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The Importance of Considering Students' Cultural and Linguistic Backgrounds: Languages Are Friends, Not Enemies! Certamente l'Italiano e' l'amico di tutti!

Karla Del Carpio

Department of Hispanic Studies, University of Northern Colorado, USA

Perla Del Carpio

Department of Social Sciences, University of Guanajuato, Mexico

Abstract—Every language represents a different worldview, a different way to see the world and life. Language is a door that allows us to have access to a distinct reality that provides us with the opportunity to expand our horizons. Also, it gives us the opportunity to grow as human beings, which is one of the many reasons why second language (L2) learning should be interesting and exciting. Moreover, it should be characterized by our own personal development. In this paper, the importance and value of language is emphasized as well as the benefits of second language (L2) learning, for example, the learning of Italian in Mexico. Being bilingual is to be enriched by two languages and cultures. Therefore, it is underlined in this article that L2 learning does not mean abandoning our first language and culture. In other words, quality and real bilingualism must be about honouring and respecting our own language and culture while enriching ourselves through the learning of another language and cosmovision. This can be achieved through culturally relevant teaching where students' cultural and linguistic backgrounds are considered in their L2 learning process. By doing so, cultural and linguistic diversity as well as sensitivity would be promoted. Let's not forget that languages are a great tool to bring the community together as languages are friends, not enemies!

Index Terms—culture, language, teaching, learning, community

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the many reasons that motivates us to write this paper is our passion for languages. We are always amazed by their beauty and by all the different aspects they represent. In our opinion, a language is not a simple code or a set of words together. A language is a lot more than that. According to Coco (n.d. cited in Nadal 2006), our language is the home of our soul. Through our mother tongue, “we come to know, represent, name, and act upon the world” (McCarty 2003, p. 148). It is through languages that we can connect with others and learn from them. This also allows us to learn about ourselves. “A language is a tool for human communication, which functions as the social link between the members of a society and those from different ones” (Syamalakumari, 2004, para. 1). Vygotsky (1978) postulated that language is one of the elements that define a person's cultural identity, as language is the basis for thinking and communication. These ideas are emphasized and enriched in this paper.



Figure 1- Undergraduate language learners

Languages are more than words!

Syamalakumari (2004) points out that:

language creates beautiful literary marvels, which remain eternal masterpieces influencing the lives of people. Language creates and protects because it maintains people with a beautiful style and nuances to bring cohesion in spite of diversity within a socially hierarchical world. (p. 2)

Therefore, “language is the greatest creator and protector...it is the supreme tool for all human beings” (Syamakumari, 2004, para. 1). I agree with Sadeem (2009) that:

language brought the dawn of knowledge; turning over the leaf to doubting, questioning, reasoning, explaining and understanding against the centuries old simple animalistic instinct of following. What use could be any scientific invention to human kind if we were unable to communicate? Despite being a product of human invention, the language encompasses the entire human needs of communication and expression. That is the real beauty of the language. (p. 2)

Because of the beauty of languages and all they represent, it is important to preserve all of them because each language strengthens the magnificence of our world. According to the National Geographic Enduring Voices Project (n.d.) “language defines a culture, through the people who speak it and what it allows speakers to say. Words that describe a particular cultural practice or idea may not translate precisely into another language. Many endangered languages have rich oral cultures with stories, songs, and histories passed on to younger generations, but no written forms. With the extinction of a language, an entire culture is lost” (National Geographic Enduring Voices Project, n.d., para. 5). Therefore, it is imperative to care for the preservation of languages especially for those in danger of extinction as it has been the case of indigenous languages.

There is knowledge that is encoded only in oral languages. This is particularly evident in oral languages in regard to Aboriginal people and their relationship to nature, since they “have interacted closely with the natural world for thousands of years, [so] often have profound insights into local lands, plants, animals, and ecosystems” (National Geographic Enduring Voices Project n.d., p. 4). It is fundamental to respect and maintain languages because it benefits environmental understanding and conservation efforts (National Geographic Enduring Voices Project n.d.). Scollon and Scollon (1981) argue that:

each language carries with it an unspoken network of cultural values. Although these values generally operate on a subliminal level, they are, nonetheless, a major force in the shaping of each person's self-awareness, identity, and interpersonal relationships. (p. 89)

Reyhner (1995) adds that “these values are psychological imperatives that help generate and maintain an individual's level of comfort and self-assurance, and, consequently, success in life. In the normal course of events these values are absorbed along with one's mother tongue in the first years of life” (para.3).

Another reason why languages are important is the history they carry. People's history is passed down through their language. Thus, when the language is lost, it might imply that valuable information about the early history of the community is also lost. Woodbury (1997) suggests that:

the loss of human languages also severely limits what linguists can learn about human cognition. By studying what all of the world's languages have in common, we can find out what is and isn't possible in a human language. This in turn tells us important things about the human mind and how it is that children are able to learn a complex system like language so quickly and easily. The fewer languages there are to study, the less we will be able to learn about the human mind. (p. 11).

II. LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

As stated before, it is essential to preserve languages because they are a unique tool by which we can build our thoughts and can create, imagine and relate with other people (INALI, 2008). Also, we can dream through this beautiful tool, which allows us to communicate our feelings, ideas, concerns and hopes. In addition, it allows us to learn from others and share our learning experiences with other people as well as to learn about our history and project our future. Language is a human incomparable resource (INALI, 2008).



