. Students were exposed to one text each week. The teacher followed reading comprehension techniques suggested by, Doff (1988) that were presented as follows:
- Teacher gave a brief introduction to the text;
- She gave one or two 'guiding' questions (orally or on the board) for students to think about as they read;
- Teacher presented some unknown vocabulary which was very difficult to understand the text. Students read the text and try to understand it by the help of the teacher. She did not give any explanation about bolded grammatical points. Students had to understand the rules themselves. After reading the text, there were reading comprehension questions and fill-in-the blank activities (P.59).

C. Listening Group

In listening group, there were 35 students who were presented by 3 comprehension texts. The teacher followed listening comprehension techniques suggested by Doff (1988) presented as follows:
- Topic was introduced to the students;
- Guiding questions were written on the board;
- Students listened for the main idea and answered guiding questions;
- Students listened and teacher paused the listening and students repeated what they heard;
- Through listening, the sentences which contained grammatical points were repeated by the teacher loudly and teacher emphasized on them and attracted learners' attention.

At the end, there were some listening comprehension questions and fill- in- the -blank activities in which those enhanced grammatical points were included. Also, there were peers and teachers corrective feedbacks in listening

comprehension group. When teacher asked one student to repeat what had been heard, if the student's repeated sentence was not correct, other students helped him repeat that sentence correctly. If it did not work, the teacher would help students to repeat the given sentence correctly.

V. RESULTS

Before administering the treatments of the study, all participants of the main study ($n = 92$) took part in a proficiency test called Preliminary English Test (PET). The purpose of the proficiency test was to manifest the learner's homogeneity or to show whether the learners' knowledge of English is at the same level.

Too distant scores from below and above the mean were omitted in order to homogenize the participants regarding their level of language proficiency. In this case, the participants whose scores fell within the range of one standard deviation below (53) and above the mean (77) were held in the study, and those who did not were excluded from the study. Regarding this, 22 learners were excluded from the main analysis. Descriptive statistics of selected scores are shown in Table I. The mean are nearly the same, and the values of skewness and kurtosis and standard deviation indicate that the distribution of scores are normal.

TABLE I.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE OBTAINED SCORES ON PET

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
PET	92	31	88	64.93	12.171	-.858	.251	.904	.498
PET (Homogenized)	70	54	77	66.39	5.839	-.098	.287	-.757	.566

The purpose of this study was to find if there was any significant difference between textual enhancement and oral enhancement in EFL learners' grammar learning. The 30-item grammar achievement test was given to 40 EFL learners of the same age and proficiency level in order to ensure its reliability.

The participants of experimental groups took a grammar achievement test after treatment. The results of their performance were illustrated by descriptive statistics in Table II.

TABLE II.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS' SCORES ON GRAMMAR ACHIEVEMENT TEST

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Grammar Achievement Test (Textual Enhancement)	35	14	26	19.17	3.666
Grammar Achievement Test (Oral Enhancement)	35	19	29	24.51	2.843

In order to test the null hypothesis of the study to see whether there was a significant difference between the oral and textual enhancement groups in their performance on grammar achievement test, an independent sample t-test was performed. The results, as Table III shows, indicated that that there was a statistical significant difference between the oral and textual enhancement groups ($t = -6.81$, $p < 0.05$) in their performance on grammar achievement. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. In other words, oral enhancement outperformed in promoting learners' grammar learning.

TABLE III.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST BETWEEN ORAL AND TEXTUAL ENHANCEMENT GROUPS ON GRAMMAR ACHIEVEMENT TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Grammar achievement test[*]	2.572	.113	-6.814	68	.000	-5.343	.784	-6.908	-3.778

* Equal variances assumed.

VI. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The main concern of this study was to investigate whether or not there was a significant difference between textual enhancement and oral enhancement on learning grammar. To get the result, there was a pilot study before treatment to make sure that the test was reliable. After the test which comprised 30 multiple choice items, item facility and item discrimination of every item were examined. Weak items were modified or discarded from the body of the test. To assure and determine any significant difference between Textual Enhancement and Oral Enhancement, after receiving the treatments, detailed statistical analysis conducted throughout the research and testing process of the hypothesis of the study was based on the obtained data. To assure and determine any significant differences between two modes of enhancement, after the treatments, an independent sample t-test was run to compare the means of two groups in Textual

Enhancement group and Oral Enhancement group. The result showed that there was a significant difference between the Oral and Textual enhancement groups ($t = -6.81$, $p < 0.05$) in performance on grammar achievement test. Therefore, the null hypothesis of the study was rejected.

The mean scores of two groups were different. There was a significant difference between the mean score of "Textual Enhancement" group (19.17) and "Oral Enhancement" (24.51). It showed that, oral Enhancement group outperformed the textual Enhancement group.

It is signified that the learners' ability to recognize and produce appropriate forms would increase when the learners' attention is focused on a particular grammatical structure in meaningful and authentic context. Furthermore, the study suggests that for learning grammatical forms noticing and awareness of the target forms are necessary. The results of this study supported the Schmidt's (2001) claim that, "SLA is largely driven by what learners pay attention to and notice in target language input and what they understand the significance of noticed input to be" (p. 3–4). It can be said that, if some aspects of language are noticed before others, is because of their saliency of them in context. In order to investigate the notion of noticing, investigating the notion of saliency is an important phenomenon. As it is stated before, According to Robinson (2003), oral input needs different processing from written one. Written input lets learners have greater processing time than oral input. As Leeser (2004) states, readers comprehend more propositional information than listeners do. The results of this study are not in line with Robinson (2003) and Leeser (2004). Because they show that participants in Oral Enhancement group outperformed the participants in Textual Enhancement group.

Since this study was done in English institutes, the results can be used or re-examined in the classes of language institutes more efficiently.

Language instructors and teachers can make themselves more justified to oral enhancement technique by knowing the effects of this technique on learning grammar. Especially when they use explicit instruction to teach grammatical points which does not lead to immediate acquisition.

Oral enhancement can be an effective way to focus on form especially for learning grammar. The result of the study can help learners to provide further insights into how to use their resources when they face oral enhancement while learning grammar. This technique helps learners to be involved in the classes which enjoy focusing on form techniques in which as Poole (2005) mentions, it focuses on the use of language in communication. So, it is compatible with teachers who prefer using communicative language teaching in the classroom.

Alternative textual enhancement and oral enhancement can be more beneficial in triggering learners' intake and it can be recommended that instructors can combine both techniques for more effective learning.

This study, to some extent, has been successful in exploring the comparison between textual enhancement and oral enhancement on learning grammar and proposing that oral enhancement was more effective than the textual enhancement. With this procedure, teachers can design more oral enhancement activities to promote noticing in the learning.

It seems that knowledge of grammar can influence EFL learners' overall language ability. Knowledge of grammar is very important not only for language accuracy but also for language fluency and communication. EFL teachers should become aware of the problematic areas with knowledge of grammar in order to apply suitable techniques to teach grammar. Also, the nature and importance of knowledge of grammar should be taught to EFL learners in order to prepare them to use it appropriately and accurately in their language production skills

In fact, on the one hand, the findings of this study can be helpful for both English language teachers and learners. On the other hand, it is suitable for English language institutes to solve students' grammar learning problems to have a better system of teaching in English language.

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Hamidreza Fatemipour (Corresponding author) was born in 1966 in Mashhad, Khorasan Province, Iran. He graduated in English language teaching (Ph.D. degree) from Panjab University, Chandigarh, India in 2008.

He is an Assistant Professor in the Department of ELT, Islamic Azad University, Roudehen Branch, Roudehen, Iran. He has been the Dean of the Faculty of Persian Literature and Foreign Languages, IAU, Roudehen Branch since 2009. His research interests are CLIL, CALL, and Reflective Teaching. Dr. Fatemipour was one of the authors of the book, entitled "Read the Press". Tehran, Iran: Shokoh-e-Andisheh, 2005. He published three papers in different Journals and presented six papers in international conferences in Iran, Spain, Japan, and Belgium.

Dr. Fatemipour is a member of TELLSI, Teaching English Language and Literature Society of Iran.

Somayeh Moharamzadeh graduated in English language teaching (M.A. degree), from Department of ELT, Faculty of Persian Literature and Foreign Languages, Islamic Azad University, Roudehen Branch, Roudehen, Iran.

Pragmatic Consciousness-raising Activities and EFL Learners' Speech Act Performance of 'Making Suggestions'

Hossein Abolfathiasl

Department of Language & Humanities Education, Faculty of Educational Studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

Ain Nadzimah Abdullah

Department of English, Faculty of Modern Languages & Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

Abstract—**The present study examined the impact of pragmatic consciousness-raising activities on EFL learners' immediate and delayed performance of suggestions, using a pretest, treatment, posttest design. Two intact classes consisting of 52 Iranian intermediate EFL learners during an intensive English course were assigned as an experimental group with 27 learners and a control group with 25 learners. A Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT) was given to both groups prior to the intervention that revealed no significant difference between the groups' pragmatic performance. The experimental group then underwent an eight-week pragmatic consciousness-raising treatment on the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic features of performing suggestions. After the completion of the intervention, a posttest and, after eight weeks, a delayed posttest was given to both groups to examine the effectiveness of the PCR intervention. The analyses of the scores of the groups revealed that first, the treatment was effective on the EFL learners' pragmatic performance and second, the treatment significantly enhanced the experimental group's ability to produce appropriate suggestions. Also, the study showed that the trend of structure and strategy use by learners in the treatment group changed as a result of the PCR treatment from the pretest to posttest and delayed posttest conditions. This study showed that consciousness-raising at the metapragmatic level improved EFL learners' pragmatic performance and variety of form-strategy use substantially; thus, it should be taken more seriously in L2 instruction and material development.**

Index Terms—**pragmatic consciousness-raising activity, speech act performance, suggestion, EFL**

I. INTRODUCTION

Helping learners develop the ability to communicate appropriately in different situations has been generally recognized as one of the goals of teaching in English as a foreign language (EFL) and English as a second language (ESL) contexts. Second language learners often experience difficulties in their communication efforts because they need to possess not only the grammatical and lexical knowledge of a language but also the knowledge of the social and contextual factors underlying that language (Usó-Juan & Martínez-Flor, 2006). These norms of interaction constitute one of the components of communicative competence, i.e., pragmatic competence (Bachman, 1990). Crystal (2004) has defined pragmatics as "the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication" (p. 301). In their model of communicative competence, Canale and Swain (1980) introduced pragmatic competence as sociolinguistic competence, defining it as the knowledge of contextually appropriate language use. Later, Canale (1983) provided an extended definition for pragmatic competence, which included illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence, which refer to the knowledge of pragmatic conventions and sociolinguistic conventions for performing language functions appropriately in a given context. Another definition for pragmatic competence proposed by Bialystok (1993) includes having the ability to use language for different purposes, the ability to understand the speaker's real intentions beyond the language, and the mastery of the rules to produce utterances in discourse.

Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper (1989) observed the existence of pragmatic errors in fairly advanced language learners' communicative acts. Bardovi-Harlig (1996) noted that "a learner of high grammatical proficiency will not necessarily show concomitant pragmatic competence" (p. 21). The above-mentioned observations and concern about the consequences of pragmatic failure in communication (Crandall & Basturkmen, 2004; Widdowson, 1990) are evidence illustrating the significance of pragmatic knowledge in second/foreign language learning. The need for developing EFL/ESL learners' pragmatic competence through a focus on sociocultural and sociopragmatic aspects of English language and the facilitative role of teaching pragmatic features and strategies in second language (L2) learners' pragmatic development have been supported by instructional intervention research on pragmatic learning (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Crandall & Basturkmen, 2004; Kasper & Rose, 2001; Morrow, 1995).

There has been a growing interest in studying the effects of pedagogical intervention on L2 learners' pragmatic development in EFL/ESL contexts. The rationale for exploring the effect of teaching on learners' pragmatic development, as Rose (2005) notes, has been underscored by Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990), contending that simple exposure to the target language is not enough since there are pragmatic functions and relevant contextual factors which are often not salient to learners and so less likely to be noticed even after exposure for a long period of time. Unlike Krashen (1985) and Reber (1989) who claim that unconscious learning processes are better than conscious ones and are responsible for most L2 production, some other second language acquisition researchers argue that making certain forms noticeable through consciousness raising (CR) and drawing learners' attention to these forms can help learners in the language acquisition process (R. Ellis, 1995; Rod Ellis, 2008; Schmidt, 1990, 1993a, 1993b, 1995, 2001, 2012; Smith, 1993). In earlier research on CR, the focus was on grammar instruction and learning (Fotos, 1993, 1994; Smith, 1993), while Rose (1994) proposed pragmatic consciousness raising (PCR) as an important approach towards teaching pragmatics. PCR is an inductive approach to raise learners' awareness about the appropriate use of language forms in specific contexts and it aims to sensitize and expose learners to pragmatic features of the target language and encourages development of tools for learners to analyze and formulate precise generalizations related to the use of language appropriately in context and encourage development of tools with which learners can analyze and formulate precise generalizations about appropriate language use in context (Rose, 1999).

The impact of pragmatic consciousness raising (PCR) activities on L2 learners' pragmatic development has been investigated by a small number of researchers in recent years. Mwinyelle (2005) examined the impact of viewing video, explicit instruction and meta-pragmatic discussion on the intermediate level learners' learning of advice in Spanish. The results of the study showed that learners who watched video and were engaged in meta-pragmatic discussion with providing explicit pragmatic instruction performed better than the other two groups that were not engaged in meta-pragmatic discussion and did not receive explicit pragmatic information about advice speech act in Spanish. Bardovi-Harlig and Griffin (2005) examined ESL learners' pragmatic consciousness by using an activity during which learners attempted to identify pragmatic infelicities in videotaped scenarios in pairs. They performed role plays with the aim of repairing the identified infelicities. The role plays revealed that upper intermediate learners were able to recognize and supply missing speech acts and formulas; however, the forms and content provided by them were in some respects different from target language norms. They conclude that learners may supply a missing speech act or semantic formula in a conversation, but the form and content provided may not be transparent either culturally or linguistically. Hence, the findings of this study show the areas that need instruction and will benefit L2 learners.

The findings of the study by Bardovi-Harlig and Griffin (2005) implies that even though learners displayed pragmatic awareness to some extent and were able to repair some infelicities, they did not possess the tools needed to make more target-like forms in the repairs. The implication of this is that mere pragmatic awareness may not be enough for producing target-like forms and that language learners should be provided with meta-pragmatic awareness, which is a higher level of consciousness about various structures and strategies and their relationships with contextual factors in speech act performance so that L2 learners would be capable of producing target-like and contextually appropriate speech acts.

In some recent studies, Halenko and Jones (2011) found that pragmatic awareness-raising had a positive enhancing effect on the production of request downgraders by ESL learners, despite the lack of noticeable maintaining of that knowledge after 6 weeks. The results of the study by Narita (2012) indicate that pragmatic consciousness-raising activities enhanced performance of hearsay evidential markers among JFL learners and Takimoto (2012) showed that employing metapragmatic discussion with problem-solving tasks led to the improvements in the production of English request downgraders in Japanese EFL learners. In regard to suggestions, Martínez-Flor and Soler (2007) investigated the impact of explicit and implicit teaching on the production and awareness related to the speech act of suggestion among Spanish EFL learners. They showed that overall instruction positively affects pragmatic awareness and that both type of instruction proved to be effective in enhancing EFL learner's awareness of suggestions. The speech act of suggesting has not been studied extensively in terms of the effect of PCR on learners' performance of suggestions in the EFL context. Since suggesting is regarded as a face-threatening speech act and can be challenging to perform in real-life situations, it requires more investigation, especially in terms of EFL learners' use of politeness strategies in making suggestions in their communicative efforts. A study conducted by Martínez-Flor and Soler (2007) focused only on some of the linguistic structures used for making suggestions and did not take strategies such as politeness strategies into account. Moreover, their study, which aimed to compare explicit and implicit teaching methods in teaching pragmatics in the EFL context, did not examine the long-term effects of teaching on learners' pragmatic performance. Thus, there seems to be a need for further research to be conducted in order to provide deeper insight into and an understanding of how teaching through PCR can affect EFL learners' production of suggestions immediately, as well as in the long run. The current study was an attempt to determine the impact of consciousness-raising technique on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' immediate and delayed performance of the speech act of suggesting.

The motivation to conduct the current study, however, mainly came from the personal observations of the researcher regarding the EFL learners' struggle in producing pragmatically appropriate utterances in their communicative attempts in classroom and encounters in real world situations. As most EFL instruction focuses on teaching grammar and vocabulary, learners appear not to gain sufficient knowledge regarding the pragmatic aspects of performing accurate

and appropriate speech acts in different situations. The frustration and lack of awareness regarding how to pragmatically perform in different situations with interlocutors of differing status and distance relationships are very common among EFL learners (Jannani, 1996). Since EFL learners seem to need a higher and deeper level of pragmatic awareness than ESL learners because of their limited opportunities of contact with target language speakers to develop their pragmatic competence, this study aimed, first, to determine whether pragmatic consciousness-raising activities enhances EFL learners' performance of the suggestions, and second, how these activities might change the trends in which EFL learners employ various strategies and structures to perform the speech act of suggesting.

II. METHOD

A. Participants

Two intact groups consisting of 52 adult male learners took part in the study. They were attending an intensive English course in a university in Iran and were assigned as an experimental group with 27 learners and a control group with 25 learners. The intensive course met Saturday through Wednesday (six hours per day). The participants of the study had Bachelor's degree in different fields and spoke Persian as their first language and had similar English learning background with 6 years of studying English in secondary and high school and taking a few English courses at the undergraduate level prior to enrolling in the intensive course. They also had similar socio-economic and cultural background.

B. Instrumentation

The instruments used to gather data and implement the intervention in the current study are as follows:

1. The Preliminary English Test (PET): for the selection of homogeneous participants with regard to their level of language proficiency

2. A Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT): was used to evaluate the participants' ability to perform suggestions and also to determine the possible differences between groups prior to and after the intervention, thus, the effectiveness of the treatment. The WDCT was developed by the researcher according to the purpose of the study and based on other pragmatic production tests developed and used in previous research (Narita, 2012).

3. Model conversations: in which contextual factors, structures and strategies were considered

4. Situations: based on the power, distance, and politeness variables. The purpose of using the scenarios was to engage learners in pragmatic and meta-pragmatic discussion and production.

5. Discourse completion tasks: were used for production and PCR purposes

6. Audio-visual material: film segments were employed for consciousness-raising purpose

C. Target Features

The present study focused on various structures and strategies in performing suggestions in different situations. These targeted pragmatic features were based on the taxonomies provided by Martinez-Flor (2005) and Jiang (2006) and politeness strategies by Li (2010) and were focused on during the PCR intervention sessions.

D. Data Collection Procedure

The following steps were taken to carry out the current study. First, a Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT), developed by the researcher, was piloted with 30 adult EFL learners prior to the intervention. The content validity of the test was confirmed by consulting a panel of experts who were experienced ELT professionals and researchers. The evaluation of internal consistency of the test showed the Cronbach's alpha value of 0.82 for the WDCT. Therefore, a good level of reliability was obtained for WDCT. The WDCT (see Appendix A) consisted of 12 different situations in which the participants were asked to produce appropriate suggestions in no more than two sentences. To homogenize the participants in terms of their level of English proficiency prior to the intervention, the Preliminary English Test (PET) was administered to sixty learners in two intact classes. The Reading subtest of PET was used for homogenization purpose. Fifty-two learners who obtained 70% of the total score (i.e. the passing score for each subtest of PET), were selected as the participants of the study with 27 learners assigned as the experimental group and 25 learners as the control group. Next, all participants took the WDCT as the pretest to evaluate their pragmatic performance ability as well as the possible differences in the production of suggestions between the groups prior to the start of PCR intervention.

Then, the treatment group received a PCR intervention for 8 weeks, meeting a 90-minute session a week for the treatment. The intervention involved pragmatic consciousness-raising about suggestions focusing on reading conversations for noticing, awareness-raising questions, meta-pragmatic discussion related to the features of suggestions, watching film segments and discussing the pragmatic features of suggestions made in the segments, DCT completion and role-play activities aimed at raising EFL learners' consciousness about the contextual factors affecting pragmatic performance as well as the strategies and structures and politeness strategies in making suggestions. Written materials such as modified conversations and scenarios for making suggestions in various situations with participants of differing power and distance relationships were used for instruction through consciousness-raising in the classroom.

Based on the recommendation by the researchers to provide opportunities for learners to perform speech acts in different situations both orally and written (Usó-Juan & Martínez-Flor, 2006), the EFL learners were engaged in role-play based on different situations with the purpose of performing suggestions. Also, they completed DCTs, attempting to produce appropriate and accurate suggestions. The aim of meta-pragmatic discussion was to stress various formulae used to make suggestions, the relationship between contextual factors and performance of suggestions and the differences and similarities between learners' pragmatic performance and target language norms regarding the structures and strategies used in the speech act performance. The participants in the control group received regular conversation lessons on general topics without any awareness-raising activities. After the treatment phase was completed, an immediate WDCT as a posttest was administered to the learners in both groups in order to determine their pragmatic performance at the end of the PCR treatment phase. Finally, a delayed WDCT posttest was administered to all participants eight weeks after the first posttest, as well. The delayed posttest was intended to evaluate the EFL learners' long-term performance of suggestions and determine whether the intervention had a durable effect on learners' pragmatic performance of making suggestions. The pretest, posttest, and the delayed posttest results were analyzed to assess the impact of the PCR intervention on the participants' performance of suggestions during the study.

III. RESULTS

A. Results on the Effectiveness of the Treatment

The independent samples t-test on the WDCT pretest scores of the two groups showed that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control group (t= .480; df= 50; p>.05), suggesting that the performances of both groups were similar in the pretest. The results of the independent samples t-test of pretest are presented in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE PRETEST WDCT SCORES OF THE GROUPS

Performance Pretest	Levene's Test		T	Df	Sig.	Mean Difference
	F	Sig.				
Exp. & Cont.	.205	.652	.48	50	.633	.899
			.48	19.97	.632	.899

As presented in Table 2, an independent samples t-test was performed to assess the significance of difference between mean scores of the experimental and control group in the delayed WDCT test. The analysis showed a significant difference between the mean scores of the treatment group (M=29.48) and the control group (M= 16.28) in the delayed performance test (t= 6.596; df = 50; p< .05).

TABLE 2
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE DELAYED WDCT SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP

Performance Delayed	Levene's Test		T	Df	Sig.	Mean Difference
	F	Sig.				
Exp.& Cont.	3.107	.048	6.59	50	.000	13.20
			6.65	49.04	.000	13.20

The result of the repeated measures of ANOVA shows that there was a significant difference between the mean scores in the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest of learners' pragmatic performance in the experimental group. Since Mauchly's test showed that the assumption of sphericity of data was violated, p<.05, the Greenhouse-Geisser correction was employed to determine the significance of the treatment effect within subjects which showed a significant effect with the new degrees of freedom, (F(1.13, 29.39)= 393.4, p<.05). Therefore, pragmatic consciousness raising activities improved EFL learners' pragmatic performance in the treatment group significantly. The ANOVA results are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3
REPEATED MEASURES OF ANOVA FOR WDCT SCORES IN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Group & Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Experimental	2781.50	2	1390.75	393.41	.000	.938
	2781.50	1.13	2459.88	393.41	.000	.938
Performance	183.82	52	3.535			
	183.82	29.39	6.253			

Additionally, as displayed in Table 4, the pair-wise comparison of mean scores of the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest in the treatment group showed that there was a significant difference between mean scores of the WDCT posttest (M=29.88) and pretest (M=17.25) and between the means of the delayed posttest (M=29.48) and pretest (p <.05). Also, the analysis showed that there was no significant mean difference between WDCT posttest and delayed posttest scores was not significant (p=.116>.05).

TABLE 4
PAIR-WISE COMPARISONS BETWEEN PRAGMATIC PERFORMANCES IN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Performance Test	Test	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Pre	Post	12.63*	.587	.000
	Delay	12.22*	.637	.000
Post	Pre	12.63*	.587	.000
	Delay	.407	.187	.116

It can be concluded from the analysis results presented above that PCR intervention improved Iranian learners' performance of suggestions and that pragmatic consciousness-raising strategy had a long-term enhancing impact on EFL learners' production of appropriate suggestions over a period of two months after the PCR intervention.

B. Frequency of Structure and Strategy Use in the WDCT

The main purpose of using WDCT in the present study was to determine EFL learners' overall improvement in their pragmatic performance regarding the production of accurate and appropriate suggestions as a result of PCR treatment. However, the frequency of targeted structures and strategies used by PCR group in the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest of the production WDCT test and the possible changes in the frequencies was also determined. The analysis of the participants' responses to WDCT items revealed that the frequency of using suggesting linguistic structures, their related strategies and also politeness strategies has changed from pretest to posttest and delayed posttest. The number of participants who had used a category of structure or strategy at least once in their responses to 12 items of WDCT was the basis of determining the frequencies as shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5
FREQUENCY OF STRUCTURE AND STRATEGY USE BY TREATMENT GROUP IN WDCT

STRATEGY	STRUCTURE	Pretest WDCT N:27	Posttest WDCT N:27	Delayed WDCT N:27
DIRECT	Performatives & Noun of Suggestion	15(55%)	7(26%)	9(33%)
	Imperatives & Negative imperatives	22(81%)	9(33%)	11(40%)
	Let's…	15(55%)	11(40%)	9(33%)
INDIRECT	Pseudo-cleft Structures	2(7%)	10(37%)	11(40%)
	Extraposed *to*-clauses	3(11%)	13(48%)	11(40%)
	Hint	0(0%)	9(33%)	7(26%)
CONVENTIONALIZED FORMS	Modals & Semi-modals	27(100%)	20(74%)	21(77%)
	Conditionals	8(29%)	19(70%)	15(55%)
	Wh-Questions (interrogative)	8(29%)	22(81%)	19(70%)
	Yes-no Questions (interrogative)	6(22%)	18(66%)	15(55%)

Overall, these findings show that direct strategy type with its related structures and modals in the conventionalized form category were the mostly used structures by EFL learners in the treatment group to perform the speech act of suggesting before receiving consciousness-raising treatment, while indirect strategy and structures and other conventionalized forms were used less by learners to make suggestions in the discourse completion test. However, after the PCR treatment, the number of learners who used direct strategy and modals decreased, while more learners used indirect strategy and conventionalized forms such as interrogative forms and conditionals. The consciousness-raising treatment seems to have been effective in changing the manner in which EFL learners made suggestions before the treatment and after gaining awareness about pragmatic aspects of performing suggestions, so that there was a higher variety of structures and strategies in their post-treatment performance of suggestions, compared to their pretest performance. A closer look at the rates of change in the percentage of learners who used different structures before and after the treatment shows that the participants preferred more indirect strategy type and conventionalized forms after the PCR activities, which can be an indication of the presence of a higher awareness about the affecting contextual factors, i.e. power and distance, while making suggestions.

C. Frequency of Politeness Strategy Use in WDCT

Another important aspect of speech act performance considered in the present study was using politeness strategies in making suggestions. Politeness strategy use was one of the scoring criteria for pragmatic performance in WDCT; however, the analysis of participants' responses in the discourse completion test revealed the trend in which EFL learners used politeness strategies in making suggestions before and after they received pragmatic consciousness-raising treatment as shown in Table 6.

TABLE 6
FREQUENCY OF POLITENESS STRATEGY USE BY TREATMENT GROUP IN WDCT

POLITENESS STRATEGY	ACTION	Pretest WDCT N:27	Posttest WDCT N:27	Delayed WDCT N:27
INTERNAL REDRESSIVE ACTION	Subjectivizers	10(37%)	16(59%)	17(63%)
	Appealers	4(15%)	14(52%)	16(59%)
	Past tense	0(0%)	7(26%)	4(15%)
	Cajolers	2(7%)	11(40%)	8(29%)
	Politeness markers	5(18%)	15(55%)	12(44%)
	Subjunctive forms	2(7%)	9(33%)	7(26%)
	Downtoners	7(26%)	22(81%)	23(85%)
EXTERNAL REDRESSIVE ACTION	Grounders	5(18%)	18(66%)	15(55%)
	External politeness markers	3(11%)	13(48%)	10(37%)
	Preparators	2(7%)	12(44%)	11(40%)
	Downgrading commitments	5(18%)	18(66%)	14(52%)

Overall, the percentage of learners in the treatment group who used politeness strategies in the WDCT posttest and delayed test increased notably, compared to the pretest, where most of the redressive acts were used by only a small number of learners. This seems to suggest that PCR activities remarkably enhanced EFL learners' ability to use politeness strategies in making suggestions in the production WDCT.

IV. DISCUSSION

The findings of the current study seem to support and provide more evidence for the main SLA theory it was based on, i.e. the claim about the role that awareness plays in the development of L2 pragmatic competence (Schmidt, 1993a, 1993b, 1995, 2001). According to noticing hypothesis Schmidt (1990) attention is necessary for second language acquisition in general and for L2 pragmatic acquisition in particular. The EFL learners who received consciousness-raising treatment about speech act features and performance in the present study, performed significantly better than the control group. The present study also supports the proposal by Rose (1994) for a Pragmatic Consciousness-Raising as an effective method of teaching pragmatics inductively in the EFL classroom. The findings of the study show that PCR activities can enhance EFL learners' pragmatic acquisition to a great extent by helping them focus their attention on specific L2 pragmatic features, notice the features in the input, and turn this into explicit knowledge that they can utilize in their later pragmatic performance. The previous research on L2 pragmatics acquisition based on noticing hypothesis has shown different results. The studies by Witten (2004), Narita (2012) and Takimoto (2012) support Schmidt's noticing hypothesis, while Pearson (2001) provides little support for the hypothesis. Among the above-mentioned studies, Pearson (2001) and Witten (2004) both concluded that although learners showed some noticing, they were not necessarily able to integrate their knowledge into pragmatic production. However, Narita (2012) showed that learners in the PCR group outperformed those in the control group significantly, that is they were able to integrate their metapragmatic knowledge into their production of Japanese hearsay evidential markers as a result of consciousness-raising instruction. Takimoto (2012) also showed that learners who were engaged in metapragmatic discussion as a consciousness-raising activity performed better than those who did not, regarding learning English request downtoners. It should be noted that no quantitative analysis of the data was used by Pearson (2001), so the statistical significance of learners' pragmatic noticing could not be determined and was based on speculative classroom observation only. Also, since Witten (2004) did not use a pretest to measure learners' pragmatic knowledge prior to the treatment, the results of the study might have been tainted. Therefore, the results obtained by Pearson (2001) and Witten (2004) should be taken with caution. The current study employed a pretest-posttest design to make sure that the statistical significance of the measurements was determined. Thus, the findings of the study support results by Narita (2012), confirming that consciousness-raising activities can have not only an immediate significant effect on L2 learners' pragmatic production, but they can also enhance learners' delayed pragmatic production. One of the issues in L2 acquisition research has been whether awareness can lead to actual L2 acquisition and production. On the one hand, researchers such as Smith (1993), Truscott (1998), and Judd (1999) argue that knowing an L2 feature or having awareness of it does not necessarily mean one can acquire or use that L2 feature efficiently. On the other hand, researchers such as Schmidt and Frota (1986), Fotos (1993), and Narita (2012) have shown a positive relationship between noticing L2 features and their emergence in learners' later L2 output.

The findings of the present study, contrary to the argument by Truscott (1998) and Judd (1999), seem to provide further support for the claim pointed out by the latter group of researchers mentioned above, in favor of the positive effect of noticing L2 features on their emergence in learners' ultimate L2 production. Thus, we can claim that noticing can generally lead to production in L2 pragmatic production. The findings of the present study also revealed that pragmatic consciousness-raising activities can have a durable positive effect on EFL learners' performance of the speech act of suggesting for a period of at least two months. Norris and Ortega (2000) showed that the effectiveness of instruction on L2 grammar acquisition lasted beyond its immediate effects, despite its gradual deterioration. In pragmatics research, Narita (2012) and Takimoto (2012) reported a durable effect of PCR activities and metapragmatic discussion on learners' pragmatic production that lasted for a while after the immediate posttest. The current study

aimed at finding out whether EFL learners were able to retain the pragmatic knowledge they obtained through PCR activities over a longer period of time, i.e., two months. Although EFL learners' pragmatic performance deteriorated slightly over two month after the treatment, they were still able to make use of their acquired knowledge and produce L2 suggestions in the delayed posttest. Therefore, it can be claimed that, as a result of gaining meta-pragmatic awareness through consciousness-raising instruction, EFL learners were able to activate their knowledge of L2 pragmatic features over a longer period of time and appropriately use it in pragmatic production.

Regarding the use of structures and strategies, the participants who received PCR treatment were able to use a wider range of linguistic structures and strategies to make suggestions in the posttest and delayed posttest. A comparison between the PCR group's pretest and posttest WDCTs showed that before the instruction, a low percentage of EFL learners used a wide range of structures and strategies in their performance of suggestions (they mostly used direct strategy type and modals such as *should* and *can* for most suggestions), while they used a wider range of structures and strategies in their posttest performances. There can be two explanations for the extensive use of direct strategy type and modals by Iranian EFL learners in the WDCT pretest. First, direct strategy type and structures such as *performative* or *imperatives* and modals are the easiest accessible strategy and structures for EFL learners since they mostly do not possess the knowledge and awareness about the social factors such as power and distance and their effect on the choice of strategy and structure in making a suggestion and they usually turn to their L1 for the structures to make suggestions. Regarding the use of modals such as *should* and *can*, another explanation can be the fact that these learners have learned only those structures for making suggestions in high school and college English courses. Thus, it might be traced back to the participants' English learning background and the textbook-based input they received before, which is considered unrepresentative and insufficient to teach pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). The analysis of production posttest revealed that the participants in the experimental group used more indirect and conventionalized strategies such as impersonal strategies and question forms after receiving PCR treatment, while the EFL learners who used direct strategy and related structures decreased. This finding seem to suggest that, in addition to textbooks, other sources such as speech act taxonomies and authentic language input such as films and internet sources should be used in teaching pragmatics in the EFL classroom to ensure learners gain the awareness and knowledge about possibly all pragmatic aspects of different speech acts and their performance in different contexts.

With regard to the use of redressive actions to express politeness in making suggestions, the changing trend in the use of these redressive acts by the treatment group from pretest to posttest and delayed posttest was noticeable in the use of both internal and external redressive acts. For instance, the percentage of learners in the treatment group who used external redressive acts in their production of suggestion in the WDCT pretest were less than 20%, whereas this percentage increased to over 40% of learners in the posttest and delayed posttest for all the external redressive acts. These findings reveal that before the consciousness-raising treatment, most of the learners seem not to have been familiar with the concept of face and the significance of politeness in making a face-threatening speech act such as suggesting. The dramatic increase in the number of participants, who were able to use politeness strategies in making suggestions after receiving consciousness-raising instruction, suggests that PCR activities have been effective in enhancing learners' ability to make polite suggestions to a great extent.

The findings of the study suggest that intervention and teaching L2 pragmatics features in the form of consciousness-raising activities can facilitate and accelerate EFL learners' pace of learning L2 pragmatics, without which it might take years of cultural immersion for learners to acquire L2 pragmatic competence, as stated by Olshtain and Blum-Kulka (1985). Pragmatic consciousness-raising activities, according to the results of this research, seem to compensate for the lack of opportunities for EFL learners to acquire and practice pragmatic knowledge in real-life situations with native speakers. Thus, these activities can be integrated into any pragmatics instruction program, especially in EFL settings. The findings of the study can also be considered by L2 teachers and teacher trainers in their practice. The present study showed that employing awareness-raising activities about the various features of pragmatics, as an inductive teaching approach, can be an effective way to help EFL learners improve their pragmatic knowledge and performance even for longer periods of time after they receive instruction. Therefore, language teachers and teacher trainers, particularly in EFL context, can integrate pragmatic consciousness-raising activities into their daily practice of L2 teaching and teacher training. the findings of this study can be used in L2 material development by adding pragmatic consciousness-raising activities to L2 textbooks and in the activities aimed for teaching different language skills in the classroom. Consequently, language learners can acquire the knowledge and develop an ability to analyze the pragmatic input and turn it into intake in their long-term memories and become conscious and independent learners of L2 pragmatics outside the classroom as well.

The current study had some limitations. First, it was conducted in an EFL context; therefore, the findings obtained may not be generalizable to other settings such as ESL context. Second, the current study used adult EFL learners with tertiary level education as participants; thus, the findings of the study might not be applicable to learners of other groups such as adolescents and children. Third, the tests used for measurement purposes in the study were developed by the researcher as there were no existing standard tests available that can be used in the current study. Lastly, the participants in this study were intermediate-level EFL learners; thus, the findings of the study may not be generalized to beginners or advanced-level learners. Future studies can do similar research in an ESL context to determine if and how PCR affects ESL learners' pragmatic development in the classroom and their pragmatic learning in their encounters outside

the classroom. A different study could be done to compare this method of teaching with more implicit methods including giving recasts and providing verbal instruction without any consciousness-raising activities. The present research was intended to determine the effectiveness of PCR intervention on pragmatic performance over a period of two months after the observation of immediate results. The delayed performance period could be extended even more to examine whether and to what extent PCR can improve EFL/ESL learners' pragmatic performance over longer periods of time after the instruction is completed.

V. CONCLUSION

The present study was an attempt to determine the impact of pragmatic consciousness-raising activities on Iranian EFL learners' production of suggestions. This was conducted by comparing the performance scores of the experimental group in repeated measurements and also by comparing the posttest mean scores of the experimental and control groups. The changes in the trends in which treatment group learners used various suggesting structures and strategies before and after the PCR treatment were also identified by determining the percentage of learners who used the targeted features at least once in their speech act production. The findings of the study show that first, EFL learners in the experimental group significantly outperformed those in the control group regarding the production of appropriate suggestions, and second, PCR activities remarkably enhanced learners' ability to produce the speech act of suggesting in the experimental group, who received treatment. In addition, the study showed that as a result of the PCR treatment, learners in the treatment group were able to use a wider range of linguistic structures and strategies as well as more politeness strategies in making suggestions in their posttests performances. With regard to strategies, learners shifted from more direct strategies in the pretest to more indirect strategies and conventionalized forms in the posttests. Also, the number of learners who used a variety of politeness strategies in their post-treatment performances increased noticeably. The consciousness-raising activities about the structures and strategies of performing the suggestions drew EFL learners' attention to specific pragmatic features, helped them become aware of these L2 features, and consequently improved their production of appropriate suggestions in various situations.

APPENDIX. WRITTEN DISCOURSE COMPLETION TEST (WDCT)

Instructions: The following test consists of 12 different situations. Read the situations carefully. Imagine yourself in each situation as in real life, then make an appropriate and natural 'suggestion' in each situation in no more than 2 sentences.

1. One of your classmates has problems adjusting to life in university and living alone away from his/her family. S/he is talking with you about his/her problem and asks for your suggestion to solve the problem. **You:**

2. You share an apartment with your best friend. Your friend likes to bring friends to your apartment and stays up late most nights. S/he is getting bad grades this semester and s/he is unhappy with this situation. What would you suggest to him/her to study well and better his/her grades? **You:**

3. Some of your classmates have recently complained that they have problem with understanding some grammar lessons well. Your English teacher asks for students' suggestions to improve grammar lessons. What would you suggest to your teacher? **You:**

4. You are in a computer store looking around for a good laptop computer. A stranger, seeing you checking out laptops, comes up to you and asks your opinion.
Stranger: I want to choose a good brand but I'm not sure. Which brand should I buy, do you think? **You:**

5. You are working part time in an office. You have a new boss who intends to build a good relationship with the employees and work well with them. S/he turns to you for some advice.
What would you suggest to him/her to succeed? **You:**

6. Your friend has a Canadian friend called Mr. Taylor who has decided to come to visit your country for a week. Since your friend does not have much information about what or where to see in your country, s/he asks you to reply his/her friend's email and suggest some interesting places for him to visit during a week he will be in your country. **You:**

7. Two of your friends tell you that they have not taken a vacation for 2 years and would like to go on vacation with you this summer. They are looking for a very special place to go and have a great time there together. What places would you suggest to go together? **You:**

8. You are working in a travel agency/at the airport so you have good information about travelling by plane. One of your friends is going to fly abroad for the first time and would like to have a comfortable and enjoyable flight. What would you suggest to him/her to have a good first experience? **You:**

9. You are a third year student and you are doing well in all your courses. Some freshmen in your major ask you about what to do to be successful in their studies in your field. What would be your main suggestion to them?**You:**

10. You get to know a teenage boy at a party who is a high school student. As the conversation between you and him goes on, he tells you about his interest in movies and that he stays most week nights awake to watch movies. But he mentions that he has problems at school and cannot study well. What would you suggest to him to solve his problem? **You:**

11. One of your lecturers plans to travel to a city/town in your country where you have travelled several times before. What would you suggest for him to do/see there? **You:**

12. You are planning to go out on the weekend with an elderly relative of yours who lives abroad and has recently come to visit you. Suggest some activities to do together during your outing. **You:**

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Hossein Abolfathiasl is a PhD candidate in TESL at Universiti Putra Malaysia. He holds a master in ELT from Iran University of Science & Technology. His research interests include L2 Pragmatics and Awareness in L2 learning and teaching.

Ain Nadzimah Abdullah (PhD) is an associate professor at Department of English, Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia. Her main research interests include Language Contact and Bilingual Language Planning.

The Impact of Process Ability Theory on the Speaking Abilities of Iranian EFL Learners

Ali Akbar Khansir
Bushehr University of Medical Sciences, Bushehr, Iran

Masomeh Zaab
Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Bushehr, Iran

Abstract—This paper is designed to investigate the impact of processability theory on the communicative capabilities (speaking skill) of Iranian EFL learners. In discussion of processability theory, learning strategies is seen based on various stages in language acquisition. This theory was coined by Pienemann in 1988. Speaking skill was the first skill that human being used it in order to resolve communication problems in his life. In this study, Iranian EFL learners' speaking ability in producing the morpheme structures was examined through the use of two production tasks. One through the use of the picture description task which was designed based on special focus on the learners' ability to use target structures in context; another, was reconstruction task used in which learners were asked to read and listen to two audio texts to help the learners focus on forms and elicit the target structures. The result of this article showed that both tasks had effective instruments to help EFL learners to produce the target structures in the order predicted by processability theory.

Index Terms—processability theory, Iranian EFL learners, speaking, second language acquisition

I. INTRODUCTION

This article is designed to examine the impact of processability theory on the communicative capabilities (speaking skill) of Iranian EFL learners. Speaking can be used as an important skill in Iranian EFL learners' overall English language development and Iranian EFL learners can learn English language as their foreign language through speaking skills in EFL setting. One of the most problems that Iranian learners face with it when they are learning English through speaking skills is that Iranian English teachers are not enough educated in this area. They cannot manage their students in promoting their English knowledge through speaking skills in ELT classroom. They prefer to teach grammar of English language instead of teaching speaking skills. Khansir (2010) argued that many teachers feel that they cannot teach other skills but restrict their foreign language lessons to grammar. In developing of speaking skills, Linse (2005) mentioned that educators and linguists examine native- English language development look at the child's mean length of utterance. The mean lengths of utterances are the number of morphemes found in a sample of a child's utterances. Morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning in a word. One of the important features of Audio-lingual Method was 'dialogue', and ALM used it as one of the important skills in learning students in classroom.

Hinkel (2005) defined speaking as a process of oral production of language that is one of the principal language skills among four traditional skills. Teaching, learning and testing speaking in language education is arguably a difficult job (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2001).

The mastery of speaking skills in English is a priority for many second or foreign language learners. Profound knowledge of oral strategies helps foreign language learners negotiate meaning and solve any communication problem.

The first distinction between order and sequence of language acquisition was made by Ellis (2008) to determine which linguistic features were adopted before the other and through many hypothesis and theories has resulted in differentiation of language acquisition development and the development of patterns between the first language learning and the second language. Processability theory is a recent theory which was introduced by Pienemann (1988) which states that language acquisition procedures pass through various stages and each stage has a strict parameter of structures that can be comprehended by relevance to their current stage of language acquisition. Based on the theory of the Processability, second language learners produce and understand linguistic elements that can be processed at one time by the language processor in the memory. Therefore, knowing the composition of the language processor and the second language processes in language processor is significant. Thus, one person is able to predict the development of second-language skills of students regarding the language production and comprehension (Pienemann, 1998). Processability Theory was used as a language processing model of second language acquisition in 1998. Simply, Processability Theory (PT) is a theory that wants to explain why second language learners follow a similar path in the development of morph syntactic structures (Plag, 2008). Processability Theory (Pienemann, 1998, 2005) is one of the important second language acquisition approaches studies and it is a universal framework that can predict developmental sequences for any second language. Pienemann (1998, 2005) mentioned that the logic can be used as

underlying of Processability theory is that the language learner at any stage has able to produce and comprehend only those L2 linguistic structures that current stage of language processor can handle. The basic assumptions of the language processing in Processability theory are considered in the following items:

- Processing components are relatively autonomous specialists which operate largely automatically;
- Processing is incremental.
- The output of the processor is linear, while it may not be mapped onto the underlying meaning in a linear way.
- Grammatical processing has access to a grammatical memory.

Pienemann (1998) believed that second language acquisition could not be possible without processing the language. Pienemann (2008) delineated basic assumptions of Processability Theory as automatic and incremental processing, linearity of processor output, and the access of grammatical processing to short-term memory to keep grammatical information. According to Processability Theory, there are specific procedural skills required for the processing and the production of utterances in second language. In the first stage, learners develop lexicon that is the basic to all language processing in later stages. Learners, in the second stage, use the bound morphemes to produce free morphemes. Disconnected phrases bring together, in the third stage, by intraphrasal components such as conjunctions. Yet, learners have no knowledge of syntactic structures and the order of words is based on pragmatics. In fourth and fifth stages, gradually lexical features emerge into phrases based on syntactic knowledge. The last stage is consistent with the automatic use of subordinate clause.

The question and hypotheses of the study are mentioned as follows:

- Is there significant impact of Processability theory on Iranian EFL learners' communicative capabilities (speaking ability)?

The following hypothesis is posed in order to answer the research question of the study:

- There is significant impact of Processability theory on Iranian EFL learners' communicative capabilities (speaking ability).

In discussion of the statement of this article, the paper sheds a light upon the theoretical as well as the practical aspects of the research which in turn allows the use of more theoretically accurate and well-structured concepts which will help researchers better understand second language acquisition. The two main branches of second language acquisition being morpheme acquisition and interlanguage development, more and less theorists, scholars and researchers have shown their interests and have even provided their own models which have been very helpful for the purpose of providing a theoretically sound explanation regarding language acquisition along with evidence and predictive framework which according to Husseinali (2006) was not applicable in any other fields rather than the acquisition for second language revolving around English.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this review of literature, many researches related to this study researched by the researchers:

Johnston (1995) examined the acquisition of Spanish language as a second language. In his research work, he used processing procedures to predict the development of procedural stages. Seven different proposed sequences of development in the interlanguage of learners of Spanish as a second language were examined. The results of study confirmed that the assumed predictions were happened. Glahn et al (2001) investigated the stages of second language acquisition of three Scandinavian languages such as Danish, Swedish, and Norwegian. The mentioned languages are similar in their some structures, like word order. Thus, based on the Processability theory framework, the predictions about the procedural stages of acquisition of three syntactic structures were tested. The target structures in this research consisted of attributive adjectives requiring phrasal exchange, predicative adjectives requiring inter-phrasal exchange, and negation in subordinate clauses requiring exchange between the main clause and the subordinate clause. Generally, Processability theory predicted that attributive adjective structures would be acquired before predicative ones, and that predicative adjective structures would be acquired before subordinate negation structures. In this paper, two different kinds of analysis were employed. The first analysis of this study compared the order of acquisition of the three target structures in the speech data to the predictions of Processability theory. The results of this analysis showed that there is an implicational pattern of acquisition conforming to Processability theory's prediction (attributive > predicative > subordinate negation structures). The second analysis of this research compared the acquisition of gender and number features within the same structure using what the researchers called 'semantically differentiated implicational scales'. The outcome of this paper indicated that with both attributive and predicative adjectives, number is acquired before gender. Hakansson (2001) investigated the acquisition of past tense-marking, and V2 in three different groups of Swedish children. He used 10 children for each group of his study. The first group of the study was Swedish and their mother tongue was Swedish. The second group of the research was immigrant children who were learning Swedish as second language. The first time of administering their test was four months after their immigrating. In the second group, the children had different first languages such as Albanian, Arabic, and Bosnian. The third group consisted of Swedish-speaking children with special language impairment. In Swedish language, verbs are marked only for tense. Verbs do not have any agreement marking with the Subject of phrase. In other words, the verb does not need to exchange agreement information with the subject. In a lexical-based grammar, the past tense marker is considered as a lexical

morpheme not a grammatical one. Processability theory predicted that lexical morphemes will be acquired at stage II. In other words, the production of V2 in Swedish involves exchange of information between phrases (NP and VP). Processability theory predicted structures requiring inter phrasal exchange of information are acquired at the S-procedure stage. The outcome of this work indicated that the second and third groups acquired the V2 after the tense marker on the verb. From a developmental perspective, the children in this research were language learners; thus, learning of their language was limited by processability of target structures. The children of the first group had a better position since they had a more economical language development. The children started with a different initial hypothesis, which enabled them to leave the phrase level as soon as they acquired the lexicon necessary for the S-procedure enabling them to produce V2 structures earlier. But the children in second and third groups were experienced something different. Based on Processability theory predictions, learners of the two groups had to make progress in an orderly manner. They had to proceed from processing procedure II (lexical tense marker) to processing procedure III (XSV) before getting processing procedure IV (V2, S-procedure level). On the other hand, normal group acquirers outperformed the other two groups because they developed faster as a result of their effective initial hypothesis. Di Biase and Kawaguchi (2002) reported indicated the results of two types studies: the first study was about second language Italian and the second study was about second language Japanese. The mentioned researches, the Italian and the Japanese, were designed to test the typological plausibility of Processability theory. The Italian research investigated the acquisition of four different morphological and syntactic structures in second language Italian such as two lexical morphemes, agreement between the determiner and the adjective within the NP (phrasal morphemes), and number and gender agreement between a tropicalized object and its clitic on the verb (inter phrasal morphemes). The findings of the research indicated Processability theory predictions. All the participants in the research followed the predicted sequence of acquisition: lexical morphemes were acquired before phrasal morpheme and phrasal morpheme was acquired before inter phrasal morphemes. The Japanese research examined the acquisition of inflectional verbal morphology. Japanese is an agglutinating language. In this kind of languages strings of morphemes are affixed to the stem of the verb. The research investigated the acquisition of four different forms of the verb. First form of investigation was acquisition of the stem itself. Stems were said to require Lemma access. The second form of verbal inflection was the tense morpheme. Tensed verbs were lexical categories; therefore, they would require category access. The third morpheme examined was the V comp inflection. It was argued that V comp requires a phrasal procedure in Japanese. Finally the last morphemes were passive, causative and benefactive in terms of grammatical features. It is said that these affixations are in Japanese require sentence procedure. The findings supported Processability theory's predictions. Husseinali (2006) investigated the development of the interlanguage of learners of Arabic as foreign language (AFL) from the Processability theory perspective. He applied the Processability theory procedures to seven syntactic structures of Arabic and three stages of development in the interlanguage of AFL learners of Arabic were predicted. For data collection, 679 minutes of six AFL learners' speech was recorded. The results of this study indicated that although no stage skipping was observed among the learners, there was the variability between structures within the same stage. For example, both VS and SV were predicted to develop at stage four; however, SV was acquired before VS and VS word order was acquired later, after two other structures in stage four. The seven syntactic structures were appeared in five developmental, implicational, and independent sequences.

III. METHODOLOGY

The methodology of the study consisted of data collection and data analysis. Each of them will be considered in this study.

A. Participants

The participants of the study were 60 Iranian EFL learners selected from among students whose age range was of 22 to 30 and they enrolled in Genaveh Islamic Azad University in Bushehr. They were Iranian national and their language was Persian. The selection of the participants was based on the results of an English language proficiency test called Oxford Placement Test (OPT). Regarding the purpose of the study, the participants who had an adequate knowledge of the target linguistic structures but they still need to improve their knowledge of the morpheme structures were selected to participate in the study. It was done by means of recognition pre-test. Considering the results of the pre-test, those learners who demonstrated a well-balanced knowledge of the morphemes (90% or above) and those who did not show sufficient knowledge of these morphemes both in their comprehension and production were excluded from the study.

B. Instruments

The instruments were used to collect data such as a language proficiency test, two tasks, pre-test and post-test. The participants' knowledge of the target structures was assessed by means of three different testing instruments. A recognition test functioning as pre-test and post-test used to check the students' receptive knowledge of the target structures. Two tasks (picture description and text reconstruction) used to check their productive knowledge of the target structures. The collection data were described in details: language proficiency test, in order to reach the students' homogeneity in this paper, a version of Oxford Placement Test , namely Solutions Placement Test was designed by Edwards (2007) was used in this project. The test consisted of 50 multiple choice questions assessing students'

knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, and a reading text with 10 graded comprehension questions (five true-false and five multiple choice items) measured learners' comprehension ability. In this article, two kind of tasks such as 'speaking –based tasks namely picture description and text reconstruction tasks used in order to elicit the production of the target structures. The picture description task selected Toyama and Rivers' book (2005) in order to measure the learners' ability to use target structures in context. The task consisted of two pictures, one presented past time and the other one indicated present time. There were a number of activities in each picture that some individuals done them. For each item, learners were asked to see the picture and then describe it in a simple sentence. In advance, the time limit for each picture was announced for the participants. It was expected that the learners produced eight sentences for each picture. Thus, producing more than 8 sentences was not received extra scores. The text reconstruction task selected from Toyama and Rivers' book (2005) consisting of an audio-text cartoon strip and in line with Izumi (2002).The selection of cartoon strip was based on the participants' familiarity and understanding with its content. The time of the task was controlled, so the researchers could control over the time of exposure as well as succession of the activities. Like picture description task, the cartoon strip consisted of two parts: present and past time. This could help the learners to store more items in their memory. Each part contained 20 sentences with a reasonable length that prevented both forgetting and memorizing the content of the story. The learners were asked to read and listen to two audio texts each of which had two minutes length and they were semantically related to each other. The cartoon strip made learners reconstruct the texts by using the form rather than the contents. The audio text was an authentic text to help learners focus on forms, elicit the target structures and give them a chance to experience real life situations.

C. Procedure

In order to measure the impact of processability theory on the speaking performance of EFL learners, a structured procedure was designed to collect data. The data collection was conducted during normal class schedule by the researchers in four phases, i.e., administering the proficiency test and random sampling of the participants to two groups, administering the pre-test to both groups of the study, administering the tasks and administering the post-test of the study. In the administration of language proficiency test, Oxford Placement test used in order to ensure the homogeneity of the participants. The language proficiency test consisted of 50 multiple-choice items of grammar, vocabulary, and 5 true-false items as well as 5 multiple-choice reading comprehension test items. In this process, 74 Iranian EFL students participated to answer the language proficiency test in this project. However, 14 participants could not attain the minimum score to join in this research and they were excluded from the study. The second process of the test was a pre-test. The aim of the administration of the pre-test was to check the learners' knowledge of target structures at the beginning of the study. Afterwards, the researchers practiced speaking-based tasks in four successive sessions and helped the students to make progress in English speaking. Two production tasks conducted to check the participants' production of verbal morphemes. The two tasks were used to measure the learners' oral production at sentence and discourse levels. In advance, the purpose of the tasks were told to the learners and they were asked to look at the pictures or read and listen to the audio text carefully because it would not be repeated for them. They were not allowed to take any notes. Then, they were asked to express their understandings in one sentence or retell the text as correctly as possible. No feedback was provided before or during the administration of the tasks. The last phase of the study was administration of the post-test. Thus, this test was administered in order to find the learners' acquisition of the target forms. The data were collected and submitted to data analysis in order to explore the results of the study. The tests of this research were analyzed by the computer programmed from SPSS and the descriptive statistics was also used to compare the performance of participants on the tasks of the study.

IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The aim of this project was to investigate the impact of processability theory on speaking ability of Iranian EFL learners**.** Speaking is one of the languages four skills can be used to develop learners' language knowledge in EFL setting. In this result and discussion, the research question and hypotheses were discussed and reached the answer of the question of the study. Analysis of language proficiency, the number of the learners of the study participated in answering language proficiency test were 74 and. However, 14 participants could not attain the minimum score to join in this research and they were excluded from the study. The purpose of the proficiency test was to manifest the learner's homogeneity. The detailed descriptive statistics of proficiency test is shown in table 1.