Figure 2- Tsotsil children in Chenalhó, Chiapas, Mexico

When we learn our mother tongue, we also learn to be part of a culture that significantly influences our way to perceive the world and the vision we build of this. When we feel that our language and culture are valued by other people and that they are recognized as legitimate in social contexts, our self-image and sociocultural identity are of pride and confidence (Galdames; Walqui & Gustafson, n.d.). This is one of the reasons why students' languages and cultures need to be considered at school. This institution plays such a fundamental role in our life because other than the family, it is the main context in which we can live experiences of social interaction by which we can consolidate our identity and enrich it. That is why, I insist on the importance of taking into account students' first language and culture in their second language learning process. Yes, it is possible to learn a second language while still being connected to what is meaningful to us; to our language and culture, for example.

Being bilingual and reasons for it

Being bilingual does not imply to give up our mother tongue. Being bilingual is to be enriched by two languages and cultures. Defining bilingualism has been a subject of much debate. Diebold (1964) has shown that defining the point at which the learner of a second language becomes bilingual is either arbitrary or difficult to determine. Genesee (2008) points out that "language acquisition is an everyday and yet magical feat of childhood. Within three to five years, virtually all children become fully competent in at least one language. We accept this as totally normal" (p. 1).

He states that "we are rarely concerned on whether or not it will happen although it is the most complex accomplishment of early childhood. Even more outstanding are those children who simultaneously acquire proficiency in two, or more, languages during the preschool years. Within the same time frame as it takes monolingual children to learn one language, bilingual children learn two languages and become adept at using them in socially diverse and appropriate ways" (Genesee, 2008, para. 1).

Knezek (1997) declares that "humans speak a wide variety of different languages, and very young children of any race or ethnic background can learn to speak and understand any of these if exposed to appropriate models at the proper time in development" (p. 3). Our globalized world requires us to be bilingual or multilingual. The need for bilingualism might arise from different reasons at both the individual and societal levels. Gutiérrez (2009) defines individual bilingualism as "the ability to indifferently use with the same competence and in the same situations two different languages" (p. 3). However, in bilingualism as a social fact, there is neither equality between the two languages in presence nor equality of status and use. The coexistence between the two languages involves tension (Gutiérrez, 2009).

"There are different determinants of the need for bilingualism, for example, historical factors and events such as conquests and colonialisms, which made the newcomer wield much influence in all spheres of life" (Salle, n.d., para. 7). Because "the most powerful groups in any society are able to force their language upon the less powerful" (Romaine, 1995, p. 23), all official transactions are done in the foreign language. Examples of this are most African countries as well as Latin American countries.

Another determinant of the need for bilingualism is geographical proximity (De Mejía, 2002), which naturally leads to the need for communication among the members of the two communities. "Since language might pose as a barrier to effective communication, members of the two communities each learn the other's language, which leads to bilingualism" (Salle, n.d., para. 8). An example of this is in Europe where the need for foreign language learning has been traditionally promoted in the light of the geographical proximity of many nation-states speaking different language varieties (De Mejía, 2002). Altarriba and Heredia (2008) point out that in Scandinavia, for instance, proficiency in two or more languages is encouraged and expected due to geographic proximity among countries. Bilingualism might also arise from migration:

Either collective or individual migrants fleeing from war or searching individual attainment have settled in foreign linguistic communities. For purposes of communication and job hunting, they have been compelled to learn the languages of host communities, thus becoming bilingual. (Salle, n.d., p.10)

The massive displacement of people into a new territory can be done, not to implement a dominion or to establish a new political order, but on the contrary, to put themselves at the service of the local population. This usually raises a collective situation of bilingualism. Examples of this are the large amounts of Irish, Italian or Hispanic speakers who have migrated to the United States and have become bilinguals (Gutiérrez, 2009; Ramírez, 1985). Also, this situation can be observed in immigrants in Canada and most western European nations (Tiersman, 2010).

Salle (n.d.) states that bilingualism might also arise from public or international relations. She provides the example of countries such as Cameroon and Nigeria where the need arises for citizens to interact at the national level, which makes them use a lingua franca. Gutiérrez (2009) declares that a country with different linguistic communities can establish a federal political system that does not imply the legal predominance of none of the languages in presence. This is the case of Switzerland, Canada and Belgium, for example. A nation is bilingual, but its different territories and the individuals that constitute them might not necessarily be bilingual. "In a federal and plurilingual country, only the administrators in the federal government need to be bilingual" (p. 12). However, the relationships among different people provoke a certain amount of individuals who become bilinguals, which is not the result of a political or social pressure, but a consequence of these relationships. The contact among communities with speakers of different languages is one of the factors that leads to bilingualism, that is, there exists frequent contact among people from different countries. This increases the number of people who need to learn and use a second language (Gutiérrez, 2009).

It is essential to remember that regardless the reason we have to become bilingual, the learning of a second language does not mean that our first language and culture should be abandoned. We can add a new language to our life without having to walk away from our own cultural and linguistic identity. Let's not forget that languages are friends, not enemies!

Why study a second language?

Yes, there are many reasons that influence people to become bilinguals. The learning of a second language has become more common in recent times as we are living in a globalized world. The benefits of studying a second language (L2) are many, for example, people who learn an L2 improve their overall reasoning skills, do better in their studies, understand the mechanics and implications of language in an abstract way, and simply understand the world better (Cole, 2012). The benefits of learning a second language are endless as well as the reasons that motivate students to learn an L2.



Figure 3- Intermediate students of Spanish

We have experienced that there are undergraduate students who need to study a language because it is a requirement in their program. On the other hand, there are students who take a language class as they are interested or motivated to learn the L2 because of different reasons, for example, they like it, they want to travel to the country where it is spoken or they want to study or work abroad. Also, there are people who learn a language in order to expand their social networks. These people have a *specific* goal that encourages them to study an L2. With no doubt, there are many language learners all over world because our globalized world requires us to do.

We have observed that the number of students that decide to learn a second language is increasing in certain contexts, for example, we now have more learners of Italian at universities in Mexico, which is positive. These students have different reasons that motivate them to learn *l'Italiano* in specific.

The study of Italian as a second language and cultural and linguistic diversity

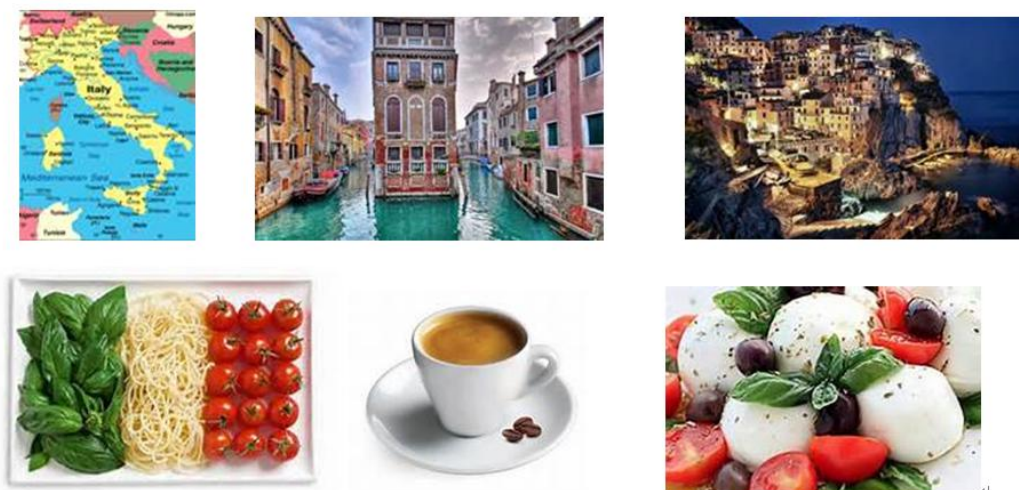


Figure 4: All figures in this section are related to Italy's culture

Learners of Italian in the Mexican context, for instance, state that this language is studied by initiative most of the time as it is perceived as a beautiful language. Students feel curious about it because they like the Italian culture and they are interested in learning more about Italy's cuisine, history, music and traditions. According to Emory University (2014):

knowing Italian is greatly beneficial in several career fields. Italy is a world leader in the culinary arts, interior design, fashion, graphic design, furniture design, machine tool manufacturing, robotics, electromechanical machinery, shipbuilding, space engineering, construction machinery, and transportation equipment. (p. 2)

Emory University (2014) reminds us that “Italy’s cultural importance spans from antiquity through the present, of which the Roman period and the Renaissance are perhaps the two most influential moments” (para. 3). “Some of the most famous Western artists, from Giotto to Michelangelo, were Italian. Knowledge of Italian is vital to understand the contexts of this art” (Emory University, 2014, p. 3).

Another reason that attracts people to learn Italian is the work of writers and thinkers such as Boccaccio, Dante, Petrarch and Machiavelli and Gramsci:

Since Roman times, Italy has exported its literature and culture to other parts of Europe and beyond, in the areas of Latin literature, *Romanitas*, humanism, opera, film, science, political thought, fashion, design, and cuisine. Knowing Italian allows you to understand, appreciate, and analyze this treasury of human expression. Italy has the cultures, landscapes, and histories to fill a lifetime of investigation. Knowing Italian places you in a position to explore Italy’s past and present from the most fulfilling vantage point. (Emory University, 2014, p. 6)



Figure 5- Michelangelo's piece

Certainly, Italy’s language, culture and people have very much to offer to those who decide to learn Italian as an L2. It is worthwhile mentioning that Italy is an amazing country and that Italian is as beautiful as the other languages in the world. Let’s remember that from a linguistics point of view, all languages are beautiful and have the same value. When we talk about languages, we also talk about people, that is, about their speakers. That is why; all languages are valuable and deserve respect because they contribute to the cultural and linguistic richness of their nation (Rippberger, 1992). When we say that a language is better or superior than other, we are also referring to its speakers. Languages represent their people and the way the world works to them. Our *like* for a certain language is a matter of preference, which is valid and positive. But from a linguistic point of view, no language is inferior or ugly, *tutte le lingue sono belle*. Yes, all languages are beautiful! We believe that it is important that language teachers portray this idea. By doing so, the possibilities for respect for cultural and linguistic diversity might increase.

III. LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

The teaching and learning of a language is a tool for personal growth and social progress. Knowing and speaking an L2 can imply positive changes in our life, for instance, the modification of certain attitudes of how we perceive others as well as our exterior environment. Teaching and learning are both enriching processes for the student and the teacher as both of them learn and benefit each other. L2 learning implies to expand our horizons and to enrich ourselves. It also implies respect for cultural and linguistic diversity, that is, respect for other people. After all, we are all human beings regardless our nationality, the language we speak and the culture we belong, so we all share that in common.