TABLE 1:
THE FREQUENCY OF SCORES OBTAINED FROM PROFICIENCY TEST

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	29	1	1.6	1.6
	31	1	1.6	1.6
	33	1	1.6	1.6
	35	1	1.6	1.6
	39	6	9.4	9.4
	40	6	9.4	9.4
	41	10	15.6	15.6
	42	9	15.6	15.6
	43	6	7.8	7.8
	44	5	7.8	7.8
	45	7	7.8	7.8
	46	4	6.2	6.2
	47	4	6.2	6.2
	48	3	1.6	1.6
	49	3	1.6	1.6
	50	4	1.6	1.6
	51	1	1.6	1.6
	53	2	1.6	1.6
	Total	**74**	**100.0**	**100.0**

In order to ensure the homogeneity of the participants, the participants were randomly assigned to two groups and their scores were compared by a t-test analysis. The results showed that there is not any significant difference ($t = .75$, $p > .01$) among selected participants for intermediate level in table 2.

TABLE 2:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST OF SCORES ON LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
OPT Homogenized	Equal variances assumed	1.58	.21	.75	6	.45	.62054	.82704	-1.0349	2.2760

In the analysis of pre-test, the homogenized participants ($n = 60$) were pre-tested by a multiple-choice test that was designed to test the participants' knowledge of target structures before receiving the treatments of study. The descriptive statistics of participants' performance on pre-test is provided in table 3 as follows:

TABLE 3:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS' SCORES ON PRE-TEST

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pretest	**60**	**3**	**13**	**7.63**	**2.699**

Two tasks were implemented in order to measure the learners' oral production at sentence and discourse levels. Then, the post-test was administered in order to find the effect of processability theory on EFL learners' acquisition of target structures through speaking. It should be mentioned that the data from each testing measure were scored separately and were then combined to obtain a composite test score. The descriptive statistics of the participants' scores are shown in table 4.

TABLE 4:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS' PERFORMANCE ON POST-TEST

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Post-test	**60**	**7**	**18**	**12.32**	**3.034**

Table 5 showed the descriptive statistics of the paired samples. The mean and standard deviation for the pre-test were 7.63 and 2.699 while the mean and standard deviation of the post-test were 12.32 and 3.034 .The results are provided in the following tables.

TABLE 5:
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF THE PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pretest	7.63	60	2.699	.348
	Posttest	12.32	60	3.034	.392

The results of the correlation between pre-test and post-test are shown in Table 6. The table indicated a significant relationship between the pairs ($r = .30$, $p < .05$).

TABLE 6:
THE CORRELATION BETWEEN PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	**Pre-test & Post-test**	**60**	**.308**	**.017**

Finally, the results of table7 indicated that there is a significant different between the participants' pre-test and post-test scores (*t* = 10.72, *p* < .05). In other words, the performance of the participants in post-test was considerably better than pre-test, therefore, any improvements from pre-test to post-test can be attributed to the effect of the treatment. Thus, the Processability theory had a significant impact on EFL learners' speaking ability and the hypothesis of the study was accepted.

TABLE 7:
THE PERFORMANCE OF PARTICIPANTS IN PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST.

Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
			Lower	Upper			
-4.68	3.382	.437	-5.557	-3.810	-10.72	59	.000

Figure 1 showed that in this study there is a significant difference between the participants' performance on pre-test and post-test as follows:
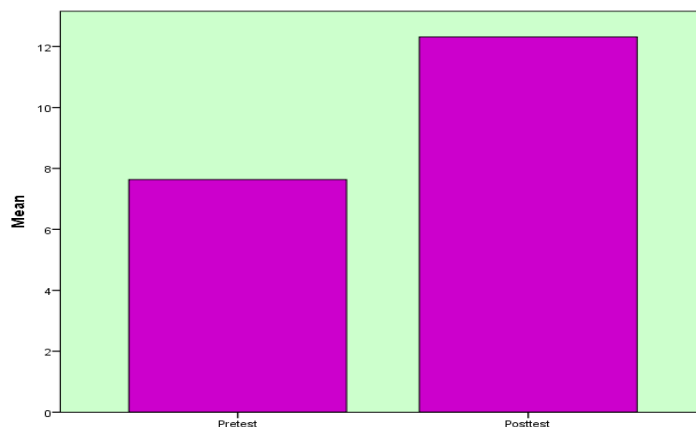

Figure 1: Difference between the Participants' Performance on Pre-test and Post-test

This study provided an empirical evidence for Iranian EFL learners to investigate the potential role of processability theory in their speaking ability. The analysis of pre-test and post-test results suggested that there was a significant gain on acquisition of grammatical morphemes. The findings of the study provided an empirical support for the effectiveness of processability theory on Iranian EFL learners' speaking ability.

V. CONCLUSION

The present study was designed to explore the impact of processability theory on Iranian EFL learners' speaking ability. EFL learners' speaking ability in producing the target structures was stimulated through the use of two production tasks. One task was picture description task designed based on special focus on the learners' ability to use target structures in context; another was reconstruction task used in which learners were asked to read and listen to two audio texts to help the learners focus on forms and elicit the target structures. On the basis of the outcome of statistical analyses, both tasks were effective instruments in order to help EFL learners to produce the target structures in the order predicted by processability theory.

Speaking is an interactive process between the listener and the speaker. The results of this study empirically supported the use of morpheme structures in EFL learners' oral communicative interactions. According to the processability theory, there are clear stages in processing foreign language development which are progressed hierarchically. The findings of the study showed that there was no counterevidence for the assumptions of the theory.

It can be inferred from the results of this study is that the use of picture description and text reconstruction tasks can significantly contribute EFL learners to produce verbal morphemes in their speech. In other words, in contrast to individual and controlled activities, using the tasks which appeal to the students' interest can help to finalize the acquisition process of specific language features. This interactive pedagogy allows language learners to practice and engage language forms within realistic communicative settings of task-based instruction. It was successful in putting the learner in favorable situations which stimulated them to produce the target forms in their interlanguage and the target language system.

In implication of this paper, it is worth mentioning that the assumptions of processability were achieved only by using a pre-designed task which posed cognitive processing load in terms of target linguistic features. EFL teachers can

consider using this kind of output task as a supplementary activity in English classroom as it can draw learners' attention to grammatical features of target language internally and keep their focus on content at the same time. The teachers should keep abreast of the standards and study the available resources to select suitable learning condition, teach through effective techniques, and assess speaking ability appropriately.

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Ali Akbar Khansir is an Assistant professor in English Language Teaching at the Bushehr University of Medical Sciences in Iran. He has completed M.A. in English Language Teaching at the Aligarh Muslim University in 2003 and PhD in English Language Teaching at the Mysore University in 2010 in India. He has published some articles in the field of Applied Linguistics, English Language Teaching and Linguistics and published two books: English Error Analysis in 2010 and English Spelling and Sound in 2012 in Germany.

Masomeh Zaab is an MA student of TEFL in Department of English, Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Bushehr, Iran. Her area of interest is Language teaching.

Speech Act of Buginese Housewives in Character-building of Pre-school Children

Hj. Ratnawati Umar
Students Graduate Program, State University of Makassar, Indonesia

H. Achmad Tolla
The Graduate Program, State University of Makassar, Indonesia

H. Zainuddin Taha
The Graduate Program, State University of Makassar, Indonesia

Abdullah Dola
The Graduate Program, State University of Makassar, Indonesia

Abstract—**This research aims to find out and thus explain the form, function, strategy, as well as implication of speech act behavior of Buginese housewives in character-building of pre-school children. The research done using qualitatif method with description design. Data gathered are in terms of act and speech of Buginese housewives in Wajo District. The form of speech act behavior is performed to say the written form of the word, or called performative speech act, to enable the children to understand. The function is described when the teacher converse by observing or asking matters related to the child condition while at school. The function of speech act is illustrated through the communication between teacher and student, by observing or inquiring about the observed condition of the student within the school environment. Additional of particles such as *mi, ki* and *ta* at the end of words are used in the conversation, by both teacher and student. The strategy of speech act behavior is meant to have better communication, and thus the simultaneous use of verbal and nonverbal language. The implication of verbal speech act behavior must be done at the same time with the non-verbal speech act. The nonverbal speech act, which is the hand-kissing gesture, is performed directly to his/her mother immediately before leaving for school. Such solemn parting gesture is hoped to contribute to the character-building process of the child.**

Index Terms—**speech act, housewives, Buginese, character, pre-school children**

I. INTRODUCTION

Speech act may be expressed in the forms of verbal and non-verbal behavior. Verbal behavior uses sign or code of language, while non-verbal behavior uses signals, movements, and mimics. Cangara (2010, p. 99) and Baraja (2008, p. 208) states that "non-verbal behavior has meaning or connotation as a message from thought and feelings".

Often, verbal and non-verbal behavior is done simultaneously. Austin (in Martinich, 2001, p. 131) argues that "language has not only functioned as message bearer, but also as action, since in saying something is doing something as well". Utterance as action, by Austin (1962) is categorized into 3 (three) speech act, namely locution act, illocution act, and perlocution act. Locution act is an act to state something. Illocution act is an action, where stating or informing something, and at the same time doing something. Perlocution act is an action that brings forth impact on the listener.

Speech act is implemented in daily communication in a family. A mother is one of the family members that often stating or asking something to the child in the family to do something. Besides, a mother usually does something as an example for chil to do some task. A mother has major role in providing good model behavior in speech language for their children. Moreover, a mother has very important role in child up-bringing process. Taking these into consideration, the researchers decided to use housewife as the subject of research, specifically, the Buginese women was chosen as subject of research taking into consideration the culture value embodied in Buginese women, that is to be the virtuous and faithful mother. Position, title, and profession as a mother is highly upheld in Bugis-Makassar tradition and culture. A mother must guard her purity, virtue, and intellectuality. A mother must up-date her knowledge, and so it is essential for her to read and improve her awareness and foresight.

Speech strategy employed by a mother shows which language is appropriate for speech that would compel the child to do what he is asked. Brown and Levinson (1987) pointed out speech strategy based on the level of indirectness, namely (1) directly without futher ado, (2) converse with positive polite tête-à-tête, (3) converse with negative polite tête-à-tête, (4) converse in obscurity, and (5) speak inside one-self or in silence.

A mother's chosen speech language would reflect her politeness in speech, whether she is speaking politely or impolitely. Fraser (1990) said that politeness is a property associated with speech, and with regard of the other speech

party that the speaker did not overstep his/her rights or not disregarding his/her obligation. Henceforth, the level of politeness of a mother is measured from the feelings of the child, as the child is the other speech party that receiving her verbal communication.

In receiving verbal communication, the child will also respond in verbal or non-verbal. Researchers used both types of respond, as responds from a person in a conversation may be in verbal and non-verbal simultaneously. Knapp and Hall (2007) pointed out that non-verbal codes used in communication have function to: (1) ensure understanding (as repetition), (2) show feelings and emotions that cannot be described in words (as substitution), (3) show one true-self, so others may recognise him/her (as identity), and (4) add or complete the verbal words that is felt inadequate/imperfect. Verbal and nonverbal respond used may be pleasant (positive) or unpleasant (negative).

Speech act behavior of a mother may be reflected back at the way a child is carrying out a request based on the mother's instruction. Through communication, a child sometimes carried away with the circumstance and the way in which the communication is presented, and every so often influenced by the local language and dialect. This is observed in Buginese community, particularly the housewives, as subject of this research. The Buginese community acknowledge the influence of local ethnic language to Bahasa Indonesia, which in turn may influence the child behavior development in terms of speech and act behaviour. A mother would make various efforts to get the child do what is expected or as instructed, one of the efforts is through communication. This is also taken into consideration by the team to further research the speech act behavior of Buginese housewives in character-building process of pre-sch.ool children.

Taking all into account, the objective of this research is to find and explain the form, function, strategy, and implication of speech act behavior of Buginese housewives in in character-building process of pre-schoold children.

II. METHODOLOGY

The types of research is qualitative research with descriptive design. The research is focused the form, function, strategy, and implication of speech act behavior of Buginese housewives in in character-building process of pre-schoold children. Data is divided into two parts, i.e. speech data and field record data. Speech data is gathered from the transcripted record. While field record data is divided into two types, i.e. descriptive notes and reflective notes. The source of data is collected from the behavior and speech of Buginese housewives at Wajo District. The main instrument of research is the researchers themselves. The researchers as the main instrument has duties to collect, deduct, analyse, and interpret the gathered data into a report. The researcher team used tape recorder to collect data, as well as using observation manual, interview manual, and table of data analysis utilization. Data collection technique used is observation technique, recording, and interview technique. Observation technique is a technique employed in recording the speech act of housewives at Wajo District.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Pre-school age range is between 0 to 6 year old. Children within this range is generally able to absorb things from their surrounding and memorize faster than older children. Children must therefore acquire appropriate language during their pre-school age. Children must always be stimulated with things of pedagogy or education. Language education for pre-school children must always be improved to obtain more satisfactory speech ability. Speech ability that is trained since early on will shape the character of speech act behavior of the child.

The use of language by children in their daily activity requires conscious negotiation and decision from the speaker to choose which language be used in social interaction. Children language is rather difficult to understand by their speaking partner due to their early stage in language process, and also in transition stage of speaking.

Analysis of the research results is elaborated in this chapter based on the systematic of the research focuses, i.e. (1) Form of Speech Act Behavior of Buginese Housewives (Form of SABBH) in character-building of pre-school children, (2) Function of of Speech Act Behavior of Buginese Housewives (Function of SABBH) in character-building of pre-school children, (3) Strategy of Speech Act Behavior of Buginese Housewives (Strategy of SABBH) in character-building of pre-school children, and (4) Implication of of Speech Act Behavior of Buginese Housewives (Implication of SABBH) in character-building of pre-school children.

a. Form of SABBH in character-building of pre-school children

The form of speech act behavior of housewives, in this case is given by Buginese housewives. The language use of a mother is often mimicked by the child, until the child acquire the concept of expressive language to be used in his/her daily activity. Based on the existing data, vocabulary of children in classroom is developing. The ability of children to answer the assigned picture is largely dominated by correct answer, only a few incorrect answers. The use of words addressed by the teacher during lesson period is in forms of simple words. Form of SABBH may be described through the following example taken from the transcripted conversation record.

Guru: Gambar apa ini nak?
Sk/Siswa: Burung.
Guru: Iya Burung. Nanti itu ditulis B-U-R-U-N-G, burung!
(Teacher: What picture is this, girl?
Student: Bird.

Teacher: Yes, bird. Please write it spelled B-I-R-D, bird!)

The above example is a part of conversation using Bahasa Indonesia (Indonesian Language) which is influenced by Buginese ethnic language dialect. Performative speech is used when asked "What picture is this, girl?", with the intention that the student answer according to the picture showed. Also, when sentence like "Please write it spelled B-I-R-D, bird!" is said, the teacher simultaneously write down the letter at the whiteboard. Similar view was expressed by Austin (1962) whom had said that "in expressing a speech, a person may do something (else). Thus, a person not only saying something, but also do something".

The form of speech act behavior is done to say the written word to ensure the child know the word, is categorized into performative speech act. By using the question sentence in the beginning of the conversation with the objective to ask the child to answer correctly. Richard (1995, p. 76) mentioned that "during a conversation, performative speech act may be understood in a number of actions, such as, reporting, saying, warning, promising, suggesting, advising, criticizing, and asking".

Guru: Gambar apa ini, Sekar?
        Apa ini namanya?
Sk/Siswa: Rumah.
Guru: Pagar!
(Teacher: What picture is this, Sekar?
          What is it called?
Student: House.
Teacher: Fence!)

The above is one part of conversation using a simple form of language that is easy to understand by the pre-school children. One part of the above conversation consists of performative speech the expected the opposite speaker to provide answer or respond through the sentence "What picture is this, Sekar?", with the intention of having the student named Sekar to answer the picture showed by the teacher. Furthermore, when the answer given by the student "house" was incorrect, the teacher informed or provided the correct answer "fence". The form of speech act behavior done by the teacher in the above conversation is a request form, where the child is asked to answer and informed the correct answer.

Sk/Siswa: Kambing.
Guru: Kambing.
        Kalau ini?
/Siswa: Perut Kambing
Guru: Rumput.
        Kambing suka makan... Rumput.
        Kalau ini pohon, ini pohon yah! Kalau ini daunnya, ini awan!
        Zaikal apa ini?
(Student: Lamb.
Teacher: Lamb.
          What about this?
Student: Lamb's belly.
Teacher: Grass.
          Lamb like to eat... Grass.
          This one is tree, this is tree, yah! This one is its leaves. This is cloud!
          Zaikal, what is this?)

In the above conversation, the speech context delivered by the teacher by simultaneously showing a scenery in which various things may be pointed out to expand the child's knowledge. Leech (1993, p. 13-14) suggested that "context is all the background of, and included in, and bring together a speech". Such may be seen in the above conversation. A person may not understand what is the conversation about without the support of the speech context, which allow better understanding of the meaning of the exchange.

Sk/Siswa: Begini Bunda! Belumpi itu ini.
Guru: Ini.
        Apanya ini?
Sk/Siswa: Kuda!
(Student: Here, Mother! This one first, not that.
Teacher: Here it is.
          What is this?
Student: Horse!)

The above conversation is showing how a child delivered a speech act, using word Mother to greet the teacher, and proceeded with constative speech by stating that one of the picture had not been pointed out by the teacher and had been overlooked. Using a simple language, a student interrupted because the teacher had overlooked one of the pictures. This

is related to what Halliday (1985) said when he classified "the various speech act into 15 categories, based on the meaning of the act". One of the form of speech act behavior that was shown by the student is greeting and interrupting.

The behavior exhibits by a person while communicating is a form of speech act behavior of a person towards the other person, which is influenced by the situation and condition at that particular time. Speech act behavior may be adjusted according to the situation and condition and to whom it was delivered in direct communication. That means, the speaker may behave differently while in formal situation than in informal situation. The speaker may also greet differently when conversing with older person.

Based on the realized action, the above conversation showed the locution of a mother is expected to answer each question asked by a child as a form curiosity of some things, and the child is expected to able to conduct the activity on his/her own. Illocution is statement of instruction or question from a person (mother) to the other person (child) to allow the child to know and understand the meaning. Perlocution of the above conversation is that the student (child) knew a lot of things, and the child is more accustomed to doing things independently, while the mother knew the needs of the child. Austin (1962, p. 100-101) categorized speech act into 3 (three) types of act. Firstly, locutionary act, which means an act to say something or mean something that was said, and for informative purpose only. For instance, a teacher informed and said something. Secondly, illocutionary act, which means an act to say something with the intention to make the other person to do it. For example, to ask the child to mimic what is being said. Thirdly, perlucotionary act, which is a type of speech act (of a speaker) that affect the child (listener) to pay attention to what is being said. The fitting of questions and statements in daily communication shows that language mastery is developing with the correct use of words which leads to communication, eventhough with the use of simple language.

b. Function of SABBH in character-building of pre-school children

The function of language as a means to communicate is understood by the children, using indicator of speeches that is delivered by the children and understood by the adults. The child perception of the world is expressed through the questions asked and the account given by the others. This may be observed through the conversation between the teacher and the student using more polite language. The use of Bahasa Indonesia with Buginese accent in data 1 reflects the minimal use of words, as following:

*Gambar apa ini, **nak**?*	*[1]*
*Kalau ini apa ini, **nak**?*	*[2]*
*Begini **Bunda**! Belumpi itu, ini.*	*[3]*
(What picture is this, **son**?	[1]
What about this one, **son**?	[2]
Here, **Mother**! This one first, not that.	[3])

Several pieces of sentences are the speech act of a teacher to children while teaching in the classroom. The greeting utterance is used to allow familiarity between teacher and student, henceforth showed the function of speech act that may be instilled since early childhood. Greeting words such as "son" may lead to more comfortable feeling of the student with the given situation and condition.

The use of language in speech act behavior of Buginese housewives in child-rearing is often analogued with the communication between a teacher and a student schoold setting, by observing or asking the student of the things related to the student. One of the special characteristics (of the language) from the following data is the addition of particle *mi, ki* and *ta* at the end of the words utter by the teacher as well as the student.

*Ini baju**ta** nak, ini**mi**.*	*[4]*
*Kecil**mi**.*	*[5]*
*Kecil**mi**, sudah dianu.*	*[6]*
*Mau**ki** apa?*	*[7]*
(Here is **your** shirt son, **it's** this one.	[4]
It's too small **already**.	[5]
It's too small **already**, already been...	[6]
What **would you** like to do?	[7])

The sentences above shows the speech act behavior of Buginese community in communication. Addition of particle *mi* in Bahasa Indonesia means ownership. The particle *mi* has the same meaning as particle *mo*. However, particle mo is considered less polite. The particle *mi* is used to smoothen the speech uttered. Adding particle *mi* in "*inimi*" has changed the function of speech into an affirmation of the **particular** object. Similarly in the sentence "*kecilmi*" (**It's** too small **already**) is an affirmation of a particular object that is too small for his/her size.

Addition of particle *ta'* in sentence [4], specifically in word "*bajuta*", the particle *ta* is actually a contraction form of word "*kita*" (we, us, ours). When translated into Bahasa Indonesia, *bajuta* means our dress. However, the word "*kita*" when used in Buginese context has changed meaning into the other person's ownership ("**your**"), as it is considered more polite speech. Thus, "bajuta" actually means "your dress", not "our dress".

In the above data, in sentence [7] in word "*mauki*" has greeting functional, which means "what do you want to do". But the particle *ki* immediately following the word "mau" has made the greeting more polite in Buginese context. The use of particle ki has changed the meaning into "what would you like to do". Similarly with the use of particle ta, the

use of particle ki also has function of smoothing the speech. Particle ki also originated from Bahasa Indonesia of word "*kita*" (we, us, our). However, this time its meaning is actually "*kamu*" (you).

Dijahit. Oh, sudah dijahit bajunya kecili. [8]
Pergimeki main di situ, pergimeki main. [9]
(Sewn. Oh, it's already sewn, the shirt is too small already [8]
Why don't you go and play over there, please go and play [9])

In the sentence [8] above, there is an addition of vowel *i* in word *kecili*, which is interpreted as "already", thus word kecili means "already (too) small". In sentence [9] in word *pergimeki* may be translated into Bahasa Indonesia as "*pergilah*" (do go). The above conversations shows that while using Bahasa Indonesia, the words and sentences are mixed with Buginese dialect. The use of such mixing is to reflect the politeness of the speech, inspite the disruption of the correct order of Bahasa Indonesia. The polite forms of speech is taught in early childhood, for character-building purpose in terms of speech act behavior of the child.

c. Strategy of SABBH in character-building of pre-school children

The strategy of speech act behavior is meant for better communication when using verbal as well as nonverbal simultaneously. The use of nonverbal language is influenced by the speech context made by the speaker, so that the listener can understand the meaning of the verbal language. Building communication as a habit in daily activity may lead to better cognitive capacity and communication capability, as both may be sharpened and developed optimally.

Following are several examples.

Apanya ini?   [1]
Iya Burung. Nanti itu ditulis B-U-R-U-N-G, burung!   [2]
Kambing suka makan… Rumput.   [3]
Apa ini yang mendengar?   [4]
(What is this?   [1]
Yes, bird. Please write it spelled B-I-R-D, bird!   [2]
Lamb like to eat… Grass.   [3]
What is it that hear (things)?   [4])

Of the above four sentences, sentence [1] and [4] are speeches in form of question uttered by the speaker and expecting an answer from the listener. Sentence [1] "What is this?" may not be answered by the listener without the support of nonverbal language, such as pointing the symbol or the picture to draw the attention of the listener to the object. Symbolically, hand gesture performed by the speaker as nonverbal language that attached to the verbal language "what is this?" allow the listener (in this case the student) to understand the meaning of the question. Similarly, in sentence [4] verbal language "What is it that hear (things)?" is paired with nonverbal language using hand gesture, where the teacher put his/her hand to touch the ear. Such hand gesture allowed the listener (student) to understand the meaning of the question.

Hoffman (1991, p. 92) suggested that "language development is strongly related to the sensitivity of the child of the language employed around him/her, and also to his/her ability to utilize the language". Acquiring two languages will involve sensitivity development over those two languages, to recognize the forms and to learn to separate both language systems. As far as the observation goes, both the teacher and the students are communicative. This confirms that the child has natural potentials in communication, and practicing will improve his/her phonologic as well as articulator.

d. Implication of SABBH in character-building of pre-school children

Naturally, in communication activity the process of utterance production and understanding occurs. Human may only speak and understand each other in verbalized words. The language acquired since childhood is not the language that formed out of the blue, instead it is formed and acquired step by step. Ellis (1986) mentioned "two types of language learning, namely naturalistic type and formal type". The naturalistic type is the type of language acquiring naturally without teacher and unintentionally. Following are the examples of naturalistic type.

Saling Mama, Assalamualaikum.
Wa'alaikummussalam. Hati-hati ya!
(Kiss Mommy's hand, may peace be with you.
And peace be with you too. Take care!)

The above conversation shows implication of verbal speech act that is done simultaneously with nonverbal speech act. The use of word "*saling*", is supposed to be "*salim*" in Bahasa Indonesia that means hand-kissing. Replacing consonant 'm' with consonant "ng" is one of the unique characteristics of Buginese people when speaking in Bahasa Indonesia. It is due to the Buginese language that uses quite often words ending with consonant "ng". Thus, when the Buginese people speaking in Bahasa Indonesia using Buginese dialect, replacement of consonant "m" at the end of the word with consonant "ng" is often occur spontaneously. The nonverbal speech act is performed directly by kissing the mother's hand right before leaving for school. The hand-kiss behavior prior to leaving for outside activity is expected to contribute to the shaping of the child character, and later on will occur without prompting from the parent.

In development process, all normal children will at least acquire one language. In other words, every child is normally acquiring one language that is usually called the first language or mother tongue, within the first years of his/her life. In the above conversation, the first language and second language are used simultaneously.

The language development and acquirement occur in stages. Several processes of language acquirement occur while the children are in the process of acquiring their first language. Namely, process of subconscious attainment of language, process of understanding the uttered sentences, and the process of producing sentences. The subconscious process of language mastery is part of the pre-requisite in understanding and producing sentences. For instance, when the child is actively communicating with his/her mother or with teacher at school.

IV. Conclusion

The form of speech act behavior is performed to **state** the written speech, hence allow the child to better understand the performative speech act category. By using question sentence at the beginning of a conversation, with the intention to **ask** the child to answer correctly.

The function of language utility in speech act behavior of Buginese housewives in child-rearing is often illustrated through the communication between teacher and student at school. The communication is related to the observation as well as inquiring about the observed condition of the child within the school environment. The conversation is done using several adjustment to the words as the language use, i.e. Bahasa Indonesia is influenced by the Buginese dialect. Additional of particles such as *mi, ki* and *ta* at the end of words are used in the conversation, by both teacher and student.

The strategy of speech act behavior is meant to have better communication, and thus the simultaneous use of verbal and nonverbal language. The appearance of nonverbal language is influenced by the speech context of the speaker, so that the listener may understand the meaning of the speech. The habit of encouraging the children to be communicative in daily activity may improve the cognitive system and the inherent communication ability of the child, and thus may be sharpened and developed optimally.

The implication of verbal speech act behavior must be done at the same time with the non-verbal speech act. The word "*saling*", which actually "*salim*" in Bahasa Indonesia, means hand-kissing gesture that potray the solemness of the child toward parents. The difference of the word is due to the influence of Buginese dialect, and such occurence is quite often when the speaker is Buginese and speaking in Bahasa Indonesia using Buginese dialect. The nonverbal speech act, which is the hand-kissing gesture, is performed directly to his/her mother immediately before leaving for school. Such solemn parting gesture is hoped to contribute to the character-building process of the child, which later on is expected to occur without the prompting from the parent.

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Hj. Ratnawati Umar, was born in 1960 in Sengkang, Tempe District in Wajo Regency. She finished her primary school at SD Negeri No. 11 Sengkang in 1971. She completed her junior high school at SKKP Negeri Sengkang at Tempe Districtand senior high school atSKKA Negeri Ujungpandang in 1974 and 1977, respectively. She continued her study to IKIP Ujungpandang majoring at Indonesian and Literature and graduated in 1983. In 2004, she was registered as a student in STIA Puangrimaggalatung Sengkang and finished in 2006. She has been undertaking Doctoral Program in the State University of Makassar and majoring at Education of Indonesian Language from 2010 to now. She has worked as a lecturer in STKIP Puangrimaggalatung Sengkang Wajo Regency from 1985 until now.

H. Achmad Tolla was born in Dusun Leling, Mamuju County at 21 March 1949. He completed his Teachers Training School (Sekolah Pendidikan Guru) in 1970 in Mamuju. He began his worked in Negeri Lumu Primary State School, Kab. Mamujuin October 1971.

In 1981, he completed his bachelor study at the Education Program (S1), Departement of Indonesia Language, Faculty of Literature and Arts, Institute of EducationandTeaching Training (IKIP, now the name was changed to State University of Makassar), Ujung Pandang. In October 1982, he worked as a lecturer assistant in the Faculty of Literature and Arts, IKIP, Ujung Pandang. Since April 1984 until now, he has been working as a lecturer in the Department of Indonesia and Traditional Language and Literature in

the Faculty of Language and Arts, Makassar. He has also been teaching in Postgraduate Program, State University of Makassar and Hasanuddin Universityfrom 1997 until now.

H. Zainuddin Taha was born in Soppeng, South Sulawesi. After completing his study in Sekolah Rakyatin Watan Soppeng, he continued his education in Junior Primary State School then in State Teachers Training School (SGA) in Makassar. He attended B1 Training of Indonesia Language and became a senior teacher in Kindergarten Teaching Training School, Makassar and became a lecturer in Faculty of Education and Teacher Training, Hasanuddin University. He achieved his Bachelor Degree in Education of Indonesia Language, attended postgraduate study on General and Austronesian Linguistics in Rajks Universiteit Leiden Netherland. He attained his Doctorate Degree in Sosiolinguistic in Hasanuddin University. He joined in several student organizations, both intern and cross-universities. He was a leader in Student Senate Institute in Institute of Education and Teacher Training (IKIP), Makassar in which the name was changed to Makassar State University (UNM) anda leader in Coordinator Board of Islamic Student Association (HMI) in East Indonesia before he was elected Deputy Rector for Student Relation Affair in IKIP Makassar. He was responsible for several structural and non-structural functions, head of department, and dean in IKIP Makassar. He was a founder and the first leader of Indonesia Language Program, Postgraduate Program, Hasanuddin University, and Rector of Makassar Islamic University. He worked as an external examiner and assessor in Malaya University, Malaysia. Prof.Dr. Zainuddin Taha attended regional and international scientific meetings, i.e.: Netherland, Belgia, France, Japan, Singapore, Malaysia and Brunei Darussalam. Currently, Prof. Dr. Zainuddin Taha is a professor in Sociolinguistic and Language Planning in Graduate and Postgraduate in UNM Makassar and Hasanuddin University. He also acted as an Ad-hoc Team member of Teaching and Teaching Staff Standard Guidance in Education National Standard Board. As a professional lecturer, he was acted as General Committee member in Linguistics Supervisories SocietyofIndonesia, and a member of Linguistics Society of America, Linguistics Society of Malaysia, and ISPI and Indonesia Teachers Association (PGRI). Since January 2007, he was elected as the first Head of Indonesia Professors Association, Makassar. Since 2005, he was elected as Coordinator Head of State and Private Universities Association, Makassar.

Abdullah Dola, MS., Linguistics Professor of Faculty of Linguistics, Makassar State University (previously named Institute of Education and Teaching Training, IKIP) , was born in Bulukumba, South Sulawesi at 2nd April 1946. He attained his bachelor in Faculty of Linguistics, IKIP Makassar in 1980, Master Science Degree in 1992 and Doctorate Degree in 2003 in Linguistics in Hasanuddin University. He published several scientific papers, i.e. (1) Generative Phonology of Makassar Language (1992), (2) Main Values in Indonesia Romance before Independence Period (1992), (3) Stucture Analysis of Mamasa Language (1993), (4) Descriptive Analysis of Makassar Language Phrase (1995), and (5) Constituent Order of Wotu Language: A Typology Approach (2003). He also published book with ISBN series numbers, i.e.: (1) Generative Phonology of Makassar Language (2005), (2) Appreciation of Fiction Poetry and Drama (2007), (3) Comparative Linguistics (2008). Recently, he is teaching in Linguistics Faculty in graduate and postgraduate programs Makassar State University.

The Effects of Pre-task Planning on the Writing Fluency of Iranian EFL Learners

Reza Biria
Department of English, Khorasgan (Isfahan) Branch, Islamic Azad University, Isfahan, Iran

Zahra Karimi
Department of English, Khorasgan (Isfahan) Branch, Islamic Azad University, Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—According to Nunan (2004), Task-Based Language Teaching is an approach to the use of tasks as fundamental units of planning and language instruction in language teaching. The present study aimed to investigate the impact of pre-task planning on the fluency of the argumentative essays written by Iranian male and female EFL learners with an intermediate proficiency level. For this purpose, an IELTS Writing Task was administered to a population of 100 EFL learners studying at an English institute in Isfahan. Based on their scores, a sample of 50 intermediate level students were selected and randomly divided into two homogenous groups, 25 each. These samples served as control and experimental groups respectively. The role of gender differences was also investigated in this study. Accordingly, the learners in control group were taught by a structure-based traditional approach while the learners in experimental group were taught by a task-based approach. In order to compare the collected data of the two groups, several *t* tests were utilized. The obtained results of the written essays by the male students revealed that pre-task planning improved fluency. On the other hand, the comparison of the essays written by the females in both group revealed that they produced more fluent texts.

Index Terms— task, task-based language teaching, argumentative essays, fluency

I. INTRODUCTION

Communicating with people from other countries with different cultures, attitudes, and social backgrounds through foreign languages has always been of a great concern to human. The dominant method in language teaching was Grammar Translation Method up to the 1940s. The focus of the method was on grammar and translation from L2 to L1 and vice versa. Because the Grammar Translation Method emphasizes reading rather than the ability to communicate in a language there was a reaction to it. Then the changes in communicative needs and the developments in psychology and linguistics led to the rapid emergence of new methods and approaches, with a new look at different aspects of teaching and learning foreign languages. This shift of focus introduced the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) to the teaching profession.

Developing "communicative competence" in learners and paying attention to all four skills were the main goals of language teaching in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (Richard & Rodgers, 2001; Brown, 2007). In CLT, the primary attention paid to meaning rather than the formal features of language give rise to learning to communicate the intended meaning. Therefore, CLT put a considerable emphasis on fluency and claimed that accuracy can be improved by improving fluency. Based on Brown (2007, p. 241) "CLT is best understood as an approach not a method" and many other new methods have been derived from it. Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT) is a "logical development of CLT" (Richard & Rodgers, 2001; p. 233). Tasks are the basic and fundamental units of planning and instruction in TBLT (Ellis, 2000, 2003; Littlewood, 2004).

Many scholars have used task in their curricula and methodologies and they have long been part of the ELT. However, Task-based language teaching (TBLT) offers a totally different rational for the utilization of tasks in language teaching. In addition, TBLT presents some essential criteria for devising, choosing and sequencing tasks in the classroom instruction for the teachers. Here tasks are utilized as the main output units in instruction, practice and even in evaluation. Moreover, task-based instruction has very stronger bedrock in theory and research such as cognitive approach to language teaching and the concept of psychological reality in psycholinguistic theories.

Concerning the ability to write in a foreign language, the bulk of research indicates that it is gaining increasing importance. Accordingly, the instruction in writing is assuming a more fundamental role. In the past, writing skill was not considered as an important skill due to ambiguous nature of writing and it was not investigated by the researchers. Thus the dominant approach in teaching writing was the "product approach" which focuses on the end product of writing and put the emphasis on writing aspects like grammar, vocabulary, punctuation and spelling. According to Badger and White 2000, "In product based approaches writing concerned with the structure knowledge of language, and writing development the result of the group's imitation, in the text form provided by the researcher " (p. 154).

A turning point in the teaching of writing was the advent of the "process approach". This approach helped to promote the effectiveness of the writing instruction in EFL/ESL contexts. In this approach, the primary attention was given to the processes involved in producing the written text not the final text or the linguistic aspects of the text. Harmer (2001) had defined the process approach as processing any piece of writing through pre-writing phases, editing, redrafting to meet the ultimate goal which is the various skills that should be employed when writing a text. Therefore, pre-writing processes and during writing processes such as writing, rewriting, revising and drafting have received a lot of attention. Process based approach considers writing as a recursive, dynamic, and meaning-centered activity in which the learners are actively engaged in the process of writing. As such, process based approach has been reported to be more effective than the product approach.

With regard to the teaching of writing skill, genre approach was another movement which emphasized on the social, cultural and linguistic differences between different texts. The concept of genre is utilized in different educational contexts to refer to the recognizable and recurring patterns of daily, academic and literary texts that occur within a specific culture. Genre approach has certain principles in common with the process approach and has renewed some of the principles of product approach.

The later developments in the theory and practice of writing, directed a lot of research towards the writing modes and their rhetorical structures. Stifler (2002) defines rhetorical modes as patterns of organization aimed at achieving a particular effect in the reader. Therefore essays with specific purposes and text organizations are classified as different rhetorical modes, including description, narration, exposition and argumentation. In the early stages of learning to communicate in a fluent and accurate at intermediate and more advance levels writing pedagogical purposes include improving, developing, training and practicing language (Raimes, 1987). In this case, writing see as a complicated process through which writer expresses created thoughts and ideas. Learning to write in a second language is a hard work in compare with L1 writing. In order to become a skillful writer in a foreign language going through time-consuming and complex process is needed.. Unsurprisingly, role of English writing instruction in foreign language education is considerable in order to become a skillful writer (Weigel, 2002).

It seems that composing a paragraph accurately and fluently is by no means an easy task. As relevant studies indicate the ability to write cannot be separated from language learning and without language learning an effective acquisition cannot be gained, writing has been attracting attention in language teaching and learning. In fact, writing is a hard laden task not only for native speakers but also for non-native speakers (Biria & Jafari, 2013). Iranian EFL learners are no exception in this matter. Over the last decades interest in writing as one of the most important communicative skills in English language teaching has gained momentum (for more information, see Hayes & Flower, 1986).

Evidently, a piece of writing conveys the writer thoughts encoded in the form of the composition as a bridge between the reader and the writer. Mao (2002) has introduced the term "Games rules" as an effective way for writer to organize the whole composition in to a coherent structure with regard to a particular topic. These rules are used for the reader to decode writing correctly. Although writing is generally taught as a product-based approach, this study uses task-based approach to teaching writing. Studies provide strong support to the noticeable impact of planning on language production where fluency and complexity are scrutinized. Studies by Crookes (1989), Foster and Skehan (1996), as well as Wendel (1997), among others, report that pre-task planning affects fluency positively.

On this basis, the present study aimed at collecting a sample of Iranian EFL learners writing at an intermediate level to ascertain the effects of pre-task planning on their written performance and measuring the pedagogical utility of pre-task planning on fluency. The basic assumption behind the research was to find out whether pre-task planning influences writing fluency. The current study also measured the extent to which pre-task planning can affect fluency in argumentative essays written by Iranian male and female EFL learners with an intermediate proficiency level.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Richards and Rodgers (2001) believe that task-based language teaching is an approach based on the utilization of tasks as the fundamental units of planning which have a significant part in language teaching. According to Willis (2001), language learners can communicate in the foreign language that they are learning as a result of task-based language teaching (TBLT). Willis (2004) points out that task-based instruction (TBI) are considered as a meaning focused approach that shows the use of language in real world to achieve its primary purpose. In TBLT, all of the four language skills are considered as significant. Task-based language teaching is supported by an increasingly larger number of SLA studies and theories. Nunan (2004, p. 76) states that "... it [task-based language teaching] is supported by a rich and growing research agenda". This view towards task-based language teaching makes it different from other methods of language teaching. Moreover, Richards and Rodgers (2001) consider tasks as research tools in SLA. Ellis (2003) adds that, in SLA studies, language use samples can be elicited through tasks. In other words, the process of second language acquisition is identified through tasks. Thus, SLA studies provide a scientific basis for task-based language teaching. Some of the main underlying theories and hypothesis including input hypothesis, interaction hypothesis, and output hypothesis also support the task-based language teaching.

Clearly, the Bangalore Project is the early application of task-based approach within a communicative framework for language teaching. "It ran from 1979 to 1984 and was based on the percept that language form can be learnt in the classroom entirely through a focus on meaning, and that grammar construction by the learner is an unconscious

process". (Menhert, 1998, p. 321). According to Prabhu (1987), this project was the result of dissatisfaction with the structural approach to English language teaching. Along with a series of problem-solving activities evolved through a sustained period of trial and error, this project encourage the language students to learn English through meaningful communication.

Malaysian Communicational Syllabus as another application of task-based approach refers to by Richards and Rodgers (2001) in 1975. Besides Nunan (2004) introduces the Australian Language Level (ALL) project which utilized Holliday's macro skills as the point of departure for curriculum development. He mentions that "ALL is one early version of a task-based curriculum" (p. 42). The Bangalore Project which is also called Communicational Teaching Project (CTP), was conducted in eight schools and can be seen as an effort towards task-based teaching (Menhert, 1999). Actually, Howatt (1984) believes that "whatever happens Bangalore Project has set the context for one of the most interesting arguments of the eighties, if not beyond" (p. 288). With regard to the evaluation of the Bangalore Project, Bretta and Davies (1985) believe that Prabhu's learners were more successful, compared to their counterparts who were taught traditionally. Malaysian Communicational Syllabus as another application of task-based approach refers to by Richards and Rodgers (2001) in 1975. Besides, Nunan (2004) introduces the Australian Language Level (ALL) project which utilized Holliday's macro skills as the point of departure for curriculum development. He mentions that "ALL is one early version of a task-based curriculum" (p. 42).

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In spite of the crucial role of writing in language learning, it has long been ignored. Teaching writing seems to be too difficult and time-consuming in comparison with the other language skills, so insufficient attention has been drawn to teach and practice writing in the class (Zeng, 2005). It is clear that student's wealth of knowledge is needed to flow ideas so as to compose a concise writing. Certain practices exist in public and private schools and English institutes in writing English. Although these practices are not successful due to time limitation, students' English proficiency, and low motivation.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of Task-based language teaching, more specifically pre-task planning and its efficacy on the writing performance of Iranian EFL learners at an intermediate proficiency level. The prime target is the students' writing creation in the case of fluency. For this purpose, the present study attempts to touch upon the following research questions.

1. To what extent does pre-task planning influence fluency of argumentative essays writing by Iranian **male** EFL learners with an intermediate proficiency level?

2. To what extent does pre-task planning influence fluency of argumentative essays writing by Iranian **female** EFL learners with an intermediate proficiency level?

Based on these research questions, the following null hypotheses were designed:

H01: There is no positive evidence for the influence of pre-task planning on *fluency* of argumentative essays writing by Iranian **male** EFL learners with an intermediate proficiency level.

H02: There is no positive evidence for the influence of pre-task planning on *fluency* of argumentative essays writing by Iranian **female** EFL learners with an intermediate proficiency level.

V. METHOD

A. Participants

The present study was conducted in one of the English language institutes, Isfshan city, Iran. The participants were chosen from among Iranian EFL learners based on a pretest. An IELTS Writing Task was administered to choose 50 out of 100 participants with the proficiency of intermediate level. The story behind choosing intermediate level students rather than the students of the other levels was that at elementary level students are required to compose essays of 250 words and it is claimed that elementary students with low level of L2 proficiency are not able to write a composition with considerable difference. On the other hand, advanced students are so developed that may invalidate the effect of pre-task planning on fluency of argumentative essays writing. The selected sample included 20 males and 30 females. They were all native speakers of Persian who learned English as a foreign language in an English institute. This study was carried out in summer 2013 and conducted with Iranian female and male English learners who ranged in age from 19 to 23. The participant average age was 21.

The selected sample assigned as either control or experimental group. From the 50 intermediate learners selected as the result of IELTS Writing Task, 25 learners were randomly assigned to the control group (11 males and 14 females) and another 25 served as the experimental group (9 males and 16 females).

B. Design

An IELTS Writing Task was administered to measure the students' writing ability in order to achieve maximum possible homogeneity among the subjects regarding their general English proficiency. The selected sample was

assigned as either control or experimental group randomly. The participants developed an argumentative essay through the pre-task phase .In this phase they were asked to compose argumentative essay in 25 minutes.

C. Materials

This study enlisted two kinds of materials. First, an IELTS Writing task was administered to choose 50 EFL learners at an intermediate level of proficiency. The participants were selected based on scores which they got on the IELTS Writing task, that is, those subjects who scored 3/5 - 5 were chosen as the participants of the study. Second, an argumentative essay writing task whose topic selected from IELTS and was a topic of general interest was given to the students. Afterwards, 30 written texts, 15 of which produced by students in the control group and 15 by students in the experimental group, were manually typed in to a computer. The AntConc 3.2.1 w software was employed to count the number of words.

D. Procedures

In the present study, planning was operationalized at two levels (a) no planning (NP) for the control group, (b) pre-task planning (PTP) for the experimental group.

In the no planning condition, the participants performed the task under normal classroom settings. The control group consisted of 25 learners who were asked to write an essay in 40 minutes. The essay writing was traditionally, a structure based approach, taught to the participants in this group. In the pre-task planning condition, the topic was introduced and the instructor encouraged the students to activate the related schemata and the background knowledge. Like the no planning they were required to finish the task in 40 minutes preparing an essay consisting of at least 250 words. Afterwards, the written texts were analyzed in terms of fluency.

VI. RESULTS

*A. Null Hypothesis/**H01***

H01: There is no positive evidence for the influence of pre-task planning on *fluency* of argumentative essays writing by Iranian **male** EFL learners with an intermediate proficiency level. Fluency of essays written by the males in the control group was compared with fluency of essays produced by the participants in the experimental group through measuring the average number of T-units per text. The following tables show the results of the comparison for T-units, and the fluency.

Table I incorporates the descriptive statistics including mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the means regarding the essays written by male participants in the control and experimental groups. Table I depicts, among other things, the mean scores, and standard deviations of writing fluency of male participants in the control and experimental groups. The mean score of male control group (MCG) is 17.36 while that of male experimental group (MEG) equals 20.88. To see if the difference between the mean scores is statistically large or not, the *t* test table should be examined.

TABLE I.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS COMPARING WRITING FLUENCY OF MALES IN THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
FLUENCY	MCG	11	17.3636	3.66804	1.10596
	MEG	9	20.8889	2.20479	.73493

TABLE II.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T TEST RESULTS COMPARING WRITING FLUENCY OF MALE PARTICIPANTS IN THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		*t* test for Equality of Means							
		F	Sig.	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)	*Mean Difference*	*Std. Errors Difference*	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
									Lower	Upper
Fluency	Equal Variances Assumed	1.622	.219	-2.527	18	.021	-3.52525	1.39518	-6.45641	-.59410
	Equal Variances not Assumed			-2.655	16.709	.017	-3.52525	1.32788	-6.33056	-.71995

The two means obtained from two independent groups were compared and an independent Samples *t*- test was used for analyzing the data. Table II, by contrast, shows the results of the Independent Samples *t* test according to the means of T-units per text for male essays in the control and experimental groups. For T-units, the level of significance was 0.21 (bolded in Table II, under [Sig/2-tailed] column); the difference between the two groups was significant. In fact, there was a significant difference between male essays regarding the average number of T-units in both control and experimental groups. Since the value under Sig. (2-tailed) is .02, it is obvious that p is less than our specified level of significance (i.e., .02 > .05), indicating a statistically significant difference between male participants in the two groups. Writing fluency of males, as a result, was indeed affected by the pre-task treatment utilized in this study.

To have a better understanding of the differences between the means for the male participants in the control and experimental group, the following bar graph was used: (Figure 1)
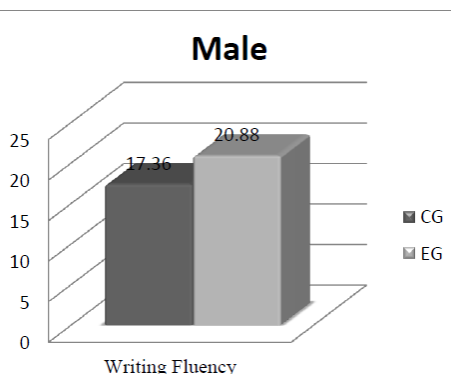

Figure1. Graphical representation of the writing fluency mean of the male

Fig. 1 displays that there was a noticeable difference in the average number of T-units per text for control and experimental groups. In comparison with male participants in the control group, participants wrote more fluent writings in the experimental one. According to the results of the study, there was significant difference between the mean of fluency in argumentative essays written by the males in the control and experimental groups; therefore, null hypothesis was rejected in this regard.

*B. Null Hypothesis/**H02***

H02: There is no positive evidence for the influence of pre-task planning on *fluency* of argumentative essays writing by Iranian **female** EFL learners with an intermediate proficiency level.

To this point, the fluency of the scripts produced by females in the control and experimental groups has been scrutinized separately. At this stage, the difference in percentage should be investigated. In a different way, the second research question was posed to scrutinize the impact of pre-task planning on the degree of development in fluency of the writing task. To this aim, the female written essays in the control group have been compared with the female written essays in the experimental one in terms of mean for each measure. The following tables seek to illustrate in the following tables. Each table is followed by some figures which show the improvement degree in bar graph. It should be remind that the results will be presented within two tables first of which referring to the results of descriptive statistics pertinent to the comparison of female participants' fluency scores in the control and experimental groups, and the second one to the results of the comparison for T-units, and the fluency.

In Table III, the essays written by the females in the control and experimental groups are compared regarding the average number of T-units per text. As can be seen, the means for the second sub-measure of fluency that is average number of T-units per text in the experimental group produced by the females were higher than those in the control group.

TABLE III.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS COMPARING WRITING FLUENCY OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS IN THE CONTROL & EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
FLUENCY	FCG	14	18.0000	3.63741	.97214
	FEG	16	21.0625	2.95452	.73863

Table 11 displays, among other things, the mean scores, and standard deviations of writing fluency of female participants in the control and experimental groups. The mean score of female control group (FCG) is 18.00 while that of female experimental group (FEG) equals 21.06. To see if the difference between the mean scores is statistically large or not, the *t* test table should be considered.

TABLE IV.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T TEST RESULTS COMPARING WRITING FLUENCY OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS IN THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Errors Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
FLUENCY	Equal Variances Assumed	.381	.542	-2.544	28	.017	-3.06250	1.20374	-5.52826	-.59674
	Equal Variances not Assumed			-2.508	25.094	.019	-3.06250	1.22091	-5.57654	-.54846

In as much as the value under Sig. (2-tailed) is .017, it could be construed that a statistically meaningful difference exists between female participants in the two groups. Writing fluency of females, hence, was improved by the pre-task treatment utilized in this study.

Using the following bar graph can help much to have a better picture of what has happened.
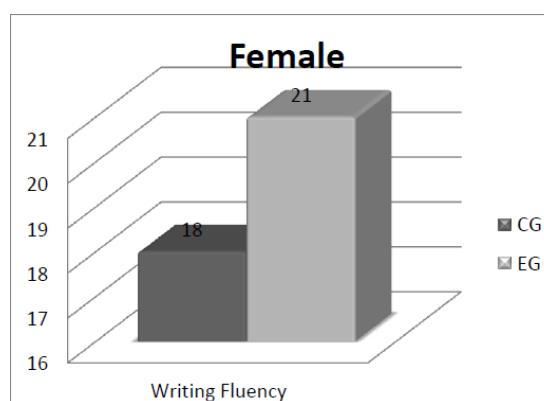

Figure 2. Graphical representation of the writing fluency mean of the female

According to Figure 2, the mean for the argumentative essays written by females in the experimental group was higher than those in the control group. However in both groups considerable progress was achieved, the participants in the experimental group overcome the control group in using clauses. This difference in percentage was noticeable.

Consequently, the pre-task treatment used in this study turned out to affect writing fluency of the female participants. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

VII. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Referring to the first question of this study about the influence of pre-task planning on fluency of argumentative essays written by **male** EFL learners. Table I and II show that there is significant difference between the fluency of male essays in the control and experimental group. (It is here worthy to mention that for the null hypothesis to be rejected, the observed value of p must be smaller than the significance level of .05 [$p < .05$]. If the observed p-value is equal or greater than the significance level of .05, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected (Biria & Jafari, 2013)). Since the p-value for fluency of the texts written by the male in the experimental group is 0.21 and it is smaller than .05, the null hypothesis is rejected in this regard. This is supported by the study of Rahimpour (2011) in an assessment context according to which pre-task planning had effect on fluency. Therefore, the pre-task treatment leads to affect writing fluency of the male participants. Table I and II reveals the results of sub-measures of fluency (the average number of T-units per text) and fluency itself respectively for the essays written by the male in the control and experimental group. Generally speaking, the pre-task treatment used in this study helped learners to produce writings which are more fluent. As it can be conveyed in figure 1, the male participants in the experimental group developed a growth in number of T-units per text.

To consider second question of the study regarding the influence of pre-task planning on fluency of argumentative essay writing by **female** EFL learners at intermediate level, table III, and table IV demonstrate that there is significant difference between essays created by the participants in the control and experimental groups. In accordance with the finding results, pre-task planning enhances writing fluency of females. Therefore, it has affected the fluency of the texts and caused female to produce scripts which are more fluent. As it can be conveyed in Figure 2, experimental group developed a growth in number of T-units per text.

The effectiveness of the task-based instruction on teaching is supported by the study of Storch and Wigglesworth (2007) according to which writing tasks within a task-based framework lead to the production of more fluent texts.

In short, this study was conducted to scrutinize the efficacy of pre-task planning on the fluency of composition composed by Iranian intermediate learners. The outcomes of the study are an opportunity to express the rising progress in the use of T-units by the experimental groups.

APPENDIX A. NUMBER OF OCCURRENCE FOR EACH MEASURE IN CONTROL GROUP

Male Participants	Words	T-units	Clauses	Dependent Clauses	Error-Free T-units	Error-Free Clauses
1	289	23	29	6	9	14
2	285	21	28	7	8	14
3	284	21	27	6	7	15
4	278	18	25	5	6	12
5	273	17	25	8	6	13
6	265	19	26	3	7	14
7	254	17	25	5	7	13
8	248	16	24	4	6	12
9	237	16	23	3	5	11
10	220	12	20	2	3	9
11	215	11	19	3	3	9

Female Participants	Words	T-units	Clauses	Dependent Clauses	Error-Free T-units	Error-Free Clauses
1	295	23	28	5	10	15
2	287	23	29	7	8	15
3	286	22	30	8	9	15
4	283	21	30	9	10	16
5	281	19	27	8	8	15
6	270	19	28	7	9	16
7	269	19	27	8	9	16
8	261	18	26	7	7	14
9	255	18	24	2	5	12
10	245	15	23	4	4	10
11	235	14	24	9	5	11
12	231	16	21	5	6	10
13	224	14	22	3	5	11
14	219	11	20	1	2	8

APPENDIX B. NUMBER OF OCCURRENCE FOR EACH MEASURE IN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Male Participants	words	T-units	Clauses	Dependent Clauses	Error-Free T-units	Error-Free Clauses
1	334	25	35	10	14	30
2	329	23	33	10	13	24
3	325	22	32	10	10	16
4	316	21	33	12	14	19
5	313	21	29	8	12	18
6	288	20	31	11	9	16
7	278	19	33	14	9	24
8	265	19	28	9	7	15
9	247	18	24	6	5	11

Female Participants	Words	T-units	Clauses	Dependent Clauses	Error-Free T-units	Error-Free Clauses
1	332	27	42	15	18	38
2	329	26	43	17	17	39
3	324	24	43	19	15	33
4	312	23	40	17	15	28
5	309	23	40	17	14	31
6	299	22	41	19	11	31
7	280	22	37	15	14	25
8	283	20	33	13	10	20
9	276	19	29	10	7	19
10	265	19	32	13	12	16
11	261	20	35	15	12	19
12	258	20	34	14	13	18
13	252	19	35	10	11	17
14	249	19	34	15	10	16
15	245	17	34	17	9	15
16	241	17	26	9	9	13

APPENDIX C. QUANTITATIVE MEASURES OF FLUENCY OF THE CONTROL GROUP

	Participants	N	Mean
Words	Male	11	258.90
	Female	14	260.07
T-units	Male	11	17.36
	Female	14	18
Clauses	Male	11	24.63
	Female	14	25.64

APPENDIX D. QUANTITATIVE MEASURES OF FLUENCY OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

	Participants	N	Mean
Words	Male	9	299.44
	Female	16	282.18
T-units	Male	9	20.88
	Female	16	21.06
Clauses	Male	9	30.88
	Female	16	36.12

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Reza Biria, born in Isfahan, Iran, obtained his Ph.D. in teaching English as a Foreign Language from the University of Isfahan in 2001. He is an applied linguistics assistant professor working at Khorasgan Azad University, Isfahan, Iran. Dr. Biria has published papers in national and international conferences. His research interests include teaching English as a second and foreign language and ESP.