Language teaching and learning should be a significant process because the acquisition of a language helps us become aware of cultural and linguistic differences, but at the same time it helps us build the bridge that allows us to go beyond the differences that separate us (The Report of the LSA Foreign Language Review Committee, 2004). Sadly, cultural and linguistic diversity in some contexts has been considered a “problem”, that is, a weapon that separates societies. We feel that it is possible to use such a diversity to bring people together instead of using it to divide them. For example, the creation and implementation of quality bilingual programs in indigenous communities in Latin America could be one of the ways to unify people. We need bilingual programs that take into account indigenous students’ own language and culture as well as the national language and culture of their country. Indigenous languages can and should be used as languages of instruction and also for academic tasks (Del Carpio, 2012).

It is true that we live in a modern changing world that requests us to be updated and to acquire new knowledge in order to better respond to the needs of today’s society. The learning of a language provides us with the opportunity to be prepared to face our changing reality and to participate in societies that are similar or diverse to ours (in multilingual societies, for example). Learning a second language allows us to enrich our vision of the world, which gives us the opportunity to grow as human beings. L2 learning can be interesting and exciting and can be characterized by our own personal development.

If instructors promote respect for cultural and linguistic diversity through their teaching practice, students might reinforce their desire to learn the target language, but at the same they may also be inspired to appreciate their own language and culture. The purpose of learning a language should always be to broaden our horizons, not to reduce them.

Re-thinking the role of the language teacher

Vilar-Beltrán (n.d.) emphasizes that essentially teachers have two major roles in the classroom. The first role is to create the conditions under which learning can take place, which is the social side of teaching and the second role is “to impart, by a variety of means, knowledge to their learners: the task-oriented side of teaching” (p. 4). I would modify this idea by saying that the second role of the teacher is to take the initiative to stimulate students’ knowledge in order to enrich what they already know by adding new *information* to it. Teachers definitely play different roles, for example, they are motivators, advisors, guides, facilitators, etc. All these different roles provide teachers with the opportunity to contribute to students’ lives. Rose (1997) argues that an educator must be an open mind person that should respect students’ diversity. The real educator should love his/her learners, which can be done through his/her teaching practice; his/her concern for students and his/her interest in each individual. From my own experience as a language teacher, I can say that students can immediately feel when their teacher loves them and cares for them. This might increase students’ motivation to learn and to do their best at school.

It is vital to encourage students to believe in themselves and to be grateful with life. In my opinion, teachers need to nurture grateful hearts in their students. As a result, learners may care more about their society and feel encouraged to contribute to it. The educator’s mission needs to be to prepare his/her students for life, not for an exam unless it is “*el examen de la vida*” (the exam of life).

In our point of view, the teacher has the opportunity to unify the community through his/her work. This in part can be done by creating a nice atmosphere in the classroom; a classroom full of life, good energy, happiness, friendship, knowledge, respect, etc. Also, considering students’ cultural and linguistic backgrounds can help us create a harmonious atmosphere (Williams, 2007). This can lead to a sense of community (Sergiovanni, 1994) in the classroom where all cultures are valued and respected and students feel integrated rather than isolated. Sergiovanni argues (1994) that people have the essential need for a sense of belonging, that is, the need to feel related to other human beings as well as to values and ideas. Unfortunately, these are commonly unfulfilled in school because of the way they are perceived and run (Sergiovanni, 1994).

He points out that “community building must be the basis for school reform efforts that seek to improve teaching and learning; all else will come naturally when authentic communities flourish” (Sergiovanni, 1994 as cited in Thompson, 2014, para. 10). It is also important that teachers reflect on how they teach, what they teach and if they consider they give students enough opportunities to use their own language and culture in the L2 classroom. Smith (1999) states that “learning involves participation in a community of practice” (p. 1) therefore running schools as real communities where all students feel involved and cared for can be a way to bring people together instead of separating them.



Figure 6: Learners of Spanish

Indeed, the teacher plays different roles through which he/she can achieve diverse objectives, for instance, to unify the community. Society has been separated due to social, political, cultural and economic issues, so we consider that through a culturally relevant teaching practice where students’ languages, cultures and realities are considered, teachers can contribute to *heal the wounds* caused by the problems occurring in today’s society.

The language classroom needs to be a place where students feel integrated rather than isolated. Let’s remember that school is a social institution and education a social process (Dewey, 1897) therefore cultural and linguistic diversity can be used as a tool to unify the community. We think that if students are provided with opportunities to be connected to their first language and culture while learning the L2, this can have a positive impact on their attitudes towards the L2 and on the way they perceive the school and education in general.

Recognizing and taking into account students’ language and culture as the point of departure to learn a second language is to accept the richness that each individual brings to the classroom. Both students’ language and culture as well as the target ones can be used to benefit students while learning. Promoting this richness also means to honour the pupil’s culture. It is not enough for instructors “to passively accept students’ linguistic and cultural diversity in the school” (Cummins, 2003, p. 16). Teachers must be proactive and take the initiative to affirm students’ linguistic identity by encouraging them to write in their mother tongues in addition to the second language they are learning “(and

generally create an instructional climate where the linguistic and cultural experience of the whole student is actively accepted and validated” (Cummins, 2003, p. 5).

Cummins (2003) highlights that:

the cultural, linguistic and intellectual capital of our societies will increase dramatically when we stop seeing culturally and linguistically diverse students as ‘a problem to be solved’ and instead open our eyes to the linguistic, cultural, and intellectual resources they bring from their homes to our schools and societies. (p. 22)

IV. CONCLUSIONS

Languages are more than a set of words because of all they involve. Languages represent their communities as well as their values, worldviews, traditions, ways of thinking, etc. Therefore, it is important that both language teaching and learning become a meaningful and enriching experience where students feel connected to who they are and to what is important to them. A way to do so is through a culturally relevant teaching practice where learners’ needs, languages and cultures are considered while learning a second language, Italian, for instance. By doing so, it would be possible to build a community where each individual is honoured, respected, cared for and loved. We can use Italian and any other language as a powerful harmonious tool to bring P-E-O-P-L-E together rather than to separate them. Let’s remember that languages are friends, not enemies!

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Karla Del Carpio is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Hispanic Studies at the University of Northern Colorado. She earned a Bachelor's Degree in Teaching English as a Foreign Language at the Autonomous University of Chiapas in Mexico, a Master's Degree in Applied Linguistics from the Department of Modern Languages and Cultural Studies at the University of Alberta (UofA) in Canada and a Doctorate in Secondary Education from the Faculty of Education at UofA. Dr. Del Carpio has taught different languages such as Spanish in Canada and English and Italian in Mexico. She has worked as a language teacher for the last 14 years. Teaching is one of her passions because she strongly believes that being a teacher is an art as it is one of the most fascinating, appealing, challenging and beautiful professions. Dr Del Carpio has won different awards both in Canada and Mexico. Recently, she received the National Academic Achievement Award 2013 in Mexico. Also, she has been awarded different scholarships for professional development, for studying abroad and for research, for example, the scholarship received from the National Council of Science and Technology (CONACYT) in Mexico. Her research interests are second language acquisition, teaching English as a second language, bilingual education and indigenous languages revitalization.

Perla Del Carpio is an Associate Professor in the Department of Social Sciences at the University of Guanajuato, campus Celaya-Salvatierra in Mexico. She earned a Bachelor's Degree in Psychology from the University of Sciences and Arts in Chiapas (UNICACH) in Mexico, a Master's and Doctoral Degree in Social Psychology from the Faculty of Psychology at the Complutense University in Madrid, Spain. She is currently a member of the National Research System in Mexico from the National Council of Science and Technology (CONACYT). Dr. Del Carpio has won different awards nationally and internationally, for example, she received the Special Award of the Spanish Society of Experimental Psychology in 2012 in Spain, the Fermín Caballero Award for Essay Writing provided by the Sociology Castilian-Manchega Association (ACMS) in 2009 in Spain and the State Youth Award in 2009 for being an outstanding young scholar in Chiapas. Also, Dr. Del Carpio has been awarded the Letter to my Parents National Award by winning a national competition in Mexico in 2011. She has also been awarded different scholars from the Mexican Academy of Sciences (AMC), from the National Council of Science and Technology (CONACYT) and from the Council of Science and Technology in Chiapas (COCYTECH) to conduct research stays at different universities and research centers and also for professional development.

Analysis of Errors in English Writings Committed by Arab First-year College Students of EFL in Israel

Tareq Mitaib Murad

The Department of English, Sakhnin College for Teacher Education, Sakhnin, Israel

Mahmood Hasan Khalil

Sakhnin College for Teacher Education, Sakhnin, Israel

Abstract—This study is conducted as an attempt to examine the errors in English writings committed by Arab learners who live in Israel. These students were required to write an essay in English. The participants were 22 students, four males and 18 females. For error identifications and categorizations, the researchers developed, based on the Israeli matriculation (Bagrut), and on the literature (Ellis, 2004; Fries, 1974 and Robertson, 2000), a table of categories and subcategories. The findings of the current study reveal that the participants committed four types of errors in varying degrees, they are: Errors in content and organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanism. The most frequent error type is 'language use'. This type of errors consists of word order, negation, copula and auxiliary omission, subject-verb agreement and prepositions. The causes of these errors are attributed to interlingual factors, i.e. negative transfer of interference and overgeneralization, especially in cases of differences between English and Arabic (negative interference). In cases of similarities between L1 and L2 (positive transfer), errors are less frequent. Neither gender, nor age played an important role in this study. Finally the researcher recommended conducting another study to investigate the types of errors in speaking skill committed by Arab learners of English in Israel.

Index Terms—errors, EFL, ELT, interference, overgeneralization

I. INTRODUCTION

Al Buainain (2007) claimed that writing is dynamic, nonlinear and involves multiple processes. Therefore, it is clear that not everyone can become a writer especially in L2. However, everyone can learn to write better. Students should be given a way of understanding of their capacity to write, motivation, self confidence and courage.

This study examines the errors in writing committed by Arab College students whose major is English, and they are educated to be English language teachers (ELT).

It is important to make a distinction between errors and mistakes, both Corder (1967) and James (1998) reveal a criterion that helps us to do so: it is the self-correctability criterion. A mistake can be self-corrected, but an error cannot. Errors are "systematic", i.e. likely to occur repeatedly and not recognized by the learner. Hence only the teacher or researcher would locate them, the learner would not (Gass and Selinker, 2001). The current study will focus on learners' errors not mistakes.

Many researchers examined the errors produced by Arabs who learn English as a foreign language (Selinker, 2001; Corder, 1967; Khreshah, 2011; Crompton, 2001; Abisamra, 2003; Diab, 1996 and many others). This study investigates the writings of Israeli Arab learners of English at a college level, and with different categorization of error types. The researcher believes that few studies were conducted to examine the errors in writing committed by Arab learners of English in Israel.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In recent years many studies on FL acquisition (James, 1998; Brown and 1994; Ellis, 1995) have been conducted focusing on learners' errors to investigate the difficulties involve in acquiring a SL or FL. These studied helped EFL teachers to be aware of the difficulty areas encountered by their students. Corder, (1967) said "we cannot teach language, we can only create conditions on which it will develop spontaneously in the mind of its own way" (p. 27).