Zahra Karimi, born in Isfahan, Iran, received her B.A in English Language Translation at University of Allameh Tabatabaee, Tehran, Iran in 2007. She has got her MA in Teaching English as a Foreign Language from Islamic Azad University of Khorasgan, Isfahan, Iran. She has been teaching English since 2005. Her main research interests lie in writing and reading strategies in language teaching.

Individual Verb Differences in Chinese Learners'Acquisition of English Non-alternating Unaccusatives

Junhua Mo
School of Foreign Languages, Soochow University, China

Abstract—**Individual verb differences in L2 acquisition of English unaccusatives have been neglected by previous studies. This study focuses on such differences by investigating Chinese learners through the combined use of a written production task, an acceptability judgment task, interviews and a textbook corpus survey. It finds that there are significant individual verb differences in Chinese learners' acquisition of English non-alternating unaccusatives. It suggests that the differences are mainly caused by varied lexical frequencies and teachers' explicit instructions.**

Index Terms—**second language acquisition, non-alternating unaccusatives, individual verb differences, contributing factors**

I. INTRODUCTION

The Unaccusative Hypothesis (Burzio, 1986; Perlmutter, 1978) posits that intransitives can be divided into unaccusatives (e.g. *happen, break*) and unergatives (e.g. *jump, sleep*). The surface subject of unaccusatives is the deep structure object, whereas that of unergatives is the deep structure subject. The distinction between unaccusatives and unergatives is widespread, which can be found in English, Chinese and many other languages. As far as English is concerned, its unaccusatives can be further divided into non-alternating unaccusatives and alternating ones. The former can only be used as intransitives (e.g. *fall, remain*), while the latter can also be used as transitives without undergoing morphological changes (e.g. *close, shrink*).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Most of the previous studies are concerned with verb group differences such as the differences between unaccusatives and unergatives or the differences between alternating and non-alternating unaccusatives (Deguchi and Oshita, 2004; Hwang, 1999; Hirakawa, 2000; Ju, 2000; Yip, 1995; Oshita, 2001). Of all these studies, Ju (2000) is the only one that paid some attention to individual verb differences among unaccusatives. After examining differences between the group of non-alternating unaccusatives and that of alternating unaccusatives, she looked at individual verb differences within each of these two verb groups. She found that there were no significant differences among non-alternating unaccusatives in terms of susceptibility to the passivization error, whereas such differences existed among alternating unaccusatives. Ju explained these individual verb differences by suggesting that alternating unaccusatives denote different degrees of external causation. The stronger the external cause is, the more likely the verb is to be passivized.

In spite of the attention that Ju devoted to such differences, they have been largely ignored by the previous studies. However, as some of the recent studies report, individual verb differences are not only real, but also wide (No and Chung, 2006; Zyzik, 2006). They argue that it is of great importance to account for L2 learners' variable performance on verbs that belong to the same verb group. On the other hand, Sikorska (2002) cautions that "group results are misleading because they hide variability by subject and by lexical items" (p. 204). She advises researchers to study learners' responses on individual verbs.

Recognizing the emerging trend of studying individual verb differences in SLA research, this study focused on the such differences in Chinese learners' acquisition of non-alternating unaccusatives. It also attempted to discuss factors that led to these differences if they were found to be statistically significant. In doing so, it would yield a better understanding of L2 learners' acquisition of English unaccusatives.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Questions

This study had two research questions to answer. (1) Are there individual verb differences in Chinese learners' acquisition of English non-alternating unaccusatives? (2) If so, what factors contribute to these differences?

B. Participants

A total of 184 Chinese English learners participated in this study. Of them, 54 were 2nd-year students from Hua Luogeng High School in Jintan, Jiangsu Province, 58 3rd-year students from the same school, 43 2nd-year English majors from Suzhou University, Jiangsu Province, 29 1st-year graduate students of English from Nanjing University in the same province.

C.   Target Words

This study chose six non-alternating unaccusatives as its target words. They were *appear*, *arrive*, *exist*, *fall*, *happen*, and *remain*.

D.   Instruments

This study devised four instruments. First was a controlled written production task, which asked the participants to make sentences with a target verb and a noun phrase. They were free to make the sentences they liked, but their sentences must contain the given verb and noun phrase and must be grammatically correct. Furthermore, they were encouraged to create as many sentences as possible, as long as the given verb was used differently in each sentence.

The second instrument was an acceptability judgement task. Following Hwang (1999), this task presented each target word in the NP-V, NP-Be-Ven and NP1-V-NP2 structures. Since this study was concerned with L2 acquisition of English unaccusatives, qualified subjects should, as suggested by Ju (2000), have acquired the rule of English passive voice. Therefore, 12 pseudo passive sentences (e.g. *His mobile phone lost last week*) were included as distracters. All the test sentences and distracters were mixed and randomized. But sentences with the same target word were so ordered that they did not appear in adjacency. The participants were asked to rate the acceptability of each sentence on a 5-point scale ranging from -2 to +2.

The third instrument was the use of interviews, which were conducted by the author of this paper with some particpants after they finished the the written production task and the acceptability judgment task. The interviews, which were aimed at finding out what was going on in the participants' minds when they were performing on certain target verbs in these two tasks, were carried out mostly in Chinese and occasionally in English.

The fourth instrument was a textbook corpus survey. An English textbook corpus with a total of 600,314 words was constructed. This corpus consisted of three series of textbooks developed by Liu (1996a, 1996b), Li (2001), and Zheng (2003) respectively.

E.   Data Processing

When dealing with the production data, this study followed Hirakawa (2000) tocategorize its production data into six structures: NP-V, NP-Be-Ven, There-V-NP, ∅-V-NP, It-V-NP and NP1-V-NP2. When handling the judgment data, this study divided the participants into qualified and unqualified by setting a threshold of 3 for the 12 distracters. Any partipant who made 3 or more wrong judgments on the distracters was disqualified, resulting in the deletion of his or her data from the data pool. In the end, the 2nd-year high school student group had 33 qualified particiants, the 3rd-year high school student group 49, the college student group 43, the graduate student group 29. The interview data was transcribed and translated into English by the author of this paper. In the analysis of its textbook corpus data, this study followed Oshita (1997) by deleting three special usages: (1) unaccusative verbs with propositional complements, namely, raising verbs (e.g. appear (to be) happy, happen to be in the room, etc); (2) idioms and metaphorical usage of verbs (e.g. fall in love, fall ill, etc); (3) nonfinite verbs (e.g. infinitives (with or without *to*), gerunds, and participle constructions).

This study analysed the individual verb differences on a structural basis in that it examined six structures in its written production task and four structures in its acceptability judgment task. Furthermore, it focused on two verbs that constituted the greatest difference in each structure. This way of analysis was named the Extreme Verb Method.

IV.   RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A.   Written Production Results

TABLE 1:
RESULTS OF A ONE-WAY ANOVA ON NON-ALTERNATING UNACCUSATIVES IN THE WRITTEN PRODUCTION

Overall		appear	arrive	exist	fall	happen	remain	F	P
NP-V	M	0.89	0.98	0.79	0.94	0.94	0.72	15.976	.000
	SD	0.31	0.14	0.41	0.24	0.24	0.45		
NP-Be -Ven	M	0.11	0.02	0.22	0.09	0.03	0.29	16.943	.000
	SD	0.31	0.14	0.42	0.29	0.18	0.45		
There -V-NP	M	0.09	0.18	0.16	0.05	0.13	0.14	3.362	.005
	SD	0.29	0.38	0.37	0.21	0.34	0.35		
∅-V-NP	M	0.08	0.01	0.09	0.05	0.01	0.03	4.260	.001
	SD	0.27	0.11	0.29	0.22	0.08	0.18		
It-V-NP	M	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00		
NP1-V -NP2	M	0.00	0.01	0.06	0.02	0.01	0.17	16.258	.000
	SD	0.00	0.08	0.24	0.14	0.11	0.38		

Table 1 shows the results of a one-way ANOVA performed on the six non-alternating unaccusatives in their respective chance of being used in the NP-V, NP-Be-Ven, There-V-NP, ∅-V-NP and NP1-V-NP2 structures, with the excpetion of the It-V-NP structure, the means of which was zero. The P-values in the right column of Table 1 indicate that there were significant differences between these verbs in five structures.

First, as far as the NP-V structure was concerned, the frequency of *arrive* was the highest while that of *remain* the lowest. Results of paired samples *t*-tests showed that the former was significantly higher than the latter, $t(153) = 7.091$, $p = .000$. Therefore, *arrive* and *remain* constituted the greatest difference among non-alternating unaccusatives in the NP-V structure. According to the Extreme Verb Method, which targeted only two verbs that formed the greatest difference in each structure, they were selected for individual analysis.

Second, with respect to the NP-Be-Ven structure, the frequency of *remain* was the highest while that of *arrive* the lowest. Results of paired samples *t*-tests showed that the former was significantly higher than the latter, $t(153) = 7.215$, $p = .000$. Therefore, *remain* and *arrive* constituted the greatest individual verb difference among non-alternating unaccusatives in the NP-Be-Ven structure. According to the Extreme Verb Method, they were selected for individual analysis.

Third, as for the There-V-NP structure, the frequency of *arrive* was the highest while that of *fall* the lowest. Results of paired samples *t*-tests showed that the former was significantly higher than the latter, $t(153) = 3.955$, $p = .000$. Therefore, *arrive* and *fall* constituted the greatest individual verb difference among non-alternating unaccusatives in the There-V-NP structure. According to the Extreme Verb Method, they were selected for individual analysis.

Fourth, regarding the ∅-V-NP structure, the frequency of *exist* was the highest while that of *arrive* the lowest. Results of paired samples *t*-tests showed that the former was significantly higher than the latter, $t(153) = 3.309$, $p = .001$. Therefore, *exist* and *arrive* constituted the greatest individual verb difference among non-alternating unaccusatives in the -V-NP structure. According to the Extreme Verb Method, they were selected for individual analysis.

Fifth, concerning the NP1-V-NP2 structure, the frequency of *remain* was the highest while that of *appear* the lowest. Results of paired samples *t*-tests showed that the former was significantly higher than the latter, $t(153) = 5.575$, $p = .000$. Therefore, *remain* and *appear* constituted the greatest individual verb difference among non-alternating unaccusatives in the NP1-V-NP2 structure. According to the Extreme Verb Method, they were selected for individual analysis.

B. Acceptability Judgment Results

TABLE 2:
RESULTS OF A ONE-WAY ANOVA ON NON-ALTERNATING UNACCUSATIVES IN ACCEPTABILITY JUDGMENT

Overall		appear	arrive	exist	fall	happen	remain	F	P
NP-V	M	1.47	1.64	1.44	1.29	1.84	1.06	12.030	.000
	SD	1.03	0.88	0.98	0.91	0.56	1.34		
NP-Be -Ven	M	-1.10	-0.34	-0.93	-0.25	-1.70	-0.73	20.853	.000
	SD	1.34	1.70	1.55	1.62	0.80	1.53		
NP1 -V-NP2	M	-0.32	-0.42	-0.40	0.18	-1.27	0.68	30.267	.000
	SD	1.58	1.52	1.54	1.49	1.20	1.51		

Table 2 shows the results of a one-way ANOVA performed on the six non-alternating unaccusative verbs in the NP-V, NP-Be-Ven and NP1-V-NP2 structures when the four groups of participants were combined as one big group. The P-values in the right column of Table 2 indicate that there were significant differences between these verbs in every given structure.

First, as far as the NP-V structure was concerned, the participants' overall mean score for *happen* was the highest while that of *remain* the lowest. Results of paired samples *t*-tests showed that the former was significantly higher than the latter, $t(153) = 7.798$, $p = .000$. Therefore, *happen* and *remain* constituted the greatest individual verb difference among non-alternating unaccusatives in the NP-V structure. According to the Extreme Verb Method, they were selected for individual analysis.

Second, with respect to the NP-Be-Ven structure, the participants' overall mean score for *fall* was the highest while that of *happen* the lowest. The results of paired samples *t*-tests showed that the former was significantly higher than the latter, $t(153) = 10.815$, $p = .000$. Therefore, *fall* and *happen* constituted the greatest individual verb difference among non-alternating unaccusatives in the NP-Be-Ven structure. According to the Extreme Verb Method, they were selected for individual analysis.

Third, as for the NP1-V-NP2 structure, the participants' overall mean score for *remain* was the highest while that of *happen* the lowest. The results of paired samples *t*-tests showed that the former was significantly higher than the latter, $t(153) = 15.500$, $p = .000$. Therefore, *remain* and *happen* constituted the greatest individual verb difference among non-alternating unaccusatives in the NP1-V-NP2 structure. According to the Extreme Verb Method, they were selected for individual analysis.

C. Summary of Written Production and Acceptability Judgment Results

Both the written production results and the acceptability judgment results showed that there were significant individual verb differences among non-alternating unaccusatives. However, the between-differences found in these two types of data were not exactly the same.

TABLE 3:
SUMMARY OF THE GREATEST INDIVIDUAL VERB DIFFERENCES AMONG NON-ALTERNATING UNACCUSATIVES
IN THE WRITTEN PRODUCTION AND ACCEPTABILITY JUDGMENT

Individual verb differences	Written production		Acceptability judgment	
	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest
NP-V	arrive	remain	happen	remain
NP-Be-Ven	remain	arrive	fall	happen
There-V-NP	arrive	fall		
∅-V-NP	exist	arrive		
NP1-V-NP2	remain	appear	remain	happen

Table 3 summarizes the greatest individual verb differences among non-alternating unaccusatives in the written production data and the acceptability judgment data respectively. It shows that individual verb differences in the There-V-NP and ∅-V-NP occurred only in the written production data. The reason was that these two structures were not tested in the acceptability judgment task. It also shows that there were differences between the written production data and the acceptability judgment data in the three structures that they both had. Of these three structures, the NP-V structure is the only grammatical syntactic form for the six non-alternating unaccusatives, while the NP-Be-Ven and NP1-V-NP2 structures are both ungrammatical. As far as these three structures were concerned, it could be seen that the participants' performance on *remain* was least accurate in that it was produced and scored in the grammatical NP-V structure at the lowest rate, but in the ungrammatical NP1-V-NP2 structure at the highest rate. It was also produced in the ungrammatical NP-Be-Ven structure at the highest rate.

On the other hand, the participants' written production of *arrive* was most accurate in that it was produced in the grammatical NP-V structure at the highest rate, but in the ungrammatical NP-Be-Ven structure at the lowest rate. When it comes to the participants' acceptability judgment data, their performance on *happen* was most accurate, because it was scored the highest in grammatical NP-V structure, but the lowest in the ungrammatical NP1-V-NP2 structure.

It is evident that *remain*, *arrive* and *happen* stood out in the individual verb differences among non-alternating unaccusatives in both the written production data and the acceptability judgment data. For this reason, they were chosen to be the focus of explanation.

D. Contributing Factors

1. Lexical frequency

TABLE 4:
LEXICAL FREQUENCIES OF NON-ALTERNATING UNACCUSATIVES IN THE ENGLISH TEXTBOOK CORPUS

Non-alternating unaccusatives	happen	arrive	fall	appear	exist	remain
Lexical frequencies	275	171	146	46	32	13

Table 4 shows that *happen* was ranked the first, while *arrive*, *fall*, *appear*, *exist*, and *remain* were ranked the second, the third, the fourth, the fifth and the sixth respectively. However, the actual lexical frequency differences between these verbs were much larger than what their ranks suggested. For example, the top three verbs all had a lexical frequency of over 100, while the lexical frequencies for the last three verbs were all below 50. To look at it from another angle, the lexical frequency of *happen* was more than 20 times that of *remain*. It is therefore evident that there were huge differences between the six non-alternating unaccusatives in terms of lexical frequency. Setting 100 as a tentative threshold, the present study classified *happen*, *arrive* and *fall* as verbs of high lexical frequency, while *appear*, *exist* and *remain* as verbs of low lexical frequency. Furthermore, this study argued that the lexical frequency differences between these verbs might have contributed to the participants' different performances on them in the written production task and the acceptability judgment task.

The high lexical frequency of *happen* could help explain the participants' performance in the acceptability judgment task that they were most accurate in accepting its use in the grammatical NP-V structure and in rejecting its use in the ungrammatical NP-Be-Ven and NP1-V-NP2 structures. Since *happen* was a verb with the highest lexical frequency, the participants had received a lot of input. As a result, they successfully established the correct argument structure and syntactic structure representations for it. It is natural that they were able to recognize the grammaticality of using *happen* in the NP-V structure and the ungrammaticality of using it in the NP-Be-Ven and NP1-V-NP2 structures.

In the same vein, the high lexical frequency of *arrive* could help explain the participants' performance in the written production task that they produced this verb in the grammatical NP-V structure at the highest frequency and in the ungrammatical NP-Be-Ven and NP1-V-NP2 structures at the lowest frequencies. Since *arrive* was a verb of high lexical frequency, the participants had received a lot of input, which enabled them to acquire it successfully. The participants' acquisition of *arrive* was so successful that they made it one of their productive vocabularies. Therefore, they produced it very accurately.

The low lexical frequency of *remain* could help explain the participants' performance in the acceptability judgment task that they were least accurate in accepting its use in the grammatical NP-V structure and in rejecting its use in the ungrammatical NP1-V-NP2 structure. Since *remain* was a verb with the lowest lexical frequency, the participants did not receive much input of it. As a result, they failed to fully establish the correct argument structure and syntactic structure representations for it. In other words, they might have acquired its argument structure representation that there is only an internal argument and no external argument, but have not acquired its syntactic representations that the movement of this internal argument to the surface subject position is both obligatory and morphologically unmarked. For this reason, they showed the greatest reluctance to accept *remain* in the NP-V structure whose subject NP is the deep structure object but is not marked with the passive morphology. As for their tendency to accept *remain* in the NP1-V-NP2 structure, it could also be attributed to their incomplete acquisition of the argument structure and syntactic structure representations for *remain*. Since there is no external argument in its argument structure, it was tempting for the participants to insert an additional argument in the empty external argument position.

Likewise, the participants' incorrect performance on *remain* in the written production task could also be also attributed to its low lexical frequency. That is, the low lexical frequency of *remain* led to a lack of input for the participants, who failed to acquire it successfully. As a result, they produced *remain* in the grammatical NP-V structure at the lowest frequency, but in the ungrammatical NP-Be-Ven and NP1-V-NP2 structures at the highest frequencies.

2. *Teachers' explicit instructions*

The participants' different performances on *happen* and *remain* in the acceptability judgment task could also be attributed to their difference in teachers' explicit instructions. Interview results revealed that high school English teachers provided lengthy instructions on the usage of *happen*. That is, they explicitly told their students that *happen* is an intransitive. Therefore, it can only be used in the active voice. It cannot be used in the passive voice or transitively.

Participant 12 from the 3rd-year high school student group assigned -2 to *happen* in the NP-Be-Ven structure. When asked why she assigned such a score, she explained

I have a very deep impression that *happen* is definitely not used in this way [the NP-Be-Ven structure]. From the very moment when I started to use *happen*, I knew it cannot be used in the passive voice. Moreover, other verbs of occurrence such as *take place* and *occur* cannot be used in the passive voice, either. My teacher told us so. She said that *happen* is an intransitive. Therefore, it cannot be used in the passive voice.

Participant 12's response was echoed by all the other interviewees in her proficiency group. Moreover, it was also echoed by most of the interviewees at higher proficiency groups. For example, Participant 19 from the graduate student group explained why she assigned -2 to *happen* in the NP1-V-NP2 structure in the following way.

I was very certain that *happen* is an intransitive. When I was first exposed to this word in my junior high school, my English teacher told us that *happen* is an intransitive.

It is evident that the teachers' explicit instructions on the usage of *happen* had been engraved in the participants' memory in that even the graduate-level interviewees could easily recall them. Such instructions effectively helped the participants to acquire *happen*, putting them on the alert against using this verb in the passive voice or transitively. For this reason, the participants were very certain about the grammaticality of using *happen* in the NP-V structure and the ungrammaticality of using it in the NP-Be-Ven and NP1-V-NP2 structures. As a result, they scored the former most positively and the latter two most negatively.

Like *happen*, *fall* was also a verb of high lexical frequency. Unlike *happen*, however, its usage must have eluded the teachers' attention. This is because the participants like Participant 12 from the 3rd-year high school student group suggested only verbs of occurrence such as *happen*, *occur* and *take place* when they were asked to recall which verbs had been identified by their English teachers as incompatible with the passive voice. None of them mentioned *fall*. Therefore, there was a lack of explicit instructions on *fall*. As a result, the participants' knowledge of *fall* as an intransitive was not as solid as that of *happen*. For this reason, the participants rejected the ungrammatical use of *fall* in the NP-Be-Ven structure significantly less frequently than they did with that of *happen*.

3. *L1 transfer*

Incorrect semantic and syntactic analogies with L1 as a contributing factor were suggested primarily for two findings of this study. One was that of the six non-alternating unaccusatives, *remain* was wrongly produced most frequently in both the NP-Be-Ven and NP1-V-NP2 structures in the written production task. The other was that it was scored most positively in the ungrammatical NP1-V-NP2 structure in the acceptability judgment task. Interview results revealed that some participants erred in understanding the semantic meaning of *remain*.

Participant 32 from the 2nd-year high school student group produced two sentences for *remain* in different structures. One was *only a few things have been remained*, while the other was *we can remain only a few things*. When asked what he intended to express by writing these two sentences, he gave the following response.

The meaning of the first sentence is *zhiyou shaoshu jiyang dongxi bei baocun zhijin* (only a few things were kept till today). The meaning of the second sentence is *women zhineng baocun shaoshu dongxi* (we can keep only a few things).

When asked if *baocun* (keep) was the correct meaning of *remain*, he said yes and added that it can also be translated into *baoliu* (keep).

Participant 31 from the graduate student group produced *remain* in the NP-V, There-V-NP, and NP-Be-Ven structures. The complete form of her production in the NP-Be-Ven structure was *Only a few things were remained*. When asked what she meant by this sentence, she answered

Zhiyou shaoshu jiyang dongxi bei baoliu xia lai (only a few things were kept).

Since *baocun* (keep) and *baoliu* (keep) are transitives in Chinese, they can be used in the passive voice. When the participants transferred the syntactic properties of *baocun* (keep) and *baoliu* (keep) to *remain*, they were apt to commit transitive and passive errors with it.

In the written production task, the participants produced *exist* in the ∅-V-NP structure at the highest frequency. Altogether they produced 14 sentences of this structure for *exist*, which could be further classified into three types: the complete locative-inversion construction, the incomplete locative-inversion construction, and the non-locative-inversion construction.

TABLE 5:
FURTHER CLASSIFICATION OF THE PARTICIPANTS' PRODUCTION OF *EXIST* IN THE ∅-V-NP STRUCTURE

Sentence type	Number	Sample sentence
Complete locative-inversion	2	In some people's mind exist some old customs.
Incomplete locative-inversion	11	*The village still exists some old customs.
Non-locative-inversion	1	*Now exists some old customs.

Table 5 shows that 13 of the 14 sentences that the participants produced were classified as the locative-inversion construction, although 11 of them were incomplete for missing an appropriate preposition. This could not be considered as a result of L2 input because this construction is rarely used in English. Results of the English textbook corpus survey showed that there was not a single instance of such a construction for *exist*. However, such constructions are common in Chinese, as shown in (1) and (2).

(1) In outer space not exist without any substances absolute vacuum
   "There does not exist an absolute vacuum devoid of any substances in the outer space."
(2) Newtonian mechanics actually exist PROG these two unsolved issues
   "In fact, there exist two unsolved issues in Newtonian mechanics."

Structurally speaking, Sentence (1) corresponds to the sample sentence classified as the complete locative-inversion construction in Table 5; whereas Sentence (2) corresponds to the sample sentence classified as the incomplete locative-inversion construction in the same table. It is noteworthy that Sentence (2) is not preceded by any preposition, but is still grammatically correct in Chinese. The participants' production of the incomplete locative-inversion construction for *exist* could be easily explained if they were assumed to be under the influence of their L1 Chinese.

Moreover, the sample sentence classified as the non-locative-inversion construction in Table 5 could also be attributed to the transfer of L1 Chinese. When it was translated word by word into Chinese, it was grammatically correct, as shown in (3).

(3) Now exist some CL old customs
   "Now there exists some old customs."

4. Overgeneralization of Adjectival Passive Formation in English

Overgeneralization of adjectival passive formation in English as a contributing factor was suggested exclusively for the finding of the acceptability task that the participants assigned the highest score to *fall* in the NP-Be-Ven structure. The past participle form of *fall* is sometimes used as a pre-nominal adjective. Results of the textbook corpus survey showed that there were eight instances of such a usage in the two English textbook corpora investigated in this study. Some of these instances were *fallen trees*, *fallen leaves* and *newly fallen snow*. Therefore, it was possible that some participants overgeneralized adjectival passive formation in English and understood *fallen* in the test sentence *The birthday cake was fallen on the floor* as an adjective. This possibility was confirmed by the interview results.

Participant 2 from the collge student group assigned +1 to *fall* in the NP-Be-Ven structure, indicating that she found this sentence somewhat acceptable. When asked why she assigned such a positive score, she answered

I thought it [The birthday cake was fallen on the floor] stressed a kind of state. It changed *fallen* into an adjective.

When asked if *fallen* could be used as an adjective and if she could give an example, she suggested *fallen leaves*.

5. Structural Frequency

Structural frequency as a contributing factor was suggested exclusively for the finding of the written production task that the participants produced *arrive* in the There-V-NP structure at the highest frequency but produced *fall* in the same structure at the lowest frequency. Interview results revealed that the participants remembered that they had encountered *arrive* in the There-V-NP structure in the L2 input, but they did not remember if they ever encountered *fall* in the same construction.

Participant 35 from the graduate student group produced *arrive* in the There-V-NP structure. When asked how she produced this sentence, she answered

I have a very clear memory that there is such a structural pattern [There-V-NP] for *arrive*. For example, *here arrived a man*. There is such an inverted structural pattern [for *arrive*]. It came to my mind at the time [when I was taking this written production test]. Therefore, I used this pattern [for *arrive*].

Participant 35's response suggests that the L2 input does present *arrive* in the There-V-NP structure.

Participant 25 from the graduate student group was the only interviewee who produced *fall* in the There-V-NP structure. When asked what motivated her to use *fall* in this structure, she said

It is a result of stereotyped thinking. I produced *arrive* in this structure. I was under the influence of *arrive*.

Later, she added that she only knew that *exist* and *arrive* can be used in the There-V-NP structure. She did not say the same thing about *fall*.

From Participant 25's response, it can hardly be said that the L2 input presents *fall* in the There-V-NP structure.

Interview results of these two participants indicated that *arrive* and *fall* differed in structural frequency in that the former occurred in the There-NP-V structure more frequently than the latter. This difference might have contributed to the finding that the participants produced *arrive* in the There-V-NP structure with the highest frequency, but produced *fall* in the same structure with the lowest frequency.

V. CONCLUSION

This study examined the individual verb differences in Chinese learners' acquisition of English non-alternating unaccusatives. It found there were significant individual verb differences. Five factors were suggested for the individual verb differences among non-alternating unaccusatives in the participants' written production data and acceptability judgment data. These five factors were lexical frequency, teachers' explicit instructions, L1 transfer, overgeneralization of adjectival passive formation in English, and structural frequency. However, it must be pointed out that these factors were not on an equal footing. That is, lexical frequency and teachers' explicit instructions were considered as the major factors in that they were applicable to more than one verb and to more than one structure. In contrast, L1 transfer, overgeneralization of adjectival passive formation in English, and structural frequency were less applicable and therefore were weaker in terms of explanatory power.

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Junhua Mo was born in Changzhou, China, in 1977. He received his PhD in applied linguistics from Nanjing University in 2008. Since then, he has been teaching English in School of Foreign Languages, Suzhou University. His major interests include second language acquisition, syntax and corpus linguistics.

The Effects of Using English Captions on Iranian Intermediate EFL Students Learning of Phrasal Verbs

Mohsen Ali Pasban
Department of English Language, Sistan and Baluchestan Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Zahedan, Iran

Mahshid Forghani
Department of English Language, Sistan and Baluchestan Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Zahedan, Iran

Ahmad Nouri
Department of English Language, Sistan and Baluchestan Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Zahedan, Iran

Abstract—Phrasal verbs are regularly used in spoken English. Because of the difficulties experienced by Iranian EFL students in learning phrasal verbs (Khatib & Ghannadi, 2011), the present study intended to examine the effects of using English captions on Iranian EFL learners' learning of phrasal verbs in terms of recognition and production. A language proficiency test was managed to 68 EFL learners, among whom 60 intermediate learners were chosen as the participants of the study. They were randomly assigned into two groups: control group and experimental group. Prior to giving any instruction, the researcher administered a pre-test. Then, students in the experimental group watched video clip with captions whereas learners in the control group received video clips without captions. To compare improvement between and within each group *t*-test analyses were conducted. The result of the study indicated that the learners in the experimental group outperformed those of control group in their writing performance. So, watching English captioned movies affects student's phrasal verb knowledge.

Index Terms—captions, videos, phrasal verbs, EFL students, proficiency level

I. INTRODUCTION

The significance of multiword expressions to increase fluency in language learning has been recognized by several researchers. In particular, learning them is regarded as a crucial part of speaking skills (Wood, 2004; Folse, 2004; Alexander, 1988). Knowing the sense of multiword vocabularies is necessary, however, they are not just in productive abilities but also in listening or receptive capabilities. A number of the causes is that there are some kinds of multiword terms like fixed expressions, phrasal verbs etc. (Moon, 1997; Wray, 2002).

Phrasal verbs have been the basis of foiling for students of English. Numerous learners talk about the problems they have whenever they want to use them. Phrasal verbs are commonly used by inborn talkers of English however they have been discovered as hard for second language students to learn (Moon, 1997; Kao, 2001). Because several phrasal verbs have colloquial senses, which are generally defined as the point that "the sense of the compound unit does not end in the simple grouping of those of its components" (Arnaud & Savignon, 1997, p. 161).

Language students and their educators have continuously shown a strong interest in discovery the best prominent techniques of mastering (both production and recognition) of those phrasal verbs (Khatib & Ghannadi, 2001). Even though, phrasal verbs are problematic for second language students to learn, phrasal verb achievement has not received suitable care in second language pedagogy (Bardovi-Harlig, 2002). Mart (2012) indicated that the problem of how best to instruct phrasal verbs is still slightly controversial. He also believed that, even though training phrasal verbs has been overwhelming and tough for educators, and therefore boring for learners, it is needed to develop our students' skills in learning and utilizing them. According to Vieira (2011), several methods have been employed for teaching them such as instructing phrasal verbs in alphabetical lists; one more approach uses category forms such as (in) separable (in) transitive phrasal verbs. He similarly mentions that the best old-style method was based on definite contexts, which groups phrasal verbs around a subject area such as clothes, computers, and so on. In the end he further asserted that in spite of all the efforts, the results were not acceptable.

Study in Second Language Acquisition has demonstrated that if acquisition is to be stable, it should contain active conceptual procedures, and be consistent with the present information in the student's attention (Hanley, Herron & Cole, 1995). Several scholars have suggested strong evidence that multimedia have appropriate effects on language learning

due to rich and consistent comprehensible input (Brett, 1995; Egbert& Jessup, 1996 and Khalid, 2001). For example, Sherman (2003) stated that:

Video permits us to introduce any feature of real life into the language learning situation and contextualizing the learning process. Besides, it also can be used in many instructional situations, from the classroom to online distance learning campuses. The great importance of video lies in its combination of sounds, pictures, and sometimes text (in the form of subtitle), with the socio-cultural information about habits, traditions, culture, etc. (p.1).

Dual-coding theory (a model of cognition) proposes that memory is consisted of two different but interrelated coding systems for operating data - one verbal and the other visual (Paivio, 1971, 1986). According to Ghasemboland and Nafissi (2012), the visual and verbal organisms can be activated individually, however there are interconnections among the two organizations that permit dual coding of material. They furthermore believe that if material is coded in both organizations (as with verbal language and captions); the student remembers it more simply, since links will be shaped among the two organizations. This model was confirmed by Paivio's study (1971) in a first language context. In a study, Ghasemboland and Nafissi (2012) substantiated the importance of dual coding model in increasing our understanding of understanding processes. Paivio and Lambert (1981) expanded the dual coding inquiry into multilingual situations and found similar positive evidence.

It is also said that, captions deliver extra reading input to the previously standing graphic and auditory input delivered by numerous methods of repeatedly used video equipment (Vanderplank, 1988). Subtitled videotapes have been used for instruction of some aspects of language abilities (Price, 1983; Koskinen, Wilson & Jensema, 1985; Borras & Lafayette, 1994). Chang (2004) shows that foreign videos, mainly when subtitled, increase viewers' motivation to gain the languages of those movies.

Currently, DVD possibilities with their supple scopes are mainly beneficial in foreign and second language contexts. Proposing both bilingual captions and bilingual sounds, DVD equipment permits for numerous groupings of written and oral language over unlike sensual channels (Ghasemboland & Nafissi, 2012).

Even though several researches have theorized the advantages of the usage of captions for hearing-impaired, disabled learners, and language students, similar studies about the use of English captions in English education are still restricted in Iran. The current study is of greatest importance and will shed some light on the use of captioned videotape in the classroom. Therefore, there is a need to further explore the potential effect of captioned television programs or captioned videos to detect their usefulness to Iranian EFL students.

II. Review of Related Literature

A. Phrasal Verbs

A phrasal verb is the combination of a base verb and a particle with both literal plus idiomatic meanings for example: 'come in', 'join in' for literal meaning and 'try on', 'hang out' for idiomatic meanings. A phrasal verb regularly has a meaning which is different from the original verb. Oxford dictionary (2010) has defined phrasal verb as an idiomatic phrase consisting of a verb and additional element, typically either an adverb, as in *break down*, or a preposition, such as, 'fill out', 'look up' and 'make up' mean 'complete a form', 'search in a list or reference' and 'invent a story or lie' respectively.

According to Waibel (2007), a clear distinction among idiomatic and literal senses of phrasal verbs is tough and in several ways also useless. Bolinger (1971) also states that the difference among figurative and literal is regarded as minor. The literal usages lie at the basic, and nonliteral ones border them at changing distances. In the current research, a precise grouping arrangement is thus not tried and by "phrasal verb" we mean both types of phrasal verbs (literal & idiomatic).

Because of the trouble in learning phrasal verbs among EFL students, a number of research studies were directed to investigate effective approaches to instruct phrasal verbs.

Kaminska (2001; 2002) studied the efficiency of the KWM (keyword method) on learning of phrasal verbs. Her research took three to four weeks. She recognized a variation of the KWM in the process of this study, which she names literal-keyword technique. She showed images to support the learners to form an operative picture, even though she grasped at the assumption that this was probably not needed. The conclusions of her study, recommend that the KWM is similarly appropriate to describe phrasal verbs and that these educated with the literal-keyword method seem to be greater remembered than those learnt by old discovery drills, mainly when huge amounts of vocabulary are to be educated (ibid.).

Khumbangly (2005) conducted a study to compare the achievement rate in learning phrasal verbs through the instruction of the meaning of adverb particle and the traditional approach. Results showed that the development ratio of learning phrasal verbs by means of mastering adverbs particles was slightly higher than that of the traditional approach. However, results also discovered that the learning of adverb particle in phrasal verbs carried about less confusion among learners.

Additional study was conducted by Nassaji and Tian (2010) which was the effects of Collaborative and individual output jobs on mastering English phrasal verbs. They compared the efficacy of reconstruction editing jobs and rebuilding cloze tasks for mastering of English phrasal verbs. Moreover they desired to understand whether doing the jobs collaboratively directed to better improvements of understanding of the goal verbs than finishing the tasks

independently and similarly whether the form of job made a change. Their research was done in two intact low-intermediate adult ESL schoolrooms. Their study exposed that finishing the tasks in couples directed to a more correctness of job accomplishment than implementation them independently. Yet, cooperative jobs did not lead to importantly more improvements of words consciousness than singular jobs. The outcomes, still, revealed an influence of editing tasks, using the task style being additional operative than the cloze jobs in learning.

Ganji (2011) directed a study comparing efficacy of three different approaches in learning phrasal verbs: sentential contextualization, translation, and metaphorical conceptualization between Iranian college learners. Though differences between the groups' acts were not found statistically important, effectiveness of metaphorical conceptualization, and sentential contextualization was significant. All three methods helped learners predict the meaning of uneducated phrasal verbs. The contextualization and translation were useful in guessing the meaning of unacquainted phrasal verbs while conceptual metaphor method helped students remember the meaning of phrasal verbs.

B. Captions

Captions are on-screen texts in a given language combined with a soundtrack in the same language which are presented synchronously as the video is playing (Ghasemboland & Nafissi, 2012).

An amount of closed-captioned videotape researches where subtitles in second language were added to second language video resources, which have been done among years 1983 and 2012, have shown that this viewing method improves student's language abilities.

A study (Price, 1983) directed by 500 ESL students who viewed captioned television series, showed that learners' overall listening ability in English was importantly developed.

In additional study, Koskinen, Wilson & Jensema (1985) selected their contributors from the individuals of a correctional competence. In their research, the investigators observed the special impacts of captioned videotapes on accompanying reading words information. Based on their results, Koskinen and his colleagues claimed that captioned videotapes significantly enhanced the incidental reading vocabulary information of adult non-native English talkers. Furthermore, watchers, regardless of instructive level or language background, profited noticeably from captioning, even with only one viewing. In Goldman & Goldman (1988) similar results to Koskinen, et al., (1985) study on the favor of captions were reported.

In an experimental research via Vanderplank (1988), 15 college learners of English second language at advanced and high-intermediate level viewed BBC TV series by English language captions in 9 hour-long periods. Scrutiny of these learners, as well as learners' own reflective informations around the practice of subtitles, and their act on language-oriented actions, showed that they were capable to go after the transcript, audio, and image concurrently, deprived of resorting just to reading. Learners were well skilled to comprehend "fast, realistic speech and unaccustomed accents" (p.275), and they respected the capability to display how fine they assumed the vocal language in compare to the text. Of specific concentration is Vanderplank's conclusion that the practice of subtitles similarly facilitated the learners reach a great level of remembering for the language in the series.

Further to the mentioned researches, Garza (1991) piloted an research with seventy students of ESL and fifty learners of Russian as a second language, all listed in advanced or upper-level language sequences at unlike colleges in Washington. For every second language he matched an experimental crowd who viewed 5 videotape parts by subtitles in the separate second language to a control crowd who viewed identical video parts without captions. All participants finished content-based comprehension quizzes (involving ten questions) after watching individually of the videotapes twice. Conclusions revealed that the existence of second language subtitles considerably improved listening understanding. Further, 5 learners from each situation were accidentally chosen for a short-term spoken interview and requested to deliver immediate exact remembrance of a movie section of their selection. Garza's results confirmed that remembrance of the language used in the parts was higher in the subtitled situations, not only for ESL learners, but for learners learning Russian second language, where a dissimilar orthographic structure is involved.

On the other hand, Borras and Lafayette (1994) piloted another research to find out how subtitled videotape exposure matches to videotape without subtitles effects on the speaking act of 44 college learners of French. Learners who viewed subtitled movie pieces and learners who viewed the same sections minus subtitles were tried on spoken explanation and narration jobs at two levels of effort. Their presentation was measured in terms of overall efficiency, organization, correctness, and fluency. On both jobs, the investigators found important gains for the subtitled situation over the non-subtitled situation. Learners in the subtitled state also involved in their descriptions more of the unique language used in the movie. Again, there is confirmation that learners who are showing to L2 subtitled movie show a progressive emotional reaction to this watching method (see e.g., Borras & Lafayette, 1994).

Chung (1996), conducted another study which captioned movie was portion of an educational program in EFL, particularly she asked 204 low-intermediate teenage students in Taiwan to remark on the use of closed-captions. Based on her initial results, 70% of the learners stated that captions in the goal language improved their knowledge of the film content.

In an additional study, Koolstra and Beentje (1999) concentrated on elementary-level Dutch-talking learners, and studied the level of progress in reading lexis understanding by viewing Dutch-captioned English language TV series at home and they found helpful influences.

In a further research on the special effects of captions, Markham (1999) studied the impacts of captioned videos on term understanding abilities. He specified that the existence of captions considerably promoted the mature ESL students' listening word understanding of English language nonetheless of the level of graphic maintenance of the film.

In Markham and Peter (2003) study, also parallel results to Koskinen, et al., (1985) research on the favor of captions were stated.

Hayati and Mohmedi (2011) considered the influence of subtitle on listening comprehension of EFL learners in Iran. The participants of this study were 90 learners among 200 in intermediate level. The treatment for this research was divided into three groups; English conversation without captions, with Persian captions, with English subtitles. The data gathering was piloted with six-sets of multiple-choice test once six weeks' treatment to each group to check listening comprehension. Based on the result, English subtitle group revealed higher level than Persian subtitles group, then, Persian subtitles group beaten the no subtitle group. English captions group revealed better understanding of the DVD substances. This group stated that they stated to the subtitles when they need to approve the meaning of particular key words during viewing. It appears that they do translation while they viewing subtitles. Persian subtitles group stated that the Persian subtitles unfocussed their consideration and hindered the emphasis on the listening to the sound in several degree.

In line with prior studies, Ghasemboland and Nafissi (2012) research which whose purpose was to notice the influence of the existence or nonexistence of English captions with an English-language auditory track on the college-level Iranian EFL learners' listening ability of videotape passage substantial, also decided that providing subtitles for Iranian university-level EFL learners could be useful in overcoming some of their listening ability problems.

Thus, a great amount of researches have been done on the impacts of watching captioned/ subtitled videotapes on enhancing vocabulary learning and remembrance of content, incidental reading vocabulary knowledge, understanding fast, authentic speech and unfamiliar accents, enhancing listening comprehension and understanding of the video content. But no study to the present researcher's best knowledge has been done on the effects of watching captioned video on learning English phrasal verbs. So the following research question was raised.

III. METHODOLOGY

The objective of the present study was to study the effect of the presence/absence of captions supplemented by films on Iranian EFL learners' learning phrasal verb. To meet the above declared end, the researcher has spoken the following research question:

1. Does teaching English phrasal verbs through English-subtitled videos significantly affect Iranian intermediate EFL students' learning of phrasal verbs?

A. Participants

In order to conduct this study, the researcher chose 68 learners aged from 16 to 22 joined EFL classes organized in Simin Institute of Zahedan. The participants' ability level was intermediate based on the results gained from the First Certificate in English (FCE), proficiency examination. Some students couldn't success the test, so the number of participants reduced to 60 learners. From these, 31 were female and 29 were male and they were distributed into two groups randomly: control group and experimental group (30 learners in each group).

B. Instrumentation

The instrumentation used in this study involved:

1. *Standardized Proficiency Test*

The researcher administered a language proficiency test in order to test all the participants' initial homogeneity. The First certificate in English (FCE) proficiency test was administered in this regard. The students who got above 60 were chosen as the participants of the study.

2. *Phrasal Verb Tests Served As Pre-test and Post-test*

Paribakht and Wesche's (1996) scale of vocabulary knowledge was utilized to measure the development of phrasal verb understanding of participants of the research. This measure is one of the best usually used Vocabulary Understanding Scales, which states the steps of lexis achievement from first experience to production. The pretests and posttests were counted based on the VKS scoring method suggested by Paribakht and Wesche (1996) (table 2). That is, a mark of 1 was specified if the student revealed that he or she was not acquainted with the goal phrasal verb. A mark of 2 was specified when a student showed that he or she was acquainted with the term however did not distinguish its sense or, if the student delivered a sense (a translation or a synonym), the sense was incorrect. A mark of 3 was specified when a student delivered an adequate synonym (the students were similarly given the selection of providing a paraphrase of the word sense in their first language if they wanted). A mark of 4 was specified when the student used the term in a meaningful sentence, but syntactically incorrect (for instance, the student provided a meaningful sentence however the sentence had the unruly of unit misplacement in connection with the direct object). A mark of five was presented when the sentence delivered was both syntactically and semantically correct. The participants' answers were just coded based on the level they selected for each word on VKS (Wesche and Paribakht, 1996).

TABLE 1.
SCORING CATEGORIES: MEANING OF SCORES

TABLE 1.
SCORING CATEGORIES: MEANING OF SCORES

I. → **1 The word is not familiar at all.**

II. → **2 The word is familiar but its meaning is not known.**

III. → **3 A correct synonym or translation is given.**

IV. → **4 The word is used with semantic appropriateness in a sentence.**

V. → **5 The word is used with semantic appropriateness and grammatical accuracy in a sentence.**

Source: Paribakht &Wesche (1996)

But, level 3, 4 and 5 contain some kind of creation from students. Thus, the examiners tested the correctness of their responses and marked their selections as they are, if they were true. But, if the replies were wrong, the researcher lowered the participant's selection by one level. For example, if a participant chose Level 3 for a word, the reply was distinct as Level 3 only if the reply was correct, if it was not, then the investigator marked the response as Level 2. The dependability of the counting of the VKS was tested by requesting a second educated rater to mark a haphazard sample of 25% of the posttest substances and 25% of the pretest substances. An inter-rater dependability of 97% was gained which is satisfactory.

3. Video files

There is a clear problem in using authentic videotapes in the foreign language teaching: they present real language that is not ranked nor simplified, and spoken at a regular speed. So the examiner made use of instructional video (Connect With English) which is appropriate for using in this study.

4. Procedure

A Pre-Test Post-test Control Group Quasi-Experimental design was used as the research design in the present study. One week before the treatment, learners' initial knowledge of target phrasal verbs which were in 15 episodes of the movies supposed to be played for participants was pretested. In the experimental (the subtitle) group, the participants received treatment; so they watched the movies with the English subtitles and English audio track (bimodal subtitling) and in control group (the no-subtitle group), participants watched movies without subtitles and with English audio track. Both groups were administered the same pre and post-tests. Table 3 shows the design of study.

TABLE 2.
DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Pretest	Treatment	Post-test
VKS is given to both groups	Experimental group (videos with subtitles) Control group (videos without subtitles)	VKS is given to both Groups

Episodes 1 to 15 of Connect With English, English teaching video pack were subtitled by researcher and used in this study since these episodes did not include much slang and were clear for learners to understand. Seventy eight target words from these 15 episodes were chosen based on the ability level and background of the students. Word class of entire of these words were the same (phrasal verb).

The treatment and administration of the exams were done in language lab of Simin. A laptop and an LCD projector were obtainable for the treatment in the lab. The open software KM Player, a media performer that has the ability to contain subtitles into the moving image, was used to play movies.

To control for wash back effect of the pretest on the scores of participants in the posttests, two weeks after the treatment, the learners were post tested on the phrasal verbs which seemed in the pre-test as well. Wesche and Paribakht's (1996) 5-point self-report of VKS was restructured to measure the phrasal verb understanding progress of the participants.

To keep the research trustworthy, the students were not learned about the purpose of the research till they finished the post-tests and they were not permitted to use their dictionaries in exam management. Moreover, beforehand the administration of the research the learners were reminded that partaking was voluntary. Administering each pretest or posttest took 90 minutes and watching each episode lasted nearly 15 minutes. The predictable responses were placed on a five-point scale specified above. This process lasted 7 weeks.

Data Analysis was done quantitatively via Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). In order to answer the research questions, first both the pre-test and the post-tests were scored and all test results were entered into SPSS to analyze the data, and the researcher ran independent samples t-tests to examine if there was a statistically important difference among the pre-tests and post-tests results of the groups. In addition, two paired samples t-test was administered to see if there was a statistically significant difference between two groups in terms of their development in phrasal verb knowledge. Then the amount of developments which each group obtained in terms of their phrasal verb knowledge was compared.

IV. RESULT

1. Comparing Pre-test Scores of Control and Experimental Groups

As stated earlier, the research hypothesis addressed in the study was:

HO1. Teaching English phrasal verbs through English-subtitled videos does not significantly affect Iranian intermediate EFL students' learning of phrasal verbs.

In order to see if the hypothesis of the study is correct or not the researcher did the following analysis. To examine the difference between the experimental and control group's pre-tests, first, the descriptive statistics were calculated. Table 4 shows the means of both groups in the pre-tests.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PRE-TEST SCORES OF CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test scores	experimental	30	12.7667	1.19434	.21805
	control	30	13.1667	1.59921	.29197

Based on the descriptive statistics, the pre-test mean of the control cluster was upper than pre-test mean of the experimental group. While the pre-test mean of the control group was 13.16, the pre-test mean of the experimental group was 12.76. In order to see whether this difference was statistically significant or not, independent samples *t*-test analysis was run (Table 5).

TABLE 4.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST FOR PRE-TEST SCORES OF CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
F	Sig.		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
.841	.363	Equal variances assumed	-1.098	58	.277	-.40000	.36441	-1.12945	.32945

Based on the results, there was not a important variance in the marks for pre-tests of experimental group (M=12.76, SD=1.1) and pre-tests of control group (M=13.16, SD=1.5); t (58) = -1.098, p = .277. This put us on a safe footing to start the actual experiment.

2. *Comparing Post-test Scores of Control and Experimental Groups*

In order to examine the difference between the experimental and control group's post-tests, first, the descriptive statistics were calculated. Table 6 shows the means of experimental and control group's post-tests.

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR POST-TEST SCORES OF CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Post-test.scores	experimental	30	14.8000	2.10746	.21805
	control	30	13.3000	1.68462	.29197

According to the descriptive statistics, the pre-test mean of the experimental group was 14.80, the pre-test mean of the control group was 13.30. In order to see whether this difference was statistically significant or not, independent samples t-test analysis was run (see Table 7).

TABLE 6.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T TEST FOR POST-TEST SCORES OF CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
F	Sig.		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
1.562	.216	Equal variances assumed	3.045	58	.003	1.50000	.49259	.51398	2.48602

An independent samples *t*-test was accompanied to match the means of post-tests of the experimental and control groups. There was a important change in the scores of post-tests of experimental group (M=14.80, SD=2.1) and post-tests of control group (M=13.30, SD=1.6); t (58) = 3.045, p = .003. Specifically, after playing movies for both groups their scores on the post-tests of phrasal verbs had a significant difference.

3. *Comparing Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Experimental Group*

In order to test the variance among the experimental group's pre-test and post-test marks, first, the descriptive statistics were considered. Table 8 shows the means of experimental group's pre-test and post-test.

TABLE 7.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std .Error Mean
Pair 1	pre-test.experimental	12.7667	30	1.19434	.21805
	post-test.experimental	14.8000	30	2.10746	.38477

Based on the descriptive statistics, the post-test mean of the experimental cluster was upper than its pre-test mean. Although the pre-test mean of the experimental cluster was 12.76, the post-test mean was 14.80. In order to see whether this increase is statistically significant, paired samples *t*-test analysis was run on SPSS (Table 9).

TABLE 8.
PAIRED-SAMPLE T-TEST FOR PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Paired differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean	Std. Deviation	Std.Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
			Lower	Upper			
-2.03333	2.41380	.44070	-2.93466	-1.13201	-4.614	29	.000

According to paired samples t-test results, there was a statistically important difference between the pre-test results (M=12.76, SD = 1.1) and the post-test (M=14.80, SD = 2.1) of the experimental group at p< .05 level (M difference = -2.03, p< .05). In light of these results, it can be concluded that the watching captioned movies was effective in improving the experimental group's knowledge of phrasal verbs.

4. *6.4. Comparing Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Control Group*

In order to examine the change among the control groups' pre-test and post-test result, first the descriptive statistics were calculated. Table 10 shows the means of control group's pre-test and post-test.

TABLE 9.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST SCORES OF CONTROL GROUP

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std.Error Mean
Pair 1	Pre-test.Control	13.1667	30	1.59921	.29197
	Post-test.Control	13.3000	30	1.68462	.30757

Based on the descriptive statistics, the post-test mean of the control cluster is slightly upper than it's pre-test (pre-test M= 13.16, post-test M= 13.30).

In order to understand if the difference is statistically important, a paired samples t-test was directed. The t-test investigation showed that the variance among the pre-test and post-test means of the control cluster is not statistically important (pre-test M= 13.16, SD = 1.5; post-test M=13.30, SD = 1.6). Table 7 shows the paired samples *t*-test result for the mean difference in pre-test and post-test results for this group.

TABLE 10.
PAIRED SAMPLE T-TEST FOR PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST SCORES OF CONTROL GROUP

Paired differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean	Std. Deviation	Std.Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
			Lower	Upper			
-.13333	.89955	.16424	-.46923	.20257	-.812	29	.423

As these results propose, the control group didn't display a statistically significant development in their level of phrasal verb's understanding. This result may be expected since the students in this class were watching movies without captions. Though this group made a 0.13 point growth after the seven-week period, the experimental group made a 2.03 point increase.

T-test analysis also reveals that there is an important effect of English captions on learning of phrasal verbs. Thus, in light of the findings, it can be concluded that English captioned videos has an effect on developing phrasal verb understanding more than without caption movies.

This section has presented information concerning the data analysis and the results. In accord with the statistical tests conducted by the researcher, there is a statistically significant growth in the experimental group after a seven-week experiment of viewing English captions. In a similar way, the control group has revealed small amount of development after seven weeks of presenting shows without caption. According to the results, the development that the experimental group has made is higher than the control group. Therefore, the results propose that English captions have a significant influence on the learning of phrasal verbs by Iranian intermediate level EFL learners.

V. CONCLUSION

A. Discussion

Captioned videotape has been progressively used in foreign language programs. The accessibility of authentic videotapes (e.g. Via Satellites, the Internet, and DVD) and captioned creating software, makes it cool for educators and curriculum designers to use captioned videotapes (containing captioned news) in their overseas language instruction programs. Because of the widespread use of captioned movie, this research indented to investigate student's use of captions while watching shows (connect with English) in English as a foreign language. The discussion and findings connecting to the results of the study are offered base on the research question.

The findings of the study indicated that, the experimental group enhanced their phrasal verb knowledge significantly at the end of the 7-week watching English captioned shows (pre-test: M=12.76, post-test: M=14.80, development: 2.03, p< .05). This increase may be related to the English captions this group viewed simultaneously with movies. As proposed by the literature (e.g., Jylha-Laide & Karreinen, 1993), viewing English cartoons will support students to improve their vocabulary understanding. As suggested by Koskinen, Wilson & Jensema (1985) and Neuman and Koskinen (1992) captioned videotapes considerably enhance the incidental reading vocabulary awareness of English learners. Vanderplank (1988), from his research concludes that English language captions make learners capable of to go after the text, sound, and image at the same time, without turning to reading only. Ghasemboland and Nafissi (2012), Markham (1999) also conclude from their studies that the existence of captions significantly promoted the students' listening word identification of English language. There is confirmation that learners who are open to second languguae subtitled film reveal a optimistic demonstrative reply to this watching system (Borras & Lafayette, 1994; Vanderplank, 1988, 1990). Thus we can conclude that the improvement in phrasal verb knowledge of learners can be because of the English captions. The outcomes of this study suggest that watching captioned English movies can improve vocabulary (phrasal verb) knowledge of students; so these results are in line with connected literature.

As argued above, the experimental group revealed statistically significant progress at the end of the 7-week period. Once the development that both groups reached was compared, the experimental group's development (2.03) was found to be upper than the control group's (0.13); so the variance between changes of two groups was 1.9.

The findings recommended that presenting English captions increase learning of English phrasal verbs. In other words, understanding phrasal verbs through captioned videos was more operational than with that of non-captioned ones. Generally, the results confirmed the results of previous research in the linked literature (e.g. Bird & Williams, 2002; Borras & Lafayette, 1994; Garza, 1991; Winke, Gass, and Sydorenko, 2008; Markham & Peter, 2003), which offered that audiovisual resources presented with captions are influential instructive tools, which are assumed to improve L2 learning. The findings of this research are mostly consistent with Garza (1991) study, which concluded that captioning aids language learner link auditory to visual input.

The present study, also, showed that learning phrasal verbs through captions among intermediate students is beneficial. This suggests that participants were not confused from the audio input by subtitle. The results of previous investigators in this regard are varied. Markham (1993) found that subtitles are more helpful to advanced students. Guillory (1998) found that captions are beneficial for beginning level learners. Taylor (2005) argued that captions are more of an interruption than a help for lower-level students.