Error analysis is a kind of linguistic analysis that emphasizes the errors learners of a target language (TL) usually make. This analysis consists of a contrast or comparison between the errors made in the target language and the target language. In his article "The significance of learner errors", Corder (1967) contented that those errors are "important in and of themselves". For learners themselves, errors are 'indispensable', since committing errors in the target language can be considered as a device the learner uses in order to learn. He also stated that there are two types of errors: performance errors and competence errors. The first are made when learners are tired or hurried. The later are more

serious since they reflect inadequate learning. Ellis (1997) noted that "errors reflect a gap in learner's knowledge, while mistakes reflect occasional lapses in performance

Gass and Selinker (1994) defined errors as "red flags" that support evidence of the learner's comprehension of the target language. Researchers are interested in errors because they are believed to contain vital information on the strategies that students use to acquire a language (Richards, 1974; Taylor, 1975). Moreover, Richards (1974) "at the level of pragmatics classroom experience, error analysis will continue to provide one means by which the teacher assesses learning, and teaching determines priorities for future effort." (p.14).

Researchers provided practical advice with clear examples of how to identify and analyze learner's errors. The first step requires a selection of a corpus of language followed by the identification of errors. The errors are then classified. The next step, after giving a grammatical analysis of each error, demands an explanation of different types of errors (Ellis, 1995; Brown, 1994; Hubbard et al. 1996).

Robertson (2000) and Jarvis (2002) looked for systematicity in errors learners made and found that some of the systematicity in the errors that learners committed was attributed to discourse factors and some linguistic contexts, e.g. variation in syntactic forms.

Burt and Kiparsky (1972) made a distinction between two types of errors: Global errors which hinder communication by causing confusion in the relationship between and among the parts of discourse; e.g. wrong word order in sentence and Local errors, i.e. those that do not go beyond the clause or sentence level. Thus, global errors should be corrected while local ones should not be.

There are two major causes of errors. The first is interlingual, i.e., interference from first or native language of the learner. Lado (1975) and Fries (1974) emphasized interlingual errors. The second cause of errors is intralingual, i.e., the difficulty comes from the second language itself (Dulay and Burt (1947). Intralingual errors are manifested by the following phenomenon:

- a. Using simple structures instead of more complex ones, for example: the use of the simple present tense instead of the present progressive tense.
- b. Using a structure where it does not apply. Example: *gived, *comed.
- c. The unnecessary correction. Example: *pird instead of bird.
- d. Errors stay in use for a long time as in producing a Sentence like: *he go to bed.
- e. Error caused by bad teaching (fossilization).
- f. Learners sometimes avoid difficult structures. Kleinmann (1977) stated that Arab learners of English avoid, for example, the passive voice.
- g. It has been found that some learners think that (is) is the marker of present tense as in *John is works as an engineer. Similarly, those learners think that (was) is the marker of the past tense.

Littlewood (1998) mentioned other types of errors which are related according Selinker (1972) to 'interlanguage'. These are due to the influence of L1 on the acquisition of L2, these errors are called 'interlingual which is similar to those produced by the child in the mother tongue and suggest that the second language learner is employing the similar strategies, notably generalization and simplification.

One of these errors that are considered interlingual and will be analyzed in this study is 'transfer' or 'language interference'. Oldin (1997) stated that language transfer can occur at different levels such as linguistic, pragmatic etc. According to him transfer means the influence resulting from similarities and differences between first language and any other learned or acquired one.

Doughty and William (1998) pointed out that "a learner's previous linguistic knowledge influences the acquisition of a new language in principal, if not straightforward, contrastive way" (p. 226). This influence could be positive or negative. It is considered positive when the learner's knowledge of L1 enhances his ability to understand L2. Whereas, negative transfer means that the learner's knowledge of L1

Crompton (2011) discussed a common error that is committed by Arabic speakers' who learn English as a foreign language is the definite article. It is suggested that even for learners of English with mother- tongue which have an article system, such Arabic, L1 transfer may be a problem. Moreover, Khreshah, (2011) found that the errors in acquisition of English coordinator conjunction 'and' committed in L2 Jordanian EFL learners might have been attributed to the differences between the subjects' L1 and L2. This difference between the two languages makes the students who use their L1, which is Arabic, confused and make them commit such interlingual errors.

Abisamra (2003) stated that most of the syntactic errors made by Arab EFL learners in their written production are because of the interference of their first language. Interference or transfer from L1 could be taken as 'a negative matter of habit'. And negative transfer would be obvious in cases of differences between first language (L1) and the target language (L).

Alkhreshah (2010) found that Jordanian EFL learners committed a huge number of syntactic interlingual errors with regard to word order within simple sentence structure. He revealed that these errors were due to the transfer of L1 habit.

Another interlingual error which will be dealt in this study is 'overgeneralization'. Littlewood (1998) stated that the majority of interlingual errors are examples of the same process of overgeneralization. In this error the learners try to

allocate items to categories; on the basis of these categories, the learners construct rules which predict how different items will behave, sometimes these predictions could be wrong.

Richards (1971) defined overgeneralization as covering instances where the learners create a deviant structure on the basis of their experience of the structure of the target language (TL), ignorance of rule restrictions, complete application of rules.