Besides, the result also refers to between-channel redundancy, which assumes superior performance from audio-print resources, reduces error and material loss, as well as increases recall once one channel delivers cues for another (Hsia & Jester, 1968). So, since the viewer watches shows with captions, greater learning and understanding is observed.

Meanwhile, students' phrasal verb knowledge increases due to exposure to comprehensible input under the appearance of the appropriate level I + 1. The conclusion represents Krashen's (1985) Input Hypothesis. Additional linguistic information and Context provide learners with understanding of the content and abundant input. The usage of a target language in real communicative situations and the stress on rich comprehensible input by exposing the learners to the target language in the classroom simplify the learners' language attainment.

B. Conclusions of the Study

The central objective of this study was to investigate the impacts of using English captions on Iranian intermediate EFL students learning of phrasal verbs. Precisely, it examines in what way English language material with or without English captions influenced phrasal verb development of English students of Iran. In light of the results of the study, it can be determined that this research approves the prior literature on captions and phrasal verb learning. For the purpose of developing phrasal verb knowledge, it is essential to adapt learning approaches, additionally, using technology and opportunities for authentic input are strongly suggested. Incorporating different language abilities are encouraged in order to promote harmony and meaningful instruction. Specially, making students acquainted with the way phrasal verbs are used in the target language by presentation how real communication in an authentic setting happens is what the literature recommends. This research draws closer to verify this offer by indicating that while watching shows without captions aid the development of phrasal verb understanding, English captions aids more.

In general, the findings recommended that English captioned educational videos were effective in students' phrasal verb progress. This supports Dual-Coding Model, which suggested that bimodal appearance of foreign language materials can simplify learning.

Increasingly, captions help Learners Bridge the gap between the improvement of abilities in reading compression and aural comprehension.

Besides, captions make comprehension of authentic movie material less tough and encourage conscious phrasal verb learning more than viewing shows without captions.

Furthermore, integration of L2 visual and L2 verbal situation is maintained by the certainty that second language gaining is improved over the supplementary acquisition of language from situationally productive oral input whereas the learners focus on the sense instead of the arrangement of the input. In this sense, enhancing contact to a wide variety of authentic text in the foreign language schoolroom, such as ESL L2 captioned videotapes, seems to enrich educational settings more than exclusive exposure to instructors' lectures and an imperfect set of linguistic textbooks. To put it differently, EFL captioned movies provide easy input which is geared to a definite level of foreign language skill and is delivered at a normal rate of narration.

According to the results in relation to the efficacy of the captioned materials, the current study therefore recommends that the employment of suitable captioned instructional movie programs has a great influence on the recognition and production of phrasal verb learning to EFL learners.

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Mohsen Ali Pasban is a student of English Language Teaching Department at Zahedan Islamic Azad University (Science and Research), Iran. He got her B.A. and M.A. in TEFL from Islamic Azad University. His areas of interest include SLA, Curriculum Planning/Evaluation, and Language Teaching Methodology.

Mahshid Forghani is a student of English Language Teaching at Zahedan Azad University (Science and Research), Iran. She got her B. A and M.A in TEFL from Islamic Azad University. Her areas of interest include syllabus Design / Evaluation, second language acquisition, language teaching Methodology.

Ahmad Noori is a student of English Language Teaching Department at Zahedan Islamic Azad University (Science and Research), Iran. He got her B.A. and M.A. in TEFL from Islamic Azad University. His areas of interest include Curriculum Planning/Evaluation, and Language Teaching Methodology.

A Study of Female Image in Beverley Farmer's *Gerontissa**

Hongmei Li

School of Foreign Languages and Cultures, Xihua University, Chengdu, Sichuan, China

Abstract—**The short story *Gerontissa* by the Australian feminist writer Beverley Farmer, highlights women's real life experience with the technique of stream-of-consciousness. It presents Gerontissa—an educated old lady's reminiscent touch of the youth and sentimental grief over the old age. Lost in her memory of youth, she recalls her two husbands, the painter lover and others, with the ubiquitous recurrence of her nude portrait, mirror and writing, which gives an insight into the ambivalence of educated women's inner world as well as unfolds women's destiny as "object" and "other" in the patriarchal society.**

Index Terms—**women, "other", subject, object, patriarchal society**

I. INTRODUCTION

Beverley Farmer, an Australian feminist writer, in her short story *Gerontissa* borrows her title character from T·S·Eliot's 1920 poem *Gerontion*, and tells an old lady Gerontissa's sentimental reminiscence about her youth along with her apparent frustration with her life now. With the help of the stream-of-consciousness technique Farmer captures a few moments of the old lady's life ever and now, consequently scrolling a portrait of an educated lady who is trapped in a succession of hardships, exiles and loneliness against the backdrop of WWII. Meanwhile attributed to Farmer's proficient knowledge of impressionist and post-impressionist painting, light, shade and color will matter a lot to artfully correspond to what the lady thinks and feels. The story, like most modernist writing, is very conversational. When in her Melbourne tenement, the old lady is opening her fragmented narration about the past and the present, she is frequently referring to the mirror, her nude portrait and her writing. Undoubtedly all of these three function well as significant symbols in the revelation of women's obscure destiny in the patriarchal society.

II. MIRROR

Mirror for long has been a necessary item in human life. Human beings could not see their own images if not relying on a mirror or others' gaze. But the image reflected in the mirror could not supply a complete picture of the subject, for it has been influenced unconsciously by social ideology and morals. Particularly for women, this image always reminds them of the requirements from the outside. Locked, trapped in it, they will be driven to obsessively study their self-images. The female image is the social construct as Anne Edholm points out that "images of women's bodies and faces are central to the construction of gender, to notions of fundamental, biological difference between the sexes and to ideas of appropriate sexuality"(Edholm, 1998, p.155). The Chinese scholar Zhang Zongzi comments that "Mirror…in men's aesthetic association is never separated from women's body, especially their looks." (Zhang Zongzi, 2007, p.29) In other words, determining the play of mirrors, as in the fairy tale Snow-white, is the male gaze.

A. Mirror and Image

Mirror is the instrument to showcase women's beauty and indulge women in that beauty. At the same time mirror is also a telling evidence of transient beauty as Sabine (2005) claims that mirror, like the sand glass, declares the end of an hour, reminding people of the limited time. Gerontissa as an old woman lives in a room with mirrors on every wall, where she could not help sighing: "…I who wore diamonds and pearls….(now) I am embedded in a mask of wrinkles…I am embedded once and for all in old flesh", "Age has congealed on me like wax". Her beauty is gone and could never come back. Such figurative language as "wax", "mask" indicate the lifeless body. Her decaying image thus contrasts sharply with her lasciviously sensuous body in her nude portrait. More important, Gerontissa's room with mirrors on all walls imprisons her as if she is caged by her different images, unable to distinguish her true self. Sabine (2005) says there is a conflict between the true self and the image. People could only allow their images reflected in the mirror to confront that image others see. Put it differently, the image reflected recalls the idealized female image which the patriarchal society has created and with whom women must always compare. The identity of a woman is thus based on how she looks, which is in close relation with how she is seen by others (mainly men). Appearance defines her culture and feelings as well as her social value. The self-image looks as only apparently real; it is a projection of something else, a sort of distortion. Therefore, the mirror, by locking the women in the double image, deprives her of

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the ability to be herself, to speak for herself. She must be passive. It is so difficult to maintain a position against patriarchal social schemes that the well-educated Gerontissa feels compelled to "prepare a face, a surface; looming at me in the pane…I know it is absurd. All is vanity. I do it for the girl under the wax mask. For her sake, too". According to Felicity Edholm, "female vanity is itself a subject of representation" (Felicity Edholm, 1998, p.154). Gerontissa "has been" many women in her time and she "expected to attain ease and amplitude in ripe old age…", however, what she has attained is "detachment. solitude". Gerontissa is then "tired of living", realizing she had spent the whole of her life in front of the "mirror" wonders "now many of us pliant women, embedded like bees in the amber of our mirrors, believed we must come to this?" The mirror here, loses its power of controlling the image since the woman's real image does not correspond to the one constructed by the patriarchal system.

In addition a mirror is the stage, too, where people could make up and disguise into new images, where women could pretend to be young girls to be admired and dreamed of by men. As soon as her beauty, youth fade, together with her health she will no longer be the object of "gaze" in the male-dominant society, for "decaying body could not stimulate desire, mirror ruthlessly witnesses and reflects the ugly body and despair. The old woman intends to seek for her youth while indeed what she sees is her phantom" (Sabine, 2005, p.233). Gerontissa claims that "I resigned myself to solitude only when my mirrors left me in no doubt that I was old and ugly, though hale—praise be to God, as they say—and hearty still." Simon de Beauvoir has a similar statement about the relationship with self and others, which becomes more complex and painful in old age since it is others who decode when one is old: "the dangerous age", she said, "is marked by certain organic disturbances, but what lends them importance is their symbolic significance"(Beauvoir,1989, p.587). Gerontissa is of the age "at which in the cultural world to which she belonged, women are no longer seen as objects to be looked at, when they are no longer sexualized by the look, no longer the object of the gaze"(Beauvoir, 1989, p.165).

By contrast Gerontissa's nude portrait records a desirable femininity, which intensifies the idealized female image in terms of both health and beauty. Bertagnin thinks "although the mirror can be an actual mirror, or an actual reflection in a mirror-like surface, it can also be another's gaze" (Lucia, 1995, p.18). Her nude portrait in this sense is an art piece under males' gaze.

Historically speaking, the painter of the nude portrait usually is a man while art models for life drawing classes are usually women who are expected to pose nude and more often do a series of poses with little direction, though visually non-obstructive personal items such as small jewelry and eyeglasses may be worn. These women models are silent, anonymous and unacknowledged, except supposed to pose the most ideal visual image in men's gaze: a beautiful girl with rosy cheeks, red lips and supple knees. In the portrait time is freezing on the moment of perpetual youth—it seems that the beauty could transcend time and space with her physical charm kept intact. Yet it is apparent to see through the cruelty of time: youth and beauty are inseparable; with the passage of time, beauty will be gone, too.

In the short story *Gerontissa* a nude portrait sees a glamorous lady in her prime. "She is still long, sumptuous and shadowed, spread along the bed as if congealed, and stoked by tongues of candlelight. At her throat, an amber necklace." The candle, as it is, symbolizes flight of time. Nevertheless at this moment, as the candlelight and amber necklace glow in shifting darkness, vigorous Gerontissa attains her enchanted beauty. Incidentally the phrase "as if congealed" helps to freeze this moment, and ends up in the elevation of eternal beauty, ease and nobility. The portrait throws old Gerontissa back to the painter, her lover Marcel whom she encountered in Paris. Marcel was dead. Gerontissa is in her decay by age and ills: her ankles swells, her knees shaken, her hands and feet frozen. It is safe to conclude that her nude portrait has two implications. On the one hand it repeats the cliché about woman's "non-significant other" as the object of man's desire and inspiration. She was once the art model, who was not simply the subject of art, but also often thought of as Muses, a source of inspiration. On the other hand it reveals women's doom in face of merciless time. The beauty in the nude portrait is a self-conceited young girl, who once shared the same enthusiasm for art with Marcel and who would abandon Marcel after realizing he was only a zealot of art. When she is old, in desperate loneliness, the sumptuous beauty could only become her haunted memory. If her portrait was Dorian Gray's picture, she would remain beautiful forever, with her confidence, egoism and sensuous life. Therefore her portrait is more a paradox of a middle-class woman's mentality: a strong assertion at youth while self-pity, self-denial at old age.

B.   Mirror and Memory

Mirror is the medium connecting the present and the past. In this short story, the old lady when sitting before the mirror is lost in her memory of two husbands, father, artist lover and cousin Anne.

Her first husband is a Greek man Panagiotis. After marriage they live in the countryside of Greece for a while, where "Women, decent women" are supposed to stay in "whitewashed kitchens gossiping and embroidering" while coffee houses are the world of men. She occasionally transgresses the social norms which are constructed as absolute. "After church one Sunday she dressed up in her husband's second best suit, sauntered in among the dour men playing tavli, and ordered an ouzo". The high price for doing so is that she is raped by her husband. Kitchens and coffee houses are the established boundaries to separate men and women. Clothing is associated with gender, marking the difference and considered fundamental to the wearer's identity. Annette Kuhn, underlines the potentiality of clothing "to disguise, to alter, even to reconstruct, the wearer's self" (Kuhn, 1978, p.53). Therefore, Gerontissa's transgression is a threat to the patriarchal system, a threat to the gender identity represented by clothing and the boundaries of implicit social

prohibition. When she is violently raped by her husband in the enclosed room, sexuality in cross-dressing is wiped out, the disguised woman is turned into the female image again. Aristotle asserted that "the male is by nature superior, and the female inferior; and the one rules and the other is ruled." Thomas Aquinas and St. Augustine declared that women are really "imperfect men". Charles Darwin announces that women are of a "characteristic of…a past and lower state of civilization." (Bressler, 1998, pp.180-181) Males as masters have power and define cultural terms and roles while females are powerless, who have only two alternatives: submission or self-destruction.

The painter Marcel is one of her lovers in youth, also the painter of her nude portrait. Generally speaking to many artists, art is considered as their life and naturally they may not take love seriously. They need women basically because they need inspiration and the object for painting. Gerontissa comments that Marcel "Une Garae—malade paur l'amour de l'art", which underlines her unhappiness with her position/role in this love affair. She is only the nude model, gazed by him; she is only the servant, looking after him when he is sane and drunken. She leaves the brutal husband and gives herself to the artist but she has not yet attained her position as the "subject". What deserves special attention is that Gerontissa voluntarily chooses to leave Marcel not because of revenge for his insane dedication to art, but because of her pursuit of equality in the love affair.

Her second husband Tom is a journalist, who was shot in New Guinea during WWII. Tom's appearance in her life is of vital importance, not only as her savior but also a savior of the world peace. "(He) brought me back to Melbourne just before war was declared forty years ago." Tom at the proper time rescues her and lives with her in the peaceful countryside of Melbourne. Their pastoral moments in the countryside are far from the madding world, romantic, enjoyable and enchanting, especially when "the flat red bay at sunset aglow with street lamps". Pastoral life seems to be the absolute opposite of violence and dictated notions, with gentle hands it protects a young couple in love. However, the war is inevitable even in Australia which is far away from war-stricken Europe. Tom as a male journalist must be involved in the war, for historically males are required to defend their countries and homes with sacrifice, wild patriotism and moral integrity. Usually the war drags men to the battlefield while keeping women from it. Nevertheless most women are negatively influenced by the bloody war for they have lost their sweet life, their husbands, their homes, and hopes. Literally speaking it is the war that has torn down families and destroyed love. Think deeply, it will find the truth is men and women perform different rights and obligations: in the patriarchal society, love is a necessity for women whereas for men including Tom love is a luxury because morally speaking nation's call is superior to love, and they must play heroes and abandon love when the war approaches.

The above analysis helps to reach the conclusion the patriarchal power is ubiquitous such as social rules or norms, war, and painting which have perpetually presents or represents women as silent "Other". To her Greek husband Gerontissa is the object of his desire and violence, who possesses her and assaults her at will; in her artist lover's eyes she is his inspiration, serving him both in his work and life; Tom, her second husband treats her equally, yet unfortunately the war takes Tom away and plunges her into the abyss of life. The three men in her life factually see the temperament of her father. It is her father who has shaped her image, occupation, attitude to life and favorite type of men.

Her father born in Paris has the temperament of a poet. In her memory, mother is always absent so her father plays the double role of parents, instructing and enlightening her by what he acts and speaks. The first enlightenment certainly is the language. He teaches the daughter French from childhood, and leads her into the world of literature, reading symbolist poetry, by Charles Pierre Baudelaire in particular. It is the father who brings the "banned book" *Les Fleurs du Mal (Flowers of Evil)* from Paris to Melbourne, stimulating Gerontissa's zealous passion for poetry. She reads the poems in it, commits them in memory, savoring the beauty, and surviving them in her mind even when she is too tired of life. As is widely acknowledged, *Les Fleurs du Mal* is renowned for its depiction of the ugly and the dark, along with the gloomy, ghastly mood. It associates with decadence and self-indulgence, dealing with the feelings of anonymity and estrangement from a newly modernized city Paris where people are drowned in desires, lifeless and hopeless. This sort of decadence aesthetics has been planted in her mind and will witness its potential impact on her life of sensuous preference. Her nude portrait is one telling example, which is borrowed from Baudelaire's *Une Charogne*: "une femme lubrique" (a lascivious woman). With the linguistic instruction comes the second enlightenment from her father, given father's dandy life style in Paris: it raises her curiosity about Paris and its style. When she is a grown-up, she has lingered in Paris several times, where she encounters her love, then leaves him and then returns after WWII, losing all things. It is safe to say the father is her guide in life, unconsciously designing her career. Her many lovers in youth, her infatuation with the Greek husband and painter lover Marcel witness father's traces of life: to live and die in desires and art. Her second husband Tom is the male ideal. He achieves balances between life and art, desire and duty, neither indulged in sensuous pleasures nor bounded by art. That is why Tom will still frequently come into her mind when she, an old lady, lives in the cheap Melbourne apartment alone. Moreover Tom, unlike other men who only survive in her mind, does live in her real life. That old man trudging about alone in the Melbourne street, scrawling in his notebooks, is Tom's scapegoat, who Gerontissa says "has a look of my Tom about him."

In the memory aroused by the mirror, the only female character is her second cousin Anne. Anne, like her "wore men's formal dress". Between her and Anne there seems to be unspeakable relationship. For twice she called "Anne, my darling". It is also noticeable that she met Anne at Molyvo on Lesbos when breaking up with her Greek husband. The island Lesbos as known is where the Greek poetess Sappho lives and maintains close relation with other females. From

this island is the English word "lesbian" derived. Therefore, Anne's drowning in the clear sea appears to be a planned suicide after their quarrel about young Gerontissa's infidelity. If we agree that they are unorthodoxy when wearing men's suits, then their subtle love affair could be more shocking in that post-war society. Obviously Gerontissa and her cousin are both rebellious women, challenging moral endurance and social acceptance. They pursue what they like, but end up in tragedy—Gerontissa in mournful solitude and Anne in early death. Factually to conform to the prescribed sex roles dictated by the society, which is what Kate Millet calls sexual politics, women must establish female social conventions for themselves by establishing female discourse, literary studies and feminist criticism. Simply put it, writing counts greatly for gender construction.

C. Writing

Writing in Farmer's stories is repeatedly reinforced, sometimes "seen as a redemptive force and the chance for a new beginning" (Lucia, 1995, p.11). As for Gerontissa, writing is what she can do. She realizes it clearly that mirror or another's gaze has its controlling power. The statement "Mirrors downy with dust" in fact reveals the unreliability of images reflected in mirrors. Since the mirror fails to show the real self, writing will become the must to represent the self, to record the self. Writing can not only refresh the memory, but challenge the male-dominant writing tradition with female writing. In this short story Gerontissa took notes in the street, supped Turkish coffee and reread everything she kept and wrote hour by hour, this short story included. She "intend(s) to leave behind, as proof that there was more to me than cold flesh stiffening in black rags on a rented bed." In this sense this short story is rather her autobiography, in which she directs towards the interior part of the female world, highlighting the gaze "inside". It helps to break away the male writing tradition from the outside and treats the female as the subject who narrates, experiences, observes, and writes. While Gerontissa's identity as the subject is incomplete. When she is in recollection she appears passive and inferior. As she says "there was more to me than cold flesh stiffening in black rags on a rented bed", she is complaining about her old age, her conformity to the patriarchal system. Writing in her mind is not so much a weapon to rebel against cultural ideals and norms as an unconscious action either to record or to kill time.

III. CONCLUSION

In this story Gerontissa remains in most situations submissive and weak in her relation with men. Her occasional transgression of her stereotyped roles as in her departure from Marcel and her love with Anne, does not generate any decisive results. After break-up, she still chooses to come back to the normal life. After all in the patriarchal society, the woman is prescribed as docile and helpless "Other". The father is the typical representative of patriarchal authorities who raises the daughter and gives her education, consequently shaping her personhood, her perceptions about the life and world. This is what Simone de Beavoir has said "humanity is male and man defines woman not in herself but as relative to him."(Beavoir, 1989, p.23).

The whole story is about time. Time on the one side accumulates wisdom and knowledge and on the other side directs to decay, loneliness, and sorrows. The mirror image sees the decay of female beauty as well as reflects the ideal female body. The mirror meanwhile seals one in the unhappy memories as well as takes one into a wonderland as in fairytales. Gerontissa, a decaying beauty feels mournful and even indignant over her loss of beauty and health. She looks into the mirror and finds her image betrays a lot that female ideal socially constructed. She is "indignant at decay", "bounded by it as if by an old skin" and "prepare(s) a sur-face". It may be reasonable to say the story partly deals with "decaying beauty", the recurrent concern of artistic representation. This concern yet indicates the established criterion: women exchange their beauty and youth for love, marriage and happiness. The old age could only stir anxiety and hopelessness.

This reminds us of the epigraph of The Waste Land, which reads: "For I myself saw with my own eyes the Sibyl of Cumae hanging in a cage; and when the boys cried to her, Sibyl, what do you want? She used to reply, 'I want to die.'" The Sibyl of Cumae is a prophetess who has been given long life by Apollo but has failed to ask for eternal youth and health. She is both the guardian of a sacred cave and a gatekeeper of the underworld. Her misfortune to be shut in a cage and to wither away is emblematic as she is of life in death, of a desperate struggle to attain salvation. So is Gerontissa. She is "tired of living" at the end of the story like the ancient prophetess. Death to them is the final release, which says farewell to all pains, physically, emotionally and psychologically.

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Hongmei Li, was born in Shanxi Province, China in 1978. She received her master's degree in literature from Sichuan University, China in 2004.

She is currently an associate professor in the School of Foreign Languages and Cultures, Xihua University, Chengdu, China. Her research interests include English literature and American literature in the twentieth century.

A Survey of EFL Teachers' Attitudes towards Critical Thinking Instruction

Fatemeh Asgharheidari
English Department, University of Guilan, Rasht, Iran

Abdorreza Tahriri
English Department, University of Guilan, Rasht, Iran

Abstract—The ability to think critically is an important and necessary skill that language learners need to develop for their academic and social success. Therefore, providing an active learning environment that is conductive to creativity and in which different activities ask learners to think critically is considered as one of the foreign language teachers' tasks. This study aims at exploring EFL teachers' attitude toward critical thinking (CT) instruction. The participants were 30 EFL teachers who taught English at different language institutes in Tonekabon, Iran. They were surveyed on their beliefs about the concept of CT and its place in their career. Result indicated that most of them have a clear idea toward the concept of CT and believed that it is an important part of their job as a teacher to increase learners' critical thought. On the other hand, most of them conveyed a strong desire for more training in how to teach these skills. Therefore, to increase teachers' ability in teaching CT, special training courses must be included in teacher training courses.

Index Terms—critical thinking, instruction, attitude, English as a foreign language (EFL)

I. Introduction

Critical thinking (CT) is an important issue which is of utmost significance in modern education and nowadays many teachers are interested in developing and encouraging critical thought in their classes. In fact, providing a learning environment that facilitates the promotion of CT skills can be regarded as a crucial aim of educational program worldwide. CT is an intellectually organized process of active conceptualization, application, analysis, synthesis, and/or evaluation of information (Scriven & Paul, 2004). It is the students' ability in applying their previous knowledge, evaluating their own thinking and changing their behavior as a result of thinking critically (Norris, 1985).

Significant changes can be seen in the field of education during the last few decades. Earlier the teachers were at the center of program and they tried to simply impart their knowledge to their students and the emphasis was on what to think. Today's education, in contrast, put the learners at the center and the focus is on how to think and in particular how to be a critical thinker. In addition, whereas earlier the learning was considered as rote training, nowadays learning is conceptualized as constantly evolving process of discovering, questioning, and reformulating hypotheses (Pennycook, 1994). These changes are necessary because in our challenging and ever-changing world developing the special abilities such as decision making and problem solving are essential for learners' success in their academic and social life.

On the other hand, children are not born with the ability to think critically. It is a learned ability that must be taught by trained and knowledgeable instructors (Patel, 2013). Therefore , as Schafersman (1991) stated, teachers are required to be informed about the value of CT skills and the strategies of teaching them and try to identify different classroom areas as the proper place to emphasize and teach these skills."In order to better prepare our students for the challenges they will face, teachers need to explicitly teach critical thinking strategies, equipping young people with twenty-first century skills" (Hove,2011, p.7).

Language development and thinking are closely integrated and according to Brown (2004), the purpose of an ideal language program should go beyond the linguistic factor and try to enhance CT skills among language learners. Language teachers can have a crucial role in developing CT skills among learners. They are responsible for introducing different aspects of CT to their students and help them to acquire these skills while learning the language (Limpman, 2003; cited in Shirkhani & Fahim, 2011).

As Davidson (1988) believes, L2 teachers may have more responsibility than L1 teacher in promoting learners' CT skills. Therefore, teaching these skills should be an integral part of each ESL or EFL curriculum and learners should get the opportunity to express themselves and evaluate the arguments of their peers.

Although anyone agrees about the importance of teaching CT skills in language classroom, many teachers neglect to incorporate them across the lessons. According to Chaffee (1992), CT is rarely taught explicitly and systematically within the educational framework. In most educational systems, students gain lower order learning which is associative, and rote memorization resulting in misunderstanding, prejudice, and discouragement in which students develop techniques for short-term memorization and performance These techniques block the students' thinking seriously about what they learn (Paul, 1990). Many teachers on the basis of their traditional views toward teaching, neglect incorporating CT

skills in their classes and claim that they don't have enough time to focus on these skills. They are the teachers who believe that their first responsibility is to cover all the pages of subject matter textbooks through lectures and the students' first responsibility is to recite the knowledge that teachers transmit to them. This process needs most of the available class times. In this way, students will develop the passive "tell-me-what-is-important-so-I-can-tell-it-back-to-you-on-tests-and-papers" attitude in educational program which will block their active thinking (Chaffee, 1992). These teachers and students should change their viewpoints toward the basic goals of education which is growth of critical thinkers and try to use the available time in the most effective ways to accomplish this task. In order to inform teachers about the value of CT, according to Walsh and Paul (1986), CT skills "should be thoroughly integrated into all aspects of the teacher education programs and prepare future teachers to be models of effective thinking strategies" (p. 49).However as Elder (2002) stated, CT is not typically observed as a part of teacher preparation programs.

Teaching CT is not an easy task. Teachers' and students' attitude toward CT is a factor that can affect incorporating CT practices in the classroom. Therefore, encouraging a positive attitude toward CT is an important factor in teaching CT skills. Up to this date, few studies have been done in the area of teachers' attitude toward CT. To shed more light on this issue, the present study aims at examining Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes toward CT and its place in their job.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

CT has been amplified in different ways and there are many definition of it depending on the field and discipline it is studied. The various definitions of CT illuminate numerous interpretations of what 'thinking critically' is believed to be. Halonen (1995) believed that "critical thinking scholarship is in a mystified state and no single definition of critical thinking is widely accepted" (p. 75). Similarly, Romeo (2010) stated that there is not a widely acknowledged and accepted theoretical definition for CT. Some examples of these definitions are as follows:

- "CT is learning how to ask and answer questions of analysis, synthesize and evaluation" (Paul, 1985, p.37).
- "CT is the ability that enables individuals to establish clear and logical connection between beginning premise, relevant facts, and warranted conclusions" (Ivie, 2001, p.10).
- CT enables individuals to develop appropriate criteria and standards for analyzing their own thinking (Elder &Paul, 1994).
- "CT is a reflective and reasonable thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do" (Ennis, 1985, p. 45).
- "CT is a non-linear, recursive process in which a person forms a judgment about what to believe or what to do in a given context" (Facione &Facione, 1996, p. 6)
- "CT is the mental processes, strategies, and representations people use to solve problems, make decisions, and learn new concepts" (Sternberg, 1986, p. 3).
- "CT is the use of those cognitive skills or strategies that increase the probability of a desirable outcome" (Halpern, 1998, p. 450).

The important and noticeable point in these definitions is that although some contradictory ideas might be available among them, they are all agreed on the influential role of CT in almost every discipline and career because of its association with abilities such as problem solving and decision making (Barjesteh &Vaseghi, 2012).

Many educators who are interested in the issues of CT believed that CT involves two aspects: Skills and dispositions; skills (abilities) are the cognitive aspect and dispositions (attitudes) are the affective aspect of CT (Aloqaili, 2011). CT dispositions are at least as important as CT abilities. Norris (1994) defined these dispositions as a tendency to think in a certain way in certain situations. Supporting the importance of dispositions, Siegel (1988) has defined CT in the way as involving these two components: "the ability to assess reasons properly and the willingness, desire, and disposition to base one's actions and beliefs on reasons" (p.23). Similarly, (Glaser, 1941, p.5; cited in Fisher, 2001) defined CT as "(1) an attitude of being disposed to consider in a thoughtful way the problems and subjects that come within the range of one's experience; (2) knowledge of the methods of local inquiry and reasoning; and (3) some skills in applying those methods". Ennis (1987) identified fourteen separate CT dispositions. According to him, critical thinkers have a tendency to:

- Seek a clear statement of the thesis or question;
- Seek reasons;
- Try to be well informed;
- Use and mention credible sources;
- Take into account the total situation;
- Try to remain relevant to the main point;
- Keep in mind the original or basic concern;
- Look for alternatives;
- Be open-minded;
- Take a position (and change a position) when the evidence and reasons are sufficient to do so;
- Seek as much precision as the subject permits;
- Deal in an orderly manner with the parts of a complex whole;
- Use one's critical thinking abilities;

- Be sensitive to the feelings, level of knowledge, and degree of sophistication of others.

Considering the importance of CT in education, Gelder (2005) stated that developing CT skills in learners should be considered as the primary goal of each educational program. Today many educators understand the need of improving CT skills in learners and finding the effective ways for teaching these skills is considered as one of language teachers' responsibility (Bracken, Brown, & Feng, 2009). In many situations, according to Shirkhani and Fahim (2011), learners who have developed CT skills were successful in accomplishing the activities that the other students may not be capable. Fisher(2003; cited in Malmir &Shourcheh, 2012) believes that students do not have enough thinking skills to handle the problems they might face in education or in their daily life. So teaching CT skills is of great importance. Likewise, Kabilan (2000) in relation to the importance of teaching CT skills in the context of language learning, stated that language learners can't be proficient only by mastering the rules and mechanism of language and this idea was rejected by communicative approach in 1950.He believes that learners can be proficient by using language not learning about language. They need to express their ideas and then support them creatively and critically by logical reasons and examples.

Teaching CT is not a matter of teaching isolated abilities and dispositions but it is a matter of teaching students to make appropriate use of the concepts, standards, and procedures. Therefore, having a good perception of the concepts of CT and critical thinker as well as a good understanding of how to convey instruction can help educators in providing the concrete knowledge of what is to be accomplished in teaching CT (Bailin, Case, Coombs, & Daniels, 1999).

Reviewing the related literature revealed that the number of studies conducted on the importance of teaching CT skills increased in recent years in the context of language teaching and learning. In this part, some of these studies and their findings will be reviewed.

Rodd (1999) conducted a research to seek the answer of this question: Can young children be thought to think creatively and critically? This study was conducted at the elementary level with the aim of discovering the ways to help children use their imagination, produce creative ideas, cross reference, plan, and make decisions in the context of the curriculum. He found that teaching children metacognitive skills across the curriculum by some specific programs can develop children's thinking and learning skills.

Husband (2006) carried out a survey to analyze the effectiveness of CT teaching methodologies in computer information technology unit of instruction using the California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) as the assessment tool. The findings showed no significant change from the pre-test CCTST scores to the post-test CCTST scores. Conclusion was made that the CT teaching methodologies used in both the programming and the networking units did not enhance the CT of the students during the time period of this study.

In addition, the findings of another study conducted by Cotter and Tally (2009) about the effectiveness of CT exercises in collage student's textbooks revealed that these assignments did not have any positive effect on their CT skills. Therefore, it is the teacher's job to provide the learners with the appropriate exercises which can develop their CT skills.

In like manner, Sheikhy Behdani (2009) conducted a study exploring the relationship between autonomy, CT ability, and reading comprehension of the Iranian EFL learners. The results revealed that there is a significant relationship between CT ability of learners and their performance on reading comprehension. Simply put, the higher the CT ability, the higher the reading comprehension. The findings of the study also indicated that CT and autonomy of students were highly correlated.

Kamali and Fahim (2011) investigated the relationship between CT ability, resilience, and reading comprehension of texts with unknown vocabulary items. The results of t-test revealed that the levels of CT and the levels of resilience had a significant impact on the subjects' reading ability of texts with unfamiliar vocabulary items.

In another study carried out by Aizikovitsh-Udi and Amit (2011), they investigated the ways of developing the critical and CT skills by probability teaching. This study was a preliminary step in the direction of preparing additional learning units within the existing traditional curriculum. This research suggests that teachers can and should create a learning environment which fosters learner's CT.

Barnawi (2011) conducted a research to explore the effectiveness of CT and self-voice in college English as foreign language classrooms. He attempted to propose some pedagogical tasks such as persuasive writing and draft workshop for developing CT in writing classes. He found that finding a place for CT and self-voice in EFL college writing instruction will provide a chance for students to express themselves clearly and put their own viewpoints into their writing. In addition, they will be able to better examine the logical relationship among statements or data and then draw a conclusion from multiple premises.

Shangarffam and Maminpour (2011) carried out a study investigating the impact of teaching CT on Iranian EFL witting skills. The result of this study showed that experimental group which received instruction of critical thinking techniques outperformed the control group significantly on the writing posttest.

Stapleton (2011) did a survey of attitudes toward CT among Hong Kong secondary school teachers. In this research, 72 high school teachers in Hong Kong took part in a survey. They were interviewed about their beliefs about the concept of CT. The results revealed that while the teachers had some conception of CT, it was narrow and a precise understanding was lacking. Moreover, the participating teachers expressed strong support for the inclusion of CT in the curriculum, while showing a tendency for training in terms of how to instruct CT.

Furthermore, another study conducted by Malmir and Shoorcheh (2012) revealed the same results. In this study, they attempted to determine the impact of teaching CT on Iranian EFL learners' speaking ability. The experimental and con-

trol group consisted of both male and female learners. The result showed that those students who received instruction on CT strategies had a better performance on the oral interview post-test. In addition, it was found that within the experimental group there was not any statistically significant difference between the performance of male and female learners' speaking ability after the treatment.

Although numerous studies have been done in different fields to examine the impact of CT and the methods of teaching it, there is still a need for investigating the attitudes of EFL teachers toward the CT and its position in their job to see whether they have a clear idea of the concept of CT or not.

Research Question

The focal point in this study was to investigate a group of Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes toward CT and its position in their job. Therefore, the following research question was posed:

- What are the EFL teachers' attitudes towards critical thinking instruction?

III. METHODOLOGY

Instructors' attitudes toward teaching critical thinking skills were investigated by using qualitative method. In what follows, the participants, the instruments used to collect the data and the data-collection and analysis procedures are elucidated.

A. Participants

30EFL instructors (male and female) who taught English in 12different English institutes in Abbasabad and Tonekabon (Mazandaran Province, Iran) were selected randomly to explore their attitudes toward CT. Their age ranged from 24 to 35 and their teaching experience was between 3 to 15 years.

B. Instrument

The instrument was a questionnaire consisting of eight Likert-type close-ended items which explored the teachers' attitudes toward the meaning of CT and its position and importance in their language teaching. In addition, it examined the participants' perceived need for training to improve teaching techniques and strategies in CT. The questionnaire was adapted to a five-point scale ranging from '*Strongly disagree*' to '*Strongly agree*'. The reliability of the questionnaire was estimated through Cronbach's alpha which was found to be .724.

C. Procedure

Prior to the study, the instrument was piloted to ensure its reliability for the purpose of this study. After that the questionnaire was administrated to the participants. Their anonymity was guaranteed and they were asked to complete the items and choose one of the options based on five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= fairly agree, 4= agree, and 5= strongly agree).The findings of this attitude questionnaire was analyzed to determine the participants' attitudes towards CT instruction. The SPSS software was used to provide a descriptive analysis of the closed items of the questionnaire.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The main goal of the study was to explore Iranian foreign language teachers' attitudes towards CT. The main instrument utilized to collect the relevant data was an attitude questionnaire. Before administering the questionnaire to the main sample, the reliability that was the internal consistency within the questionnaire items was estimated through a pilot study on 15 EFL teachers. The results of the reliability analysis are presented in the following table:

TABLE 1.
CASE-PROCESSING SUMMARY

		N	%
Cases	Valid	15	100.0
	Excluded [a]	0	.0
	Total	15	100.0
a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.			

As it is depicted in table 1, fifteen EFL teachers participated in the pilot study. All the teachers answered the questionnaire items and nobody was excluded from the pilot study. Table 2 shows the result of reliability analysis:

TABLE 2.
RELIABILITY STATISTICS

Cronbach's Alpha	No. of Items
.724	8

The reliability estimated for the eight items of the questionnaire was .724. This index was higher than the minimum required (.70) suggesting that the reliability of the attitude questionnaire was acceptable.

After estimating the reliability of the questionnaire, it was administered to the main group which consisted of 30 EFL teachers that were selected randomly. Descriptive statistics including means and standard deviations were computed for the responses provided by the teachers. The following table demonstrates the teachers' perceptions of critical thinking.

TABLE 3.
ITEM STATISTICS FOR THE ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
1) I have a clear idea of what the term 'critical thinking' means.	3.5000	1.19626	30
2) Teaching critical thinking skills is an important part of my job as a teacher.	3.6333	.96431	30
3) I build critical thinking explanations and exercises into most of my lessons.	3.4667	.97320	30
4) Iranian students in general are good at critical thinking.	2.0000	1.14470	30
5) It is not necessary to increase the role of critical thinking into the curriculum.	2.5667	1.38174	30
6) It is not the job of the teacher to teach critical thinking in the classroom	4.5667	.97143	30
7) Critical thinking is especially important in language teaching.	4.4000	.93218	30
8) Iranian teachers need more training about how to teach critical thinking skills.	4.7000	.70221	30

Total mean rank= .360, total standard deviation= .959

The questionnaire consists of five Likert-scale items. The scales were coded including 1 = strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= fairly agree, 4= agree, and 5= strongly agree. The total mean rank computed for the eight items of the attitude questionnaire was found to be .360 with standard deviation of .959.

The respondents reported their highest positive attitude towards item (8) that examined their perception of "the need of Iranian teachers for more training about how to teach critical thinking skills" (mean =4.7000). On the contrary, the lowest mean rank was announced for item (4) that examined the teachers' reflections of "Iranian students' general critical thinking skills". This indicated that teachers were heterogeneous in terms of their attitudes towards "inevitability to increase the role of critical thinking into the curriculum" (SD = 1.38174). Despite that, the responses were found to be uniform and homogeneous with respect to item(8) that inspected teachers' viewpoints towards "the need for more training about how to teach critical thinking skills" (SD= .70221). The following figure depicts the participants' responses for each item:
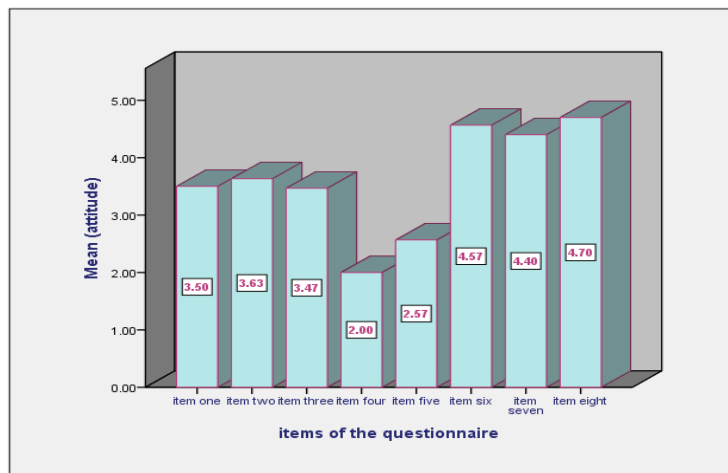

Figure 1.EFL teachers' responses to the items of attitude questionnaire

In the following section, the detailed information regarding each questionnaire item will be presented:

TABLE 4.
STATISTICS FOR ITEM 1
'I HAVE A CLEAR IDEA OF WHAT THE TERM 'CRITICAL THINKING' MEANS.'

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	2	6.7
	Disagree	3	10.0
	Fairly agree	11	36.7
	Agree	6	20.0
	Strongly agree	8	26.7
	Total	30	100

Regarding teachers' perceptions of the term 'critical thinking', 25 of them (11+6 +8) agreed that they had clear idea of the term. This was equal to 82% of the total participants who took part in the study. On the other hand, 5 of them (16, 7%) disagreed with this item.

TABLE 5.
STATISTICS FOR ITEM 2
'TEACHING CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS IS AN IMPORTANT PART OF MY JOB AS A TEACHER.'

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	1	3.3
	Disagree	3	10.0
	Fairly agree	6	20.0
	Agree	16	53.3
	Strongly agree	4	13.3
	Total	30	100

Item two concerned the teachers' attitudes towards the stance of teaching CT skills as a teachers' job. The majority of the participants' (n= 26) accepted that teaching CT skills is an important part of their teaching job. This equaled to 66.6% of the total responses. Yet, four of them disclosed that they disagreed with it (13.3%).

TABLE 6.
STATISTICS FOR ITEM 3
'I BUILD CRITICAL THINKING EXPLANATIONS AND EXERCISES INTO MOST OF MY LESSONS.'

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	0	0
	Disagree	4	13.3
	Fairly agree	14	46.7
	Agree	6	20.0
	Strongly agree	6	20.0
	Total	30	100

With respect to item three, more than half of the respondents (14 fairly agree + 6 agree+ 6 strongly agree) reported that they built CT explanations and exercises into most of their lessons. This amounted to 86.7% of the total responses. However, only 13.3% of them reflected that they disagreed with this item.

TABLE 7.
STATISTICS FOR ITEM 4
'IRANIAN STUDENTS IN GENERAL ARE GOOD AT CRITICAL THINKING.'

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	11	36.7
	Disagree	14	46.7
	Fairly agree	1	3.3
	Agree	2	6.7
	Strongly agree	2	6.7
	Total	30	100

Item four scrutinized teachers' viewpoints of Iranian EFL learners' capabilities regarding CT. This time the data revealed that the greater part of the participants rejected this issue. This was equivalent to 83.4 % of the total responses. Simply five teachers (1+2+2) agreed that Iranian students in general were good at CT.

TABLE 8.
STATISTICS FOR ITEM 5
'IT IS NOT NECESSARY TO INCREASE THE ROLE OF CRITICAL THINKING INTO THE CURRICULUM.'

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	7	23.3
	Disagree	11	36.7
	Fairly agree	5	16.7
	Agree	2	6.7
	Strongly agree	5	16.7
	Total	30	100.0

While 40.1 percent of the respondents announced that, it was not necessary to increase the role of CT into the curriculum, more than half of the teachers opposed to this point. Seven teachers (23.3) strongly disagreed, and eleven disagreed to underestimate expanding the role of CT into the curriculum.

TABLE 9.
STATISTICS FOR ITEM 6
'IT IS NOT THE JOB OF THE TEACHER TO TEACH CRITICAL THINKING IN THE CLASSROOM'

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	1	3.3
	Disagree	1	3.3
	Fairly agree	1	3.3
	Agree	4	13.3
	Strongly agree	23	76.7
	Total	30	100

Totally, twenty-eight teachers agreed that it was not the job of the teacher to teach CT in the classroom. Nevertheless, 6.6 percent of them reflected that they disagreed with it.

TABLE 10.
STATISTICS FOR ITEM 7
'CRITICAL THINKING IS ESPECIALLY IMPORTANT IN LANGUAGE TEACHING.'

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	2	6.7
	fairly agree	3	10.0
	Agree	6	20.0
	strongly agree	19	63.3
	Total	30	100.0

Concerning the importance of CT in language teaching, simply two of them reported that they disagreed with the significance of CT in language teaching. In spite of that, more than 90 % agreed that CT was especially important in language teaching.

TABLE 11.
STATISTICS FOR ITEM 8
'IRANIAN TEACHERS NEED MORE TRAINING ABOUT HOW TO TEACH CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS.'

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	1	3.3
	fairly agree	1	3.3
	Agree	4	13.3
	strongly agree	24	80.0
	Total	30	100.0

Finally, regarding the respondents' opinion towards the last item that inspected their evaluation of their need for more training about how to teach CT skills, 96.6 percent of the participants agreed with this idea. Simply 3.3 percent of them (n=1) reflected that teachers do not need for more training about teaching CT skills.

V. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The present exploratory study investigated a group of Iranian EFL teachers' attitude toward CT, its place in their job and their opinion regarding the need for more training to increase their ability in teaching CT skills. Analysis of the result revealed that most of the teachers who participated in the study had a clear idea of the concept of CT. They indicated that CT should be part of the curriculum and it is an important part of their job as a language teacher. In addition, most of them expressed the need for more training in how to teach CT skills. Therefore, the study shows a positive movement toward introducing some elements of CT in the classroom among language teachers. Some items of the questionnaire indicate teachers' beliefs about their classes and their performance (items 2, 5, 6, 7).Also unfortunately the majority of teachers reported their EFL students' lack of ability to think critically (item 4).

Due to the significant role of CT in developing effective language learning, it needs to be enhanced among language learners. According to Waters (2006), applying CT activities in English language classrooms that is an important task of language teachers can improve the learners' level of thinking and at the same time can help them to understand the main meanings of the text. Furthermore, EFL learners who are equipped with the ability to think critically feel more efficacious in learning a foreign language (Pajares, 2002).Therefore, it is essential for language teachers to encourage learners to use their CT abilities by providing them challenging opportunities in which they reflect, grow and learn and try to express their opinions critically which can contribute to their progress in language learning (Kamali &Fahim, 2011).

In the present study, the opinions of a very small number of Iranian EFL teachers are explored and the results may not be generalized to larger context. Therefore, conducting a similar study using a larger sample of teachers with different degrees of experience or teachers of different subject matters can provide better and more comprehensible information regarding teachers' beliefs and attitude toward CT and Iranian students' level of CT ability.

The ideas presented in this study can notify teachers of the importance of teaching learners how to increase their ability to think critically in order to be successful in different process of learning. They need to utilize appropriate teaching materials and methods and try to find out the classroom areas which are appropriate to teach the CT skills. Young (1980) believed that if teachers use appropriate instructional methods and curriculum materials, students will improve their CT skills.

Furthermore, the findings indicate a need for further training among instructors who try to incorporate CT strategies in their classes and improve their students CT ability. It is the fact that students' achievement is associated with teachers' abilities to put CT skills into practice. Therefore, training teachers to instruct these techniques as part of their methodology would be of great importance. A trained teacher is able to encourage and model thinking behaviors in the process of instruction to improve leaner's ability (Shangarfam & Maminpour, 2011). This study can inform syllabus designers and material developers about the importance of including CT issues both in students' textbooks and in teacher training courses. According to Kablin (2000), learners are in need of textbooks that evoke CT and teachers need to be

trained to change their attitude toward CT instruction. In order to help learners to foster their CT and decision making ability, it is necessary for teachers to educate themselves ideally and be aware of their enormous responsibility in the classroom. In addition, to hold in-service training classes to sharpen teachers CT skills and improve their teaching techniques is of great importance in language learning setting (Fahim & Ahmadian, 2012).On the other hand, in order to improve teachers' capability for teaching CT, schools and institutions must provide them with required time and resources which are necessary for professional development to occur. By incorporating CT teaching in different classes, the educational program will produce the educated people who are able to make decisions more accurately and solve problems more effectively.

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Fatemeh Asgharheidari holds an MA in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). She is currently a language teacher at ministry of education.

Abdorreza Tahriri is currently an assistant professor of TEFL at University of Guilan. He graduated with distinction from MA and PhD programs in TEFL from Shiraz University. His research interests and publications are in the areas of critical thinking, learn-er variables, and critical discourse analysis.

The Effect of Caption Modes on EFL Students' Video Comprehension

Jiangqiao Dong
School of Foreign Studies, Jiangnan University, China

Yajing Zhou
School of Foreign Studies, Jiangnan University, China

Guiru Liu
School of Foreign Studies, Jiangnan University, China

Abstract—**Based on perception load theory and cognitive theory with respect to multimedia learning, an experiment was conducted to examine whether caption modes or the amount of captions (full captions, keyword captions and no captions) affected EFL students' distribution of attention resource in their visual channels and accordingly video comprehension. 147 Chinese students of English majors participated in the experiment. Results indicated that there were no significant differences between the three groups regarding the effect of video materials on participants' overall comprehension, which did not conform to Guillory's result. There might be three reasons for it. Apart from that, for the comprehension of picture information, there were no significant differences between the group with keyword captions and the group with no captions but both were obviously better than the group with full captions. As for the scores of language information, there were no significant differences between the group with full caption and the group with keyword captions, but both were better than the group with no captions. Two explanations for the result were proposed.**

Index Terms—**video comprehension, caption, multimodal, attention distribution**

I. INTRODUCTION

In L1 learning environments, learners' auditory language ability is usually higher than their visual one in that their listening comprehension is better than reading comprehension. Hence video programs with captions mainly aim at young children for their reading training and adults for their literacy education (Goldman, 1993, quoted in Dai, 2005). In foreign language learning environments, however, learners' auditory language ability is usually lower than their visual one in that their listening comprehension is not as good as reading comprehension (Dai, 2005). Accordingly captions may make up for listeners' insufficiency of auditory language processing ability. The point is that this sort of compensation mechanism is rather complicated, because comprehension of multimedia videos with captions is closely associated with the material's organizational forms, learners' cognitive strategies and knowledge skills, objectives and requirements of cognitive processing tasks and their interactive relations. Previous researches with respect to the effect of captions focused on the overall effect of captions on video comprehension or the achievement effect of a single task and more or less neglected the discussion about the process itself. During a specific "video" processing, the effect of captions usually depends on the video watcher's level of perceptual load and selective attention.

II. THEORETICAL BASIS AND RELEVANT RESEARCHES

A. Theoretical Basis

Working memory (WM) refers to the resource-limited system that is used for temporary information storage and processing (Baddley, 1992) while selective attention refers to the cognitive system which selects the rich external information so as to ensure the efficient use of the limited cognitive resource (Down, 2000). Compared with the single linear text reading and sequential discourse listening comprehension, multimedia video watching need consume more attention resource. The perceptual processing of static pictures, dynamic videos and language information (including audio and visual ones) roughly corresponds to visual-spatial sketchpad, episodic buffer and phonological loop in Baddeley's model of working memory (Baddeley, 2000, see figure 1) but their occupation of attention resources is not "balance-loaded". Based on the researches on working memory, Lavie (1995; 2004) proposed the theory of perceptual load, believing that perception is a resource-limited process-cycle. The level of perceptual load for the current task determines the resource allocation in the selective attention. If the level is high, the limited attention resource is consumed, the other objects or information that is irrelevant to the current task can not be processed perceptually so that interfering effect will not be achieved. Otherwise the target stimulus can not consume the current attention resource, the redundant resource will automatically overflow, the processing will have nothing to do with the interfering stimulus.

The point is that the observer can not restrain the overflow of the redundant resource (Wei, 2005). Lavie's theory is deemed to have settled the psychological disputes on pre-selection and post-selection. Nevertheless, researches by Johnson et al. (quoted in Ren, 2009) further indicated that the decisive factor that affected selective attention was the resource limitation and that the load level of current task directly influenced the distribution of attention resources.
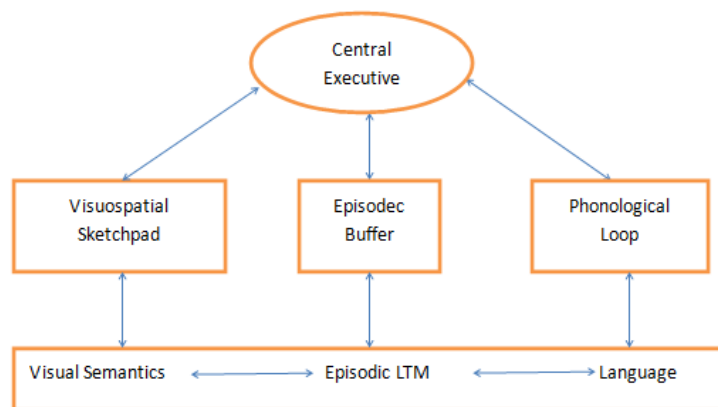

Figure 1 Baddeley's Model of Working Memory

Cognitive load is composed of the causal dimension that reflects the interactivity between tasks and learners' characteristics and the evaluative dimension that reflects the measurable notions such as psychological load, effort and performance, etc. To promote effective learning, appropriate materials should be selected so as to control the internal cognitive load, decrease the external cognitive load via effective teaching design, increase the relevant cognitive load and ensure that the overall cognitive load does not exceed the level that learners are able to bear.

Based on dual coding theory, Mayer (2001) proposed the three hypotheses of multimedia cognitive learning theory: dual channel hypothesis (visual channel and audio channel), limited capacity hypothesis (the processing capacity of each channel is limited) and active learning hypothesis. In multimedia learning, learners' processing comes from the information through two channels and the limited capacity merely allows part of text and picture information to be noticed by learners, enter their working memory and be actively processed, created into coherent structure and integrated with the previous knowledge so that meaningful learning may occur.

The above theories reveal the cognitive processing mechanism of multi-mode information in working memory from different perspectives. What they have in common is that they all involve the distribution of attention resource in the perceptual process with different focuses. Compared with single-channel linear text reading or sequential discourse listening comprehension, multimedia cognitive learning is multi-mode processing which processes the discrete visual information such as linear text, videos, sounds, pictures, etc. as well as the sequential audio information. In the audio-visual training based on acoustic visual material, Chinese students have obvious drawbacks in both visual competence of language processing (rapid reading of captions) and audio one (authentic sound listening), in particular in listening comprehension which is in most cases not as good as reading comprehension. Acoustic multimedia video watching in general belongs to cognitive processing of high perceptual load and different information in the same channel competes for watchers' attention resource. Videos with captions have the effect of cognitive compensation in language learning mainly in that information on target stimulus surpasses EFL learners' competence in a sense. The point is that on the similar conditions of high cognitive load, whether selective attention is self-conscious or automatic and on what conditions there will be participation of cognitive control process.

B.   Literature Review of Relevant Researches

Scholars outside China made numerous researches on the positive effect of captions on video comprehension, for example, effect of L2 captions on content comprehension and memory (Price, 1983; Vanderplank, 1988; Garza, 1991), effect of captions on vocabulary acquisition (Neuman et al 1992), interactive effect between L2 proficiency and captions (Price, 1983; Vanderplank, 1988; Guillory, 1998; Danan, 1992) and effect of different captions and dub modes on L2 acquisition (Danan, 1992; Baltova, 1999; Markham et al., 2001, see Wang, 2005).

In China there have been comparatively less researches on application of captions in foreign language teaching and people began to make relevant researches mainly after 2000. Wang (2005) and Wang (2009) made some empirical studies, believing that captions were beneficial for Chinese L2 learners' accidental vocabulary acquisition and they advocated that teachers should make every effort to find the appropriate ways for students so as to maximize the effect of captions. Dai (2005) theoretically summarized the origins, development, categorization and the educational effect of captions, pointed out that captions might play some role in listening, speaking and reading and advocated the appropriate use of captions to assist listening comprehension. Ren (2009) also suggested that if designed and applied properly, the flexible captions based on SRT format might become good assistant in listening teaching and training.

Nevertheless, there have been few empirical studies on the mechanism of caption effect and design in foreign language video watching. Apart from that, amount of caption and combination forms of different categories of videos have not been given sufficient attention.

Barron & Atkins (1994) made researches on the different roles of key word caption, full caption and no caption videos in learners' comprehension of knowledge. The differences of the three groups lied in the amount of captions. The learning process was autonomously controlled by participants and repetition or playback was allowed. Results indicated that the amount of captions did not affect learners' learning effect. Nevertheless, the experiment was not a language learning task and the language used for the experiment was participants' native language (L1). Apart from that, participants were allowed to watched the videos repeatedly. Hence the role of text was weakened, captions had no obvious effect upon participants' listening comprehension and the change of caption modes had no effect on learners' amount of comprehension in terms of knowledge points.

Guilory (1998) put keyword captions into L2 teaching, respectively compared the differences between French full captions, keyword captions and no captions for adult French learners whose L1 was English in terms of videos comprehension. Results revealed that for the mean score of the three groups, there were no significant differences between keyword captions and full captions with both significantly higher than no captions. Guilory's study confirmed the positive effect of captions on comprehension and there were some points to be noted. Firstly, the researcher examined participants' comprehension of video content but failed to define what the content was. For example, was it information about language or picture? The researcher did not seem to investigate them respectively. Secondly, the researcher did not clearly pointed out the difficulty level of videos compared with that of learners' language proficiency. Thirdly, in the research L1 was English and L2 was French. The two languages were of the same origin and captions of such kind were beneficial for the prediction of word meaning. Guilory explained this and pointed out that the language of the same origin as keywords were more likely to attract learners' attention. English captions should not have similar effect on EFL teaching in the context of Chinese since English and Chinese are not the languages of the same origin. Hence whether Guilory's result can be applied to Chinese EFL teaching is to be validated.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Method

According to perceptual load theory, learners' capacity of working memory is limited. Multiple tasks will follow the principle of no change in the total amount with one more and the other less. The objectives of tasks will more or less affect learners' selective attention. When confronted with the same task, learners of different language proficiency and with different objectives usually make different psychological efforts so that different cognitive loads arise. Therefore the load of current task directly affects the distribution of attention resource. The researcher of this study believes that when there is no specific task, the attention resource for videos watching with high perceptual load is automatically distributed. But when specific learning tasks are given, it is selective for the distribution of attention resource for videos watching with both high and low perceptual loads. The watching effect depends on the resource competing level of single channel processing and the efficient use of channel characteristics of attention resource (Interfering information from audio channel is not affected by the level of visual perceptual load). Hence when there are merely pictures and texts, and attention resource is limited, the change of caption modes or amount of captions will absolutely change learners' selective attention and do not affect their performance.

This experiment intends to examine whether the amount of captions or caption modes (full captions, keyword captions and no captions) affect learners' distribution of attention resource in terms of picture and caption cognitive processing when video difficulty level is controlled within i +1 by Krashen so as to make a difference in their video comprehension of texts and pictures. In other words, will the differences of amount of information in learners' visual channel make differences in their comprehension of videos? The following three questions are to be answered: (1) Does the change of amount of captions affect learners' total comprehension achievement of videos? (2) Are there any differences between the comprehension achievement of language information and that of non-language due to the change of amount of captions? (3) Does the change of amount of captions exert the same influence upon videos in different contexts?

B. Participants

The participants of this experiment were 180 English majors from Hubei Engineering University, China. 33 of them took the pretest and the rest 147 were randomly divided into 6 groups who participated in the video test. For the experiment groups and the caption modes, see table 1. Before the experiment, the 6 groups took a simulation test of TEM4 (Test for English Majors-Band 4). ANOVA analysis indicated that there were no significant differences between the 6 groups in terms of English proficiency ($F=.160$, $p=.997$).

C. Materials

Experiment materials included 6 videos which lasted 25 to 35 seconds and a test paper whose reliability coefficient was 0.91. The difficulty level of videos was about the same as CET4 (College English Test-Band 4 and the mean speed was 130 wpm. Of the scripts, 14 words were not included in *College English Curriculum Requirements*, 2.7% of the

total amount. The topics of the 6 videos covered family life, natural disasters, social problems and future dreams, etc. that learners were familiar with.

According to Bejar's categorization of videos and Hymes' study of context variables, the 6 videos used for this experiment were divided into three kinds, namely videos with strong contexts, videos with weak contexts and videos with no contexts (Du, 2010) and each of them included 2 videos.

Key word captions were drawn from the scripts. Five senior English teachers and two native speakers of English (teachers from English-speaking countries) respectively read the scripts of the videos and picked up the key words from them. Words that were chosen four times or above were determined as key words which were 38% of the scripts. The full captions and keyword captions matched the dubs and appeared or disappeared as the audios played.

The test paper adopted multiple-choice and covered all the information points of the videos, including language and non-language ones. The researcher asked five of the students to watch the pictures with no audios or captions. The other five students read the scripts of the videos and wrote down the information points obtained. The points appeared three times and above were chosen as the items in the multiple-choice. Apart from that, in order to ensure the relative independence of language and pictures, keys to all items were gained from scripts or pictures only. In other words, the information that could not only be gained from the scripts but also from the pictures were excluded. The items were arranged in order of the appearance of information points themselves. Each time when the participants finished watching a video, they were demanded to finish the correspondent items.

D. Procedures and Data Collection

33 students took the pretest and based on the result of the test, the researcher adjusted the time of experiment and the contents of test items and became familiar with the procedures of the experiment. 147 participants were divided into 6 groups and finished the experiment in the sound lab. Each of the student used a computer and a pair of earphones. Each video was played once, then items about the videos appeared in the screen and students wrote down their keys on the answer sheets.

After the experiment, the researcher collected the answer sheets and used SPSS19.0 to analyze it. The data included the total scores, scores for language information, pictures, videos with strong contexts, language with strong context, pictures with strong context, videos with no context, language with no context and pictures with no context respectively. For the results and scores for each of the components, see table 2.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Effect of Video Materials on Participants' Overall Comprehension

From table 2 it can be seen that there were no differences between the three groups with captions in terms of the total mean scores (F=0.509; P=0.603). In other words, the three caption modes or amount of captions did not significantly affect learners' total amount of video information. This result did not conform to that of Guillory's who concluded that there were no differences between full captions and keyword captions with respect to video comprehension but both of them were better than no captions. There might be three explanations for the differences between the results of current research and that of Guillory's. *Firstly*, the testing methods were different. In Guillory's study, items included recall questions and inferencing questions and participants were demanded to write down their answers on their own accord, which involved the use of learning strategies. In the current research, however, all the questions were recall ones and the participants did not need to infer, which authentically reflected the amount of information that participants could obtain in current working memory and decreased the effect of differences between learning strategies and inference ability on the result of the experiment. *Secondly*, the research methods were different. In Guillory's study, participants' L1 was English and their L2 was French which was of the same origin as English. The appearance of captions in French might lead to the fact that participants used learning strategies of association and inference. In this research English and Chinese were not of the same origin and captions in Chinese would not produce similar effect. *Thirdly*, there were no significant differences between the three groups in total scores, which could neither explain the fact that different amount of captions had the same effect upon the videos watching effect for the three groups, nor indicate that in case of different combinations of videos, audios and captions, effects of videos watching for the three groups were simply the same.

In this experiment, in view of the measurability of captions' cognitive compensation effect, the videos chosen were somewhat difficult (Being too difficult or easy, the compensation effect would accordingly be decreased and even disappear and become pure reading comprehension). Videos watching with full captions easily caused high perceptual load defined by Lavie, due to the large amount of target visual information (video pictures and caption text). Hence when the group with full captions watched the videos, both the picture information and the caption text information caused the distribution competition of attention resource for the visual channel. Participants could merely process part of the visual information and neglected the rest, which affected the total scores.

In contrast with videos with full captions, videos with keyword captions presented much less language information, and amount of information for watchers' decreased, which would cause the loss of part of language information but videos with less captions meant less perceptual load and as well as less need of attention resource. According to Lavie's perceptual load theory, if the current task could not consume attention resource, the extra attention resource would

automatically overflow and process the other information. The group with keyword captions processed less amount of text information than the previous group in their visual channels and the attention resource that was released when watching would automatically overflow and process the non-language information in the videos (pictures were the greatest stimulus next to captions in visual route). In this case, the information that participants obtained would compensate each other with one more and the other less.

As far as the group with no captions was concerned, in their visual channels there was nothing but pictures. Accordingly they obtained more picture information which compensated the language information performance that had been lost for the lack of captions in terms of amount and there were no significant differences in their total scores.

B. *Differences between Pictures and Language Information in Terms of Caption Modes Effect*

For participants' scores of pictures and language information and their analysis, see table 3 and 4 (F=10.389; P=0.000). For the comprehension of picture information, there were no significant differences between group two (with keyword captions) and group three (with no captions) but both of them were better than group one with full captions; for the scores of language information there were no significant differences between group one and two (see table 5), but both were better than group three (F=10.248; P=0.000). The results indicated that for the comprehension of picture information, group with keyword captions and group with no captions had overflowed resource to process picture information, and both of them obtained more scores than the group with full captions and for the comprehension of language information, groups with captions were better than the group with no captions. There might be the following possible explanations.

When participants from group with full captions watched the picture information and caption information in their visual channels, the amount of information in it (pictures + text) exceeded the attention resource that could be distributed. The two categories of information in the same channel competed for attention resource and hence neither could be effectively processed. This group gained least scores for picture information, indicating that participants' attention focused on caption reading (so as to make up for their insufficient EFL listening) so that large amount of picture information was lost and that the participants got low scores. It could also be speculated from the above that the limitation of resource was the key factor that affected selective attention and that learners would unconsciously focus on caption reading to effectively understand what they were watching.

Group with keyword caption read comparatively less amount of information, the attention resource needed by their visual channels was accordingly less and the automatically overflowed resource would be used to process other stimulus such as audios and pictures. As the limitation of attention resource had the characteristics of channels, the interference information from the auditory channel was not affected by the visual and perceptual load (Tellinghuisen et al. 2003). Hence the relatively rich visual resource might process the video information, which might lead to the effect of context clue (For the details, see 4.3) and the focus of attention resource on the location of the target stimulus so that interference from outside could be avoided and interference effect could be decreased on the conditions of low load. Therefore this group could obtain both picture information and language one and learnt effectively in a sense.

Group three with no captions had merely pictures in their visual channels and should obtain the highest scores for picture information, but results revealed that there were no differences between group three and group two (group with keyword captions). The possible reason might be that in this experiment, the processing of picture information could not consume participants' attention resource and the extra attention resource overflowed and processed the other interference stimulus (object or information that had nothing to do with videos) so as to form interference and in turn affect the scores for picture information. The language cognitive performance of this group was also the worst of the three due to the lack of compensation effect of captions on listening.

Via comparison between the participants from the three groups in terms of picture information and language information, it could be seen that when the difficulty level of videos was under control and the condition of i + 1 was satisfied, participants' attention resource was gradually released so that they had free time to process picture information as the amount of caption reading decreased. However, without captions, the attention resource that had overflowed exceeded the amount needed for picture processing, would again overflow automatically, process the other irrelevant information and eventually lead to the interference effect on the conditions of low perceptual load.

C. *Effect of Context on Video Comprehension of Materials with Captions*

For the analysis of scores obtained by participants from the six groups in their comprehension of language information, see table 4. There were no significant differences between group one and four (P= .967). The differences between the two groups lied in the videos watched with or without pictures. The result indicated that the existence of pictures did not affect participants' performance. Apart from that, when participants watched the videos with full captions, their attention resource were completely occupied by the captions and no extra resource overflowed to process the picture information. Group four processed the double modes of audios and texts with no extra visual (picture) interference and effectively made use of the channel characteristics of attention resource so that their language performance was about the same as that of group one. From the analysis in 3.2, it could be seen that group with keyword captions obtained significantly more scores than group with full captions with respect to pictures, indicating that the videos were not that difficult. It could be concluded from the above analysis that the difficulty level of videos used in this experiment was appropriate and could meet the requirements of the experiment.

From table 4 it could be seen that the existence of pictures seemed to exert no effect on participants' performance and that there were no significant differences between group one and four, group two and five, group three and six, which did not conform to Mayer's (2001) multimedia effect. Nevertheless, as the above analysis was made on the basis of various videos, no obvious multimedia effect of video pictures was found. Scores for the various videos revealed their specific effects. The six videos might be categorized into videos with strong context, videos with weak context and videos with zero context.

For the analysis of scores for the first three groups in videos watching with strong context, see table 5. Results indicated that there were no significant differences between the three groups in terms of total scores, meaning that the total amount of information the three groups obtained was about the same. See table 6 for the analysis of scores for the six groups in videos watching with strong context with respect to language information, and table 7 for the analysis of scores for the first three groups in picture information. Although the three groups were not equal to each other in terms of the amount of captions presented, there were no significant differences in their scores for language information, indicating that when pictures were closely associated with video contents, the language information that participants had lost in their visual channels could be compensated via the discourse information and clues with strong context in their auditory channels so as to produce the multimedia effect called by Mayer, which could be also seen from the comparisons between group four, five and six who watched videos without pictures. Without the compensation of pictures, the three groups mainly obtained language information from audios and captions, which led to the significant differences between the three groups (Group four was obviously better than group five and six). Simultaneously group two gained more scores than group five and group three got more than group six.

V. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Based on perceptual load theory, cognitive load theory and multimedia learning theory, this research examined learners' distribution of attention on language and picture information in different cases via control of caption modes in their visual channels and there were some implications for the results with respect to how to make better use of video materials.

From the above results it could be seen that when learners watched videos with relatively high level of difficulty, different amount of captions would affect their distribution of attention. Their insufficiency of videos watching led to the fact that the learners passively turned to caption reading for help and the mode with full captions occupied most of their attention resources. Although learners could obtain the maximum amount of language information, they had no extra attention resource to be distributed to the processing of picture information and caused the loss of picture information. The drawbacks of videos with no captions were obvious and accordingly large amount of language information was lost. Particularly when there was lack of context clues (videos with weak and zero contexts), the effect of multimedia decreased and the irrelevant interference increased and the watching effect was poor. Hence the use of keyword captions not only provided the main language information, but also released part of attention resource to be used in processing the picture information via the decrease of reading amount of visual language information so as to obtain both categories of information.

In this experiment the researcher also found the interaction between captions and different kinds of videos. In videos with strong context, context clue might activate multimedia learning effect and accordingly decrease the use of captions as much as possible so as to decrease cognitive load, start selective attention and improve the processing effect of information on the target stimulus. In videos with zero/no captions, picture information could not provide context clue, easily caused extra effect and interference on language processing. It should be noted that videos watching of full captions with no videos or keyword captions proved to be a good choice for sheer listening training in languages, because the limitation of resources had the characteristics of channels and the interference information in the auditory channel was not affected by the high or low visual and perceptual load. Accordingly in the use of auditory and visual materials, EFL teachers are supposed to discriminate different categories of videos and use different caption modes so as to maximize the teaching and learning effect.

APPENDIX. TABLES

TABLE 1
CAPTION MODES FOR THE SIX GROUPS

Groups	Audios	Pictures	Full Captions	Keyword Captions	No Captions	
1	√	√	√			
2	√	√		√		Audios+pictures+captions
3	√	√			√	
4	√		√			
5	√			√		Audios+captions
6	√				√	

TABLE 2
SCORES FOR EACH OF THE COMPONENTS FOR THE SIX GROUPS

	Pretest	Total scores	Scores for pictures	Scores for language
Group 1 M (SD)	72.29(6.58)	54.71(9.57)	49.71(13.91)	58.20(10.19)
Group 2 M (SD)	73.57(6.24)	55.53(9.04)	60.00(11.66)	52.40(11.00)
Group 3 M (SD)	73.23(6.40)	53.06(7.80)	65.14(10.78)	44.60(9.46)
Group 4 M (SD)	73.44(4.03)			58.33(13.16)
Group 5 M (SD)	72.94(4.85)			50.83(11.76)
Group 6 M (SD)	73.06(5.43)			39.79(12.55)
F	0.160	0.509	10.389	10.249
Sig.	0.977	0.603	0.000	0.000
P<0.05				

TABLE 3
COMPARISON BETWEEN SCORES FOR PICTURE INFORMATION

Group	Group	Mean Difference (I - J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence interval	
					Lower limit	Upper limit
Full caption	Keyword caption	-10.28520*	3.44704	.004	-17.1568	-3.4136
Full caption	No caption	-15.43000*	3.44704	.004	-22.3016	-8.5584
Keyword caption	No caption	-5.14480	3.44704	.004	-12.0164	-1.7268
P<0.05						

TABLE 4
ANALYSIS OF SCORES FOR LANGUAGE INFORMATION

(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I - J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence interval	
					Lower limit	Upper limit
1	2	5.80000	3.22549	.074	-.5766	12.1766
	3	13.60000*	3.22549	.000	7.2234	19.9766
	4	-1.3333	3.25891	.967	-6.5760	6.3093
	5	7.36667	3.25891	.025	.9240	13.8093
	6	18.40833*	3.25891	.000	11.9657	24.8510
2	3	7.80000*	3.22549	.017	1.4234	14.1766
	4	-5.93333	3.25891	.071	-12.3760	.5093
	5	1.56667	3.25891	.631	-4.8760	8.0093
	6	12.60833*	3.25891	.000	6.1657	19.0510
3	4	-13.73333*	3.25891	.000	-20.1760	-7.2907
	5	-6.23333	3.25891	.058	-12.6760	.2093
	6	4.80833	3.25891	.142	-1.6343	11.2510
4	5	7.50000*	3.29200	.024	.9919	14.0081
	6	18.54167*	3.29200	.000	12.0336	5.0497
17.5497	5	6	11.04167	3.29200	.001	4.5336
P<0.05						

TABLE 5
ANALYSIS OF SCORES FOR EACH GROUP IN VIDEOS WITH STRONG CONTEXT

(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I - J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence interval	
					Lower limit	Upper limit
1	2	-3.27200	4.51789	.470	-12.2036	5.6596
	3	-5.81840	4.51789	.200	-14.7500	3.1132
2	3	-2.54640	4.51789	.574	-11.4780	6.3852
P<0.05						

TABLE 6
ANALYSIS OF SCORES FOR LANGUAGE INFORMATION IN VIDEOS WITH STRONG CONTEXT

(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I - J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence interval	
					Lower limit	Upper limit
1	2	1.71440	5.22043	.743	-8.6060	12.0348
	3	2.85720	5.22043	.585	-7.4632	13.1776
	4	3.45252	5.27453	.514	-6.9749	13.8799
	5	15.35627*	5.27453	.004	4.9289	25.7836
	6	14.16585*	5.27453	.008	3.7385	24.5932
2	3	1.14280	5.22043	.827	-9.1776	11.4632
	4	1.73812	5.27453	.742	-8.6893	12.1655
	5	13.64187*	5.27453	.011	3.2145	24.0692
	6	12.45145*	5.27453	.020	2.0241	22.8788
3	4	.59532	5.27453	.910	-9.8321	11.0227
	5	12.49907*	5.27453	.091	2.0717	22.9264
	6	11.30865*	5.27453	.034	.8813	21.7360
4	5	11.90375*	5.32808	.027	1.3705	22.4370
	6	10.71333*	5.32808	.046	.1801	21.2466
5	6	-1.19042	5.32808	.824	-11.7237	9.3428
P<0.05						

TABLE 7
ANALYSIS OF SCORES FOR PICTURE INFORMATION IN VIDEOS WITH STRONG CONTEXT

(I) Group	(J) Group Difference	Mean (I - J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence interval	
					Lower limit	Upper limit
1	2	-12.00000	6.04612	.051	-24.0527	.0527
	3	-21.00000*	6.04612	.001	-33.0527	-8.9473
2	3	-9.00000	6.04612	.141	-21.0527	3.0527
P<0.05						

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Jiangqiao Dong is a professor in the School of Foreign Studies, Jiangnan University. His research interests include English applied linguistics and study of intercultural communication, with a focus on computer-aided language teaching.

Yajing Zhou is a lecturer in the School of Foreign Studies, Jiangnan University. Her research interests include computer-aided language teaching.

Guiru Liu is a master student in the School of Foreign Studies, Jiangnan University. Her research interests include English applied linguistics.

Conflicting Rhetoric between Male and Female English Teachers: The Case of Pedagogically Related Discourse Models

Reza Biria

Department of English, Khorasgan (Isfahan) Branch, Islamic Azad University, Isfahan, Iran

Nafiseh Mirzaie

Department of English, Khorasgan (Isfahan) Branch, Islamic Azad University, Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—The Present study aimed to investigate the relationship between gender and English teaching and learning. For this purpose, from a population of six hundred English students and teachers in different institutes in Isfahan a sample of 87 were selected by using a convenient sampling method. An observation checklist and two questionnaires were used for collecting data. The results showed that the difference between male and female teachers with respect to their pedagogical rhetoric in L2 classrooms was indeed significant, with females gaining a higher mean score than male teachers. Although male and female teachers are not remarkably different in their attitudes, female teachers emulated male teachers when it came to teaching techniques and there were significant differences in classroom management. In addition, the students who had a teacher of the opposite sex tended to have a more positive attitude towards L2 learning. In fact, Male students who had a female teacher had the highest integrative motivation, while female students with male teachers had the lowest degree of integrative motivation.

Index Terms—conflicting rhetoric, male, female, English teacher, discourse models

I. INTRODUCTION

The role teachers in general and English language teachers in particular play in the way their students learn their academic courses is of most important. As Markley (2004) maintains, teachers and the activities they assign students are the main factors influencing students' efficient learning. There are many criteria that determine the way teachers behave and the methodologies they exploit, one of which is gender. Gender – the difference between masculine and feminine identities, believed to be a fluid category depending on the individuals' social, cultural, and situational contexts (Ehlrich, 1997; Pavlenko, 2001; Kubota, 2003).

Traditionally speaking, it is believed that men are better performers in terms of visual tasks; while women are superior to men when it comes to, for example, verbal affairs. Although differences between men and women might be attributed to the differences in brain structures of men and women, it is also possible that in classroom context these differences stems from the fact that teachers with different genres tend to show different behaviors towards boys and girls.

It is therefore the purpose of this study to investigate conflicting rhetoric between male and female Iranian English language teachers. In this paper, it will be focused on rhetoric. No matter in what field of study, rhetoric is the principal component of effective education. The most significant criteria in leading a student to academic successfulness in any field are clear thinking, good argument, and logical discussion. Those who are more criticism and analyze what they come across to or study are said to be more successful in their learning process. Rhetoric doesn't help you avoid disagreements, because a world without disagreements would be a bad thing. Rhetoric can be described as the process in which one studies and make use of a language, be it oral or written. It is an investigation on the way a given language is used to organize and perpetuate a given community, establish distinctiveness, harmonize people's behavior, make change, and bring about knowledge. Considering language as cultural facts, contrastive rhetoric is a phenomenon which put an attempt to understand various ways that cultures arrange information and express ideas in writing (Kaplan1966; Leki1991 & Connor1996).

Robert Kaplan (1966) claims that much of the rhetorical difference in texts composed by "ESL" students from various cultures can be attributed to culture-specific rhetorical styles or to differences in thought patterns or Logic. As IlonaLeki (1991) notes: It is in L2 [second language] writing classes that contrastive rhetoric work has the greatest potential for practical application. It is worthwhile to study the perceptions of conflicting rhetoric between male and female English language teachers in Iranian context for two reasons: First, as Pajares (1992) puts it, what methods language instructors employ is fairly an indication of the way they construct in their mind an adequate teacher and these conceptualizations in turn reflect their actions in classroom. Because in Iranian educational setting the process of

language learning occurs in formal environments such as classroom, this issue receives more attention (Kariminia & Salehizadeh, 2007).

The next reason why such a study should be conducted relies on the fact that the processes of teaching and learning may be substantially influenced by understanding the perceptions of gender-specific. In addition, conducting such studies can be a sort of learners' needs analysis by virtue of the fact that, according to Noora (2008), in Iran the culture of teaching is primarily teacher-centered. As a consequence, such studies would supply learners with an opportunity to express clearly what they expect from an adequate teacher and, as such, help teachers to enhance the quality of their teaching to meet their students' needs.

Accordingly, this paper will examine how male and female English language teachers in L2 context teach differently. In addition I contrast different strategies and methodologies used by male and female English teachers. Finally I consider which one is better and what are the advantages and disadvantages.

II. Literature Review

This chapter reviews the literature concerning conflicting rhetoric between male and female English teachers affecting teaching/learning EFL. It deals with related studies, which may help us provide background knowledge to follow the research procedures. In fact, there are a few studies dealing with teachers' variables such as sex, among many variables. In Asian countries, this phenomenon becomes worse because most of the related investigations have been conducted in western countries (Cook, 2001; Rahman, 2005; Nunan, 2005).

Therefore, there is an urgent need to study conflicting rhetoric between male and female teachers affecting TEFL among Iranian students. In order to provide successful TEFL instructions, teachers need to identify and understand their students' individual differences. This is necessary for the educational policy makers, syllabus designers and English textbooks writers in Iran to learn more about the teachers' individual differences, as well (Kiany, 1997; Oxford, 1997; Ok, 2003). These differences can be assessed through many instruments and questioners.

In this study, we will limit our research to the English institute students in Isfahan who are learning English as a foreign language using American English File books. The results could be conductive to both university and high school settings in which TEFL is dealt with.

Taking the sex of the teachers and learners into consideration, many earlier works have mainly focused on evaluations that male and female teachers have received from the students (Basow & Silberg, 1987; Feldman, 1992, 1993; Mason, Steagall, &Fabritiust, 1995; Wachtel, 1998).There have been some other studies conducted on the factors teachers consider so as to rate male and female students (e.g., Jaeger & Frcijo, 1975; Levine, 1977), or on the effect gender may have on the ways teachers evaluate their students' works (e.g., Carson, 2001). Few empirical studies, however, have concentrated on the conflicting between male and female English teachers. These studies have been carried out from the teachers' and learners' point of views. Thomas Dee (1988) finds that gender interactions between teachers and students have significant effects on these important educational outcomes.

The characteristics of the best and worst teachers as experienced by pre-service teachers were also estimated by some of the researchers of the field (e.g., Ogden et al, 1994; Aagaard and Skidmore, 2002). As an example, Ogden et al (1994) in their study tried to find out, from learners' perspectives, the reasons why some teachers are more effective than others. They concluded that male and female students had different views regarding behaviors and characteristics of their teachers. Most Females, for example, claimed that those teachers who had a creative mind, who were more eagerly teaching, and who were more organized, were more effective than other teachers. However, characteristics like being fair, responsible and humorous as well as communicating well with students were what majority of males believed will make a good and effective teacher.

Along the same line, Aagaard and Skidmore (2002) investigated the characteristics of outstanding university professors from the perspective of to-be teachers. They found out that male and female future teachers did not show a great difference describing the characteristics of best and worst teachers. Females, however, described good teachers as those who use an adequate teaching methodology more than males. On the other hand, most males stated that worst teachers suffered from a shortage of ethical behavior in their characteristics

As it can be seen, in all of these studies male and female teachers were analyzed from the students point of view and the main focus is students feeling and emotions toward male and female English teachers or vise versa while this paper investigate conflicting rhetoric between male and female English language teachers.

Although most of a teacher time is spent teaching students, instructors should not only focus on teaching matters, but rather, they should put in some time to investigate the ways for improving students' learning process. Participating in an action research project, for example, is one way to investigate this issue. In order for students to become successful in academic as well as social contexts, there needs many studies to be carried out regarding the characteristics of teachers based on their gender. Differences in the brain structure of male and female teachers as well as differences in teaching methodologies of male and female teachers are, but few, reasons why gender specific L2 context make sense.

In the present study, researchers put an attempt to investigate the conflicting rhetoric between males and females. As such, this study aims to find out whether or not they are different, and if yes, what is the extent to which they are different. The problem is that some students learn a foreign language easily and are completely satisfied with their teachers; on the contrary, some others have lots of problems with their teacher, and, although they work hard in the

class, they do not learn a foreign language or their knowledge is poor. Accordingly, the following questions have been raised: do the students' difficulties in learning a foreign language refer to teachers' genders and different strategies or methods they use? Are their methods specific? If yes, which methods are the best and lead to productive education? This paper, then, set to explore the extent to which male and female Iranian teachers use different rhetoric in L2 classroom context.

Gramely and Patzold (1992) studied learning English as a foreign language in Asia and noted that English would remain important for economic reasons. They argued that learning English in Asian countries is based on better educated people who know English for economic activities. In general, the level of English in Asian countries will remain relatively low and may even fall to the students of foreign language, rather than a second language.

Some researchers (e.g., Mosallanezhad, 1999; Ansary & Babaii, 2002; Eslami-Rasekh, Eslami-Rasekh and Fathi, 2004) investigated the variables affecting EFL teaching and learning including affective, cognitive, and social ones. They all came to a conclusion that an understanding of such variables can help EFL teachers and English textbook designers as well as English language researchers to arrive at influential teaching methods and appropriate techniques in TEFL in Iran.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

Considering the above-mentioned facts, the researchers of the present study seek to find adequate answers to following questions:
1. To what extent does gender differentiate language teachers' rhetoric in L2 classrooms?
2. What are the similarities and differences between male and female language teachers rhetoric?
Based on the aforementioned questions, the following null hypotheses were formulated:
1. Gender does not differentiate language teachers' rhetoric in L2 classrooms.
2. There are no differences between male and female language teachers' rhetoric.

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

The teachers, as one of the samples of this study, selected from among those who were teaching English language at different Iranian universities and private language institutes. The students were also university students majoring in different field of studies learning English as a foreign language in the private language institute. English was the foreign language for all the participants. All students were between 18 and 35 years old. The students were divided into four groups: FSFT (female students who had a female teacher), FSMT (female students who had a male teacher), MSFT (male students who had a female teacher), and MSMT (male students who had a male teacher).

All of the participants were in advanced level and they passed beginner and intermediate levels of American English File books so they were in last level of these books which is advanced level. The learners were 47 female and 40 male students.

The instructors were 11 male and 12 female instructors. They received their M.A in TEFL or they were PhD students and they have experienced 2 to 12 years of teaching EFL. The sample population of students and teachers were selected based on probability stratified random sampling which included both male and female instructors and learners.

B. Design

The sample population of students and teachers were selected based on probability stratified random sampling which included both male and female instructors and learners.

Cohen and Manion (1995) state that "Stratified sampling involves dividing the population into homogeneous groups, each group containing subjects with similar characteristics (e.g., male or females)." (p. 101) Kerlinger (1973) and Baker (1988) argue that if the samples are selected randomly, the large sample of equal size repeatedly drawn from any population, then the means of those samples will be approximately normally distributed. Participants of this study were selected based on the method of stratified random sampling (Baker, 1988; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2001; & Koul, 1999).

C. Material

Research instruments in the present study were two sets of questionnaires designed by Arends (1998) and Gorsuch (2003), and an observation sheet [1] confirmed by university professors. (Appendices A, B & C)The students' questionnaire elicited the students' viewpoints concerning the learner's variables through self –rating scales. These scales included 25 items in 5-piontLikert scales ranging from Agree Strongly to Disagree Strongly on a continuum for each item. The questioner included a series of items filled out by the subject whose responses showed their viewpoints. The reliability of these instruments was reported in Arends (1998). The reliability coefficients of these questionnaires in Arends was reported (r=.81). The concurrent validity of these research instruments was totally (.53)

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[1] for accessing the full content of the checklist and the questionnaires contact the correspondent author at email: mirzaeenafiseh@yahoo.com

The teacher's questioners included 28 items in 5 point self rating scales. The reliability and validity coefficients of teachers' questioners were reported in Arends (1998) and Gorsuch (2003).The total reliability of the questionnaires was (r = .95), and the concurrent validity coefficient was (.65).

D. Procedure

The main theme of the present research was to discover the magnitude of L2 teachers and learners' beliefs concerning the research variables affecting foreign language teaching/learning and to see if those variables were under the influence of gender. Thus we dealt with two series of individual variables: (1) the L2 learners' variables (i.e., motivation, attitudes, anxiety, and sex, and (2) the L2 teacher's variables (i.e., motivation, attitudes, TTs and TVCM), and their relation with gender (teachers' gender). Two types of questionnaires were administered on separate occasions regarding the same students as the sample of the pilot study. The data were analyzed and the results showed the appropriateness of reliability and validity coefficients of each questionnaire.

To focus on the objectives of the study, we selected relevant series of questions concerning the identified variables among teachers and learners. These series of questions or items were grouped into two general questionnaires: (1) Learners' beliefs questionnaire with 25 (5-point Likert rating scale) items and (2) teachers' beliefs questioner with 28(5-point rating scale) items.

The questionnaires were of two types: (1) the learners' questionnaire contained five parts(a) integrative motivation (5 items), (b) instrumental motivation (4 items), (c) attitudes (9 items), (d) anxiety (6 items); and (2) the teachers' questionnaire included four parts: (a) motivation and effort (4 items), (b) attitudes (5 items) (c) TVCM (10 items),and (d) TTs (9 items).

V. RESULTS

A. Null Hypothesis/H01

The first research hypothesis of the study stated gender doesn't differentiate language teachers' rhetoric in L2 classrooms.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR COMPARING MALE & FEMALE TEACHERS
WITH REGARDS TO RHETORIC

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
RS	Female	12	27.3333	4.71619	1.36145
	Male	11	23.0909	4.88783	1.47374

There definitely is a difference between male and female teachers in terms rhetoric, but whether this difference is statistically significant or not has to be determined in the t-test table.

TABLE 2.
T-TEST RESULTS SHOWING THE EFFECT OF GENDER ON RHETPRIC

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
RS	Equal variances assumed	.204	.656	2.118	21	.046	4.24242	2.00309	.07678	8.40807
	Equal variances not assumed			2.114	20.667	.047	4.24242	2.00635	.06590	8.41895

In this case, the relevant value is .04, which is less than .05, indicating that the difference between male and female teachers with respect to their rhetoric in L2 classrooms was indeed significant, with females gaining a higher mean score than male teachers.

B. Null Hypothesis/H02

The second null hypothesis states that there is no difference between male and female English language teachers with regards to other factors such as teacher motivation, teacher attitude, classroom management, teaching techniques, student motivation, student anxiety, and student attitudes. As it was mentioned above, a questionnaire was distributed among the 11 male and 12 female teachers involved in this study.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE RESULTS OF TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Motivation	Female	17.1667	1.64225	12
	Male	15.0000	1.94936	11
	Total	16.1304	2.07374	23
Attitude	Female	17.0833	2.60971	12
	Male	17.3636	2.11058	11
	Total	17.2174	2.33465	23
CM	Female	36.4167	5.58339	12
	Male	40.6364	2.57964	11
	Total	38.4348	4.82254	23
TT	Female	40.4167	2.42930	12
	Male	35.1818	2.08893	11
	Total	37.9130	3.47606	23

The motivation and TT scores of females are higher than those of male teachers, while male teachers gained higher scores than females in the traits of attitude and classroom management. To see if the observed differences between male and female teachers with regards to these four variables is statistically significant or not, one needs to look down the second row of Table 4.

TABLE 4.
MANOVA RESULTS FOR THE TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.997	1647.929[a]	4.000	18.000	.000	.997
	Wilks' Lambda	.003	1647.929[a]	4.000	18.000	.000	.997
	Hotelling's Trace	366.206	1647.929[a]	4.000	18.000	.000	.997
	Roy's Largest Root	366.206	1647.929[a]	4.000	18.000	.000	.997
Gender	Pillai's Trace	.765	14.658[a]	4.000	18.000	.000	.765
	Wilks' Lambda	.235	14.658[a]	4.000	18.000	.000	.765
	Hotelling's Trace	3.257	14.658[a]	4.000	18.000	.000	.765
	Roy's Largest Root	3.257	14.658[a]	4.000	18.000	.000	.765

a. Exact statistic

In this case, the Sig. value in front of Hotelling's Trace is less than the alpha level ($p = .000 < .05$). This would mean that male and female teachers are significantly different from each other with regards to the dependent variables under investigation.

TABLE 5.
RESULTS OF TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	Motivation	26.942[a]	1	26.942	8.361	.009	.285
	Attitude	.451[b]	1	.451	.079	.781	.004
	CM	102.190[c]	1	102.190	5.241	.033	.200
	TT	157.273[d]	1	157.273	30.425	.000	.592
Intercept	Motivation	5938.246	1	5938.246	1842.904	.000	.989
	Attitude	6810.016	1	6810.016	1197.119	.000	.983
	CM	34074.190	1	34074.190	1747.556	.000	.988
	TT	32799.882	1	32799.882	6345.263	.000	.997
Gender	Motivation	26.942	1	26.942	8.361	.009	.285
	Attitude	.451	1	.451	.079	.781	.004
	CM	102.190	1	102.190	5.241	.033	.200
	TT	157.273	1	157.273	30.425	.000	.592
Error	Motivation	67.667	21	3.222			
	Attitude	119.462	21	5.689			
	CM	409.462	21	19.498			
	TT	108.553	21	5.169			
Total	Motivation	6079.000	23				
	Attitude	6938.000	23				
	CM	34488.000	23				
	TT	33326.000	23				
Corrected Total	Motivation	94.609	22				
	Attitude	119.913	22				
	CM	511.652	22				
	TT	265.826	22				

a. R Squared = .285 (Adjusted R Squared = .251)

b. R Squared = .004 (Adjusted R Squared = -.044)

c. R Squared = .200 (Adjusted R Squared = .162)

d. R Squared = .592 (Adjusted R Squared = .572)

The Sig. value for motivation is .009 (which is less than .05), indicating that male and female teachers differ significantly in terms of motivation with females ($M = 17.16$) having a higher mean score than males ($M = 15.00$). The Sig. value for attitude ($p = .78$) is larger than the specified level of significance; hence, male and female teachers are not remarkably different in their attitudes. CM has a Sig. value of .033 (that is less than .05), suggesting a significant difference between male and females in this trait with males ($M = 40.63$) excelling females ($M = 36.41$). Finally, the Sig. value for TT is less than the alpha value ($p = .000 < .05$), implying that females ($M = 40.41$) emulated male teachers ($M = 35.18$) when it came to teaching techniques.

TABLE 6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Attitude	FSFT	29.4348	4.00938	23
	FSMT	31.7917	3.55062	24
	MSFT	35.5714	2.22646	21
	MSMT	27.8947	3.90007	19
	Total	31.2299	4.45312	87
IntgMotivation	FSFT	16.5217	2.15047	23
	FSMT	15.8750	2.17321	24
	MSFT	18.0476	2.43877	21
	MSMT	16.6842	1.60044	19
	Total	16.7471	2.23720	87
InstMotivation	FSFT	15.5217	2.12922	23
	FSMT	15.8333	1.73623	24
	MSFT	15.7143	1.79284	21
	MSMT	14.3158	1.60044	19
	Total	15.3908	1.89465	87
Anxiety	FSFT	23.5217	3.36924	23
	FSMT	27.5417	3.53835	24
	MSFT	27.6190	1.77415	21
	MSMT	18.2105	4.62576	19
	Total	24.4598	5.04124	87

As for attitude, MSFT had the highest mean score ($M = 35.57$), followed by FSMT ($M = 31.79$), FSFT ($M = 29.43$), and MSMT ($M = 27.89$), respectively. Integrative motivation of MSFT ($M = 18.04$) was more than MSMT ($M = 16.68$)

which in turn was higher than that of FSFT (M = 16.52). FSMT (M = 15.87) had the lowest integrative motivation. With regards to instrumental motivation, the four groups from the highest to the lowest are FSMT (M = 15.83), MSFT (M = 15.71), FSFT (M = 15.52), and MSMT (M = 14.31). Finally, the anxiety mean scores of the groups from the lowest to the highest are (note that the less the anxiety in a classroom, the more favorable the environment is): MSMT (M = 18.21), FSFT (M = 23.52), FSMT (M = 27.54), and MSFT (M = 27.61).

TABLE 7.
MANOVA RESULTS FOR THE STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.995	4394.464[a]	4.000	80.000	.000	.995
	Wilks' Lambda	.005	4394.464[a]	4.000	80.000	.000	.995
	Hotelling's Trace	219.723	4394.464[a]	4.000	80.000	.000	.995
	Roy's Largest Root	219.723	4394.464[a]	4.000	80.000	.000	.995
Gender	Pillai's Trace	.850	8.105	12.000	246.000	.000	.283
	Wilks' Lambda	.291	10.492	12.000	211.952	.000	.337
	Hotelling's Trace	1.956	12.823	12.000	236.000	.000	.395
	Roy's Largest Root	1.678	34.408[b]	4.000	82.000	.000	.627

a. Exact statistic

b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

In the lower row of Table 7., the Sig. value in front of Wilk's Lambda is less than the specified level of significance (p = .000 < .05); hence, it could be construed that the differences between the groups with regards to the variables under investigation are statistically meaningful.

TABLE 8.
RESULTS OF TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	Attitude	688.859[a]	3	229.620	18.748	.000	.404
	IntgMotivation	55.015[b]	3	18.338	4.054	.010	.128
	InstMotivation	29.249[c]	3	9.750	2.896	.040	.095
	Anxiety	1199.801[d]	3	399.934	33.672	.000	.549
Intercept	Attitude	83865.270	1	83865.270	6847.540	.000	.988
	IntgMotivation	24306.110	1	24306.110	5373.708	.000	.985
	InstMotivation	20324.847	1	20324.847	6036.433	.000	.986
	Anxiety	50639.022	1	50639.022	4263.548	.000	.981
Gender	Attitude	688.859	3	229.620	18.748	.000	.404
	IntgMotivation	55.015	3	18.338	4.054	.010	.128
	InstMotivation	29.249	3	9.750	2.896	.040	.095
	Anxiety	1199.801	3	399.934	33.672	.000	.549
Error	Attitude	1016.543	83	12.248			
	IntgMotivation	375.422	83	4.523			
	InstMotivation	279.463	83	3.367			
	Anxiety	985.808	83	11.877			
Total	Attitude	86557.000	87				
	IntgMotivation	24831.000	87				
	InstMotivation	20917.000	87				
	Anxiety	54236.000	87				
Corrected Total	Attitude	1705.402	86				
	IntgMotivation	430.437	86				
	InstMotivation	308.713	86				
	Anxiety	2185.609	86				

a. R Squared = .404 (Adjusted R Squared = .382)

b. R Squared = .128 (Adjusted R Squared = .096)

c. R Squared = .095 (Adjusted R Squared = .062)

d. R Squared = .549 (Adjusted R Squared = .533)

Hitherto, it has been figured out that attitude, integrative motivation, instrumental motivation, and anxiety differ among male and female students with male and female teachers, but which groups have the highest levels of which variable is not known unless we consult Table 9.

TABLE 9.
RESULTS OF THE SCHEFFE POST HOC TESTS FOR THE STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Scheffe

Dependent Variable	(I) Gender	(J) Gender	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Attitude	FSFT	FSMT	-2.3569	1.02118	.158	-5.2710	.5573
		MSFT	-6.1366*	1.05627	.000	-9.1510	-3.1223
		MSMT	1.5400	1.08495	.572	-1.5561	4.6362
	FSMT	FSFT	2.3569	1.02118	.158	-.5573	5.2710
		MSFT	-3.7798*	1.04572	.007	-6.7639	-.7956
		MSMT	3.8969*	1.07467	.006	.8301	6.9637
	MSFT	FSFT	6.1366*	1.05627	.000	3.1223	9.1510
		FSMT	3.7798*	1.04572	.007	.7956	6.7639
		MSMT	7.6767*	1.10807	.000	4.5146	10.8388
	MSMT	FSFT	-1.5400	1.08495	.572	-4.6362	1.5561
		FSMT	-3.8969*	1.07467	.006	-6.9637	-.8301
		MSFT	-7.6767*	1.10807	.000	-10.8388	-4.5146
IntgMotivation	FSFT	FSMT	.6467	.62058	.781	-1.1242	2.4177
		MSFT	-1.5259	.64191	.139	-3.3577	.3059
		MSMT	-.1625	.65933	.996	-2.0440	1.7191
	FSMT	FSFT	-.6467	.62058	.781	-2.4177	1.1242
		MSFT	-2.1726*	.63549	.012	-3.9861	-.3591
		MSMT	-.8092	.65309	.675	-2.6729	1.0545
	MSFT	FSFT	1.5259	.64191	.139	-.3059	3.3577
		FSMT	2.1726*	.63549	.012	.3591	3.9861
		MSMT	1.3634	.67339	.259	-.5582	3.2851
	MSMT	FSFT	.1625	.65933	.996	-1.7191	2.0440
		FSMT	.8092	.65309	.675	-1.0545	2.6729
		MSFT	-1.3634	.67339	.259	-3.2851	.5582
InstMotivation	FSFT	FSMT	-.3116	.53543	.952	-1.8396	1.2164
		MSFT	-.1925	.55383	.989	-1.7730	1.3879
		MSMT	1.2059	.56886	.221	-.4174	2.8293
	FSMT	FSFT	.3116	.53543	.952	-1.2164	1.8396
		MSFT	.1190	.54830	.997	-1.4456	1.6837
		MSMT	1.5175	.56348	.072	-.0905	3.1255
	MSFT	FSFT	.1925	.55383	.989	-1.3879	1.7730
		FSMT	-.1190	.54830	.997	-1.6837	1.4456
		MSMT	1.3985	.58099	.131	-.2595	3.0565
	MSMT	FSFT	-1.2059	.56886	.221	-2.8293	.4174
		FSMT	-1.5175	.56348	.072	-3.1255	.0905
		MSFT	-1.3985	.58099	.131	-3.0565	.2595
Anxiety	FSFT	FSMT	-4.0199*	1.00563	.002	-6.8897	-1.1502
		MSFT	-4.0973*	1.04018	.003	-7.0657	-1.1289
		MSMT	5.3112*	1.06842	.000	2.2623	8.3602
	FSMT	FSFT	4.0199*	1.00563	.002	1.1502	6.8897
		MSFT	-.0774	1.02979	1.000	-3.0161	2.8613
		MSMT	9.3311*	1.05830	.000	6.3111	12.3512
	MSFT	FSFT	4.0973*	1.04018	.003	1.1289	7.0657
		FSMT	.0774	1.02979	1.000	-2.8613	3.0161
		MSMT	9.4085*	1.09119	.000	6.2946	12.5225
	MSMT	FSFT	-5.3112*	1.06842	.000	-8.3602	-2.2623
		FSMT	-9.3311*	1.05830	.000	-12.3512	-6.3111
		MSFT	-9.4085*	1.09119	.000	-12.5225	-6.2946

Based on observed means.

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Compared to other groups, male students with female teachers held more positive attitudes towards their experience of L2 learning. Female students with male teachers also had strikingly more positive attitudes than male students with male teachers. The difference between FSMT and FSFT however was not meaningful. So was the difference between FSFS and MSMS. All this implies that students who have a teacher of the opposite sex tend to have more positive attitudes towards L2 learning.

Male students who had a female teacher had the highest integrative motivation, while female students with male teachers had the lowest degree of integrative motivation.

For the measure of instrumental motivation, although FSMT surpassed MSFT who in turn exceeded FSFT who had a better mean score than MSMT, the differences between no two groups were found to be statistically meaningful.

Finally, this would indicate that students who had a teacher of the same sex felt more at ease in their classes and had less anxiety. On the other hand, a teacher of the opposite sex is likely to increase the level of anxiety among his/her students.

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The first research hypothesis of the study stated gender does not differentiate language teachers' rhetoric in L2 classrooms. In order to measure the rhetoric of male and female teachers, an observation checklist was utilized. The answers to this checklist were codified and made into interval scores which ranged from 0 to 40. To compare male and females teachers with respect to rhetoric, an independent-samples t-test was conducted.

The results showed, there is a difference between male and female teachers in terms of rhetoric. In this case, the relevant value is .04, which is less than .05, indicating that the difference between male and female teachers with respect to their rhetoric in L2 classrooms was indeed significant, with females gaining a higher mean score than male teachers.

The second null hypothesis states that there is no difference between male and female English language teachers with regards to other factors such as teacher motivation, teacher attitude, classroom management, teaching techniques, student motivation, student anxiety, and student attitudes. Rejecting or accepting of this hypothesis determined by analyzing the data were gathered by questionnaires in th Results showed the motivation and TT scores of females are higher than those of male teachers, while male teachers gained higher scores than females in the traits of attitude and classroom management.

This would mean that male and female teachers are significantly different from each other with regards to the dependent variables under investigation. Although, male and female teachers are not remarkably different in their attitudes, males excelling females in class management. The results revealed that; females emulated male teachers when it came to teaching techniques.

One of the main issues to be taken into consideration in a foreign language class is gender (Sunderland, 1994; Graham & Rees, 1995) especially when it comes to speaking skills in which differences between males and females are particularly striking (Azuma & Ogura, 1984; Flood, 1995; Sunderland, 1994; Wareing, 1994).

Male students with female teachers held more positive attitudes towards their experience of L2 learning. Female students with male teachers also had strikingly more positive attitudes than male students with male teachers. All this implies that students who have a teacher of the opposite sex tend to have more positive attitudes towards L2 learning.

Although the mean scores of male students outweighed the mean scores of female students, the difference between male and female students, by and large, was not significant. Male students who had a female teacher had the highest integrative motivation, while female students with male teachers had the lowest degree of integrative motivation.

However students who had a teacher of the same sex felt more at ease in their classes and had less anxiety. On the other hand, a teacher of the opposite sex is likely to increase the level of anxiety among his/her students.

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Reza Biria, born in Isfahan, Iran, obtained his Ph.D. in teaching English as a Foreign Language from the University of Isfahan in 2001. He is an applied linguistics assistant professor working at Khorasgan Azad University, Isfahan, Iran. Dr. Biria has published papers in national and international conferences. His research interests include teaching English as a second and foreign language and ESP.

Nafiseh Mirzaie, born in Isfahan, Iran, received her B.A in English Language Teaching at University of Najaf Abad, Isfahan, Iran in 2008. She has got her M.A in Teaching English as a Foreign Language from Islamic Azad University of Khorasgan, Isfahan, Iran. She has been teaching English since 2011. Her main research interest lies in gender in language teaching.

A Preliminary Probe into Lin Shu's Creative Translation

Weihong Chen
Teachers' College of Beijing Union University, Beijing, China

Xiaojuan Cheng
North China University of Water Resources and Electric Power, Zhengzhou, China

Abstract—Lin Shu is a renowned translator in Chinese history for his abundant influential translating works. He plays a very important role in introducing western literature to China and is well known for his unique translating methods. Nevertheless, his creative translation approaches of omission, addition and alteration also make him target of sharp criticism. This paper, through a deliberate comparison between Lin Shu's versions and the original works, finds that many of Lin Shu's omission, addition and alteration of the original is out of his careful consideration rather than arbitrary behaviors. The concrete examples and full analysis revealed that Lin Shu is quite creative in the translation process. His translation can be considered as a creative rebellion against the original. A careful study shows that it is Lin Shu's illiteracy of foreign languages and the use of classical Chinese that make his translation a big hit shortly after their publication and give Lin Shu and his translation a special status in the literary world of China.

Index Terms—Lin Shu, creative translation, creative rebellion

I. INTRODUCTION

For a long time mainstream translation theorists in China have concerned themselves with the search for a general criterion that can be applied to all translations in all times, and for ways to produce translations that can measure up to that criterion. Therefore, traditional translation studies focused on the analysis of source and target languages. And there were endless debates about "equivalence" between them.

The 1970s witnessed a turning point in the translation studies with the advance of "cultural turn" by Susan Bassnett and Andre Lefevere, the two prominent scholars in the translation studies. They argue that the traditional definition of translation as a kind of language transfer limits our practice to a greater degree and suggest the study of translation to be the study of cultural interaction and redefine the subject of study as a verbal text within the network of literary and extra-literary signs in both the source and target cultures. In addition, translators have always served as a vital link enabling different cultures to interact. Thus, translations are never the simple reproduction of the source texts, instead, they are the products of both the impact of the social-cultural background and the translators' own choices.

Lin Shu (1852-1924) is a renowned translator in Chinese history for his abundant influential translating works. He plays a very important role in introducing western literature to China and is well known for his unique translating methods. Lin Shu translates literary works upon his collaborator's oral interpretation, for he is illiterate of foreign languages. He freely used techniques as omission, addition, and alteration in his translating works. All these give his translations a strong personal stamp.

There are numerous reviews and criticisms on Lin Shu and his translation, both favorable and unfavorable. Many scholars appreciate its graceful and concise classical Chinese, as well as its plain and smooth translation effect. In the meantime, they seldom hesitate to criticize him for his domesticating strategies of omission, addition and alteration, complaining that by doing so, Lin Shu has not kept the original style of the writer and the flavor of the original work is lost. In a word, there is never a consensus on Lin Shu's translation. Yet, Lin Shu enjoyed great popularity among a large number of Chinese readers at that time and even now, his translating works are still studied by many scholars. His translating method is controversial but gives enlightenment to translators both home and abroad.

The previous studies on Lin Shu and his translation experienced the early stage's wide acceptance to the later on severe criticism in terms of the political need; and to the present more scientific research of his translation and his status in China's literature. Many scholars acknowledged his graceful translation and they also criticized his numerous mistakes during the translation process, which they attributed to his illiteracy of foreign languages. Judging from the linguistic criteria of translation, no one seems to dare to advocate his translation mode.

II. THE TECHNIQUES OF LIN SHU'S CREATIVE TRANSLATION

Lin Shu is regarded by some critics as an unfaithful translator because during the process of translation, he primarily resorted to such techniques as omission, addition, alteration and abridgment, giving his works a strong personal stamp.

This paper uses Lin Shu's translations of *David Copperfield* and *Uncle Tom's Cabin* and intends to show that Lin Shu, influenced by certain social, political and cultural conditions, as well as his personal inclinations, did these through careful consideration. His techniques can be called a creative rebellion.

A. Omission

In translation, omission is a common practice and the translator uses this technique out of various considerations, such as the smoothness of the target language, the acceptance of the readers and the translator's own purpose. Lin Shu, as a translator, is no exception. He carefully used this technique to omit some contents of the source language that is vague, improper or unnecessary for the target readers and serve his own purpose of translation.

In the process of translation, what is obvious to the source language readers sometimes is quite difficult for the target language readers for lack of cultural background information. Not considering or handling these parts carefully would result in unnatural translation and this would damage the translation effect and bewilder the target readers. In order to make his translation more acceptable to the Chinese readers, Lin Shu often used omission as one of his translation techniques to delete those vague or unnecessary parts for his intended readers. In the first chapter of *David Copper Field*, the description of "a Gaul" is such an example:

I was born with a caul; which was advertised for sale, in the newspapers, at the low price of fifteen guineas. Whether sea-going people were short of money about that time, or were short of faith and preferred cork-jackets, I don't know, all I know is, that there was but one solitary bidding, and that was from an attorney connected with the bill-broking business, who offered two pounds in cash, and the balance in sherry, but declined to be guaranteed from drowning on any higher bargain…The caul was won, I recollect, by an old lady …she was never drowned…(Dickens, 1996, p.2)

Even today, using the fourth edition of Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary, the explanation of "caul" is: n., (anatomy) (a) membrane enclosing a fetus in the womb (b) part of this that is sometimes found on a child's head at birth (Hornby, 1997, p.214). Neither of them is suitable here. Not to mention Lin Shu's time when the Western literature just began to be introduced to China. Therefore, lack of necessary tools and adequate background information, "caul" makes it difficult for Lin Shu and Wei Yi, his collaborator, as well as the Chinese readers to understand. And there are some other questions, such as why "the attorney …declined to be guaranteed from drowning on any higher bargain"? And why the old lady "was never drowned" after she bought the "caul"? All these make the translation of the semantic relations in this sentence quite difficult. At a second thought, Lin Shu found this paragraph was of little importance to the portray of the protagonist. As a result, he omitted the whole paragraph in his translation to make the meaning clearer and the story more readable to the Chinese readers.

Another example of omission is in Lin Shu's translation of *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. In Chapter Twenty-Two, the author Stowe gave a concrete depiction of Tom's religious vision of Eva's religious feeling:

He loved her as something frail and earthly, yet almost worshiped her as something heavenly and divine. He gazed on her as the Italian sailor gazes on his image of the child Jesus, with a mixture of reverence and tenderness; and to humor her graceful fancies, and meet those thousand simple wants which invest childhood like a many-colored rainbow, was Tom's chief delight. (Stowe, 1982, p.277)

The description was totally omitted by Lin Shu because it was difficult for the unchristian Chinese readers to understand Tom's religious vision and his feelings for the little girl Eva. Considering the readability of his Chinese readers, Lin Shu carefully chose to omit this paragraph.

And another well-known instance of omission in Lin Shu's translation of *Uncle Tom's Cabin* is the whole content of Chapter 45. In Stowe's novel, Chapter 45, the "Concluding Remarks" of the whole story, is a postscript that gave a large number of facts to show that the characters in the story have prototypes in real life and to testify the truth of the work; it also appeals to kind-hearted Christians both in the North and the South to have sympathy for the black and to do something for the emancipation of the slaves. To Lin Shu, however, all these seem tedious and irrelevant to the purpose of his translation which is to warn the Chinese people of their national crisis. Therefore, it is reasonable for Lin Shu to omit this chapter to make his translation more coherent and understandable for the Chinese readers.

In addition to this chapter, any contents in other chapters of this novel and other translation works, such as paragraphs of scenery descriptions and comments about Christian tenets, which are considered to be too redundant for him to directly express his translation goals are omitted or rewritten. In conclusion, Lin Shu's intentional omissions are mainly out of his consideration of avoiding the readers' perplexity (including the translator's own perplexity) so as to make his translation more acceptable to the target readers.