Ellis (1994) claimed that it is not easy to differentiate between interlingual and intralingual errors, and even more difficult to identify the different types of intralingual errors. In an attempt to deal with the problem of identifying sources, Dulay and Burt, (1974) classified errors into three categories: developmental, interference and unique.

Selinker in Richards (1974) reported five sources of errors: language transfer, transfer of training, strategies of second language learning (SLL), strategies of second language communication and overgeneralization of TL linguistic material.

Although many studies on errors of non-native (NNT) learners of English have been conducted during the recent years, few of them focused on Israeli- Arab native speakers who learn English as a foreign language (FL). The aim of the recent study is to investigate the errors committed by Arab native speakers' writing in English as a foreign language. These speakers live in Israel.

III. METHODOLOGY

Subjects

The participants of the recent study are 22 first year Arabic native speakers who Study English as their major at Sakhnin College for Teacher Education (TE) in Lower Galilee, in Northern Israel. They are 4 male and 18 female students; their age ranges between 19 and 25. They are first Year students whose major is English. They have learned English as FL at Israeli- Arab schools for 11 years. The majority of them speak Arabic at home, but use English at school and college during English lessons which were instructed by Arabic native speakers' teachers at schools and Arabic and English native speakers' lecturers in the College. They have problems in Speaking and writing English, however, the focus of the current study is on errors in writing.

This study attempts to investigate the problems which face these students during their writing in English as a foreign language. In other words, it will investigate the interlingual errors committed by these students in writing English as a foreign language (FL) or target language (TL).

Instrument

As this study tries to examine the types of errors in writing committed by the Arab EFL students who live and study in Israel, as well as to find the frequency of committing such errors, a writing presentation test was used. This instrument was used in this study because it saves time, and there is less alternation of performance errors (Darus and Ching, 2009). Halliday and Hassan (1976 cited in Darus and Ching, 2009, p. 247) pointed out that "writing allows writers to demonstrate their ability to construct a string of well connected sentences that logically correct". They also pointed out that asking learners to write essays in a target language will reflect their normal and actual performance.

The participants in the recent study were given the freedom to choose any topic of their choice. Then, they were asked to write an essay from 120 to 150 words within one hour during their English period. The students' compositions were read by the researcher in an attempt to analyze the errors committed by the subjects of the present study.

For error identification and categorization in present study, the researcher developed, based on the Israeli matriculation (Bagrut) rubric for assessing written presentation, and on the literature (Ellis, 2004; Fries, 1974 and Robertson, 2000). The researcher also consulted EFL lecturers and experts in the field of first and second language acquisition from the college to suit the current context, their comments and notes were taken into account. The unit of analysis was the errors committed produced by the subjects of this study. Table one shows the categories and the subcategories of the participants' errors in English written presentation.

TABLE 1
CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES OF THE PARTICIPANTS' ERRORS IN WRITTEN PRESENTATION

Types of errors	Subtypes
Content and organization	Errors in the topic Errors in semantics Errors in text organization
Vocabulary	-errors in the use of varied lexemes - errors of word/ idiom choice and usage - avoidance of certain words
Language Use	errors of agreement errors of verb tense errors of word order errors in negation auxiliary deletion errors of prepositions omitting the copula
Mechanism	Errors of spelling Errors of punctuation Errors of capitalization

The aim of the present study is to demonstrate the most occurring or frequent types of errors that Arabic speaking learners encounter in writing in English as a foreign language. These type of errors are presented in four main divisions and 16 sub-divisions. These are shown in Table One.

The first category of errors committed by the participants is "content and organization". It consists of three subcategories which are:

- a. Topic error, some learners write off topic; that means the writing is irrelevant to the topic.
- b. Errors in semantics which is related to literal translation. For example, عملا اؤمن عندما (when I secure a job), instead of 'when I found a job'. Another example from the participants' errors related to this type is "I asked what my destiny would be, it is a literal translation of "مصديري هو ما تساءلت", instead of 'I wondered about my destiny'.
- c. Errors in text organization, for example some students did not follow the text structure: opening, development and ending.

The second category of errors type is "vocabulary" which consists of the following subdivision:

- a. 'Errors in the use of varied lexemes', for example, using the same word many times without looking for another synonymy.
- b. "Error in word/idiom choice" such as, 'my health is right'. It is a literal translation from Arabic "جيدته صحتي". (I am healthy), another example of error committed by a participant in this study: "I have a strong disease", it is a literal translation from Arabic for "قوي مرض عندي", (I am very sick).
- c. "Avoidance of articles" such as "I saw woman", instead of "I saw a woman". The participants avoid using the indefinite article 'a' because it is not used in L1 (Arabic). Another example is the overuse of the conjunction 'and', and the definite article 'the'.
- d. Errors in the use of prepositions, for instance, "I uploaded the file in the internet" instead of "on the internet", or "in Monday", instead of 'on Monday, and many others.

The third category of errors that are committed by the subject of this study is "language use" which consists of the following subcategories.

- a. Errors in word order such as, "I saw the boy intelligent", instead 'I saw the intelligent boy', which is transfer from Arabic. Arabic word order is Noun and then Adjective.
- b. "verbal error", for example the following sentence: *the men came late last week and enter the room. The error in this sentence is the sequence of tenses.
- c. Error is omitting the auxiliary, especially in progressive and perfect tenses. Examples: "They writing a story", instead of "they are writing a story", or "the pupils already eaten the food" instead of "the pupils have already eaten the food". Errors of negation structures, for examples some participant wrote: 'we no have money', instead of 'we do not have money'.
- d. The misuse of the infinitive 'to and the verb' especially after the modals. For example, '* She can to eat' instead of "she can eat". This error is transfer from their L1 'تدري ان تاكل ان تدني'.
- e. Omitting or deleting the copula. For example, many students wrote: "* he a strong man", instead of "he is a strong man".
- f. "Errors in 'subject verb agreement" such is "He usually write a story", instead "he usually writes a story, or 'he have' instead of 'he has' and 'you is' for second person singular instead of 'you are'.