B. Addition

Lin Shu used the omission technique as a way to delete words, sentences or passages that had little contribution to the theme of the novel or were too obscure to be understood by the Chinese readers. But, when the descriptions in the original novel were quite necessary to the plot of the novel, Lin Shu would use the addition method to make up some points to help the Chinese readers have a better understanding of his translation.

Even the works out of famous writers are not flawless. Therefore, when Lin Shu found there were such parts in the original works, he would naturally add a few words or sentences to help his readers understand them. A case in point is in Chapter Twenty-Four of *David Copperfield*. David, who was drunken, happened to meet Agnes in one of the box-rooms of a theatre. Dickens used the following sentence to show how David went home after saying a few words to

Agnes:

I (David) stepped at once out of the box-door into my bedroom. (Dickens, 1994, p.296)

The translation of this sentence given by two other Chinese translators are "我从包厢门的那儿一步就跨进了我卧室" (Zhang, 1989, p.538) and "我一蹓出厢座的门，就进入了我的卧室" (Dong, 1958, p.422). Readers can't help asking the questions "Is David's bedroom next to the box-door of a theater? If not, then, how could David step at once out of the box-door into his bedroom?" With this kind of word for word translation, readers could get quite confused. While Lin Shu translated it into "不审何故，一举踵即及余寓" (Lin, 1981, p.206). Compared with the original version, obviously, "不审何故" is added by Lin Shu himself. Yet, with this addition, our readers can easily understand that David then was quite drunk and can even imagine how David staggered to his bedroom. Therefore, this addition is quite necessary here, which makes the scene clearer and more vivid.

There are different ways of writing between Chinese and other language systems. Traditional Chinese novel usually has the third person as the narrator while Western novel is characterized by the first person narration, which tends to bring readers to the presence of the scene. For instance, in the First Chapter of *David Copperfield*, Dickens wrote:

Whether I shall turn out to be the hero of my own life, or hither that situation will be held by anybody else, these pages must show. (Dickens, 1996, p.1)

Lin Shu translated the words into: "大卫考坡菲而曰，余在此一部书中，是否为主人者，诸君但逐书下观，当自得之。" It is obvious that the words "大卫考坡菲而曰" added by the translator is to show who *I* am. Apart from that, the phrase "诸君" was also added deliberately by Lin Shu to play down the first person narration in the original text and make the narration more natural to the Chinese readers, thus making his translation much clearer and more coherent.

In order to emphasize his own purpose, Lin Shu added the flowing paragraph after his translation of George's letter in Chapter Forty-Three of Uncle Tom's Cabin:

须知有国之人与无国者，其人民苦乐之况，何啻霄壤。吾今回念同种之羁绊于美洲，禽狎兽侮，无可致力，脱吾能立一国度，然后可以公法公理，向众论申，不至坐听白人夷灭吾种。……盖欲振刷国民之气，悉力保种，以祛外侮。吾志至死不懈矣! (Lin, 1981, p.203)

This statement was made by Lin Shu himself rather than George. It is clear that Lin Shu made use of George's letter to express his own ideas. The view expressed in his translation of George's letter is exactly the same as the one in his postscript. Thus, Lin Shu made use of a subject in the original as a pretext for his own purpose, that is, to warn the Chinese people of their own national crisis and encourage them to take some actions! Deviating from the original, such addition is sure to be censured by linguistic critics. But it reflects a target cultural orientation, and this orientation is central to target-oriented criticism and theory. It exactly aimed at evoking the Chinese readers' sympathy and reflection.

C. Alteration

Lin Shu used this strategy to change some parts of the originals to make the translations more succinct or readable to the readers or to serve his own goals of translation.

Take Chapter 4 of *Uncle Tom's Cabin* as an example. The title of the original work is An Evening in *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, and the chapter does describe Uncle Tom's role as the organizer of prayer and the religious activity in his cabin. Especially, there is a paragraph describing Tom which makes Tom's image so vivid:

Uncle Tom was a sort of patriarch in religious master in the neighborhood. Having, naturally, an organization in which the moral was strongly predominant, together with a greater breadth and cultivation of mind than obtained among his companions, he was looked up to with great respect, as a sort of minister among them; and the simple, hearty, sincere style of his exhortations might have edified even better educated persons. But it was in prayer that he especially excelled. Nothing could exceed the touching simplicity, the child-like earnestness, of his prayer, enriched with the language of Scripture, which seemed so entirely to have wrought itself into his being, as to have become a part of himself, and to drop from his lips unconsciously; in the language of a pious old Negro, he "prayed right up." And so much did his prayer always work on the devotional feelings of his audiences, that there seemed often a danger that it would be lost altogether in the abundance of the responses which broke out everywhere around him. (Stowe, 1982, p.37)

But in his translation, Lin Shu alters the original work by only using the following several words to describe this situation:

一日傍晚，汤姆为邻人延饮，宾主歌呼，方极酣嬉，而丧败意志之事至矣。(Lin, 1981, p.13)

And the last sentence also serves to introduce the next plot concerning Tom's being sold by his master to the slave-trader at the moment. Here Tom's image as a pious Christian appears so flat and weak. Instead, the image of a poor Chinese laborer pops up. Lin Shu did not know those "religious matters" well, and he also thought it contributed little to the theme of his translation. So in this chapter, the main idea of the original work is completely changed in the translation.

Lin Shu also made necessary alteration to make up the different implications of materials between Chinese and Western cultures. The translation of the title of the novel Uncle Tom's Cabin can be another example showing Lin Shu's purpose. Lin Shu's translation of the title is "黑奴吁天录"，which is quite different from the original. For one thing, the main character "Tom" in the original work is turned into "黑奴"，which aimed to alarm the Chinese people, at the very sight of it, that the fate of the black will someday be the fate of the yellow. Thus, it aroused the reader's awareness of

national crisis. For another, the noun "cabin" in the title also was changed into a verb "吁", which achieves a sort of dynamic effect and seems to call on the people to take actions. Therefore the translation of the title is mainly out of his own writing purpose.

D.   Use of Classical Chinese

Lin Shu, as a late Qing dynasty scholar, who was so eager for reading since childhood, had a very good command of classical Chinese. And deep in his heart, he was quite proud of the five-thousand years of China's brilliant culture. It is quite natural for him to use classical Chinese as his translation language of Western literary works. And Lin Shu was widely acknowledged as the first person who succeeded in applying classical Chinese to the translation of Western novels.

Classical Chinese is the written language with minimal syntactic signifiers in which the early classical texts were composed. It is well-known that classical Chinese language stresses the abundance of the meaning or implication of a single word, the succinctness of sentences and the rhythm and elegance of the article while the Western literary language pays more attention to the accurate choice of words and the detailed and concrete depiction. As a pure written language, classical Chinese writing lays stress on expression, namely, expressing one's emotion and aspiration rather than reproducing the real life that traditional Western literature emphasizes. Classical Chinese writing also lays much emphasis on the combination of formal beauty, but pays little attention to grammatical structure, unlike Western language writing that sets story by morphology, syntax and tense. As a result, in traditional Chinese literature, classical Chinese was most often used in the writing of lyrical prose or essay while vernacular Chinese was more often used in the writing of novels. In this sense, we may say that classical Chinese is not suitable for a detailed description of real life. Nevertheless, Lin Shu did so well in his attempt to translate Western novels with classical Chinese that his writing was credited as the best model for students of classical Chinese.

Lin Shu used classical Chinese in the translation of novels in an attempt to bridge the gap between classical Chinese and Western literary language. On the one hand, he extended or strengthened the narrative function of classical Chinese to adapt itself to a realistic description; on the other, he tried to make his translation more succinct than the original by simplification to fit the habit of the Chinese readers. To make his translated works acceptable to the Chinese readers, Lin Shu omitted or rewrote some descriptions in the original text that he regarded too circumstantial.

In the First Chapter of *David Copperfield*, Dickens gave a detailed description of the temperament of the doctor who came to deliver a child:

He was the meekest of his sex, the mildest of little man. He sidled in and out of a room, to take up the less space. He walked as softly as the Ghost in Hamlet, and more slowly. He carried his head on one side partly in modest depreciation of himself partly in modest propitiation of everybody else. It is nothing to say he hadn't a word to throw at a dog. He couldn't have thrown a word at a mad dog. He might have offered him one gently, or half a one, or a fragment of one; for he spoke as slowly as he walked; but he wouldn't have been rude to him, and he couldn't have been quick with him, for any earthly consideration. (Dickens, 1982, p.8)

Lin Shu translated the passage consisting of 125 words into 11 Chinese characters:

医生平惋不忤人，亦不叱狗。(Lin, 1981, p.7)

In the Chinese version, Lin Shu only translated the doctor who "was the meekest", "in the modest propitiation of every body else", and "couldn't have thrown a word at a dog", as Lin Shu was dissatisfied with the author's wordy description. In the original, the author used a number of words to describe the meek disposition of the doctor, which is not applicable to classical Chinese. If the whole paragraph was translated in details into classical Chinese, the translation would be rather awkward. However, owing to the wide embracing and rich implication of classical Chinese, Lin Shu's description with eleven characters achieved the same effect of the 125 English words, in spite of the lack of the details.

In fact, Lin Shu's simplification of the original was not casual at all. He tried to make his translation as close to the original as possible while fitting in with the modes of classical Chinese expressions and the habit of the Chinese readers. Lin Shu preferred to translate a long sentence into a sentence consisting of several short phrases, which carried the rhythmic flow of Chinese writing. Lin Shu's version of Uncle Tom's Cabin named《黑奴吁天录》only has 206 pages. If compared with the later versions,《汤姆大伯的小屋》by Huang Jizhong published in 1982 with a length of 432,000 words,《黑奴吁天录》by Zhang Peijun in 1982 with 438,000 words, and《汤姆叔叔的小屋》by Wang Jiaxiang in 1998 with 324,000 words, Lin Shu's version has 124,000 words. Apart from the above-mentioned techniques of omission and alteration, the classical Chinese also contributes a lot to his succinct language style.

III.   AN ANALYSIS OF REASONS FOR THE SUCCESS OF LIN SHU'S TRANSLATIONS

Unquestionably, Lin Shu's translations exerted great influence on the target readers. The widespread popularity of his translations lies in the fact that his works satisfied the unique requirement of the target readers at the specific historical turning point. Lin Shu's translation catered for the psychological needs of the target readers, which in turn made Lin Shu further carry forward his translation activities. The unique needs of the specific historical turning point determined Lin Shu's translations serving as the media of cultural introduction—after transient widespread popularity, it would

recede from the center of culture to the margin. The success of Lin's translations has its historical reasons. Some factors which are considered to be the limitations of Lin's translations are, in fact, the reasons that made his translations quite successful at his times.

A.   Lin Shu's Illiteracy of Foreign Languages

Researchers tend to hold the view that Lin Shu's illiteracy of foreign languages restrains his translation and they have formed a commentary mode about his works. That is, while admitting the historical contributions of his translated novels, critics would usually point out that Lin Shu's translations have certain unavoidable limitations. For example, Han Guang of the 1930s was convinced that Lin Shu's "fatal restriction was his inability to read the source text" (Xue, 1983, p.225). Guo Yanli, a famous contemporary scholar, holds a similar opinion that the reason why Lin Shu's translations failed to reach a higher level lies in his lack of knowledge of foreign languages (Guo, 1997). However, the author believes that knowing no foreign languages was the favorable factor for the success of Lin's translations.

In fact, if Lin Shu had a good command of Western languages, his translations could have been more theoretically acceptable and more akin to Western source texts, but Lin Shu, who functioned as the introducer of foreign literature, could have receded out of our cultural horizon. It is certain that even if Lin Shu failed to undertake the mission of cultural introducer, someone else would assume this role in such circumstances. After all, whoever played this role must cater to the aesthetic psychology of the majority of the target readers when he tried to keep the basic flavor of Western literature.

In translation, the translator, if restricted by the source text, could not find the way to attract the target Chinese readers; if unduly limited by the target readers' psychological needs of aesthetics, the resultant translations could not cultivate the aesthetic psychology of the target readers. Only when the translator kept the basic flavors of the source texts and transplanted them into China's cultural context, could he find the proper way to satisfy the social-cultural needs. Lin Shu's translation fulfilled these requirements. His lack of foreign languages made him keep his established standpoint of the Chinese culture, with which he understood and processed Western literature, and thus the Western literature was successfully transplanted into eastern Chinese culture.

Virtually, Lin Shu's translation had undergone structural integration of cultural psychology twice. When the interpreter stated the contents of the original, he processed the Western original by the standard of Chinese colloquialism. But translation is not only the transformation of linguistic signs but also the conversion of structures of cultural psychology. Language itself, as the most direct carrier of culture, is part of culture. This also helps to explain why foreign language learners tend to be westernized.

On the basis of his partners' interpretation, Lin Shu processed the original into Chinese for a second time, which to a great degree further made the source text bear the features of eastern culture. The interpreters chose to collaborate with Lin Shu rather than translate the books by themselves most probably because they knew clearly that they could fail to meet the target readers' aesthetic psychology.

If Lin Shu had a good command of Western languages, his established structure of cultural psychology would have been influenced by Western cultural psychology reflected in the source texts. As a result, the difference between Lin shu's translation and the readers' cultural psychology would have been considerably conspicuous. On the one hand, the scholars who were deeply influenced by Western cultures would not consider his translations acceptable but degrade them as rewriting; on the other hand, those who were less influenced by Western cultures would also consider his "faithful" translations unacceptable. This would make him fail to find a proper place in the target readers' established structure of cultural psychology, the gap coming into being. Obviously, when the reader was completely separated from his established structure of cultural psychology, the acceptability of the translation was impossible.

B.   Catering to the Target Reader's Aesthetic Psychology

Lin Shu's application of classical Chinese made his translations in concert with the aesthetic taste to the greatest extent, which became another important precondition for the acceptability of his translations. Just as Mao Dun once put it: Lin Shu's translations were inevitably the result of the originals' double distortion. The originals were distorted to a certain extent when his collaborator processed the originals into oral languages; when Lin Shu retranslated the colloquialism into classical Chinese, the originals underwent the distortion for a second time. Guo Yanli believed: "Classical Chinese has great limitations when it was applied in translating Western novels or academic works, because there were irreconcilable contradictions between the new cultural contents of modern Western society and the linguistic forms of the traditional Chinese language" (Guo, 1997). To evaluate Lin Shu's translation in an absolute scientific way, the statement is unquestionably right, but only when a truth is measured under a concrete historical context, can it get rational explanation. In reality, Lin Shu's application of classical Chinese didn't hinder but facilitate his translations, helping them acquire the values and meanings we have observed.

Actually, quite a few scholars have agreed to this viewpoint. Guo Moruo made his comment based on his personal experience: "Joan Haste, which I firstly put my hands on, was probably the first Western book I have ever read. The original was of no reputation but after Lin Qinnan's polishing with concise classical Chinese, the translated text became very fascinating. Although I later on read the originals of Tempest, Hamlet, Romeo and Juliet, they failed to give me the intimate feelings as Lin Shu's translations did" (Guo, 1992). Guo Moruo's remarks to some extent proved the unique functions of Lin Shu's translations as the introducer of Western cultures. At the same time, Guo's comments suggested

the influence of Lin Shu's translations on the Chinese literature founders' structure of cultural psychology had become a kind of literary crystallization. Even after entering the world of Western literature, scholars still cherished the lingering intimate feelings — the original aesthetic experience — obtained from Lin Shu's translations. Anyhow, Lin Shu's translations were the main introducer which led them into the new aesthetic world of Western novels.

Lin Shu's translation introduced Western modern novels in classical Chinese to cater to the target readers' psychology, thus realizing the process of winning the cultural psychology of the Chinese readers. This helped to make people to some extent accept Western novels and acquire the feeling that the Western novels and the traditional Chinese literature and writing style bear some similarities. This facilitated dispersing the psychological repellence against Western novels and the foundation of "equal" cultural exchange came into being. Of course, the "equal" here is not absolute, but the exchange itself suggested that the target readers admitted the existence of the exotic objects.

By employing classical Chinese and the target readers' traditional cultural psychology, Lin Shu fulfilled the orientalization of the spirits and cultural core of Western literature. If Lin Shu had a somewhat westernized cultural psychological structure, he could have been influenced in his translation process and it would have been very difficult for him to cater to the target readers' need of aesthetic psychology. This helps explain why Lu Xun's translations in the early stage failed but Lin Shu's translations succeeded; it also cast a light on the reasons why Lin Shu's translations of the early period made a hit, while the translations in the later period were thrown into marginal position.

C. Sticking to China's Literature Tradition

Many scholars pointed out that Lin Shu's translations were tinted with the color of Chinese culture all the more because he never entered the real contexts of Western culture; still, occasionally misinterpretation occurred. In fact, this is the very factor that helped his individual culture strike a chord with the social culture and in the end formed "Lin Yi Xiao Shuo" of his unique style.

In Lin Shu's times, the Chinese nation was in peril, which deprived Chinese scholars like Lin Shu of the cultural pride. Motivated by the purpose of saving the nation and participating in social affairs, Lin Shu, in translating Western novels, could transcend his established cultural restriction, beginning to pay attention to the profound cultural connotations of Western literature.

Lin Shu, as a typical Chinese scholar steeped in Chinese classics for long, had developed a fixed aesthetic identity—Chinese Aesthetic Tradition. For Lin Shu, all articles should be modeled after the masters of classical Chinese like Han Yu and Liu Zongyuan, and all theories should be based on Confucianism. Lin Shu's deep-rooted aesthetic norms were also embodied by the fact that he always measured Western novels against Sima Qian's works, the writing style of which was not only the criteria for his comments but also the foundation for his accepting Western literature. This was not his discovery of the basic feature of Western novels but the natural betray of the structure of his cultural psychology. For example, in the preface of *Ivanhoe*, he emphasized: The art of statement in the book is much the same as the masters of classical Chinese and the author Walter Scott can be compared with Sima Qian. Through comparison, Lin Shu integrated Western novels into his structure of cultural psychology. So, in the course of his translation, the interpreter conducted the transformation from Western languages to Chinese colloquial language; then, in the following stage, Lin Shu not only completed the transformation from Chinese colloquial language to classical Chinese, but also repackaged the contents of the originals according to classical aesthetic norms.

Lin shu's identity with Chinese literature tradition was also reflected in his spontaneously aesthetic pursuit. This is related to his unique scholarly personality. Lin Shu was a sentimental scholar. The unfortunate hardships in his life highlighted this character. He was orphaned when young, later on suffered from illness for long, and was bereft of his wife in his fifties, which left him in deep sorrow for long. It was under this condition that he started the translation of *La Dame aux Camelias*. The sympathetic love story in the *La Dame aux Camelias* struck a chord with Lin Shu, and the background of the story was similar to the social contexts of China at that time, which made the translated version of *La Dame aux Camelias* enjoy great popularity. If described with Yan Fu's verse, the situation should be "a moving love story of La Dame aux Camellias rends the hearts of all the sentimental scholars" (Xue, 1983, p.168). The reason why the translation of *La Dame aux Camellias* achieved such aesthetic effects lies in the fact that Lin Shu had instilled his personal sadness into translation, which was very common in his works. For instance, when translating *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, he was in a very bad mood, and shed many tears. Actually, if we take Lin Shu in his last years into consideration, we could find that he was still characterized with typical sad sentiment. Obviously, this is part of the stable cultural psychology when Lin Shu was translating Western literature and also an important precondition for his translation tinted with his sad sentiment to strike a chord with the target reader.

The leading scholars in the New Cultural Movement criticized Lin Shu for his fallacious comments inserted in his translation, and the criticisms are pertinent. But, they neglected to explore the reasons why Lin Shu's translations mixed with those fallacious comments and ethic preaches were well received while the theoretically perfect ones were cold-shouldered. Obviously, the answer is that it was those fallacious comments that enhanced the acceptability of the translated Western literature in China's society rather than added difficulty to their acceptability.

On the one hand, the ethics was originally the inherent part of their structure of cultural psychology; they felt subconsciously intimate with the people of their kind. Although they all violated the belief, they were not completely separated from the old traditional ethics. On the other hand, although Lin Shu inserted some comments to preach feudal ethics, they couldn't cover the panorama of the Western culture. This presented the schools of innovative thoughts the

chances to draw nourishment and then they could make progress from a new starting point. This is why they in the end surpassed Lin Shu and his translations after drawing nutrition from them.

IV. CONCLUSION

Lin Shu and the great influence of his translations prevailed not only in the literary field and translation field but also in the spiritual world of the fellow countrymen. This won him the great fame as patriotic translator. On the other hand, because of his conservative political attitude and his unfaithfulness in his translation, he became the target of radical revolutionaries and critical researchers engaged in translation studies. All these factors put together make Lin Shu an ancient scholar of much debate, but it is meaningful to probe into the depth of why he succeeded in translation and incurred severe criticism.

In Lin Shu's times, the generally accepted criteria were "faithfulness", "smoothness" and "elegance". However, Lin Shu's translations, abounding in mistakes, omissions, and abridgment were not sniffed at but greeted with tremendous enthusiasm. This was a great wonder in the history of world translation. A thorough analysis of his translation purpose and his social background reveals that he treated translation not merely as the transformation of linguistic signs but also the cultural interaction concerning the target language poetics, ideologies, and patronages, etc. Therefore, the criticism of the unfaithfulness of his translations from the perspective of linguistics was not comprehensive, scientific or objective. Only when taking into account the social and cultural background factors of his times, can we conduct the studies of his translation activities in a relatively scientific and objective manner.

Obviously, it is the concrete social and cultural needs that made Lin Shu occupy a unique status in China's translation history. The success of Lin Shu's translation proves that a translation must meet the needs of his times and have positive influence on the society, but at the same time it is influenced by historical and cultural factors. Furthermore, translation activities are also purposeful. The choice of the originals and translation strategies are unavoidably influenced by the translator's subjective propensity. In order to accommodate his own historical and cultural environments and realize his own translation purpose, the translator is justified to choose suitable translation strategy.

In short, when conducting translation studies, we should not draw an easy conclusion on the basis of superficial mistakes or amendments. What is more important is that we should explore deeply into the reasons for the superficial phenomenon. Only in this way, can we draw a more scientific and objective conclusion.

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Weihong Chen was born in Anyang, China in 1979. She received her M.A. Degree in English Language and Literature in East China Normal University, China in 2007.

She is currently a professor in Teachers' College of Beijing Union University. Her research interests include translation theories and practice and teaching methodology.

Ms Chen is a member of Translators Association of China.

Xiaojuan Cheng was born in Anyang, China in 1979. She received her M.A. Degree in Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics in Shanghai University of International Business and Economics, China in 2007.

She is currently a professor in North China University of Water Resources and Electric Power. Her research interests include translation theories and practice and teaching methodology.

Carroll's Autonomous Induction Theory: Combining Views from UG and Information Processing Theories

Parviz Maftoon

Department of Foreign Languages and Literature, Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tehran, Iran

Laleh Toupa Esfandiari

Department of Foreign Languages and Literature, Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tehran, Iran

Abstract—**Without other mechanisms such as induction and parsers, UG-based approaches to linguistic cognition seem to fail to explain the logical problem of language acquisition. Hence, a property theory has to be adopted to combine UG views with other cognitive mechanisms like information processing and restructuring (Ellis, 2008). Pienemann (1998, 2003)'s Processibility Theory, and Levelt's (1989) psycholinguistic theory of speech production, Jackendof's (1987, 1997, 2002) MOGUL, and Carroll's (2001, 2002) Autonomous Induction Theory (AIT) are among the models which try to add new views to the UG-based approaches. Although suffering from a number of criticisms and having a high degree of abstractness, AIT with its major premises and conceptions related to the role of induction, attention, input, input processing, feedback, learning, and UG seems to be able to explain some of the UG enigma in second language acquisition.**

Index Terms—**Autonomous Induction Theory, autonomy, induction, feedback, constraints, input**

I. INTRODUCTION

The role of prior knowledge and mental representations in the mind of an L2 learner is a matter of debate in second language acquisition (SLA). Accordingly, Carroll (1999) has posed three classic questions depicting the problem of environmental influence on SLA: "How does a signal in the perceptual environment become evidence for learning some linguistic distinction? How is prior grammatical knowledge involved in detecting grammatical distinctions…? How are conceptual representations involved in the detection and encoding of novel grammatical features?"(p. 339)

To Carroll, acquisition is defined as the mental representation of some linguistic features at a given time, and prior to that time the learner has no mental representations which properly encode this information. On the other hand, the input presented in the environment is insufficient to this end. Even through meaningful conversations, the learner has no representations of newly-exposed forms or their morphological relationship in his mind to initially perceive and analyze the input. Hence, how much exposure to those forms is needed to be able to generalize language patterns? What initial capacity enables the learner to detect and encode discrete units in the input? In the mind of an L2 learner, the initial stage of learning seems to be the first-language (L1) grammatical knowledge which helps him or her to extract rules from L2 input. This assumption can be partially acceptable only for elder L2 learners but not the very young ones who don't have enough schemas on all topics and enough skills in their L1. Then how is this going to be explained? In structuralism it is believed that the L1 transfer hinders the representation of different units from those of the L1grammar (the strong version of contrastive analysis). Carroll (1999; p. 340) believes that "… by the notion of transfer, structuralists cast doubt on the possibility of L2 learning at all: How do learners ever represent a variety of categories if these are filtered out by the transferred grammar? How does L1 grammatical knowledge help to detect cues to the grammatical features, categories, rules, etc.?" In order to compensate for the limitations of UG-based approaches to both L1 and L2 acquisition, some scholars, mainly emergentists, have proposed models which account for both development and acquisition (Jackendof, 1987, 1997, 2002; Levelt, 1989; Pienemann 1998, 2003; Carroll 2001, 2002; Hulstijn, 2007; Ellis, 2008).

There are two types of theories to explain SLA (Greg, 1993 cited in Carroll, 2001): a property theory (giving us information on what the knowledge of an L2 is), and a transition theory (describing how this knowledge is represented in the mind of an L1 or L2 learner and how it changes). Carroll (2001) believed in the need for a property theory (such as AIT) which defines the essential properties of grammatical systems and a transition theory to entail how grammars can change. Meanwhile, AIT asserts a remarkable role for *induction* in order to be a transition theory at the same time. Carroll (2001, 2002)'s Autonomous Induction Theory not only acknowledges the existence of UG as the initial state for language acquisition but also notices the language processing mechanisms such as parsers (instead of LAD) in the gradual development of interlanguages. The AIT tries to bridge the gap between UG-based and processing-based approaches (Jordan, 2004).

II. Underlying Concepts

AIT is based on a theory of cognition i.e. Representational Modularity developed by Ray Jackendoff (1987), and a formal theory of induction referring to proposals by Holland, Holyoak, Nisbett, and Thagard (1986) cited in Carroll (2001), in their book *Induction: Processes of inference, learning and discovery*.

The Representational Modularity model claims that cognitive universals (such as UG) tend to explain what people know about language and how they come to know it. UG is regarded as one of the several types of universals within the human cognitive system. AIT is derived from the Representational Modularity in that every representable concept in our conceptual systems cannot be encoded through phonological or morphosyntactic systems i.e. there are severe constraints on the conceptual system in the mind. Unlike many other theories, negative evidence is believed to be important in AIT. Feedback and correction mentally represented in conceptual representations can affect the grammatical restructuring.

Carroll attributes an important role to UG but to her, rather than containing a set of principles and rules, UG is constrained by other processing mechanisms. UG merely explains how learners possess the knowledge of grammar from first place. Then the notion of "access to UG" seems to be futile. In addition, LAD is not viewed as a box containing UG. In AIT, LAD is regarded as a processing mechanism responsible for some unconscious mental operations, such as "Unification" (Carroll, 2007, p. 155), which finally lead to the restructuring of grammars. LAD cannot perform the exact structural operations like a speech processor or a language parser.

Carroll believes that it is also possible to adopt a universalist/rationalist position without rejecting induction and committing to the UG- only claim (inductivist approaches). The solution is then to carefully distinguish between UG's function in the property and transition theories and regard it not as a unique mechanism of language acquisition. AIT seems to show how induction is constrained and how it does not lead to rogue grammars as a by-product of induction (Carroll, 2001). Inductivists (mainly functionalists) who believe in the Principles and Parameters theory reject induction as, in case of existing, it leads to wild grammar; as there are no rogue grammars because of access to UG during the SLA process, induction is refuted.

In AIT, difficulties in learning a second language are due to parsing problems. Learning is triggered by a failure to process incoming stimuli (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Parsing is a categorization of phonological items into some meaningful units (e.g., lexical, functional, syntactic) through assigning appropriate relationships.

III. The Autonomy Hypotheses In AIT

The *Autonomous* part of AIT refers to transfer and speech processing (Carroll, 1999). Autonomy can have various interpretations within AIT:

a) AIT hypothesizes that all signal processing operations and the parsing of intermediate representations are automatically transferred. If some dissimilar features are present between the two languages involved, an immediate parsing failure will take place. A good example of this notion is the case of dialects of the same language which have such inherent similarities that facilitate processing and lead to lexical activation. It is worth mentioning that in case the dialects of the same language do not have enough similarities, an inter-dialect unintelligibility may occur and some aspects of L1 acoustic-prosodic processing may transfer. All these operations take place autonomously and unconsciously.

b) In another sense, autonomy entails that human cognition is encoded in a variety of autonomous representational systems. Each autonomous system may associate with a distinct domain of knowledge. A representational system is regarded autonomous when it consists of at least some unique constituents, and principles of organization. Each representational system has its own syntax and structure. It is possible that a representation of one kind influence the organization of other representations provided that it is constrained by correspondence rules to allow the translation of constituents and structures from one representational system into another. Otherwise, no cross-system influence can occur.

IV. Induction In AIT

The basis for the development of AIT is the Induction Theory of Holland et al. (1986) cited in Carroll (2001); however, induction in AIT is regarded autonomous and interpreted in a way that its certain components operate autonomously within the theory of modularity. In order to show this difference, induction in AIT is called *i-learning* by Carroll (2001). L1 and UG-based researchers and generativists, who believe in the core grammar and nonexistence of rouge grammars, claim that induction leads to wild grammar due to the lack of appropriate constraints (Lardiere, 2004). Carroll (2001) distinguishes between induction in AIT and other types of induction as:

"Induction is a process which leads to the revision of representations so that they are consistent with information currently represented in working memory. Its defining property is that it is rooted in stimuli made available to the organism through the perceptual systems, coupled with input from LTM and current computations. I-learning is, however, different from mechanistic responses to environmental change in that the results of i-learning depend upon the contents of symbolic representations. "(p.131)

Holland et al. (1989: p. 10 cited in Carroll, 2001), describe induction as…" problem-solving. Problem-solving in turn is defined as a search through a mentally represented space."

Since interlanguages do not display crazy rules or rogue grammars, it is believed that principles of UG, like parameter setting, must have been operated in L2 acquisition and that induction can only be unconstrained and necessarily leads to crazy rules. The "no-constraint", "no-UG problem" (Carroll, 2002, p. 241) tends to be the major concern of induction. Even within models of cognition with their emphasis on unspecialized general processor, it has not been shown that hypothesis testing and induction should not be random. Carroll believes that induction must be taken seriously as a solution to the representational problem in SLA. Although, Carroll (2002) argues that nowhere in the literature is shown and explained that induction is never and could not be constrained.

Carroll accepts that UG can explain some of the primitives available to the L1 grammar and parsers and also constraints structure-building. To her, Induction alone will not explain these properties. Induction can be used to explain grammar restructuring and how learners move along an unanalyzed speech continuum of phonetic, phonological, morphosyntactic and semantic representations. Neither Grammar-based nor developmental research was able to explain fully how L2 learners are able to encode a particular kind of grammatical representation when facing a particular kind of stimulus. Rather, SLA involves essentially some Meta processes such as classification or encodings, reclassification or reorganizing the cues for a classification, distributional analysis, and structure-building processes which are explainable through I-learning.

Carroll draws a distinction between inductive reasoning and inductive learning:

Inductive reasoning takes place in that part of the mind computing conceptual structures. It is associated with problem-solving as a form of inferencing.

Inductive learning (i-learning) affects representations within the autonomous systems of the language faculty.

Carroll's version of "… inductive learning (i-learning) is initiated when we fail to parse incoming language stimuli adequately using our existing mental representations and analysis procedures." (Mitchell & Myles, 2004, p. 189-190). Inductive learning means learning through generalization from examples. The concept of i-learning in AIT differs from other inductive language learning theories such as the Competition Model in that it is constrained by the strongly-resistant-to-change preexisting mental representations of language.

V. CONSTRAINTS ON I-LEARNING

Carroll's theory of learning is a highly constrained one. It includes various kinds of operations by classifier systems and a set of conditions that must be satisfied for an operation to take place. Imposing constraints on operations seems to be the central issue for any theory of SLA (Carroll, 2002). Many of these are extracted from the functional architecture of mind and some assumptions about language processing. The most important constraint on linguistic operations in our mind is the adoption of the Autonomy Hypotheses which was mentioned above. The autonomy of our faculty representational systems derives from our genetic endowment.

There are constraints in generating new hypotheses in that the learning mechanisms create minimally different representations. These constraints cause i-learning to be organized rather than random. Carroll (2001, p. 192-195) proposes five versions of such constraints in i-learning and each constraint on i-learning precedes and builds a basis for the next constraint until the final version, i.e. version 5. The final version of constraints on i-learning assert that there must be constraints on the ways in which the hypotheses generating system interacts with the autonomous linguistic representational systems' grammar.

VI. PERCEPTION AND ATTENTION IN AIT

Schmidt (1990) introduced various uses of the term *attention*: attention-as-detection, attention-as-noticing, and attention-as-conscious-awareness. However, Lehiste (1970 cited in Carroll, 1999) argued that it is possible to have speech-signal processing without attention-as- noticing or attention-as-awareness. Learners may unconsciously and without awareness detect, encode and respond to linguistic sounds. Language users are not always consciously aware of their own mental representations. They don't always notice their own processing of segments and the internal organization of their own conceptual representations. It is possible for learners to notice when they are told to or focused on a property in the input. If they didn't get the point, they can ask for clarifications. The underlying semantic conditioning and processing of forms and meanings are not noticed by language users or learners. Then in AIT, *attention* is the result of processing not a prerequisite for parsers to process (Sun, 2008).

VII. THE ROLE OF INPUT IN AIT

Since input serves several purposes in Carroll's theory, its role seems to be complicated (Gass, 2010). In Carroll's theory, intake and input, and not stimulus, are both regarded as mental constructs. Unlike many scholars in the field, Carroll makes a distinction between stimulus and input in that the former is more important and is something in the external environment. To Carroll, prior research on input processing has failed to explain how stimuli become intake. Hence a conceptual framework to account for the nature of signal processing and linguistic parsing is needed. This

framework will reflect the difference between 'input to processing' and 'input to language learning' (Rast, 2008). Three types of input are given by Carroll (2007) which play a role in acquisition:

- *Input-to-processing mechanisms* which are the actual data that serves as stimuli for learning.

- *Input-to-language- learning mechanisms*: When the phonetic processor which creates a structured prosodic representation as output using the speech signal as input. The resulting representation activates a lexical entry of the word in the mental lexicon. Then, the morphosyntactic processor uses the information in the activated lexical entry in the structure of the sentence.

- *Input-to-the-LAD* which is inserted into the LAD and for further restructuring of the L2 system.

Learning is input-driven, in that when parsing of the input fails to analyze the input data, learning is triggered. Albeit, the parser does not fail completely, some parts of the input will be interpreted and the unanalyzed parts of speech will be ignored. Otherwise, the total failure of the parser would block the detection of the problematic parts by L2 learners and consequently would result in a failure to trigger learning. Also it may be possible that during the initial phases of L2 acquisition, L1 parsing and production procedures will transfer (Meisel, 2011).

VIII. PROCESSING IN AIT

Speech processing in AIT starts with the auditory signal and is supposed to end with a conceptual representation. When people are exposed to input either linguistic or non-linguistic input, they are able to grasp both the meaning (the intention to communication) and the form of the message (how it has been articulated). Input enters speech processing system through the auditory signal, and the next link in the output of the first stage of speech processing which serves as input to the next stage.

AIT emphasizes comprehension over attention (Sun, 2008). As mentioned before, human language faculty is comprised of a chain of representations the lowest levels of which interact with physical stimuli, and the highest levels interact with conceptual representations. There are two types of processors which operate at each level of representation and form a sequential module:

- *The integrative processor* which is responsible for combining smaller representations into larger units,

- *The correspondence processor* which moves the representations from one level to the next.

UG-based or long-term memory-based rules are then responsible for the categorization and combination of the representations at each level of the module. This is how input is processed for parsing. Hence, there are two types of processing related to the two processors: processing for parsing, and processing for acquisition. Carroll (2004) proposes these processing assumptions of the AIT to show how entirely novel grammatical knowledge and parsing abilities can be. Speech processing in AIT has the following characteristics which distinguish it from other theories (Carroll, 2001):

Language processing in AIT is both autonomous and interactive with various representational systems.

Speech processing is both bottom-up and top-down.

There are different types of input related to the level of representation within the processing system e.g. input to processing and input to learning.

Novel encoding of information is triggered by on-line events related to the processing of a speech stimulus.

The novel encoding of information occurs when parsing fails.

"The linguistic stimuli, regardless of the linguistic source (L1 or L2) will be analyzed by the same language processors which parse L1 stimuli. There is no reason to assume that second language stimuli are not processed by the same mechanisms which process primary language stimuli, (otherwise)…it would be impossible to learn a second language" (p.190).

One of the processing assumptions proposed by Carroll is the Uniform Parsers Hypothesis: "Linguistic stimuli are processed by the same parsers regardless of the origin of the stimuli." (Carroll, 2001, p.190)

At the beginning of processing, the same parsing procedures as L1 will be applied to L2 stimuli systematically and automatically based on the structural information encoded in the representational systems of the L1 grammar.

The fact that interlanguage cognition is going to display sensitivity to structural relations (such as c-command, dominance and sisterhood) is because of the operation of the Uniform Parsers Hypothesis and the Autonomy Hypotheses.

IX. LEARNING IN AIT

Learning in AIT is deeply related with induction. UG provides the basic features of representations. Another function of UG is putting constrains on the combination of formal features. Also, it is assumed that some functional considerations are used to be combined with formal constraints e.g. when the combination of two sounds is impossible due to articulation problems. There are some universal constraints on how a syllable will form through the combination of segments. These categories and constrained are learned at any level of analysis. Hence learning a language either first, second, or third entails the learning of these category types as well as the related constraints and segmentation rules. Therefore, a theory of learning is required to explain how learners learn these categories. However, the AIT denies the idea of a general theory of learning for linguistic categories and also explicitly opposes the existence of general problem-solving mechanisms. Induction can take the place of general problem-solving mechanisms in that it can

recombine features to create new categories in limited ways. Induction can be constrained by the formal and functional universals of UG. Induction can also help learners to reorganize the positions of units in a structure category and combine new units into existing categories (e.g. the expansion). However, the learning of new types of operations (within the integrative processors) cannot be possible through induction. In fact, AIT assumes that no operation could be learned. The only learnable things are the categories which enter into equations, and the cues to identify these categories.

A major part of learning a new language is learning new cues to cross-level correspondences. These correspondences may not be the same among the world's languages. Carroll (1999) defines learning developmentally as the point beyond which no more restructuring and re-representation may take place. The definition given by Carroll is exactly the opposite of the notion of fossilization by Selinker (1972, cited in Carroll, 1999).

X. CONCLUSION

AIT shares some views with some other theories such as the Competition Model but is unique in some other ways which have been discussed earlier in this paper. These distinguishing features were described in terms of the role and the perception of each from the AIT point of view. Empirical investigation related to these AIT notions is fledgling and there is much work to be done with this regard (VanPattern, & Williams, 2007). Despite the new insights that theories like AIT provide for SLA by approaching the explanation of learning mechanisms through a different angle, they suffer from a number of demerits. For example, Ellis (2008, p.631) argues that "… these proposals are programmatic; they do not provide precise specifications of how UG and general cognitive mechanisms interact to shape learning."

Moreover, inductivists who believe in the P&P theory criticize the induction proposed by Carroll on the basis of the claim that there are no rogue grammars as a result of access to UG, and that induction leads to wild grammar. They believe that being unconstrained is an essential property of induction.

P & P is criticized by Carroll (2001) as: It not only fails to explain why language learning begins since it is not connected to a theory of perception and language processing, but also fails to explain the variability in L2 acquisition in that some phenomenon at a given point in time are acquired but not others. What are the triggers for parameters? Carroll (2001) also criticizes McWhinny (1987)'s Competition Model in that triggers in P&P theory are like cues to the Competition Model. The Competition Model needs more serious research into the nature of linguistic knowledge. As an alternative to these two theories, Carroll (2001, 2002) proposes the Autonomous Induction Theory. Unlike many learning models in psychology, Carroll does not think that the learner's mental representations reflect the environment in some ways. AIT is concerned with explaining learners' linguistic competence in terms of change in their mental grammar through the activities of psychological mechanisms such as LAD (Carroll, 2007).

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Parviz Maftoon is associate professor of teaching English at Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch, Tehran, Iran. He received his Ph.D. degree from New York University in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). His primary research interests concern second language acquisition, SL/FL language teaching methodology, and language curriculum development. He has published nationally and internationally and written and edited a number of English books. He is currently on the editorial board of several language journals in Iran**.**

Laleh Toupa Esfandiari is currently a Ph.D. candidate of TEFL at Islamic Azad University, Science and Research, Tehran, Iran. She is an English language teacher and supervisor with the work experience of over 12 years. She is also a simultaneous interpreter and a travel agent. Her interested research areas are Individual Differences, BICS and CALP skills, and the neurobiological bases of language learning.

On Technological Turn of Translation Studies: Evidences and Influences[*]

Chengzhi Zhang
School of Foreign Languages, Hebei University, Baoding, Hebei, China

Hui Cai
School of Foreign Languages, Central University of Finance and Economics, Beijing, China

Abstract—**With the rapid development of translation technology and globalized translation industry, there has emerged a great number of translation software, and the translation practice has been transformed hereby. The objective of this paper is to explore the technological turn of translation studies. This study finds that a technological turn of translation studies has occurred in translation studies. This paper defines the concept of technological turn of translation studies, demonstrates the evidences of the technological turn, investigates the reasons of the technological turn, and analyzes its great influence on translation studies. This paper suggests that the translation academia shall pay attention to the technological turn of translation studies, and make use of translation technologies, and conduct further research in this new field.**

Index Terms—**translation technology, translation software, technological turn**

I. INTRODUCTION

With the rapid development in natural language processing and IT technology, plus the enormous and fast-growing market demand on translation services, the 21st century witnesses a great boost in translation technologies, which greatly enhanced the translation speed and efficiency, and brought great changes to translation practice and industry. Bowker (2002, pp. 5-9) defines translation technology as various types of technologies used in human translation, computer translation, and computer-aided translation, including word processors and electronic resources, and software used in translating, such as corpus-analysis tools and terminology management systems. Chan Sin-wai (2004, p. 258) defines translation technology as "a branch of translation studies that specializes in the issues and skills related to the computerization of translation." Choudhury and McConnell (2013) divide translation technology into four major components, translation memory, which enables translators to re-use and learn from previous work, translation management systems, which automate project management and publication, terminology management systems, which encourage the use of standard terms, names, and translations, and quality assurance tools. To summarize it, translation technology refers to computer-aided translation (CAT) technologies, which mainly fall into four subcategories, translation memory, translation management tools, terminology management tools and quality assurance tools.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Over the past few decades, translation studies has witnessed linguistic turn in 1960s to 1970s, in which scholars investigates translation issues by adopting linguistic theories, and cultural turn in 1980s to 1990s, as Bassnett and Lefevere(1990, p. 4) argued that the translation unit has moved from word or text to culture, which announced the cultural turn in translation studies. Both linguistic turn and cultural turn aim to examine translation studies from the perspective of other disciplines.

Hornby (2006) pointed out another two turns in translation studies, empirical turn and globalization turn. The former indicates that more empirical studies have been made in translation studies. The latter suggests "the rapid development in information technology that took place during the 1990s (and are still continuing today) have radically changed the daily life of the translator and interpreter"(Hornby, 2006, p. 56). Advertisement has become an important issue of translation in globalization. English has become a dominant language. Translation technology was not mentioned in three of the above turns, linguistic turn, cultural turn and empirical turn. Hornby (2006) did talked about translation technology in globalization turn, but she highlighted the impact of globalization rather than CAT tools. This paper thus will investigate a technological turn in translation studies.

III. EVIDENCES OF THE TECHNOLOGICAL TURN

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With a globalizing economy, all global companies, either big or small, aim to sell their products to global markets, which results in a huge demand in multi-lingual documents production, such as software development, localization, product brochures, web pages and etc. Some global giants, such as IBM, Microsoft, Dell, Oracles,and etc, have huge demand and they require fast services. Thus the old and traditional translation service cannot meet their needs, as it largely depended upon human resources and was too slow. They require better and faster language services to meet the market needs. Therefore, CAT tools were invented, and was proved as well highly efficient. By and by, more companies require language service providers to adopt CAT tools. CAT tools were soon widely used in the industry. Due to the huge market demand, translation technologies have been developing very rapidly. In 1984, there is only Trados in Europe. Now CAT tools have been developed in all parts of the world. It is estimated that "about three computer-aided translation systems have been produced every year during the last 28 years" (Chan, 2012). In fact, to a certain degree, the emergence of translation technology and its fast development is originally triggered by the language service customers and the language service market. Up till now, drastic changes have taken place in the field of translation. Many evidences proves that a technological turn have occurred in translation studies

A. Translation Software Grows like Mushrooms

Chan (2012) divided the development of translation technologies into four periods: germination period (1981 to 1988), growth period (1988 to 1993), rapid growth period (1993 to 2003), and the period of global development (2003 to the present). The forerunner, SDL Trados, witnessed the whole development history of translation technologies. Table 1 shows its version history.

TABLE 1
TRADOS VERSION HISTORY

1984	Trados	2005	Acquired by SDL
1990	multiterm	2006	SDL Trados 2006
1994	workbench	2007	SDL Trados 2007
1997	WinAlign	2009	SDL Trados 2009
2001	Trados 5	2011	SDL Trados 2011
2003	Trados 6	2013	SDL Trados 2014

Table 1 shows Trados was first released in 1984, in its early stage (1984-2001), its development is still quite slow, with an average interval between versions of 3.6 years, from 2001 to 2011, its development speed increased significant, and it releases versions in about every two years, though it was acquired by SDL in 2005, which interrupted its development process. This indicates that translation technologies grow steadily and rapidly.

When Trados was first released in 1984, it was the first of its kind in the world. Now CAT tools have flourished, and its number has been greatly multiplied. Chan (2012) estimates that "about three computer-aided translation systems have been produced every year during the last 28 years". At the beginning period, only six countries were involved in the development of computer translation. However, by year of 2007, 30 countries have conducted research on translation technologies, including Canada, China, France, Germany, Hungary, the United Kingdom and so on. He also predicts that translation technology will maintain its momentum for many years to come. Hutchins (2009) listed 26 Localization support tools, 31 Translation memory systems/components, and 6 Translator workstations. Wang Huashu (2010) listed 23 CAT software, and 30 localization tools. This surely is not a full list. And new and amazing technologies continuously appeared in the market and the number of CAT tool is still growing. Here is a list of major translation tools.

TABLE 2
MAJOR TRANSLATION TOOLS

CAT		Localization tools	
Across	SIMILIS	Adobe RoboHelp	KeyTools
Déjà Vu	STAR Transit	Alchemy Catalyst	Lionbridge Logoport
Google Translator Kit	SDL Trados	Atril Déjà Vu	Localizer
Heartsome	Snowman	Html Help Workshop	Microsoft Helium
MetaTexis	Wordfast	Heartsome	Oracle Hyperhub
memoQ	Yaxin	IBM TM/2	SDL Passolo
			SDL Trados

In addition to this, at the beginning, CAT tools had only the standalone editions, such as Trados, Déjà Vu and so on. Now, there emerged CAT tools in different forms, such as online versions, cloud versions. Google translation toolkit[1] and Matecat[2] are two examples of the former, which are virtually web-based CAT tools, allowing translators to conduct translation tasks without installing any CAT tools provided there is internet access. XTM[3] is an example of the latter, which provides powerful translation memory, allowing the project team to take smooth collaborations.

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[1] Google translation toolkit is an online translation platform, developed by Google Company.
[2] Its official website is: http://pro.matecat.com/
[3] Its official website is: http://xtm-intl.com/

B. Translation Softwares Are Widely Used

In 1980s, very few people knew computer-aided translation technology, or even heard of it. Now it is estimated that there are about 200,000 translators who use CAT tools in their translation, and also over 6,000 big companies require the use of CAT tools in the language services (Chan 2012). According to a survey on 391 UK freelancers made by Fulford and Granell-Zafra (2005), only 28% of them used CAT tools, such as Trados, Deja Vu, SDLX and Transit and etc. And about half of them were unfamiliar with them at all. Only 5% of them used machine translation system, and 75% of them were not familiar with them. Only 2% used localization tools, such as Alchemy Catalyst, Passolo and etc. Eight years later, Jared's (2013) survey on fulltime professional translators from Proz.com, shows that 88% of respondents use at least one CAT tool for at least some of their translation tasks. And even among the rest 12% who do not use a CAT tool, 68% had used or tried to use a CAT tool before, only 32% had never used one at all. From 28% to 88%, the dramatic change in number shows CAT tools have been getting more popularity in a short span of 8 years, and CAT tools are widely used now in translation market.

In addition, there is also a change in translator's attitude towards CAT tools. Fulford and Granell-Zafra's (2005) study also indicates translators are less convinced of the value of CAT tools and the benefits to be derived from their use. Nevertheless, those who had already adopted CAT tools were generally more positive than those who had not. Jared's (2013) survey shows, almost all CAT tool users agree that the use of a CAT tool helps them translate more efficiently. This indicates that more and more translators get to know the value of CAT tools. This might predict a tendency that CAT tools will be more widely adopted by translators.

C. More Universities Offer CAT Courses, Master of CAT

In 2002, the first Master of Arts in CAT was established at the Department of Translation, The Chinese University of Hong Kong (Chan, 2012, p. 3). In March 2006, Peking University began to offer the MA program of CAT, the first of its kind in Mainland China. The program offers a wide range of CAT-related courses, such as CAT technology and its application, terminology, localization and globalization, translation project management and etc.

MIIS (Monterey Institute of International Studies) has long been offering computer-assisted translation courses in its MA programs of translation, translation and localization management, such as computer-assisted translation, terminology management, localization and etc.

Since 2005, EMT (European Master's in translation) has begun to offer CAT-related courses, such as terminology work, Information technology for translation (He Xianbin, 2009, p. 46).

In 2007, MTI (Master of Translation and Interpretation) was established in China, and now 158 universities in China offers MTI programs. Its objective is to train practical and professional translators and interpreters so as to meet the market demand and the globalizing economy. It is suggested that translation technology-related courses should be provided, such as application of CAT tools, terminology, translation project management, and etc., so as to meet the objectives of MTI program (Miao Ju & Shaoshuang, 2010, p. 66). This proves that translation technologies are winning more and more attention in translation teaching and training.

D. More Research on Translation Technologies

On May 2, 2013, the researchers searched, with CAT as the keyword in the title, on CNKI, the largest database for social sciences in China, and got 124 papers on CAT. The yearly distribution of paper publication is demonstrated by the following Table 3.

TABLE 3
YEARLY DISTRIBUTIONS OF PAPERS ON CAT

Year	1980	1981-88	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993-94	1995	1996
Number	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1
Year	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Number	1	0	3	3	1	8	2	6	6
Year	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	
Number	9	7	5	12	17	11	24	36	

The earliest paper, authored by Bruderer and Xu Zhimin(1980), appeared on 1980, which introduced the basic condition of computer-aided translation. The second paper appeared nine years later, which introduced a CAT software, developed by Transtar for the petrol industry (Guangtai, 1989). The table shows, from 1980 to 1998, only 7 papers were published during the period of 19 years. From 1999 onwards, the publication on CAT has never been interrupted and it grows steadily each year. The number also demonstrates a rising tendency, which indicates that research on CAT has obtained more and more attention in translation studies. The research topic of earlier literature are introducing either the development tendencies or CAT softwares, while those of the latest literature are more diversified, such as CAT in translation teaching, CAT in translation practice, building bilingual corpus via CAT tools and etc. This shows the research on translation technologies is getting more and more diversified and extensive.

E. More Translation Jobs Require CAT Use

At 15:14, May 8, 2013, the researchers browsed 50 translation jobs on Proz.com, a leading workplace of translation industry on the first and second page. Proz boasts to be the leading source of translation jobs and translation work for

freelancers. And it claims to be the home of over 300,000 professional translators and translation companies. The 50 jobs covers various language pairs, to name a few, English to French, Italian, German, or Estonian, Assamese, or from Chinese to Hindi, Sinhalese to English, Danish to Serbian, German to Russian and etc. 18 jobs required CAT use, which amounts to 36% of the total number. Among them 16 jobs required use of SDL Trados. As for the rest, one required SDLX, and the other Across. Besides SDL Trados, one poster listed as the preferred software SDLX, Wordfast, and memoQ as well, one listed Wordfast. Though 32 jobs did not specify the use of CAT tools, the investigation shows CAT use has been a prerequisite for translation jobseekers and a necessity for the translation industry.

These evidences cover major fields in translation studies, such as the translation industry, translation history, translation practice, translation research, translator training and etc. Thus it constitutes a fairly complete chain of evidence for the technological turn in translation studies.

IV. DEFINITION OF TECHNOLOGICAL TURN

A technological turn refers to an emerging field in translation studies, which featured with research on translation technology-related topics. It covers a wide range of research topics, such as teaching CAT, translation memory, terminology management, translation quality assurance, translation project management, translation industry, and etc., which tend to be ignored or never exist in traditional translation studies. Cronin (2010) comments that the turn is "the result of significant shifts in the way in which the translation is carried out in the contemporary world." Fundamentally, the technological turn is caused by the rapid development of IT technology and the ever-growing market demand on translation.

V. INFLUENCE OF TECHNOLOGICAL TURN

It influence are far-reaching. First, it restructured translation studies. Based on Holmes' (2000) description, Toury (2001) made a map of translation studies as shown in Figure 1, which helps to establish translation as a discipline.
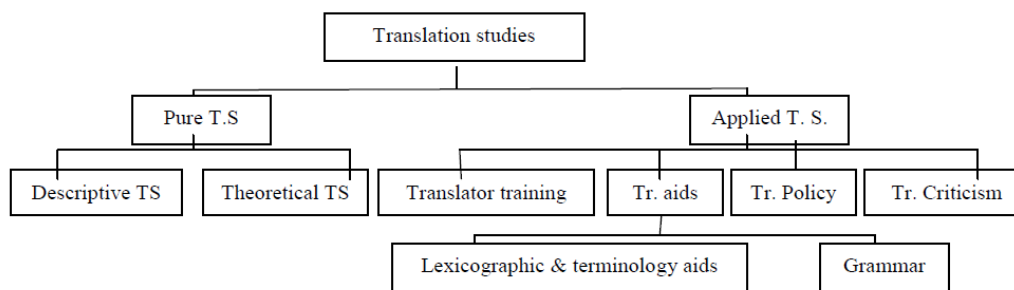
Figure 1 Toury's Map of Translation Studies

The map divides translation studies into two major branches: pure translation studies and applied translation studies. Neither of them includes translation technology at all. Translation aids sounds related to translation technology, but Holmes(2000) broke them into only two categories, lexicographic & terminology aids and grammar, which is quite different from translation technology that we use today. Quah (2006) extended Holmes' map of applied translation studies, with a special emphasis on translation technology, as shown in Figure 2.
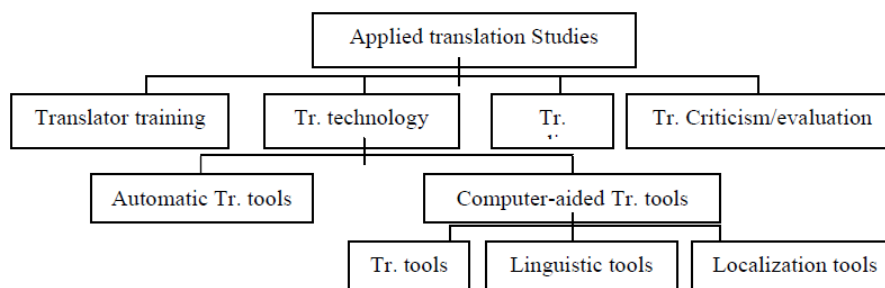
Figure 2 Quah's Scheme of Applied Translation Studies

One significant change is Quah replaced "translation aids" with translation technology, because translation aids are no longer limited to Lexicographic & terminology aids and grammar, as suggested by the sub-branches, which is supposed to reflect the contemporary developments in translation industry. In fact, it has expanded the scope of translation studies and brought in some new fields of study, such as translation industry, translation project management, translation quality assurance, research on CAT-related topics and etc. Translation technologies has brought some new terms into translation studies, such as translation memory, fuzzy match, match rate, localization, pre-editing, post-

editing, light post-editing, full post-editing, out-sourcing and etc. And it provides new angles on translation topics as well, such as translation quality, translation standard and tec.

Secondly, it has transformed in translation industry significantly. In current translation market, every step of translation work flow is facilitated by translation technologies. From quote, word count, pre-translation processing, translation project management, term extract, terminology management, translation quality assurance, post-translation processing and etc., translation technologies has made an essential role in contemporary translation industry. With the help of translation technology, translators, of any language pairs, at all corners of the world, could work for one translation project at the same time, and share their translation memory and terminologies. In addition, the development of translation technology has brought forth market giants, like SDL Trados, Lionbridge, HiSoft, and etc. What's more, for freelancers and translators, it has become a prerequisite for some job opportunities as mentioned in 3.6.

Thirdly, it has transformed translation practice as well. In the long history of human translation, translation had been done only manually, namely with pen and paper only. In 1990s, computers began to be widely used, and now nearly all translations are done on computers. Compared with human translation, computer aided translation is much more advanced, in terms of time-saving, quality control, process supervision, project management and etc. By entering the 21st century, CAT tools are getting increasingly popular. It has greatly enhanced translation speed and creatively helped to assure translation quality, which caters to the globalization of world economy and the increasingly huge market demand. In terms of the degree of human intervention, all translation nowadays is computer-aided translation (Chan, 2012, p. 2). Freelancers nowadays cannot do translation without the help of internet, online resources, computer software of many kinds and etc. Gone are the days when translation is made by man, pen and paper. And the days have come when translation is made by man and computers equipped with CAT packages and internet access.

Fourthly, team collaboration becomes more and more common. In the long history of human translation in all parts of the world, translation was mostly conducted by individuals. Cooperation between translators was also frequent, but it mostly occurred between two translators, such as Yang Xianyi and Gladys Yang, Lin Shu and Wang Shouchang, and etc. Translation team was rarely seen in the past as it raises the difficulty of quality control and project management and etc. However, due to the rapid development of translation technologies and IT technologies plus the requirement of the customers, translation practice requires more and more team collaboration. As translation projects tend to be bigger and bigger, whereas the time allocated become shorter and shorter, translation team become more and more common in the industry in order to finish the projects in time. Thanks to the rapid development in IT technology and translation technology, online collaboration became possible for translation teams, which allows them to share translation memories, terminologies, and to manage and supervise the translation projects as well. The development of translation technology also makes outsourcing possible in translation industry. Yeeyan[4] company is a leading outsourcing company in translation industry. In has accomplished many great translation projects. In 2008, after the Menchuan Earthquake, Yeeyan Company organized over 600 translators finished the translation of earthquake relief documents with a total count of 100,000 words in only one week. In October 2011, Yeeyan picked 5 translators via internet from hundreds of candidates. They finished the translation of Steve Jobs in only one month, with a word count of 500,000 words, which enables the synchronous publication of its Chinese version together with the original version (Yeeyan, 2014). To organize a number of translators, who have never seen each other before and even after the completion of projects, to collaborate for an urgent translation project, which is usually big in size. all these are beyond the imagination for traditional translators. With the progress in translation technology and IT technology, outsourcing has become possible in translation industry as well. In order to accomplish a big translation project, which has become the biggest share in the translation market, team collaboration has also become a necessity.

Finally, it also redefined translation competence. Previously, translation competence mainly refers to bilingual and cross-cultural competences of translators. As CAT becomes a dominant tool in translation industry, translator's competence in translation technology will be getting increasingly important. The future translation will be determined by two factors, how well you master translation technologies, and how far the translation technology develops. A qualified translator should possess bilingual competence, but translation technologies as well, which help them to improve both efficiency and quality in translation, therefore increase their productivity and income, and help their customer to save the cost as well. And this has a great impact on translator training and teaching in various aspects, such as teaching objectives, teaching methods, syllabus design, evaluation and etc.

VI. CONCLUSION

The technological turn is the result of rapid development of IT technologies and huge demand of market demand. Unlike other turns in translation studies, it not only brought in new angles on translation studies, but more importantly, expanded the scope of translation studies, brought in new terms, topics, enriched the content of translation studies, transformed the translation practice, greatly influenced the translation industry, and redefined translation competence. In addition to this, translation technology serves as a practical link between translation theory and practice, academic research and translation industry.

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[4] Its official website is http://www.yeeyan.org.

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Chengzhi Zhang, born on May 2. 1979, in Hubei, China. He earned his B. A. of English Language and Literature, M.A. in translation Studies from Hebei University, China. He earned his PHD in Translation studies from Univeristi Sains Malaysia in 2014.

   Dr. Zhang Chengzhi is currently an associate professor in Hebei University, China. His areas of specialization include literary translation, translation technology, corpus translation, financial translation, translation history and etc.
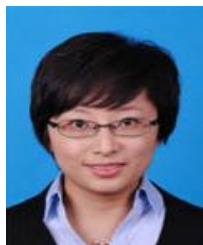
Hui Cai, born in February, 1980, in Hebei China. She is currently an associate professor in Central University of Finance and Economics, China. Her areas of specialization include literary translation, financial translation, linguistics and etc.

The Colonized (the Other) and the Colonizer's Response to the Colonial Desire of 'Becoming Almost the Same But Not Quite the Same' in *M. Butterfly*

Samira Sasani

Department of Foreign Languages, Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran

Abstract—**Based on Homi K. Bhabha's postcolonial theory, the relationship between the colonizer and the colonized is the mutual relationship in which the identities of the colonizer and the colonized (the Other) are mutually constructed. In Bhabha's sense, neither the colonizer nor the colonized has the absolute power over the other in the Third Space and both parties desire to become almost the same as the other but not quite the same. This paper tries to investigate how Song and Gallimard—the ostensibly Oriental colonized and the Western colonizer—respond to this colonial desire throughout the play. This paper also studies the colonizer's Oriental suicide and the reason that the colonial relationship is terminated, in the light of Bhabha's idea of the satisfaction of the colonial desire.**

Index Terms—**Hwang's *M. Butterfly*, Homi K. Bhabha, colonial desire, camouflage, colonial double**

I. INTRODUCTION

M. Butterfly was written in 1988 by David Henry Hwang, a Chinese-American playwright. The play circles round two main characters, Rene Gallimard, a French diplomat in China and Song Liling, a Chinese male opera singer who deceitfully cross-dresses. The play portrays the relationship between the colonizer and the colonized; the relationship between America and Vietnam is at the center of the plot and France and China's relationship with each other as their allies, respectively, constructs the surface plot of the play. *M. Butterfly* is a play within a play which is inspired by Giacomo Puccini's opera *Madama Butterfly* in which an Oriental woman falls in love with an Occidental cruel man who treats her inhumanly and leaves her alone. However, *M. Butterfly* does not portray a straightforwardly traditional colonizer-colonized relationship in which the colonizer has the absolute power.

M. Butterfly, on the other hand, delineates a colonial relationship between the French diplomat and the Chinese opera singer in which not only the colonizer but also the colonized exerts power and intimidates the other party. However, Hwang trespasses the colonial desire proposed by Homi K. Bhabha at the very end of the play when Song reveals his true identity and destroys the colonizer. As Homi K. Bhabha argues, the colonial relationship happens in the Third Space in which neither the colonizer nor the colonized has the absolute power over the other and if there is any absolute power thus there would be no relationship at all. Huddart claims: "when the relationship between self and other seems to be one of domination, the fact that there is a relationship at all suggests that domination is not total" (p. 46). Thus trespassing the colonial rule, Song terminates the relationship between himself and Gallimard or generally speaking the colonizer-colonized relationship.

The colonial relationship continues as long as both parties follow the colonial rule which practically happens in real life between the colonizer and the colonized and which is sensibly proposed by Bhabha in his influential book called, *The location of Culture*. As soon as the relationship changes to a top-to-bottom relationship, in which one party has the absolute power, it gets to its final phase and there will be no relationship at all. As long as the colonized is almost the same but not quite the same, the colonial relationship continues. Huddart argues that a colonizer desires: "a reformed recognizable Other, as a *subject of difference that is almost the same, but not quite*" (original italics, Huddart, 2006, p. 40).

II. METHODOLOGY

Homi K. Bhabha in his influential book, *The Location of Culture*, emphasizes the mutual power relationship between the colonizer and the colonized. In his view, the power scheme is not a straightforward exertion of power from top to bottom, from the colonizer to the colonized. He deconstructs the binary oppositions, the rigid distinctions between the colonizer and the colonized, the black and white or superior and inferior. In other words, he deconstructs Edwards Said's traditional notion towards the colonizer's straightforward treatment of the colonized as the Other, or the inferior.

Bhabha argues that the colonizer tries to internalize inferiority in the colonized and imposes "mimicry strategy"—he also calls it "sly civility"—onto it; while the colonizer, at the same time, is afraid of the reformed colonized. Bhabha

highlights the anxiety of the colonizer and the agency of the colonized. The colonizer wants the colonized almost the same but not quite, Bhabha claims. Bhabha believes that "mimicry is at once resemblance and menace" (1994, p. 123), since becoming quite the same means that the colonizer's authentic identity is paradoxically imitable. Thus, the colonizer is troubled by the Other, the colonized or the colonizer's double.

The colonized exerts power on the colonizer and intimidates it. The colonized resists the colonizer with different resistance strategies. Ball maintains that Bhabha's ideas "show how colonial power relations inevitably generate resistance and inhibiting ambivalence as by-products of their discursive and administrative structures of control" (2003, p. 37). The colonized deliberately would not imitate the colonizer perfectly or imitates the colonizer too perfectly that it looks fake and artificial. The resistance strategies, as Huddart argues, mean that "mimicry is repetition with difference, and so it is not evidence of the colonized's servitude." (2006, p.39) Huddart argues:

Bhabha's close textual analysis finds the hidden gaps and anxieties present in the colonial situation. These points of textual anxiety mark moments in which the colonizer was less powerful than was apparent, moments when the colonized were able to resist the dominance exercised over them. In short, Bhabha's work emphasizes the active *agency* of the colonized. (original italics, 2006, p.1)

The colonizer tries to make the colonized aware of its difference from the colonizer. However, the benefit of this awareness is twofold; both the colonizer and the colonized understand themselves with the help of "Otherness". Iser stipulates: "Otherness turns into a mirror for self-observation, and such a relationship sets the process of self-understanding in motion, because the alien that is to be grasped realizes itself to the extent to which one's own dispositions come under scrutiny. The knowledge thus obtained is twofold: by getting to know what is different, one begins to know oneself." (2007, p.36)

Habib also notes that Hegel believes difference to be indispensable to the notion of identity (2008, p.387). Hegel believes that, "identity has its nature beyond itself, in difference … identity and difference are inseparable." (Habib, 2008, p.388) Based on Homi K. Bhabah's theory, the identities of the colonizer and the colonized are formed in the Third Space. Bhabha perceives it as: "the encounter of two social groups with different cultural traditions and potentials of power as a special kind of negotiation or translation," which "takes place in a Third Space of enunciation" (Ikas and Wagner, 2009, p.2). Based on "The Third Space" theory of Bhabha, "minority groups in the metropoles—marginals within the center—adumbrate a third rhetorical space that disrupts and destabilizes centralized authority" (Huggan, 2001, p.21).

III. DISCUSSION

M. Butterfly is Rene Gallimard's recollection of his past during the decade 1960-70 in Beijing and from 1966 to the present in Paris. He is now in a Paris prison where the action of the play takes place. As he says, Gallimard is not treated as an ordinary prisoner since he is a celebrity. His story is funny, as he claims. The tacit satire of the play is because of the blurring of the identities of the colonizer with the colonized. Satire, Rabb agues: "examine [s] national, historical, or ethnic identity… [it] bring[s] objects of fear or danger into our midst by blurring the distinction between the broom and the dirt it sweeps, between us and them, or self and other" (2007, p.582). Gallimard has mistaken a man, Song who has deceitfully cross-dressed, for a woman for twenty years and now he is imprisoned on charge of treason. Gallimard ironically refers to the opera of *Madame Butterfly*, produced in 1904, which is very much like what happened to him. The heroine of the opera, Cio-Cio-San also known as Butterfly, is deceived by a western bad-looking man, Benjamin Franklin Pinkerton of the U. S. Navy. Gallimard, a western man, very much like the Oriental heroine, Cio-Cio-San, is deceived by the Other, the Oriental man, Song.

The opera of *Madame Butterfly* with which the play starts, delineates the stereotypes popular about East and West. Pinkerton, the American man, contends that Cio-Cio-San differs from American girls: "it's true what they say about Oriental girls. They want to be treated bad" (Hwang, p.11). For Pinkerton, she is the Other and he treats her as the Other; he even does not want to take her home with him. Actually the top-to-bottom exertion of power, from the absolute power, Pinkerton, to the Other, the Oriental woman—as Huddart believes—leads to the termination of the relation, if any, with the heroine's suicide.

Gallimard, now in prison, recalls the past when he married Helga to whom he was faithful till the day when he sees Song singing the death scene from *Madame Butterfly*. At the end of the opera, Gallimard goes to Song and thanks her for playing the role of Butterfly well. He also appreciates the story and calls the Oriental woman's death a "sacrifice", though the western man is unworthy. Though Gallimard is a western man, he not only appreciates the sacrifice of the Oriental woman but he also confirms the inefficiency and unworthiness of the western man. However, when he acclaims the Oriental woman's sacrifice, Song angrily objects:

Song: Well, yes, to a Westerner.

Gallimard: Excuse me?

Song: It's one of your favorite fantasies, isn't it? The submissive Oriental woman and the cruel white man. (Hwang, p.18).

Song imaginatively changes the story and substitutes an Occidental woman for Butterfly and then asks Gallimard to say his opinion about the new situation as a western man:

Consider it this way: what would you say if a blonde homecoming queen fell in love with a short Japanese businessman? He treats her cruelly, then goes home for three years, during which time she prays to his picture and turns down marriage from a young Kennedy. Then, when she learns he has remarried, she kills herself. Now, I believe you would consider this girl to be a deranged idiot, correct? But because it's an Oriental who kills herself for a Westerner—ah!—you find it beautiful.

Gallimard: Yes … well … I see your point … (Hwang, p.18).

From the very beginning of the play, Gallimard explicitly confesses that he is the colonizer and that he wants to see the colonized in an inferior stance. However, as the play goes on, as Bhabha proposes, both Gallimard and Song enter the Third Space and the colonial desire of the colonizer and the colonized is satisfied in the Third Space in which none of them has the absolute power over the other.

Gallimard in a discussion with his wife, Helga, calls the Chinese the arrogant people who boast of their old culture though for Gallimard "old" means "senile". Truly as a colonizer, Gallimard tries to make the Other almost the same as the Westerners, though not quite the same. He desires a reformed but recognizable Other. Thus, Gallimard cannot accept the Chinese or the Other as they are, he prefers to see the Other reformed and almost the same. However, for Helga, the story is different; she accepts the differences and does not want to change them. She advices Gallimard: "you're not going to change them. 'East is east, west is west'" (Hwang, p.19). In Gallimard's point of view from the Third Space, the more the Other gets close to the colonizer and its desires, the better. He appreciates Song and tells his wife: "she must've been educated in the West before the Revolution. Her French is very good also. Anyway, she sang the death scene from *Madame Butterfly*" (Hwang, p.19). Song is apparently a woman and she is Chinese, so Song is the Other for Gallimard and he is satisfied of seeing Song almost the same but not quite.

Song is also in the Third Space and has power over Gallimard and at times, intimidates Gallimard, the colonizer. Apart from her powerful character, what is very fascinating for Gallimard, the colonizer, is the weirdness and enigmatic nature of Song, the Oriental woman, the Other. He ultimately decides to establish a relationship with Song: "it took four weeks, but my curiosity overcame my cowardice. This Chinese diva—this unwilling Butterfly—what did she do to make her so proud?" (Hwang, p.20). Gallimard tries to get close to the stance from which the Chinese people look at the world and to become almost the same but not quite the same as the Orientals.

Both the colonizer and the Other advocate the mimicry strategy, Bhabha proposes. The colonizer desires that the Other imitates it or that it becomes almost the same as the colonizer but not quite the same and on the other hand, the Other wants to become like the colonizer; though it resists and does not become quite the same. As Bhabha argues, in *The Location of Culture*, "the discourse of mimicry is constructed around an ambivalence; in order to be effective, mimicry must continually produce its slippage, its excess, its difference" (1994, p.122). Thus in the Third Space, both the colonizer and the Other exert power on each other. In the Third Space, it is not only the colonizer which projects its desires and fears onto the Other, but the Other also does the same and intimidates the colonizer.

As Bhabha maintains: "colonial discourse wants the colonized to be extremely like the colonizer, but by no means identical" (Huddart, 2006, p.40). Huddart well represents this ambivalent situation: "the play between equivalence and excess makes the colonized both reassuringly similar and also terrifying" (2006, p.41). That's why the colonizer does not want the Other to become quite the same; if the colonized becomes quite the same, the colonizer should encounter its colonial double and it is a threat for it. On the other hand, if the Other becomes quite the same it paradoxically deconstructs the authentic identity of the colonizer claiming that its identity is authentic and inimitable. However, the Other does not want to be quite the same based on the resistance strategy the colonized employs in confrontation with the colonizer.

Song is a Chinese man but he pretends to be what the colonizer desires to see; thus by cross-dressing he pretends to be the Other who is not quite the same as Gallimard. Though Song does not obey and never follow Gallimard, he does not appear as the absolute power in this colonial relationship. To get to his goals Song resorts to camouflage strategy, a resistance strategy to hide his true identity. Bhabha employs Lacan's psychoanalytic concept, "camouflage" referring to "blending in with something in the background that none the less is not entirely there itself" (Huddart, 2006, p.46).

Song calls Gallimard, a "white man", and "an adventurous imperialist". It is in the presence of the Other that Gallimard understands his own identity differently and identity becomes meaningful. Culler believes: "even the idea of personal identity emerges through the discourse of a culture: the "I" is not something given but comes to exist as that which is addressed by and related to others" (qtd. in Ashcroft, 2007, p.206). Now Gallimard has the opportunity to see himself differently from the view point of the Oriental woman. Fanon also asserts:

Man is human only to the extent to which he tries to impose his existence on another man in order to be recognized by him. As long as he has not been effectively recognized by the other, that other will remain the theme of his actions. It is on that other being, on recognition by that other being, that his own human worth and reality depend. It is that other being in whom the meaning of his life is condensed. (2008, pp.168-169)

Comparing Western and Eastern look at education, Song criticizes the western look at education and defines a new western identity in the present of this difference:

Song: Well, education has always been undervalued in the West, hasn't it?

Gallimard: (*Laughing*) I don't think that's true.

Song: No, you won't. You're Westerner. How can you objectively judge your own values? (Hwang, p.21)

Furthermore, in the Third Space the relationship between the colonizer and the colonized is mutual and the colonizer not only shapes the colonizer but it is also shaped by it. Very much like Song's social criticism of the Occident, Gallimard criticizes the Orient this way:

Gallimard: If my history serves me correctly, you weren't even allowed into the clubs in Shanghai before the Revolution.

Song: Your history serves you poorly, Monsieur Gallimard. True, there were signs reading "No dogs and China-men." But a woman, especially a delicate Oriental woman—we always go where we please. Could you imagine it otherwise? (Hwang, p.22)

Very much like George Bernard Shaw's *John Bull's Other Island*, in which Broadbent the Englishman is treated as the Other in Ireland, though he is the colonizer and the Irish people are the Other in his eyes, Gallimard, the colonizer sees the Chines people as the Other, though he himself is the Other in China and in the eyes of the Chinese people. Very much like Broadbent, he should do his best to assimilate himself with the Chinese people to be accepted by them. Marc reminds Gallimard of his superiority as a foreigner in China. Unlike Gallimard, Marc is a colonial essentialist and believes in the essentially congenital superiority of the western men and does not want to assimilate himself with the Chinese people. Marc believes that Song, as an Oriental woman, should completely be manipulated by Gallimard: "she cannot love you, it is taboo, but something deep inside her heart … she cannot help herself … she must surrender to you. It is her destiny" (Hwang, p.23). Marc very arrogantly assumes that superiority is in their blood: "They fear us, Rene. Their women fear us. And their men—their men hate us" (Hwang, p.24). Marc allows himself do whatever he likes; he believes: "we don't have to be respectful. We're foreign devils" (Hwang, p.24).

Unlike Marc, both Song and Gallimard, being in the Third Space, assimilate and at the same time resist; thus this way, the colonial relationship continues. Employing the camouflage strategy, Song hides her true identity; therefore Gallimard doubts whether she loves him or not. Song knows how she can extend her relationship with Gallimard. If he reveals her true identity, Gallimard, the colonizer, finds her quite the same and then the relationship is terminated and then she is no longer able to pass classified information and get to her goals. Gallimard also wants to exploit an Oriental woman; he has a Western wife but he thinks that he has power over the Oriental woman and can exploit her. Gallimard remembers Pinkerton in *Madame Butterfly* and compares himself with Pinkerton:

Gallimard: In *Madame Butterfly*, Cio-Cio-San fears that the Western man who catches a butterfly will pierce its heart with a needle, then leave it to perish. I began to wonder: had I too, caught a butterfly who would writhe on a needle? (Hwang, p.28)

Song very well plays her role as the Other who is reformed though she is still recognizable. Gallimard says: "in my heart, I know she has . . . an interest in me. I suspect this in her way. She is outwardly bold and outspoken, yet her heart is shy and afraid. It is the Oriental in her at war with her Western education" (Hwang, p.25).

Consequently in the Third Space in which no party has absolute power over the other, identities of the colonized and the colonizer are mutually constructed. In the presence of the Other, or because of the presence of difference, as Derrida also insists, identity is shaped and becomes meaningful. "In Derrida's words, what we take to be meaning is really only the mental *trace* left behind by the play of signifiers. And that trace consists of the differences by which we define a word" (qtd in Tyson, 2006, p.253). Song compares France with China which very well contributes to better assimilation of both parties. When they become aware of the differences, they can assimilate better and thus they can be accepted by the other party and consequently get to their colonial goals better. Song reminds Gallimard of the differences: "France is country living in the modern era. Perhaps even ahead of it. China is a nation whose soul is firmly rooted two thousand years in the past. What I do, even pouring the tea for you now … it has … implications" (Hwang, p.27).

As soon as one party feels that he has the absolute power and exerts it over the other, the relationship ends. Once, to examine Song's love towards him, Gallimard puts away his camouflage strategy and assumes that, as a western man, he has the absolute power and looks at Song from top-to-bottom position: "I knew this little flower was waiting for me to call, and, as I wickedly refused to do so, I felt for the first time that rush of power—the absolute power of a man" (Hwang, p.28). Being treated this way, Song firstly resorts to the total resistance strategy without flexibility; Song writes a letter to Gallimard: "don't bother to call. I'll have you turned away at the door" (Hwang, p.30). But then she decides to resort to the camouflage strategy; thus she writes: "I am out of words, I can hide behind dignity no longer. What do you want? I have already given you my shame" (Hwang, pp.30-31). Getting assured that Song is not quite the same, he dares to continue his relation with her. He confesses:

Reading it, I became suddenly ashamed. Yes, my experiment had been a success. She was turning on my needle. But the victory seemed hollow … I felt sick. … I had finally gained power over a beautiful woman, only to abuse it cruelly. There must be justice in the world. I had the strange feeling that the ax would fall this very evening" (Hwang, p.31).

Gallimard, once again, dares to enter the Third Space. Therefore, as Bhabha suggests, if there is any colonial relationship between the colonizer and the Other, it is because both are in the Third Space and neither of them has the absolute power and authority over the other. In this Third Space, they are almost the same but not quite the same and thus they resemble and at the same time intimidate each other. Huddart maintains that, "colonial authority is menaced by the colonized to the extent that it utterly depends on the colonized for its sense of itself" (2006, p.61).

Understanding his identity better in relation with the Other, Gallimard is ashamed of what he is doing and is expecting to be punished but very surprisingly Toulon, the French ambassador, informs him that he has promoted to a

vice-consul position because of his astute strategy of shrewdly getting along with the Chinese. The Third Space is a place in which both the colonizer and the colonized mutually benefit and intimidate each other. The colonizer, Galliamrd, and the colonized, Song, are getting along with each other to serve their countries at the cost of assimilation but both parties are aware that they become almost the same but not quite. Encouraged by the heads of his own country, Gallimard becomes much more motivated to continue his colonial relationship with the Chinese woman, Song. He even thanks Song for her being: "it is because of you that I was promoted tonight. You have changed my life forever. My little Butterfly, there should be no more secrets: I love you" (Hwang, p.33).

On the other hand, there is Song who, very much like Gallimard, tries to get along with Western codes and norms. In other words, both Song and Gallimard are becoming hybrids; they are not completely Oriental and not completely Occidental. They stand somewhere in between; the colonizer is not the absolute power and the colonized is not the absolute weakness. Hybridity is not only conceived in their behavior but it is also seen in the style of their life. Gallimard states: "Butterfly, as I was calling her now, decorated our 'home' with Western furniture and Chinese antiques. And there, on a few stolen afternoons or evenings each week, Butterfly commenced her education" (Hwang, p.35). Song also like a western woman starts to educate.

Song confesses that the Chinese men, "keep us down" (Hwang, p.35). While Song is becoming almost the same as the western people, she wisely tries not to intimidate the colonizer. She coaxes Gallimard to get very close to him and to get the required information: "that's one of the exciting things about loving a Western man. I know you are not threatened by a woman's education" (Hwang, pp.35-36). Wedeen sarcastically states that in "colonial and modernization discourses people have to move up the evolutionary ladder and become more 'civilized' before they can be free" (2013, p.869). And it is exactly what Song, the colonized, does to become almost the same as the western people.

When Song talks about China's power, she is aware that she should portray China almost the same as France not quite like: "we Chinese—once, I suppose, it is true, we ruled the world. But so what? How much more exciting to be part of the society ruling the world today. Tell me—what's happening in Vietnam?" (Hwang, p.36). She is gathering the secret knowledge, and as Foucault says, Knowledge is power but she knows how she should wisely approach the colonizer and becomes powerful without intimidating him. She approaches Gallimard, the colonizer, under the veneer of assimilation, but by no means subjugation and servitude. She justifies her action this way: "I want to know what you know. To be impressed by my man" (Hwang, p. 36).

Following the colonial desire of becoming almost the same but not quite, these two characters very well cope with each other. Following this rule, as Bhabha says, both of them are in the Third Space and consequently look at each other from almost the same view point. Finding himself powerful and at the same time being intimidated by the Other in the Third Space, Gallimard assumes that the Orientals want to be associated with whoever shows the most strength and power and also paradoxically he asks Toulon to tell the Americans about Vietnam and the Orient: "there is a natural affinity between the West and the Orient" (Hwang, p.37).

When Gallimard politically discusses about the relationship between Vietnam and America and their allies China and France, respectively, he consciously confesses that in the Third Space, both the colonizer and the colonized are mutually constructed: "the Orientals are people too. They want the good things we can give them. If the Americans demonstrate the will to win, the Vietnamese will welcome them into a mutually beneficial union" (Hwang, p.37). What Gallimard is ignorant of is the powerful resistance strategy the colonized use along with the assimilation strategy to overcome the colonizer. He mistakenly takes the mimicry strategy for absolute obedience and servitude of the colonized.

Referring to power relations in a family in the past in China, Song tacitly suggests the cause of failure and defeat of China in the past. She finds their failure in their past stubbornness and lack of assimilation: "in Imperial China, when a man found that one wife was inadequate, he turned to another—to give him his son." (Hwang, p. 41). Song, who is trying to assimilate herself with the colonizer and his desires, purposefully ridicules Gallimard's assimilation policy. She metaphorically refers to Gallimard's family life and his relation with his wife, Helga: "you men of the West—you're obsessed by your odd desire for equality. Your wife can't give you a child, and *you're* going to the doctor?" (original italics, Hwang, p. 41). If Gallimard follows Song's deceitful strategy of obstinacy in his political and also family relations, he will not be able to gain his goals.

In the presence of the Oriental woman, Gallimard is able to compare and contrast these two types of women. He declares that assimilation, imitation and submission are what the Oriental woman does and confrontation is the habit of a western woman. Though Renee, the French diplomat and Gallimard's mistress, is a western woman, she tries to assimilate herself with the Chinese people. Getting familiar with Song and the Oriental woman's policy of assimilation and strategy of becoming almost the same, Gallimard compares her with a western woman: "she knew the secret I was trying to hide. But, *unlike* a Western woman, she didn't confront me, threaten, even pout. I remembered the words of Puccini's Butterfly" (my italics, Hwang, p. 44).

Thus following the colonial strategy of becoming almost the same but not quite, Renee also tries to assimilate herself with the Chines. Renee also studies Chines language. She thinks she should be almost the same as the Chines. She comes to China, though for her China is "primitive", to learn Chinese, because as she says: "it'll be important someday" (Hwang, p.42). Renee foreshadows China's success in the future, referring to Chinese language acquisition. She foreshadows the time when China becomes powerful again and the time when Chinese language becomes a means of

assimilation with the dominant power. Dasht Peyma maintains that colonizers usually impose their language onto the colonized, "coercing colonized people to speak the colonizers' tongue" (p.47).

The colonial relationship continues as long as the colonial desire is satisfied by both parties. The colonial desire of becoming almost the same but not quite would be practiced by the colonizer and the Other by imperfect imitation or by too perfect imitation that the subject seems reformed but still recognizable. This way, both the colonizer and the colonized feel satisfied. If either the colonizer or the colonized trespass the colonial rule, the colonial relationship between them is terminated. Several times Gallimard's attitude as the absolute power and the western man in relation with the Oriental woman has shaken the relationship but very soon he turns back to the Third Space because of his political mission. For instance, in the second act, he once again asks Song to show her body to him and while Song is helplessly convinced, it is Gallimard who withdraws and gives Song the opportunity to improvise a new fake story of being pregnant.

Gallimard who is seriously doubtful about the true identity of Song, does not desire to find Song a man who is quite the same as himself. Thus, as a colonizer which is reluctant to see its colonial double, he does not undress Song: "did I not undress her because I knew, somewhere deep down, what I would find? Perhaps. Happiness is so rare that our mind can turn somersaults to protect it" (Hwang, p.47). With his withdrawal, Song find another opportunity to keep the colonial relationship by telling a new lie about her pregnancy for the sake of accomplishing her goals. Song asks Chin to give her a Chinese baby with blond hair. She asks for a hybrid child which is the emblem of the combination of the west with the east. The hybrid child is the incarnation of the colonial desire; it stands for the almost equality of the West and the East. It is the embodiment of the Third Space in which neither the colonizer nor the colonized has the absolute power over the other.

Song, as herself says, is an artist but the hardest role she has ever played is the role of an Oriental woman who has power over a white man and at the same time she is assimilating herself with him by employing the colonial mimicry strategy and also camouflage strategy or as she herself calls it, "disguise" (Hwang, p.39). Song tries to behave like a Western woman but her imperfect imitation is what Gallimard desires. He does not like to see the Oriental woman the same as himself; actually he is reluctant to face his colonial double. Song tells Gallimard: "you've been very patient dealing with my … eccentricities. A Western man, used to women freer with their bodies" (Hwang, p.50). Based on colonial desire, the colonizer, Gallimard, does not want to see Song quite the same as himself and on the other hand, the colonized, Song, is reluctant to show her body and to reveal her true identity as a man, based on the resistance strategy the colonized follow, based on Bhabha's idea.

Gallimard then remembers 1966 when he was asked to turn to France since his predictions all went wrong. Gallimard thinks that he is well getting along with the Chinese and he is the same but he is almost the same not quite the same; therefore he cannot predict well about the reaction of the Chinese to the Americans. Both Song and Gallimard are dangling between two poles; they are hybrid, not totally Western and not totally Oriental. Since the change of the regime in China, Song is not accepted anymore by Chin and Chinese heads; she is accused of living above the common people and looking down on their labor during all those years and not serving the Chinese people and the Revolution. However Sing opposes and tells Chin that she has disguised for the sake of her country. On the other hand Gallimard is also accused of treachery and treason. Thus the identity of Song and Gallimard are mutually constructed as two hybrids belonging nowhere.

Thus Song is forced to go to France and live with Gallimard there and to serve the Chinese people by reporting useful information weekly. Not being accepted in China any more, Song decides to change and reveals her true identity as a man. On the other hand, Gallimard who is living with his wife in France, decides to leave his wife and marry Song, his mistress. Gallimard feels powerful when he is with Song, the seemingly Oriental woman, but he does not feel so with Helga. Gallimard, as the colonizer, is after power and this feeling would be satisfied when he is with Song. When Song comes to France, the colonial relationship starts to deteriorate. The seemingly colonized agent, Song, has decided to "change" and reveals her true identity which will terminates the colonial relationship as Gallimard surprisingly faces his colonial double.

Seeing Song in France, Gallimard expects her to be obedient as she was in China, but Song has decided to reveal her identity to her:

Gallimard: You have to do what I say! I'm conjuring you up in my mind!

Song: Rene, I've never done what you've said. Why should it be any different in your mind? Now split—the story moves on, and I must change.

…

Gallimard: So … please … *don't change*.

Song: You know I have to. You know I will. And anyway, what difference does it make? No matter what your eyes tell you, you can't ignore the truth. You already know too much. (my italics, Hwang, p.59)

Gallimard cannot face the colonial double; it intimidates him to confront his double with the same power. Gallimard, the colonizer, cannot tolerate the quite sameness of the Other, it would be the emblem of shame and scandal for the colonizer whose identity is ostensibly authentic and not imitable. In the third act of the play, Gallimard remembers a courthouse in Paris, in 1986. Song informs the court that Gallimard has reported and passed the classified information

to him (Song). Song discloses how he takes advantage of the mentality of the West for the sake of serving his own country. He states:

The west thinks of itself as masculine—big guns, big industry, big money—so the East is feminine—weak, delicate, poor … but good at art, and full of inscrutable wisdom—the feminine mystique. Her mouth says no, but her eyes say yes. The West believes the East, deep down, *wants* to be dominated—because a woman can't think for herself. (original italics, Hwang, p.62)

Hwang has tried to dismantle the stereotypes associated with the Oriental and the Occidental. When the judge asks Song how he has fooled Monsieur Gallimard, he refers to the stereotypically straightforward notion of the Orient as a woman: "one because when he finally met his fantasy woman, he wanted more than anything to believe that she was, in fact, a woman. And second, I am an Oriental. *And being an Oriental, I could never be completely a man*" (my italics, Hwang, p.62). Gallimard, as a western colonizer, as he himself confesses, desires to see the East or the Other.

At the very end of the play, Hwang reverses the stereotypes associated with the East and West and does not deconstruct them. Throughout the play, the main characters—Song and Gallimard—are communicating in the Third Space and the stereotypes mentioned in Said's *Orientalism*, have been deconstructed by following the colonial desire of becoming almost the same but not quite the same which is advocated by both the colonizer and the colonized. But at the very end of the play, Song reveals his true identity and does not follow the colonial rule any more. Therefore, the colonial relationship is terminated when Gallimard finds Song quite the same as himself. He contends:

Gallimard: You, who knew every inch of my desires—how could you, of all people, have made such a mistake?

Song: What?

Gallimard: You showed me your true self. When all I loved was the lie. A perfect lie, which you let fall to the ground—and now, it's old and soiled.

Song: So—you never really loved me? Only when I was playing a part?

Gallimard: I'm a man who loved a woman created by a man. Everything else—simply falls short. (Hwang, p.66)

Gallimard, the colonizer, cannot tolerate his colonial double and thus decides to commit suicide as an inferior character in a seppuku position; both as a woman and the Oriental. Wu believes: "Madame Butterfly is Gallimard's final self-identity and recognition" (p.80).

IV. CONCLUSION

Communicating in the Third Space with Song and becoming almost the same as Song, Gallimard, at the end of the play, confesses: "I have a vision. Of the Orient" (Hwang, p.68). The Other is not something outside or beyond the self, as the traditional Cartesian perspective would have it; rather, it is deeply implicated in and with the self (Türkkan, 2011, p.369). Unlike Gallimard, Song—who has deceitfully played the role of the Other who is trying to become almost the same in the Third Space—is quite the same as Gallimard. Song is Gallimard's colonial double. He is an Oriental man with the same power as Gallimard. As long as the colonizer and the Other play their natural roles, the colonial relationship continues but as soon as one of them does not follow the colonial rule, which naturally and practically happens in colonial relationships, the relation is terminated. Song is not truly the Other but he deceitfully plays this role thus when at the end of the play it is revealed, the natural colonial relationship ends.

What Hwang has portrayed throughout the play, from the very beginning up to the third act, well depicts the colonial relationship in the Third Space in which the absolute power is deconstructed, but the third act is the reversal of the stereotypical power relationship in which the Oriental seemingly has power over the Occidental. Gallimard's vision of the Orient is changed but the stereotypes are not deconstructed. However, Fung believes: "Gallimard's gender transformation represents the ultimate message about the performing nature of gender and the self-destructiveness of Orientalism" (p.23). As Huddart argues: "when the relationship between self and other seems to be one of domination, the fact that there is a relationship at all suggests that domination is not total" (2006, p.46). Thus, when Song trespasses the colonial desire, proposed by Bhabha, and becomes the colonizer's colonial double and the dominant power in the relationship, the colonial relationship is subsequently terminated with Gallimard's suicide.

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Samira Sasani (PhD., Assistant Prof. of English Literature, Shiraz University) presently works as a full-time faculty member at the Department of Foreign Languages, as an assistant professor of English literature at Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran. She has received her B. A. in English Literature from Shiraz University in 2006, her M. A. in English Literature from Shiraz University in 2008, and her Ph. D. in English Literature from Shiraz University in 2012.

A Systemic Functional Study of the Quantifying Selection in the English Nominal Group

Manliang Li

School of Foreign Languages, Inner Mongolia University, Hohhot 010021, China

Abstract—The literature to date indicates that it is necessary to introduce the concept of selection into the description and analysis of the English nominal group. This paper will carry out a delicate exploration of the functional structure of the English nominal group with the quantifying selection. It aims to identify the function of the item *of* in the English nominal and thus to explore the whole functional structure of the English nominal group with the quantifying selection. Through the analysis, we found that besides the function as a preposition, and selector, the item *of* can also function as a finisher in the English nominal group.

Index Terms—the quantifying selection, the English nominal group, systemic functional linguistics

I. INTRODUCTION

The literature to date indicates that there is great necessity to introduce the concept of selection into the description and study of the English nominal group. The present paper will carry out a delicate exploration of the functional structure of the English nominal group with the quantifying selection.

This research intends to investigate answers to the two questions as follows: (1) How do we distinguish the word class as well as the function of the item *of* in the English nominal group? (2) How do we analyze the structure of the English nominal group with the quantifying selection?

This paper begins with an overview of the traditional and the transformational analyses of the English nominal group containing the frequently occurring word *of*. There follows the systemic functional approach to the nominal group structure of the similar types. The central parts of the paper discuss the principle to identify the item *of* either as a selector or as a common preposition, and thus illustrate the systemic functional analysis of the English nominal group with the quantifying selection.

II. TRADITIONAL AND TRANSFORMATIONAL ANALYSES

As can be observed from the literature, the concept of selection is closely connected with a tremendously frequently occurring word, *of*, which "comprises about two percent of all words in all types of text" (Sinclair, 1991, p.p. 84, 143). In view of its frequency in the English text, there are many arguments about its use and function. In this paper, we shall deal only with its relevance to the nominal group, although the item also appears frequently in other classes of groups and clauses.

Traditionally (*e.g.* Biber *et al.*, 1999/2000; Huddleston, 1984; Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, 2005/2008; Quirk *et al.*, 1972, 1985; Sinclair *et al.*, 1990; Zhang, 1995; Zhang, 2002, 2008), *of* is regarded as a common preposition just like any other prepositions are, and the phrase with *of* is a prepositional phrase functioning as the Postmodification of the Head. In addition, the two nominal groups listed below in (1) and (2) have a structure identical to the nominal group *five of those books* where *of*-phrase is both regarded as the prepositional phrase serving as the Postmodifier or the Qualifier modifying or qualifying the Head of the matrix nominal group.

(1) *the confidant of three prime ministers*
(2) *the clash of two cultures*
(Fawcett, 2007, p. 175)

Figure 1 below shows the transformational analysis of the nominal group in (1) and (2). It is a formal and syntactic analysis in which every element of the nominal group is labeled by its word class, rather than by the function in the group.
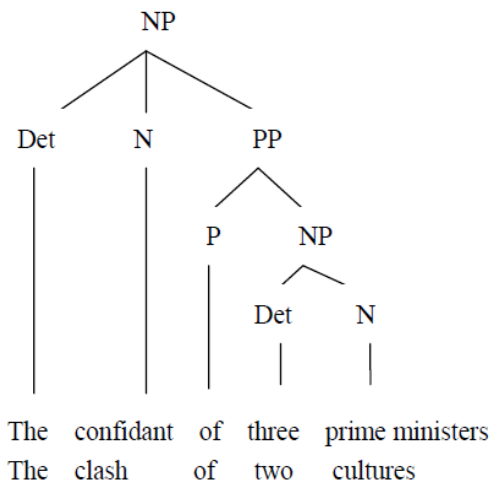
Figure 1: Transformational analysis of the nominal group with *of*-phrase
(NP=Noun Phrase, Det=Determiner, N=Noun, PP=Prepositional Phase, P=Preposition)

Thus, the transformational description is much similar to the systemic functional analysis in the aspect of lexicogrammar demonstrated in Table 1 below. In both examples, the matrix NP is made up of three immediate elements, Det, N and PP, and the PP consists of two immediate constituents, P and another NP as the Complement. The Noun in the structure functions as the Head, and the Determiner and the Prepositional Phrase as the Premodifier and the Postmodifier respectively. Similarly, the structure of *five of those books* can be illustrated in the same way.

To sum up, both the traditional and the transformational analyses stated above put much stress on the formal structure of the nominal group with *of*-phrase. The functional roles of the elements in the matrix structure are not discussed. By contrast, the SFL approach has an alternative way of looking at the structure of the two nominal groups as a consequence of the introduction of selection. In the following part, we shall concentrate on the SFL approach in depicting the nominal group of this type.

III.   THE SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS ANALYSIS

The Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL hereafter) approach is characterized by analyses of those types of nominal group with the quantifying selection. Different from the traditional approach and the transformational approach, the SFL approach explores the function, rather than the word class only, of the elements in the certain nominal group.

The analysis in Table 1 below demonstrates the SFL description of the nominal group in (1) and (2), and every immediate element of the nominal group are labeled by its specific function in the group structure. It is also shown that the item o*f* in these two examples is embedded in the prepositional phrase, rather than in the matrix nominal group. The internal structure of the prepositional phrase can be further analyzed by delicacy.

TABLE 1:
THE SFL ANALYSIS OF THE NOMINAL GROUP WITH *OF*-PHRASE

nominal group	*the*	*confidant*	*of*	*three*	*prime ministers*
	the	*clash*	*of*	*two*	*cultures*
lexicogrammar	determiner	noun	preposition	numeral	noun
				nominal group	
				prepositional phrase	
experiential structure	Deictic	Thing	Qualifier		
logical structure	Premodifier	Head	Postmodifier		
	β	α	β		
			Process	Range	
				Numerative	Thing

This table illustrates that the item *of* in (1) and (2) is a common preposition and functions as a minor verb. The SFL approach (*e.g.* Bloor and Bloor, 1995/2001; Halliday, 1985, 1994/2000; Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004; Thompson 1996/2000) does not specify the function of *of* in such a nominal group as *five of those books* in the experiential perspective. Besides, the terms Premodifier and Postmodifier seem to have more sense of the formal labels than that of the functional labels, for the prefix morpheme *pre* and *post* just have the same meaning as *before* and *after*.   In terms of the experiential structure, *a pack of* as a whole is regarded as the Numerative, but the internal structure of this Numerative is not analyzed by delicacy.

Prakasam (1996) treats these types of nominal groups as the construction of "NGp (Nominal Group) ^ of ^ NGp" structure, for the item that precedes and follows the item *of* is not a noun but a nominal group. If we take the nominal group in (1), *the confidant of three prime ministers*, as an example to state his arguments, the structure of the matrix nominal group is "NGp (*the confidant*) ^ of ^ NGp (*three prime ministers*)". In his approach, *five of those books* and *a*

pack of cards can also be analyzed in an identical way, and the elements before and after *of* are respectively two nominal groups. Admittedly, this analysis has its redeeming feature in that the idea of two relatively independent nominal groups preceding and following *of* gives us insight when discussing the concept of selection as follows. In addition, Prakasam (1996) provides the delicate analysis of the nominal group alike.

To conclude, among these analyses, it is the introduction of the concept of selection that seems to explain the internal semantic structure in a more persuasive way. The following part will present the details of the selection brought forward by the Cardiff Grammar (Fawcett, 2000, 2006, 2007).

IV. BASIC CONCEPTS OF SELECTION

The concept of selection related to the English nominal group is basically depicted in the Cardiff Grammar. It was Fawcett (1973/81) who introduced this concept to linguistics for the first time, providing novel insights into the intrinsic or the deep structure of the same language phenomenon. Moreover, the concept of selection makes the item *of* have a new function: selector in the specific kind of nominal group. This is the extension of the Cardiff Grammar to the whole theoretical framework of SFL.

The basic concepts of selection in the English nominal group by the Cardiff Grammar are presented in detail by Fawcett (2000, 2006, 2007). When analyzing selection, we cannot avoid mentioning again the word *of*, which is regarded by Fawcett either as a common preposition embedded in the prepositional group, or as a selector, a sister element with determiner, modifier, Head and qualifier in functional structure of the nominal group. Specifically, the two terms have the obvious difference that a preposition is a grammatical or syntactic unit, but a selector is a functional or semantic one referring to its function. As a consequence, the introduction of selection begins with distinguishing the item *of* either as a common preposition or as a selector.

When *of* serves as a common preposition, it has no difference from any other prepositions in the English nominal group. Namely, it is embedded in the prepositional group (prepositional phrase) that functions as the qualifier. Evidently, this analysis has much similarity to the traditional and the transformational analyses in the aspect of the formal structure, and it is even the same as Halliday's analysis. Still, we take the examples in (1) and (2) to see the similarities as well as the distinctions between the Cardiff approach and other approaches.
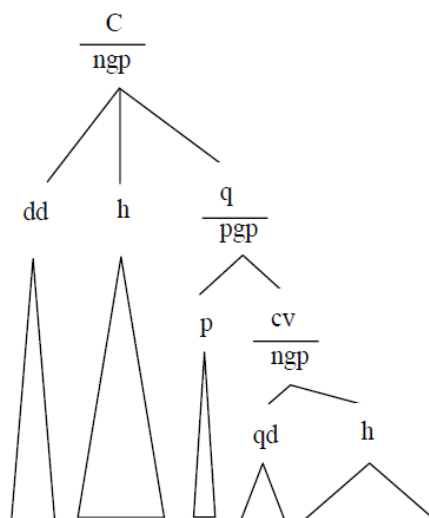
(1) (He was)   the confidant of three prime ministers.
(2) (It was)   the   clash   of two   cultures.
Figure 2: The 'prepositional group as qualifier' construction (Fawcett, 2007, p. 175）

Figure 2 above demonstrates the Cardiff approach to the functional structure of the nominal group with *of*-phrase when *of* is categorized as a common preposition. Although the whole tree diagram is much similar to the transformational tree diagram, the essential idea is different as the labels in this tree diagram are functional ones. In fact, the systemic functional approach is not only a functional but also a syntactic one, for it illustrates not only the function of each element but also the syntactic relationships between every element in the whole structure. In addition, the Cardiff approach even shows the delicate relationships by different symbols. Although it takes much space, the tree diagram meanwhile carries much more information than the words only. According to the Cardiff Grammar, this figure provides at least the following information:

First, the capital letter C stands for Complement, which is the function of an immediate element of the clause. The principle is that in the Cardiff Grammar the function of each immediate element of a clause is represented in the tree diagram by a capital letter. In contrast, no functional labels in the nominal group begin with a capital letter, and in the tree diagram a small letter is used.

Second, in these two nominal groups, the qualifier in each case is filled by a prepositional group in which *of* serves as a preposition. In both examples in (1) and (2), o*f* connects the different relationships. Namely, in the first clause, *of* connects the relationship between people, *the confidant* and *the three prime ministers*, and in the second it connects the relationship between the process and the participant role. The item *clash* is here a kind of process and *two cultures* is the participant role of the process.

When *of* is used as a common preposition, it functions just as any other prepositions do in terms of the location and the syntactic role it plays in the group. Simply, *of* is an element embedded in the prepositional group, and the prepositional group is embedded in the nominal group. Traditionally, the element after the preposition is named object, but in the Cardiff Grammar it is labeled as a completive.

To summarize, this section discussed the Cardiff way of looking at *of* as a common preposition embedded in the prepositional group that functions as the qualifier of the nominal group. As was pointed out earlier at the beginning of this section, *of* also functions as a selector embedded in the nominal group, which will be elaborated in the section right below.

Fawcett (2008, p. 72) points out that "the main problem for syntax analyst who is analyzing the sentences of a natural text is usually this: which words go with which to form a unit WITHIN a clause". Although Fawcett refers to the aspect of the clause, this argument is also applied to the case of a nominal group in that the embedding situation of a certain item in the structure needs to be identified. More specifically, whether *of* is embedded in the prepositional group or in the nominal group determines the functional role it plays.

When it comes to the selection in the nominal group, the concept *referent* should be clarified, for the selection actually occurs between the different referents within the matrix nominal group. In the theoretical basis of the Cardiff Grammar, each English nominal group has a specific referent. As far as the nominal group containing selection is concerned, it may contain more than one small nominal group, and each nominal group has a referent.

In the first place, the concept *reference* has a close and direct association with the concept *referent*. The definitions below may help us to have a general idea of what *referent* of a nominal group refers to.

1. Reference is (in semantics) the relationship between words and the things, actions, events, and qualities they stand for.

2. Reference in its wide sense would be the relationship between a word or phrase and an entity in the external world. For an example, the word *tree* refers to the object 'tree' (the referent).

3. Reference in its narrow sense is the relationship between a word or phrase and a specific object, *e.g.* a particular tree or a particular animal. For an example, *Peter's horse* would refer to a horse which is owned, ridden by, or in some way associated with Peter.

(Richards, Platt and Platt, 1992/2000, p. 389)

From the definitions above, we can infer that reference is simply the relationship between the linguistic item and the entity, abstract or concrete, in the real world, and the entity in the real world is termed as the referent. The concept of referent in the framework of the Cardiff Grammar has a close connection with the definitions here. According to the Cardiff Grammar, every English nominal group has at least one referent, and the referent can be either in singular or in plural form and either concrete or abstract. For instance, the nominal group *those two splendid old electric trains with pantographs* has only one referent, *i.e.,* two trains with special qualities in the real world, and this referent is in plural form and is concrete.

Selection occurs only when a nominal group has more than one referent and it is obviously the case that selection cannot play its role when a nominal group has only one referent. In this sense, the selection occurs between different referents represented by the different nominal groups. In other words, only when a matrix nominal group has at least two sub-nominal groups can selection find its place. Fawcett (2007, p. 183) points out that selection means "one referent is being selected from 'within' (in a broad sense of that term) another referent". The referent can also be either particularized or unparticularized. The leftmost referent is the substantive referent, while the rightmost referent is the widest one.

This concept is to be made clear further through the nominal group *five of those books*. This matrix nominal group has two referents, one of which is the referent of *those books*, and the other of which is the referent of *five of those books*. This is what reference refers to in the third definition by Richards, Platt and Platt (1992/2000, p. 389) above. The referent of *five of those books*, which is the substantive referent, is more particularized and it is selected from that of *those books*, which is the widest referent and more unparticularized compared with the substantive referent. Selection in this sense occurs between these two referents, and the matrix nominal group is thus composed of four parallel immediate elements, qd, v, dd and h. In the tree diagram description, the selector is represented by the letter *v*.

The selection in *five of those books* is called selection by quantity, and according to Fawcett (2006, 2007) the relationship between *five* and *books* in *five books* is just the same as that between *five* and *those books* in *five of those books*. The selection in the nominal group *five books* is also a kind of quantifying selection. The referent of *books* is an unparticularized referent referring to all the books in the world, while the referent of *those books* is a particularized one referring to specific books. Selection here occurs without being made overt in the selector *of,* and consequently it is a kind of covert selection, compared with the overt selection in *five of those books*.

Five is labeled as the quantifying determiner in this sense, but not all *five* is the quantifying determiner. In the

following example in (3), *five* is a quantifying modifier (qtm) for it is used to depict the referent rather than to give the numerical information (Fawcett, 2006, p. 197).

(3) *her five grandchildren*

We have examined one kind of selection, the selection by quantity (or the quantifying selection), and there are many other types of selections in the Cardiff Grammar, to be dealt with other papers.

So far, we have briefly reviewed the concept of selection, and have had a brief glance of the quantifying selection. Admittedly, the introduction of selection can more clearly depict the internal structure of the English nominal group of this kind. Naturally, further improvements or modifications are still needed, for some of these selections are over-generalized and some types of selection cannot reflect the functional structure of the matrix nominal group. Possible modification will be concerned with the recognition of the preposition and the selector, the identification of the Head, the recognition of selection, and the analysis of the similar nominal group by delicacy.

V. IDENTIFICATION OF THE PREPOSITION AND THE SELECTOR

It was stated earlier that *of* in the English text is a very frequently used word. Based on our analysis above, it functions either as a common preposition or as a selector. It has been pointed out that these two terms are quite different in that the former is a syntactic unit and the latter a functional one. The principle of recognizing these two different concepts is the main focus of this section.

The analysis of the above examples indicates that the two nominal groups *the confidant of three prime ministers* and *five of those books* are similar in structure but different in the focus of meaning in terms of reference. The concept of selection provides alternative perspectives in analyzing the similar nominal groups and this is a great contribution to SFL in the aspect of lexicogrammar. This section will discuss these differences, attempting to conclude how to recognize whether selection occurs in the nominal group by identifying the different relationships between the referents.

Above all, not only the nominal group with selection has two or more referents. Each of the two nominal groups, *the confidant of three prime ministers* and *five of those books,* has two referents. In the former case, the referents are *the confidant* and *three prime ministers*, with *the confidant* referring to one person and *three prime ministers* referring to three other persons. In the latter case, the two referents are *five* (*books*) and *those books*, with the referent of *five* (*books*) selected from that of *those books* that refers to books of the certain number. The following example (4) is slightly different from the above two.

(4) *the release of three of their colleagues*

This nominal group contains three referents, with *the release* referring to an action, *three* referring to three persons, and *their colleagues* referring to many persons. Besides, the first *of* connects the relationship between the process and the participant role and the second *of* connects the relationship between people. According to the analysis above, the first *of* is a preposition and the second one is a selector.

When looked into further, the relationships between the referents in the above cases are not the same. In (1) and (2), the two referents do not belong to the same type of entity in that *the confidant* does not refer to one person among the three persons represented by *three prime ministers*. In other words, the two referents do not express the same cultural classification, and thus *of* serves as a common preposition and the prepositional group with *of* is labeled as the qualifier of the nominal group. In the example *five of those books*, on the other hand, the two referents denote the identical cultural classification, *books*. The referent of *five* (*books*) is the member of that of *those books*, and in view of this, selection occurs in the sense that the referent of *five* (*books*) is selected from that of *those books*. As to the example (4), *the release of three of their colleagues*, the first *of* is a preposition and the second one is a selector, for the first *of* relates the process (*the release*) to the participant role (*three persons*), and the referent of *three* is selected from that of *their colleagues*.

In light of these distinctions, a conclusion can be drawn that in the nominal group with *of*, *of* functions as a selector when the referents belong to the same cultural classification, and as a common preposition if the referents are not categorized in the same cultural classification. This is the criterion to recognize whether or not the selection exists in the English nominal group.

As to the example *five books*, Fawcett (2006, 2007) argues that the structure is just the same as that of *five of those books*. This is over-generalized and thus unnecessary. If *five books* contains selection, any nominal group does. The example we have analyzed above, *those two splendid old electric trains with pantographs,* also has selection, for it refers to the two trains selected from all the trains in the world. It is suggested that we treat *five* as the quantifying determiner, and *books* as the Head in the nominal group *five books*.

VI. THE NOMINAL GROUP WITH THE QUANTIFYING SELECTION

Identifying the Head of the nominal group is the first step, and the delicate analysis of the matrix structure is conducted revolving the Head. We argued in Chapter 5 that the Head in the nominal group *five of those books* is *five*, for it has a covert Head expressing the cultural classification of the referent. Meanwhile, *of* functions as a selector in this case. However, there may also arise a question: How do we label the other two elements, *those* and *books*? Evidently, they must have new names, or more exactly, new functional roles.

As to the structure of *five of those books*, Fawcett (2006, 2007) provides three options, two of which are shown in Figure 3 and Figure 4 respectively. Fawcett discusses in detail the problem of these two analyses. His argument is that to consider *of* as a common preposition may cause a further problem hard to solve. In other words, it is difficult for us to label the element with question mark in the two figures. Admittedly, it is not appropriate to treat *of* in this example as a common preposition simply because it is hard to identify the functions of the other elements in the same way in dealing with the functional structure of the nominal group with prepositional group as the qualifier.

In view of the problems of the two options, Fawcett (2006, 2007) provides his solution by introducing the concept of selection. In the third option, the item *five* is treated as the quantifying determiner, *of* as the selector, *those* as the deictic determiner, and *books* as the Head. It is in the present section that we will discuss the problem of the third option. Li (2009b) conducts an analysis, but we shall make a restatement and modification here in this part.

The analysis in Figure 1 indicates that the four elements *five, of, those, books* are on the same level of status in the matrix nominal group. In other words, the four elements are sister elements in the matrix construction. As far as the selection is concerned, the referent of *five* is selected from that of *those books*, rather than from that of *books*. In this sense, the nominal group seems to have three elements, which are *five*, *of* and *those books*. The element *five* has the same status as *those books* as a whole instead of as *those* and *books* respectively. Consequently, the matrix nominal group contains three immediate elements, rather than four, and this reflects the semantic relationship between the different referents within the matrix nominal group. To summarize, it seems that there should be three elements in a nominal group with the quantifying selection: (1) an element that is selected, (2) selector and (3) an element that is selected from by the selector.
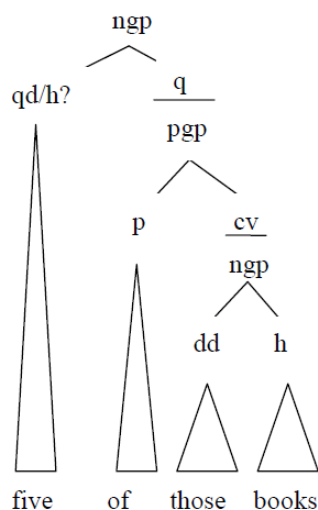
Figure 3: The structure of a nominal group (1)   (Fawcett, 2006, p. 192)
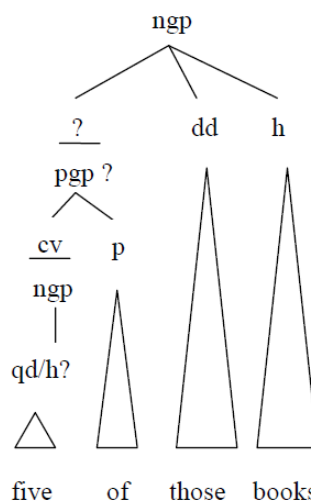
Figure 4: The structure of a nominal group (2) (Fawcett, 2006, p. 193)

From the above explanations, we note that the referent of *those books* is what is selected from by the selector. Can we just give it a new name **selected from** and label it as *sf*? This is a sister element with Head and selector, and then the *sf* is filled by another nominal group. Thus, the headword becomes the referent of the matrix nominal group. As was found above, *five* is what is selected, and thus it should serve as the Head of the whole group. Figure 5 below is the modified version of the structure of this nominal group, and the analysis suggests that the English nominal group containing the quantifying selection has three elements, h, v and sf. This analysis may also cause problems to the basic structure of the English nominal group "Modifier ^ Head ^ Qualifier". In fact, the introduction of the concept of selection to the analysis of the English nominal group has already made a modification to the basic nominal group structure "Modifier ^ Head ^ Qualifier", for it is not appropriate to regard selector as a Premodifier or Postmodifier.

Figure 6 is the modified analysis of the nominal group in (4), in which *of* functions as a preposition and a selector respectively. The revised version reveals the logical relationship between the Head and the other elements: the referent of the Head is selected from that of another element, and each element can be further analyzed. The nominal group with the quantifying selection has a three-element structure.

The above argument is the brief summary of previous analysis (Li, 2009). Specifically, the term *sf* used seems brusque and risky, and thus we need a more appropriate label to take its place. Can we be adventurous again to borrow the name used by Halliday (1994/2000) in describing the functional structure of the English nominal group? Since it is a technical term used in the framework of SFL, it is more acceptable to replace the name *selected from* by Thing, abbreviated as *th* in the tree diagram. Another good reason to use the term Thing is that *th* is the combination of the first letters of the word *Head* and *Thing*.

For one thing, Thing is just the thing being talked about, and the referent of the Head is selected from that of the

Thing. Thing is the element in the nominal group expressing the cultural classification. Based on this principle, the two nominal groups can be analyzed in the way shown in Figure 7 and Figure 8 below.

The linear analysis of the two nominal groups is presented as follows:

five [h] *of* [v] *those* [dd] *books* [th]

the [dd] *release* [h] *of* [p] *three* [h] *of* [v] *their* [dd] *colleagues* [th]
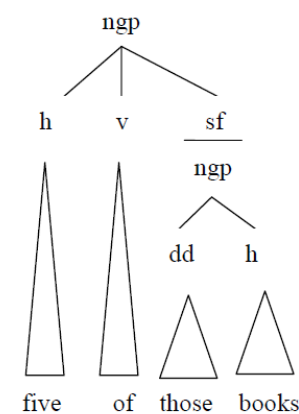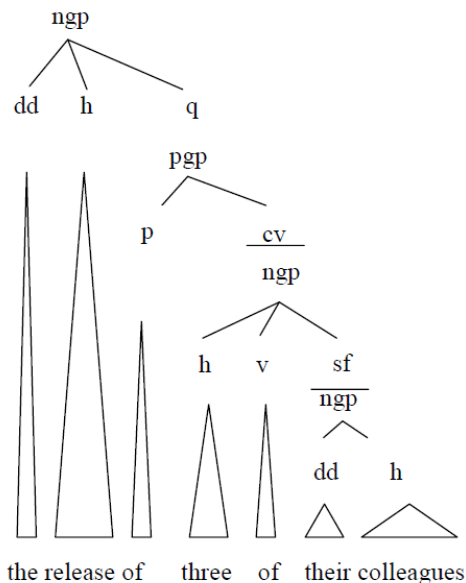
Figure 5: The modified structure of a nominal group with 'selection'

Figure 6: The structure of a nominal group with *of* as both a preposition and a selector

Figure 7: The modified analysis of the structure of a nominal group with 'selection'

Figure 8: The modified analysis of the structure of a nominal group with *of* as both a preposition and a selector.

In the latter case, the item *release* is the Head of the matrix nominal group *the release of three of their colleagues*, but the item *three* is the Head of the nominal group *three of their colleagues* functioning as the completive of the preposition *of*.

VII. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This paper focuses on the delicate analysis of the English nominal group with the quantifying selection. The chapter began by summarizing the traditional approach and the transformational approach to the English nominal group with the word *of*. These two approaches both treat *of* as a common preposition embedded in the prepositional phrase functioning as the Qualifier of the nominal group and modifying the Head. Distinctively, the SFL approach describes the functional structure of the nominal group of this kind, and every element in the structure is given a functional label.

Furthermore, the introduction of the concept of selection provides an alternative perspective to explore the nominal group with the item *of*. We then reviewed the definition of reference and referent that are closely associated with the concept of selection. On this basis, we provided our arguments of the criterion to distinguish the role of the item *of* either as a preposition or as a selector in the English nominal group. The key point is to identify whether it is embedded in the prepositional phrase or in the nominal group.

We then progressed to the delicate analysis of the nominal group containing the quantifying selection by using *five of those books* as an example of illustration. Since the Head identification of the nominal group of this kind had been explored in the previous chapter, this chapter dealt with the functions of the other elements by delicacy. To serve the purpose, we boldly borrowed the term *Thing* used by Halliday (1994/2000). All these considerations result in out modified analysis of the nominal group of this kind within the framework of SFL.

Based on all of the arguments, we come to the conclusions about the nominal group with the quantifying selection as follows: (1) There is great necessity to introduce the concept of selection in depicting the English nominal group, and it is the contribution to the whole system of SFL. Selection reveals the internal logical relationship among the elements of the English nominal group. (2) The function of each element in the nominal group is determined more by its collocations with the other elements in the structure than by its word class. In our terms, the embedding or the dependency relationship among the elements is vital in identifying the function of a particular element. As a consequence, it is not appropriate to treat *of* as a common preposition, or as a selector in all cases. The functional role of the item *of* depends upon the different embeddings and the semantic core of the group. (3) The Cardiff description of the nominal group containing selection also needs improvement and modification. The analysis in the present paper indicates that Head and Thing may or may not coincide and that they can co-occur in the same nominal group in which the referent of the Head is selected from that of the Thing.

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Manliang Li was born in Hohhot, Inner Mongolia, China, in 1975. He received his B. A. degree in English language and literature at School of Foreign Languages, Inner Mongolia University, Hohhot, Inner Mongolia, China in 1999. Then he received his M. A. degree in discourse analysis and Ph. D. in systemic functional linguistics at School of Foreign Languages, Sun Yat-sen University, Guangzhou, Guangdong Province, China, in 2005 and 2010. He is currently associate professor and M. A. supervisor of linguistics at School of Foreign Languages, Inner Mongolia University. His research interests include systemic functional linguistics, discourse analysis, English and Chinese grammar, and translation studies.

English Compliment Response Strategies on Social Networks by Iranian EFL Learners

Zeinab Gholamali Dehkordi

Deportment of English, Khorasgan (Isfahan) Branch, Islamic Azad University, Isfahan, Iran

Azizeh Chalak

Deportment of English, Khorasgan (Isfahan) Branch, Islamic Azad University, Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—**Development of technology including computers and the Internet has introduced a new channel of sharing ideas and beliefs in social networks all over the world. Despite a huge number of studies on compliment, this verbal behavior has not received sufficient attention in such contexts as online communication in social networks. This study aimed to investigate the realization of English compliment response strategies by Iranian English as Foreign Language (EFL) Learners on social networks. To this end, a sample of 30 Iranian EFL learners studying at Islamic Azad University, Khorasgan Branch (IAUKB) was selected from friend's list on social networks. Observing ethical issues, participants' compliments and compliment response strategies were recorded, classified, analyzed in terms of frequency and percentage, and then interpreted. The findings revealed that the most frequent response strategy to English compliments was acceptance strategies at macro level and appreciation token at micro level. The findings of this study may benefit teachers, linguists, language learners, and others interested in language learning and teaching.**

Index Terms—**compliment response strategy, social networks, Iranian EFL learners**

I. INTRODUCTION

Social networks have increasingly become popular means of communication all over the world. They have provided users a unique mean through which individuals communicate, interact, self present, and share their ideas or their personal life. Through social networks users interact via a medium in which both personal and mass communications are provided. These web-based sites have enabled individuals novel means of communicating as such a new medium of context for research in speech act was introduced.

Thanks to computer-mediated communication, social networks have provided users to interact beyond borders. Although in computer-mediated communications many clues such as voice, facial expressions, and non-verbal gestures are absent, these limitations have hardly limited individuals, instead they have been increasingly popular and more and more social networks are being created. As a result, computer-mediated communications have turned as one of the most popular means of communication in the world. Social networks enable members to create personal profiles in which they can share pictures, contact information, hobbies, hometown, academic status, affiliation, political view, religious beliefs, and relationship status, sexual preferences, and favorite music and books with other members. Although speech acts on social networks are linguistically natural, these sites offer a unique and public context in which speech and utterance are mostly different from face to face context. In the following some studies on social network sites will be come.

Social network sites are host of pictures of users in different situation profile pages. One could infer that posting such pictures may be an attempt to fish for compliments by other individuals and respond to these compliments to maintain relationships. By the popularity of internet and its world wide access, social networks are generally accessible through any device that can access to internet. It is believed that the population of social networks users will grow due to its popularity, furthermore, technology has expanded and become increasingly available all over the world.

Social networks are very popular for a variety of users for different proposes, for example, for adolescents and young adults the primary application of them is as means of entertainment beyond social interconnectedness. For middle-age individuals social networks are means of communicating or keeping in touch with friends, families and colleagues. It is also useful for elderly because it is a mean of viewing photographs and videos of their families in a convenient way.

Although studies on social networks abound, teaching English as a foreign language approach study on social networks has been ignored greatly in social networks. Previous studies on social networks were mostly psychologically important and speech acts including complimenting were not investigated sufficiently. Complimenting, on the other hand, has received enough attention in the literature both in Iran and in other countries, but this speech act has been ignored in Persian and on social networks. This study, however, is on the speech act of compliment on social networks among Iranian EFL learners. In the following a short review of related literature on speech act of compliment will be presented.

II. Literature Review

Compliment is a speech act which is frequently used in social interactions and communications. This speech act has motivated many researchers to conduct research studies based on topic, lexicon and structure, and function of compliments as well as variables like age, Social distance, and cultural schema of speakers which effect complimenting behavior. In addition to compliments, the second part of the compliment, the response, was also subject of many studies. Speech acts, however, is a context bond linguistic phenomenon and cannot be studied independent of culture. Social networks provide many people from all over the world to share their ideas, images, and latest events and are becoming host of complimenting behavior. Iranian EFL learners have showed great tendency toward using these social networks since they are one of the main means of self-expression for them and a computer mediated way of communication by which they can use and apply their second language. Social networks proved to be a good source of data collection where compliment and compliment responses were frequently uttered. This has motivated the researcher to find a great interest in naturally occurring data collection in social networking sites.

Holmes (1986) defines compliment as "a speech act which explicitly or implicitly attributes credit to someone other than speaker, usually the person addressed, for some good (possessions, characteristic, accomplishment, etc.) which is positively valued by the speaker and the hearer" (p.485). She also maintained that compliments function as *social lubricants* which act as opener in conversations and sustain conversations occurring mainly in friendly small talk in which neutral topics can be introduced between unfamiliar interlocutors. Compliment and compliment responses have been investigated regarding different variables such as function and the purpose that a compliment serves, topic of compliment, the syntactic structure and lexicon which compliments carry, social distance and age, and the effect of gender on compliment (Manes, 1983; Holmes, 1986; Wolfson, 1983). It should be considered that the speech act of compliment is composed of two parts each of them have been the subject of investigations in different settings and cultures. Complimenting has been the subject of study for many years. They are many cross cultural studies on compliment and compliment responses regarding different variables. As sited in Abdul Karim (2011) study there have been many studies on this issue (Barnlund & Araki, 1985; Creese, 1991; Daikuhara, 1986; Farghal & Hagan, 2006; Han, 1992; Jaworski, 1995; Loronzodus, 2001; Nelson et al, 1996; Wieland, 1995; Yu, 2004).

To start reviewing empirical research on compliments, it is worthy to elaborate different variables in compliment research and different classification of compliment responses. The adjacency part of the compliment, the response, provided a ground for further investigation. Herbert (1989) defines compliment responses as "… anything that follows an identifiable compliment" (p. 38). In conversational mechanism compliments and compliment responses are considered as an adjacency pair and compliment responses have function of maintaining solidarity between interlocutors as well. Compliment responses were classified into different categories (Holmes 1986, 1988; Herbert, 1986; Pomerantz, 1987). In early studies on compliments, the second part of the adjacent pair of compliments, the response, was taken in to account. Herbert and Pomerantz classified compliment responses into different categories.

Karimnia and Afghari (2010) investigated the applicability of natural semantic metalanguage for EFL learners. They analyzed the compliment responses based on Pomerant`s (1978) classification. By analyzing the data from Persian and English programs on TV channels, they found that self-lowering and other-raising pattern is very common in Iranian compliment responses. On the other hand, English data proved that this strategy does not occur in English very often; instead the agreement strategy is used more often.

Yousefvand (2012) examined different range of strategies used in responding to compliment. Her findings revealed that the general tendency of the Persian speakers in responding to compliments was agreement. Furthermore, approximately one–third of the compliment exchanges were formulaic expressions in order to avoid self- praise and to express their modesty. Expressions needed to be understood in Persian language and culture context. Behnami and Amizadeh (2011) examined compliment and compliment response speech acts cross-culturally. They investigated the topic and the function of the compliments and the way interlocutors responded to the compliments in the Persian and American TV interviews. They found that in both English and Persian programs, compliments were used as a mean to perform different functions.

Tajeddin and Yazdanmehr (2012) investigated the structure and pragmatic functions of compliments that lie behind EFL learners' choice of specific wording. They investigated the structure and pragmatic functions of compliment responses based on relative status of addresser and addressee and the degree of formality. Motaghi-Tabari and Beuzevile (2012) in a contrastive study of compliment responses investigated the effect of exposure on Persian speakers on Australia. Mohajernia and solimani (2013) investigated different strategies of compliment responses used by Iranian EFL learners and those of Australian English speakers with regard to socio-cultural patterns. They found that Iranian EFL learners are less willing to accept compliment in comparison to Australian. Also EFL learners show more modesty and humanity rooted in Iranian cultures.

III. Statement of the Problem

Learning a language is learning the linguistic forms and functions of the language, in other word, one cannot grantee his or her language learning without pragmalimguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge of the target language. Forms and functions of a language are highly interrelated so that learning of the language is not fulfilled without interaction of both.

EFL learners and language teachers are mostly concerned with the forms and structure of language and usually overlook the importance of pragmalingustic or sociopragmatic knowledge of language which usually results in lack of proper communication and interaction although being master of linguistic forms. To prevent this, more studies should be conducted on the effect and importance of pragmatic knowledge to assist language teachers, researchers, and EFL learners to prevent cultural transfer as much as possible and to improve learners' performance to an optimal level for communication across cultures.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the most frequent compliment response strategy to English compliments uttered by Iranian EFL learners on social network sits. To achieve the objective of the study, following research questions was considered:

What is the most frequent compliment response strategy to English compliments on social networks uttered   by Iranian EFL learners?

V. METHOD

This study enjoyed naturalistic, controlled observation, and recording of naturally occurring compliments and compliment response strategies among Iranian EFL learners on social networks. This descriptive qualitative study was process oriented where participants' response strategies to English compliments were analyzed. Compliment responses were recorded and classified in terms of frequency and percentage for investigation of the most frequent response strategy English compliments. In the following, information about the participants and instruments will be presented and procedures of data collection and analysis will be elaborated.

A. Participant

The participants of the present study were a group of 30 graduate and undergraduate Iranian EFL learners, studying English at Islamic Azad University, Khorasgan Branch. The participants were chosen from a pool of social networks users based on their field of study at university. The age range of the participants was from 23 to 43 with the average age of 25.8. All participants were native speakers of Persian and they were learners of English as foreign language (EFL). The main reason for selecting the participant was that they were studying English. The researcher was also familiar with all of them through her friend list. Table3.1 summaries the demographic background of the participants taking part in the study.

TABLE.1
DEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND OF THE PARTICIPANTS

Number of Participants	30
Mother Tongue	Persian
Age	23-43
Level of Education	Graduate and undergraduate

B. Instruments

To answer the research questions, two different instruments were designed to collect the data. These instruments were applied to ensure the researcher for data collection and data analysis procedures. To observe ethical issues on data collection, friends were sent contest forms (see Appendix A) in which they were asked to express their agreement in sharing their comments they received on their photos. Moreover, to ensure confidentiality, they were informed that their names and other personal information would not be shared and published. To prevent any confusion or misunderstanding, the consent forms were in Persian. Participants were asked to fill out the forms completely and express their agreement by sending the forms back through personal massages or e-mails. All compliment responses were coded and classified according to Herbert`s (1986) Compliment response strategy taxonomy. In this taxonomy response strategies were divided into three macro levels of agreement, non-agreement, and other interpretations. When the data were analyzed, it was observed that most strategies in non-agreement were not used at all by the participants; as a result, the taxonomy was modified and compliment response strategies were divided into two macro level of acceptance and non-acceptance strategies (see Appendix B). The data, then, were classified according to modified version of Herbert's taxonomy.

C. Data Collection and Data Analysis Procedures

The present study mainly focused on English naturally occurring compliments among Iranian EFL learners on social networks. In order to collect the desired data, the researcher used her social networks account and selected 50 social networks friends who were all Iranian EFL learners studying at Islamic Azad University of Isfahan, Khorasgan Branch. In order to observe ethical issues, all participants were sent consent forms by personal messages and they were required to express their agreement by sending back messages in following 10 days. From all 50 participants, 30 friends returned the messages and they were finally selected as participants of the study. To uncover any problem of proposed

procedures and methods, a pilot study was carried out before the main study. It was done to assess the feasibility and usefulness of data collection method and to revise any necessary changes. The result of pilot study proved the feasibility of data collection and method to finalize the method of the study.

Having received contest forms from the participants, their profiles were examined from March first to June first and any English compliments and compliments responses uttered by the participants on their profile pictures were recorded. Compliments pairs were classified at two levels. These two Levels were on the base of the language which participants responded to compliments; that is Level One comprised those pairs which the second parts, the responses, were in English. Level Two on the other hand, were those pairs which their first parts, the compliments, were uttered in English but responses were in Persian. For more clarification some examples were provided. Classification of responses is represented in following Tables.

TABLE2.
COMPLIMENT RESPONSES CLASSIFICATION IN ENGLISH

Level One
A. English Compliments
B. Compliment Responses in English
a. You look so beautiful
b. Thank you dear
Level Two
A. English Compliments
B. Compliment Responses in Persian
b. Mamnon Azizam
a. So nice

Having recorded and classified compliment responses, the data were categorized on the base of modified version of Herbert`s (1986) taxonomy. The number of recorded compliment responses at Level One and Two was 65 and 67 respectively. Since the data was naturally occurring speech acts, it was no control over the number of responses or the distribution of utterances. The data were classified and the frequency and percentage of each strategy was measured. The data in both levels were first divided at macro-strategies of acceptance and non-acceptance and then were further divided into micro-strategies. Micro strategies in acceptance were strategies such as appreciation token, comment history, and praise upgrade and in non-acceptance were return, scale down, comment history, and reassignment. The data was classified on the base of the modified compliment responses taxonomy. The data, then, was coded and classified in terms of frequency and percentage to measure the most frequent response strategy in each Level.

The researcher was actively engaged in data collection procedure. The researcher was both an observer and a participant who frequently gave and received compliments both in Persian and English to stimulate the participants in complimenting as naturally as possible, and compliments were constantly checked and recorded by the researcher.

VI. FINDINGS

Having recorded all compliments and compliment responses (132 compliment pairs) in the specified period of time; they were divided into two levels. Level One was those compliment responses which the compliment, the first part of compliment pair, was in English and the second part was in English as well that is the complimenting pairs was in English. Level Two comprises of those compliment pairs in which the responses were in Persian to English compliments. The participants' response strategies to English compliments were classified and coded into nominal categories and they were analyzed in terms of frequency and percentage. Categorization of response strategies was based on Herbert's (1986) taxonomy with some modification made by the researcher (See Appendix B).

A. Level One: English Responses to English Compliments

As it is shown in Table 1, in Level One from the total number of 132 English compliments less than half of the compliment responses were in English and more than half of the compliment responses were uttered in Persian. This distribution suggests that in natural setting Iranian EFL learners are not biased in using their mother tongue or their second language in responding to the compliments.

TABLE 1.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES TO ENGLISH COMPLIMENTS

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
English responses (Level One)	65	49.25
Persian responses (Level Two)	67	50.75

N=132

By analyzing the data it was revealed that participants applied acceptance strategy for responding to English compliments considerably. The data revealed that a great number of response strategies were appreciation token strategy while less than one fifth of responses were strategies other than acceptance. When compliment response strategies were analyzed at macro level, it was found that a good number of compliment responses were acceptance while less than one-fifth of response strategies were non-acceptance at macro-level. Furthermore analysis at micro-level

revealed that more than three fourth of English responses to English compliments were appreciation token. Detail explanation of response strategies are represented in Table .2.

TABLE .2
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF ENGLISH RESPONSE STRATEGIES AT MACRO AND MICRO LEVELS (LEVEL ONE)

English Response Strategies		
	Frequency	Percentage
Acceptance (Macro-Level)	56	86.15
Appreciation Token	50	77
Comment acceptance	4	6
Praise up grade	2	3
Non-acceptance (Macro-Level)	9	13.84
Comment History	1	1.5
Return	7	10
Reassignment	1	1.5
N.65		

B. Level Two: Persian Responses to English Compliments

Nearly half of the responses to English compliments were uttered in Persian. Analysis of Persian compliment response strategies to English compliment showed that majority of response strategies are agreement and fall into the category of acceptance at macro level; that is, three fourth of all Persian strategies are acceptance strategy, while around a quarter fall into the category of non-acceptance response strategy. In this part, participant proved that their choice of language, English or Persian, to respond to the compliment does not influence the choice of compliments strategy that is in both cases participants used appreciation token strategy as the dominant compliment response strategy to English compliments at micro-level.

TABLE.3.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF PERSIAN RESPONSE STRATEGIES AT MACRO AND MICRO LEVELS (LEVEL TWO)

Persian Response Strategies		
	Frequency	Percentage
Acceptance (Macro-Level)	48	71.63
Appreciation Token	33	49.25
Comment acceptance	6	8.95
Praise up grade	11	16.40
Non-acceptance (Macro-Level)	19	28.37
Comment History	3	4.47
Return	10	14.93
Scale down	4	6
Reassignment	0	0
N.67		

Analysis of the data at micro level (Table.3) suggested that the most frequent response strategy uttered in Persian to English compliments was appreciation token which is around half of the responses. Praise up grade and return strategies came next respectively. In this classification there were some responses which suggested scale down strategy which was absent in English responses, the percentage of scale down strategy is not high enough though. Reassignment strategy, however, did not occur in this classification.

VII. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study was conducted to answer the following question. The research question will be answered regarding the findings of the study and those of previous studies. The implications and limitations of the study will come next and this part will end with some suggestions for future remarks.

What is the most frequent response strategy to English compliments among Iranian EFL learners?

As for the English responses to English compliments, results revealed that Iranian EFL learners showed a great tendency to use agreement strategies while responding to English compliments. A great number of response strategies to English compliments at macro level were acceptance strategy which shows the agreement of the complimentee with compliment. Appreciation token was the most frequent strategy in responding to English compliments at micro level. Analysis of English and Persian responses to English compliments revealed that, participants mostly appreciate the complimenter. This finding is not different from previous studies conducted in Iran or on Persian speakers (Karimnia &Afghar, 2010; Mohajernia & Solimani, 2013; Tajedin & Yazdanmehr, 2012; Tabari & Beuzevil, 2012; Yousefvand, 2012). These findings, however, proved that there is a great tendency to use telegraphic conversation in English which restricted participants from using different types of response strategies. The frequency of appreciation token strategy was so high that other response strategy was not considerable in number but it was found that comment history and praise upgrade were used to show acceptance while return and scale down strategies were used as a non-acceptance strategy. As a result, the most frequent response strategy was appreciation token in both levels. It was found that in both way of responding, English or Persian, a great number of compliment response strategies were appreciation token.

However, participants showed that when they use English as the medium of complimenting they were more willing to use appreciation token in comparison to Persian. That is, although appreciation token was the most frequent response strategy at both levels, the number of its occurrence at level one was higher and participants used other different strategies for responding when they applied Persian as the medium of responding.

The findings suggested that EFL learners accepted the compliments in social networks therefore the most frequent response strategy in both levels was appreciation token. In other response strategies, at level two, when responses other than appreciation token strategy were analyzed, it was found that the participant used comment history, as well as scale down strategy to show their modesty and returned a compliment to show their politeness. These findings are in line with those of previous studies by Behnami and Amizzadeh (2011), Karamnia And Afghari (2010), Motaghi-Tabari and Beuzevil (2012), Tajedin and Yazdan Mehr (2012), and Yousefvand (2012) but in contrast with those by Mohajernia and Solimani (2013) which proved that the most frequent compliment response strategy is not agreement strategy. The findings of this study proved that Iranian EFL learner manifested different tendency when responding to English compliments. The data proved that the participants' choice of language for responding to English compliments do not influence the compliment strategy greatly. Iranian EFL learners showed great tendency toward appreciation token strategy as the dominate compliment response strategy to English compliments on social networking sites. In other words, the most frequent compliment response strategy to English compliments were appreciation token strategy which is highly related to politeness in Iranian culture.

In social networks some compliment response strategies did not used at all and expressing agreement to compliments is the most frequent compliment response strategy. It can be concluded that social networking sits are one of the main means of self expression by which individuals show their attachment to the modern world while still manifest and represent their Persian cultural schemas.

This study has some linguistic features as well as pedagogical ones which can be useful for the field of linguistic. This study dealt with a speech event in social networks, the results can be linguistically significant. Social networks have provided a common ground for communication and interaction for people regardless of time and space. The utterances on social networks are truly natural because no one has force users to join and leave comments. Although utterances are naturally occurred, they suffer from facial expression and voice features; therefore individuals try to overcome this shortcoming through their wordings and structure of sentence. The wording and structure of sentences are neither similar to natural wording in speech nor in writing. This uniqueness can be a good reason for more research on this area.

It is believed that by development of social networking sites more and more individuals are joining and producing a language which is both natural and different from speech out of cyber world. To conclude, it is highly recommended that researchers in the field of linguistic consider the changes and innovation in the speech events occurring on social networking sites.

Although the researcher tried to control all factors regarding validity and generalization, this study suffered from some limitations. Since social networking sites' users are great in number, it would be better if the participants were in a larger size. It is recommended to examine the complimenting behavior of more social networks' users to see how complimenting behavior can be generalized.

Another shortcoming is that, this study had no control group for Persian and English compliment responses, it would be better if there were two Persian and English native speakers groups for comparison of strategies across groups.

Another point might be that the period of data collection could be longer. Since the data was naturally occurred and there was no specific control over the data collection, it would be better if the researcher could collect more data and based the findings more confidently. The current study was done on compliment response strategies in English and Persian, further studies can be conducted on compliments and other speech acts like request or apology. It is also recommended to develop more studies on wording and structure of compliments since wording on social networking sites are used differently from face to face interactions. Some other status massages like congratulations and wishing happy birthday could have interesting results for further investigations on social networking sites.

APPENDIX A

دوست گرامی
این فرم جهت همکاری شما برای انجام پروژه تحقیقاتی ارسال گریده است در صورت تمایل به همکاری فرم حاضر را تکمیل نموده و سپس از طریق پیام شخصی یا ایمیل بازگردانید. از همکاری شما سپاسگزارم
جنسیت   زن ....   مرد......
سن......
زبان مادری......
رشته تحصیلی.... مقطع رشته تحصیلی....
رضایت دارم که اطلاعات موجود در پروفایل من جهت همکاری در پروزه تحقیقاتی مورد بررسی و استفاده قرار گیرد.
Adehkordi84@yahoo.com

APPENDIX B

1. Acceptance
a. Appreciation token
b. Comment acceptance
c. Praise upgrade
d. Comment history
2. Non-acceptance
a. Scale down
b. Reassignment
c. Return
3. Other
a. Request
b. Question
c. No acknowledgment

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Zeinab Gholmali Dehkordi, born in Isfahan, Iran, received her B.A in English Language Translation at Islamic Azad University, Isfahan (Khorasgan) Branch in 2011. She has got her MA in Teaching English as a Foreign Language from Islamic Azad University

of Khorasgan, Isfahan, Iran. She has been teaching English since 2005. Her main research interests lie in Computer-Mediated Communication, sociolinguistic, and Pragmalinguistics.

Azizeh Chalak is an assistant professor of TEFL at the English Department of Islamic Azad University, Isfahan (Khorasgan) Brach, Isfahan, Iran. Her research interests include Discourse Analysis, Sociolinguistics, Intercultural Communications, E-mail Communications, Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC), Genre Studies, and Methods of Teaching.

An Analysis of the Use of Demonstratives in Argumentative Discourse by Chinese EFL Learners

Jing Zhang

School of Foreign Languages and Literature, Shandong University, Jinan, China

Abstract—**The present study aims to investigate the use of demonstratives in argumentative writing by Chinese EFL learners. A corpus-based study was conducted. In this study, demonstratives *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, as well as *it* were tagged and analyzed. By the quantitative and qualitative analysis, the study shows the general features and typical errors of learners in using demonstratives. Some pedagogical suggestions are raised as well.**

Index Terms—**demonstratives, argumentative writing, corpus, EFL writing**

I. INTRODUCTION

Demonstratives in English generally refers to *this*, *these*, *that*, and *those*. "The Grammar Book" explains that demonstrative determiners vary along two dimensions: proximity (*this* vs. *that*; *these* vs. *those*) and number (*this* vs. *these*; *that* vs. *those*) (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999). The above grammatical account of demonstratives constitutes the explanation about demonstratives in most ESL/EFL teaching practice and materials compilation (Lenko-Szymanska, 2004). However, extensive studies on demonstrative reference provide evidence that its use is far more complicated, especially at the discourse level. Choosing a proper demonstrative is related to genre (spoken and written), the speaker's intention, and the larger discourse environment in which the demonstrative is used (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999; Petch-Tyson, 2000). To ESL/EFL learners the proper use of English demonstratives may remain a problem due to the lack of explicit instruction based on discourse and rhetorical analysis and a simplistic reliance on the learners' intuition in deciding which demonstratives to use. Cross-linguistic comparison has showed evidence that ESL/EFL learners demonstrate a different pattern in their use of demonstratives; the underuse, overuse, and inappropriate use of certain forms have been revealed in learners of English (Lenko-Szymanska, 2004; Petch-Tyson, 2000; Wang and Sun, 2006). Therefore a reductionist approach to teaching English demonstratives may not be the best approach in EFL classes.

In this paper, I looked into the use of demonstratives in argumentative writing by Chinese EFL learners. The data were composed of 17 argumentative essays that second-year EFL students wrote for the writing part of a compulsory English language course *New Standard College English (Reading and Writing)* offered in Shandong University in China. Besides demonstratives *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those*, I included pronoun *it* in my analysis, for the reason that independent pronoun *it* also functions as demonstratives (McCarthy, 1994; Strauss, 2002). The quantitative and qualitative analyses of learners' use of demonstratives showed that the learners in this study had a good command of English demonstratives and are able to use them for discourse purposes in building up cohesion. In the mean time, the analyses reveal some problems of learners in using demonstratives, which showed the necessity of addressing demonstratives explicitly in EFL classes. Some pedagogical suggestions are raised as well.

II. GRAMMATICAL CONSTRUCTS AND RELATED STUDIES

A. Grammatical Accounts of Demonstrative Reference

Halliday and Hasan categorized the use of English demonstratives into "three systematic distinctions: (1) between 'near' (*this, these*) and 'not near' (*that, those*); (2) between 'singular' (*this, that*) and 'plural' (*these, those*); (3) between Modifier (*this*, etc, plus nouns, *eg: this tree is an oak*) and Head (*this*, etc, without nouns, *eg: this is an oak*)" (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, P. 60). By 'nearness' in the first distinction, it means that *this* implies something the speaker mentioned, some event closer in time to the speaker, or some shared common interest with the speaker. In contrast, *that* refers to something said by the interlocutor, an event associated with a past-time referent, and something unrelated to the speaker. This contrast can be observed in sentence (1). In the second distinction, a demonstrative adjective is found to be applicable to any class of noun, whereas a demonstrative pronoun is restricted in its reference to human nouns. Another important feature of demonstratives is that when *this* and *that* are used as a demonstrative pronoun, they can refer to "extended text, including text as 'fact'" (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, P. 66). Sentence (2) illustrates the "text reference" feature of *that*. In extended text reference, *that* is always anaphoric (prior mention); *this* may be either

anaphoric or cataphoric (subsequent mention) (Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

(1) A: I like apples, and I like bananas. *These* are my favorites.
    B: *Those* are my favorites too.
(2) A: I left my umbrella in the classroom.
    B: *That* was careless.

Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman's explanation about the meaning of demonstratives in "The Grammar Book" (1999) is based on the proximity/distance distinction as well. They explained that the nearness or distance as conveyed by *this*, *these*, *that*, *those* "could be spatial, temporal (this = now vs. that = then), psychological (this = more preferred vs. that = less preferred), or simply sequential (this = first mention vs. that = second mention)" (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999, P. 307). The proximal/distant contrast is shown in sentences (3) to (6).

(3) spatial: I like *this* restaurant than *that* one over there.
(4) temporal: I like *this* movie better than *that* movie I watched last month.
(5) psychological: I like *this* course better, so I didn't choose *that* one.
(6) sequential: *This* dress is more expensive than *that* one.

It has been noted that there are different patterns of using demonstratives in spoken and written English. Based on an extensive analysis of spoken data, Strauss (1993) proposed that situational uses of demonstratives should be distinguished from textual and cataphoric uses. More importantly, pronoun *it* should be included in the analysis of demonstrative reference to provide an accurate account for the spoken data. Strauss found that *that/those* and *it* were used mainly with anaphoric textual reference, and *this/these* were used anaphorically only 51% because *this/these* are also used catephorically, exophorically and nonreferentially (as cited from Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999).

McCarthy (1994) made distinctions between different functions of demonstrative *it*, *this*, and *that* in written discourse. His hypothesis is that "(1) *It* is the unmarked reference item and refers to current entities or foci of attention. (2) *This* signals a shift of entity or focus of attention to a new focus. (3) *That* signals reference across entities or foci of attention, that is, to a topical entity which is not the current one" (P. 273). In a word, *it* carries on a focus under discussion, whereas *this* and *that* introduce and indicate a shift of focus in discourse. The choice of demonstratives is based on the larger discourse segments and environment in which the demonstratives are used, and is a reflection of the way the writer structures their arguments (McCarthy, 1994).

B.   Studies of Demonstrative Use by ESL/EFL Learners

Studies on the use of demonstrative reference by ESL/EFL learners showed that learners' pattern of demonstratives differs from that of native speakers. Petch-Tyson (2000) conducted a corpus-based comparison of native English speakers and learners of English with Dutch, French, Finnish, and Swedish L1 backgrounds in their use of demonstratives in argumentative writing. It was found that the EFL groups in general used demonstratives less frequently than the native writers and they were not as successful as their native-speaking counterparts in using demonstrative anaphors to make situation reference, which were shown in cases of unsuccessful reference, underuse of proximal demonstratives *this/these*, oversue of *that*, and failure to use retrospective labels properly in situation reference. Petch-Tyson suggested that in order to produce effective argumentative writing the lexical and rhetorical features of demonstratives should be addressed.

Lenko-Szymanska (2004) conducted a similar corpus-based analysis of the pattern of demonstratives as anaphora markers in Polish advanced learners' English, as compared to the native counterparts. The results showed that Polish advanced learners of English overused demonstratives in argumentative writing, especially the distal forms *that/those*. Learners also showed an overuse of *those* as a determiner and an underuse of *those* a pronoun. In Wang and Sun (2006) study of comparing the use of demonstratives by Chinese learners of English and native English speakers in argumentative writing, they found that Chinese learners of English had the tendency of underusing demonstratives in general but overusing the distal demonstrative *that*, which to some extent lessened the strength of their arguments. Their use of demonstratives as situation reference was also found unclear within the context.

III. THE STUDY

A.   Data

In this paper, I looked into the use of demonstratives in argumentative writing by Chinese second-year EFL learners majoring in different fields. The data used in this study were collected in the writing part of a compulsory English language course *New Standard College English (Reading and Writing)* in Shandong University. The students in this study were college students of non-English majors, aging from 18 to 20.

The data used in this study were the first major essay that students wrote in the course. The writing task was an argumentative essay on Wal-Mart controversies. Students were asked to take a position on the issue, and present evidence and support for their arguments by incorporating different resources. Students went through a process of composing thesis statement, outline, draft one, draft two, and the final essay. The essays collected for the present purposes were the final version of the essay. Altogether 17 essays (19,811 tokens) were used for the present analysis.

B.   Data Analysis and Procedures

Instances of *this, these*, *that*, *those*, and *it* were manually elicited from the essays. All instances of *this*, *these*, *those*, and *it* were included in the present study. Since *that* can function both as a singular demonstrative and a complementizer, the present study only included instances of *that* as singular demonstratives. Considering the fact that students incorporated different sources as support, instances of demonstratives in quotes were excluded.

Both quantitative and qualitative analyses were conducted on the data. For quantitative analysis, the use of *this, these*, *that*, *those*, and *it* were categorized into three textual subcategories: anaphoric, cataphoric, and non-phoric uses. Anaphoric use refers to demonstratives as backward pointing in the text, cataphoric use is forward pointing in the text, and non-phoric use is to refer to an item that has not been referred to within the actual text (Strauss, 2002). Besides, *this/these*, *that/those* are counted respectively in their use of demonstrative adjectives and demonstrative pronouns. By conducting a qualitative analysis, the general features of using demonstratives in argumentative writing by these ESL students were identified, and the typical errors in using demonstratives were discussed.

IV. RESULT

A. Quantitative Analysis

Tab. I shows the overall frequencies of the demonstratives. It can be seen that *it* is more frequently used (48%) than *this/ these* (37%), and *that/ those* (15%). It is out of my surprise to find that *it* is the most frequent used demonstrative because it is commonly believed that *this/ these*, and *that/ those* are the generic demonstratives. However this finding echoes what was reported by Strauss (2002) on spoken discourse data of native American English speakers. It suggests that in ESL teaching, it may be necessary to include *it* in the explanation of demonstrative reference. Another interesting finding is that *this/these* compose 37% of the total, and is used more than twice as many as *that/those*. According to Lenko-Szymanska (2004) and Wang (2006), the use of *this/these* indicates a more native-like pattern. If their interpretations are correct, the findings here could be an indication that the students under discussion demonstrate a good command of demonstratives *this/these* and *that/those*.

TABLE I
FREQUENCIES OF DEMONSTRATIVES IN THEIR ANAPHORIC, CATAPHORIC AND NON-PHORIC

	Total number (%)	Anaphoric	Cataphoric	Non-phoric
this / these	150 (37%)	141 (94%)	5 (3%)	4 (3%)
that / those	60 (15%)	48 (80%)	12 (20%)	0 (0%)
it	193 (48%)	149 (77%)	44 (23%)	0 (0%)

Tab. I also shows the respective frequencies of demonstratives in their anaphoric, cataphoric, and non-phoric uses. Generally speaking anaphoric use is the most frequently used function of the demonstratives. It is in line with the genre of the data, i.e. written discourse. For argumentative writing, it is necessary to apply demonstrative devices to create cohesion and coherence within the text. Anaphoric demonstrative, by referring to a proposition, a situation, a topic, or an entity that have been mentioned in the previous discourse, is the best device of forming cohesion within a written text (Petch-Tyson, 2000). Students' proper use of the anaphoric demonstrative suggests a basic understanding of English demonstratives. There are instances of cataphoric demonstratives, especially in cases of *that/those* and *it*. A close look into the data reveals that the cataphoric uses of *that/those* and *it* are mostly idiomatic expressions. In sentence (7), the second *those* is used as a pronoun and followed by an attributive clause explaining what "those enemies" refer to. The pattern is frequent in the data. According to Wang (2006), it shows a native-like pattern of using demonstratives, because American students like to use *those* in "those + who" pattern indicating "the people who". The first *it* in sentence (8) is a pronoun that introduces the real subject of the clause starting with the complementizer *that* "that Wal-Mart is destroying some local jobs". Idiomatic uses of cataphoric *it* are frequent in the data; it showed a good command of idiomatic expressions by the students.

(7) Due to its success, it brought a lot of enemies against it. Those enemies are mostly *those* who are running out of business because of the existence of Wal-Mart.

(8) *It*'s true that Wal-Mart is destroying some local jobs, yet it is creating more job opportunities, cheaper products for the consumers and donations that help raise the standards of living of the area.

Tab. II shows the frequencies of demonstratives *this/ these* and *that/ those* when they are used together with a NP (noun phrase) or as a pronoun. It can be seen that *this/ these* and *that/ those* are more used together with a NP as demonstrative adjectives. Compared to what have been reported by Petch-Lyon (2000) and Wang (2006) on the overuse of *that* as demonstrative pronouns by Polish and Chinese learners of English, the learners in this study demonstrated a more balanced use of *this/ these* and *that/those* as demonstrative adjectives.

TABLE II
FREQUENCIES OF DEMONSTRATIVES ADJECTIVES AND DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

	Demonstrative adj. (%)	Demonstrative pron. (%)
this / these	96 (64%)	54 (36%)
that / those	38 (63%)	22 (37%)

B. Qualitative Analysis

General features of using demonstratives
this / these

In the data *this* is used most often as situation reference or text reference (Halliday and Hasan, 1976). Learners use *this* to refer to the previously mentioned and described proposition and situation. At a psychological level, the proposition or situation may be positive and closer to the author's own position and arguments, as in excerpt (9). Sometimes the propositions can be less desirable and in distance far from the author's own position, as in excerpt (10). This is in contrast to the dominant analysis of *this/these* as being proximal demonstratives (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999; Lenko-Szymanska, 2004). It seems that *this* is mostly used to frame the arguments by stringing together the text and creating a natural flow of arguments and reasoning.

(9) In March 2005, Wal-Mart was ordered by court to pay an amount of $11 million for hiring of illegal immigrants as janitor in its stores all over United State (Greenhouse, 2005). *This* kind of settlement is just not server enough to stop Wal-Mart from hiring more illegal immigrant for cheap labor under the shadow of the law.

(10) In the video 'Is Wal-Mart beneficial for America,' it describes 'Rubbermaid' as if this company was a sacrifice of Wal-Mart's. Specifically speaking, as the cost of rubber raised, 'Rubbermaid' broke down because Wal-Mart refused to sell their products as price went up. However, looking at *this* issue from a different perspective, it was the Rubbermaid organization, which was at fault, depending completely upon another business when the company should have had its own competitiveness, was inappropriate.

In contrast to *this* as a text referent to frame the author's arguments, the plural form *these* is more used to refer to an entity or topic with a specific referent, as is shown in excerpt (11).

(11) Many would have to be thrown into the streets and this would not only be the 1.9million people working. Myriad of *these* employees are parents who are also responsible for the daily needs of their family.

that / those

Categorized as distal demonstrative, *that* is documented as establishing 'a sense of distance', which could be spatial, temporal, psychological, or simply sequential (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999, P. 307). The data in this study showed some tendencies of *that* as a distal demonstrative. *those* was observed to have a similar function, but indicates a more specific referent than *that*.

The learners in this study used *that* to refer to something further, less desirable, or simply present a neutral position when they state a fact or something less desirable to create a psychological distance. The author of excerpt (12) takes a position that Wal-Mart treats its associates unfairly. Women discrimination in salary treatment is one of the major aspects that the author develops to prove his arguments. In an example he used, after presenting the actual wages the woman associates were paid, the author followed up with demonstrative *that* commenting on the fact that "that was before tax". Here, the anaphoric *that* has the connotation of 'even that amount of money', indicating this is a fact undesired by the author. A simple use of demonstrative *that* gives the notion the author does not agree with Wal-Mart's unfair treatment to its woman associates. The use of *that* in excerpt (13) shows a neutral position of the author. It simply describes a situation. With the use of *that* the author creates a psychological distance from the statement.

(12) Her wages is …, and *that* was before tax.

(13) Although so many criticisms were made about Wal-Mart and tried to put its name down, Wal-Mart moved on with its strict business mind and strategy. Business world is tough. Whoever comes up with better idea and is   willing to sacrifice their time and ability can survive. This means *that* company has to constantly update itself so that consumers would not get bored and lose their interest.

That is also used to indicate a physical distance in written texts. It creates a conceptual map about the locations of the topics. The author of excerpt (14) commented on the effects of having a Wal-Mart upon the retailers and community. When referring to those suppliers who may follow Wal-Mart's step, the author used *that* indicating a physical distance between the remote and rural area where Wal-Mart usually opens up.

(14) Knowing that there will be many potential consumers in *that* area, suppliers will try to sell things near Wal-Mart as well, trying to free ride the market power. As a result, the community in *that* local area can grow due to sigma effect.

That is found to indicate sequential distance as well, i.e. second mentioning of the entity, topic, or proposition. In excerpt (15), the author used these several times to create a sense of suspense in her introduction paragraph. After having prompted her readers with a series of questions about the giant store, the author provided the answer. In giving the answer, she shifted from demonstrative these to that, indicating the store has been already mentioned in the context, and here when referring to it, it is a second/third mention.

(15) Have you seen the familiar big stores when you are travelling out of the hometown? Are you surprised that you can discover *these* stores every hole and corner even outside the USA? Are you curious about *these* stores? Wal-Mart, *that* is the Wal-Mart!

it

In comparison to the use of *this/these* and *that/those*, students' use of demonstrative *it* is straightforward. *It* is mainly used in two occasions: one as pronoun referring to a specific referent in second mention, usually an entity or organization; the other as idiomatic expressions.

It as object reference refers to a specific referent, neutral in a sense that *it* is used to introduce a fact or an example. It could be followed by either positive evidence or negative evidence, but *it* is seldom followed by a comment. Excerpts

(16), (17), and (18) respectively showed how *it* is used in presenting neutral, favorable, and undesirable positions.

(16) Wal-Mart is now the largest retail store in united State. *It* has come a long way from being in the bottom of its retail market to finally reach to top.

(17) Even though in some cases people would prefer shopping elsewhere than Wal-Mart, which would decrease the revenue generated to Wal-Mart, yet *it* benefits consumers as well as the economy overall. *It* benefits consumers because they would have more options to choose from, all with high quality goods and services and pleasing prices.

(18) Yet, *it* has often been criticized for its harsh labor practice it employ in order to be the most dominant store in the U.S. and World market and also to meet the everyday demand from its buyers.

The use of *it* in idiomatic expressions and sentence patterns indicates students' mastery of the idiomatic expressions. The following are some examples.

(19) *It*'s reported that time record from 25,000 employees in July 2000 found 1,371 cases of minors working during school hours and at night.

20) *It* may be hard for a company the size of Wal-Mart to pay notice to all its employees.

(21) *It* is true that Wal-Mart provides convenient and cheap goods to people but it also provides inconvenient services to the employees.

(22) Is *it* worth to buy from Wal-Mart while Wal-Mart does not treat his workers properly?

Learners Errors in using demonstratives
Unclear referents

One of the biggest problems among the learners in this study is unclear referents of demonstratives. In excerpt (23), judging from the text, the second *it* should refer to Wal-Mart, but from the immediate discourse environment, it is hard to tell whether *it* refers to Wal-Mart or not. In excerpt (24), the author describes the situations of the Wal-Mart workers overseas. He mentioned the long hour shift, low wages, and lack of health insurance. At the end of the excerpt, the student uses a demonstrative *this* to summarize that "this is the situation of foreign workers face, but Wal-Mart has done virtually nothing to improve the situation". By using *this*, the student's intention is to refer to the poor treatments of oversea workers in different aspects as mentioned above. However, a mere use of *this* cannot signal clearly the more comprehensive referent, which may cause comprehension problems to the readers.

(23) In the frontline video "Is Wal-Mart good for America?", Gary Gereffi has reported that Wal-Mart is the dominant company for many United States suppliers. *It* requires that prices go down from year to year. If they cannot meet Wal-Mart prices, *it* will go offshore and *those* suppliers will go out of businesses.

(24) What's more, Wal-Mart's way to speed up the production time is to impose wage differential base on the time taken for production. The chance of such inhuman practices happening in an American factory is slim to none. However, because of the influences the Wal-Mart has on the Chinese suppliers; they can demand almost anything they want out of the workers. Such practice is further demonstrate when "Workers making toys for Wal-Mart in China's Guangdong Province reported that they would have to meet a quota of painting 8,900 toy pieces in an eight hour shift in order to earn the stated wage of $3.45 a day. If they failed to meet that quota, the factory would only pay them $1.23 for a day's work" ("The real fact about Wal-Mart", 2005). In addition to the long hour shift, according to Simon's report "The survey of 16 Wal-Mart suppliers found that some pay as little as half the minimum daily wage, provide no health insurance or require mandatory overtime. One company provided only one restroom for its 2,000 employees" (Simons, 2007). *This* is the situation of foreign workers face, but Wal-Mart has done virtually nothing to improve the situation.

Overuse of a certain demonstrative

The overuse of a certain referent form is observed in the essays. In excerpt (25), the author uses demonstrative *it* four times, both as cataphoric *it* and anaphoric *it*. It runs the risk of perplexing the readers because when the same demonstrative is overused within a sentence, it may cause misunderstanding. Excerpt (26) reveals another problem. The demonstrative *this* in the sentence is redundant in that it does not contribute to the meaning construction or discourse cohesion. In excerpt (27), the referent of demonstrative *this* is not clearly stated in the sentence. As readers, it is hard to find a clear referent of *this* in the specific sentence. What's more, the second *this* does not have a specific referent. It is not clearly stated whether it refers to the first sentence, the second sentence, or the whole situation.

(25) To sum up, Wal-Mart is already in such a large scale that *it* is quite difficult to absorb the fact how *it* has done all of this mainly through its pricing technique and how *it* has over-taken the grocery markets and how *it* has sold $244.5 billion worth of goods last year.

(26) Wal-Mart imports all of its goods from developing nations because of their cheap rates. *This* Wal-Mart china trade is so colossal that it cannot be discontinued easily by both the ends.

(27) Many would have to be thrown into the streets and *this* would not only be the 1.9million people working.

Myriad of *these* employees are parents who are also responsible for the daily needs of their family. *This* shows how Wal-Mart has taken the responsibility to take care of the lives of millions of people in the US.

Inconsistencies in the use of this and that

Inconsistencies in the use of demonstrative *this* and *that* are found in the data. In excerpt (28), the author mainly uses *this* to frame and foreground his narration and argument. The use of "this fact" and "these people" are appropriate in the context. However, the abrupt shift from referring to the same group of people by *these* to *those* seems unjustified. It gives the readers an impression of inconsistency and a sudden break of discourse flow. Excerpt (29) is by the same

author. Here he used *those* to refer to 'people who get promoted based on the years of service', but right after it, he used *this* to refer to the proposition, stating that it does not apply to women. The argument is confusing due to the inconsistent use of *this/these* and *that/those*. Excerpt (30) reveals a similar problem in using *these* and *those*. Since the topic is Wal-Mart, the author refers to the small retailers as *those*, but when referring to them for the second time in the same sentence, she shifted to *these*, which seems to break her own rule of using demonstratives.

(28) China has billion of peoples and millions of them are unemployed. So they are willing to work for any kind of wage they can get. Because of *this* fact, Wal-Mart use a little of its billion of revenues to hire *these* people way under the average worker's wage. The wage they pay to *those* workers is not even 10% of what they pay for American workers. *This* strategy further increases the profit to spending ratio.

(29) The first and for-most sign of discrimination is the denial of any kind of promotion even if women have worked as hard, maybe even harder than their male counterparts. But the reality is that those man will get promote based how years of service and sales they achieve, but this is not the same standard for women.

(30) Compared with *those* "poor" small retailers who work on the main street but lost their business life finally (Sarah Anderson, 1994, p. 21), Wal-Mart shows a much firmer spirit of competition than *these* small retailers.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS TO EFL TEACHING

The qualitative and quantitative analyses showed that the learners in this study have a good command of English demonstratives. The analyses haven't shown the typical patterns of using demonstratives by ESL/EFL learners as reported by Petch-Tyson (2000), Lenko-Szymanska (2004), and Wang and Sun (2006). Still it is important to note that the learners have some problems in using English demonstrative properly. Therefore, the uses of demonstratives in written discourse may need to be explicitly addressed in ESL teaching. Specifically, the learner errors, such as unclear referents, overuse of a certain demonstrative, and the inconsistencies in using *this* and *that,* are worthy of formal instructions. A close discourse and textual analysis which focuses on demonstrative choices within context to build up cohesion and avoid redundancy may be needed in ESL classes. A comparison of the English speakers' use of demonstratives and learners' use of demonstratives may be helpful for students to understand the finer meaning differences between demonstratives. In terms of ESL writing classes, activities such as peer review or peer proofreading may provide the student writers with a better sense of audience and an enhanced awareness of using demonstratives clearly and accurately.

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Jing Zhang is currently a senior middle school teacher at Linzi Middle School in China. She earned her M.A. in linguistics in School of Foreign Languages and Literature from Shandong University in China.

She was the assistant instructor of College English at Shandong University between 2011 and 2013, teaching EFL reading and writing. Her research interests are ESL/EFL writing, second language acquisition, and foreign language teaching.

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