The last category of error types is mechanism. It consists of the following subdivisions:

- a. Errors in spelling, such as the learners wrote 'lisen' instead of 'listen, the cause of this error is transfer because there are no silent sounds in Arabic, or orthography and pronunciation are almost identical in Arabic which is L1 for the participants of this study.
- b. Errors in punctuation, including commas, full stops, marks, such as putting full stop(.) instead of a question mark (?) at the end of an interrogative.
- c. Errors in capitalization, for example, proper names such as 'ahmad' instead of 'Ahmad'. Another example "the college of Sakhnin" instead of "The College of Sakhnin", and many others.
- d. Data Collection and Analysis

The objective of the current study is to investigate the errors made by Arab EFL learners in their written presentation. The written presentations were marked and analyzed by the researcher. The errors, committed by the first year EFL students in the College of Sakhnin, were counted and then analyzed and categorized according the four types and 16 subtypes of errors mentioned above and demonstrated in Table One.

IV. RESULTS

After coding the data, The frequency and the percentage of Errors committed by the subjects of this study were calculated. The Results are shown in Table 2.

TABLE TWO
THE CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES OF THE STUDENTS' ERRORS AND THEIR FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES

No.	Categories	Subcategories	Frequencies	Percentage %
1	Content and organization	Error in the topic	8	4.18
		Errors in semantics	18	9.42
		Errors in text organization	8	4.18
2	Vocabulary	Errors in use of varied words	15	7.85
		Errors of word/ idiom choice or usage	20	10.4
		Errors of avoidance of certain words	18	9.42
3	Language Use	Errors of agreement	10	5.2
		Errors of verb tense	12	6.2
		Errors of word order	7	3.7
		Errors in negation	5	2.6
		Errors of auxiliary deletion	11	5.8
		Errors of prepositions	8	4.18
		Errors of omitting the copula	8	4.18
4	Mechanism	Errors of spelling	21	11
		Errors of punctuation	9	4.7
		Errors of capitalization	13	6.9
Total	4	16	191	100

Table Two demonstrates that the 22 participants in the current study made 191 errors. The errors are classified according to four main types:

The frequencies of the 'content and organization' subtypes are the following: errors in topic are 8 while in semantics are 18; errors in text organization are 18. Errors in semantics are the most frequent in this category; this is, the researcher believes, is due to the literal translation from the Arabic. In other words, L1 interference. Errors in use of varied words are the least frequent in 'Vocabulary' (15) occurrences. While errors in word choice or usage are the most frequent in the second category (20 occurrences).

The most frequent error type is 'language usage'. This category is divided into 7 subcategories: errors in agreement, verb tense, word order, negation, auxiliary deletion, prepositions and omitting the copula. The most frequent subcategory of the third type is in the verb tense (12 occurrences), while the least frequent is negation (5 occurrences). The participants also committed errors in omitting the copula or the auxiliary and in word order. Errors of omission or word order is attributed to the fact that the participants L1 (Arabic) does not have the copula, and has different word order (Diab, 1996).

The last category of errors made by the subjects is 'mechanism'. The most frequent subtype is spelling (21 occurrences). This is also due the fact that English pronunciation is different from Arabic. In Arabic, graphemes and phonemes are almost identical while in English they are not (Roach, 1983).

According to Table Three 191 errors are counted from the 22 essays written. The errors could be also classified into grammatical, lexical, Semantic and syntactic. These could be attributed, as Diab (1996) claimed, to a negative interlingual transfer from Arabic linguistic structure into English.

Table Three demonstrates the frequencies of the four main types of errors

TABLE THREE
THE FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF THE OVERALL ERRORS COMMITTED BY THE PARTICIPANTS

No	Category	Frequency
1	Content and organization	34
2	Vocabulary	53
3	Language Use	61
4	Mechanism	43
5	Total	191

Table three shows that in the 22 written presentations, 191 errors are committed by the participants of the recent study. The most frequent type of errors is "content and organization" with 61 occurrences. This category consists of structural errors such as subject verb agreement, word order, copula and auxiliary omission and verb tense. Abisamra (2003) stated that the cause of these structural errors committed by Arab EFL learners in their written production is the interference of L1. Interference or transfer from the native to the target language could be taken as 'a matter of habit' or negative transfer especially in cases of differences between the L1 and the L2.

The least frequent error type is "content and organization" with 34 occurrences out of 191 errors produced by the participants. This is, the researcher believes, refers to the similarity between Arabic and English in this respect. Vocabulary and mechanism also occurs in high frequencies, this also due to the interference of L1 in L2 (Abisamra, 2003).

The students' writings show main cause of errors which are interlingual, i.e. interference from L1. Scott and Toker (1974) suggest that interference in written English by Arab learners comes from high variety (*alfusha*) while interference in spoken English by these learners results from the interference of colloquial Arabic. Ancker (2000) stated that errors occur for many reasons, for example, interference from the native language, overgeneralization, incomplete knowledge of the target language and the complexity of L2 itself.

For more clarification, Figure 1 shows the percentage of the main types of errors.

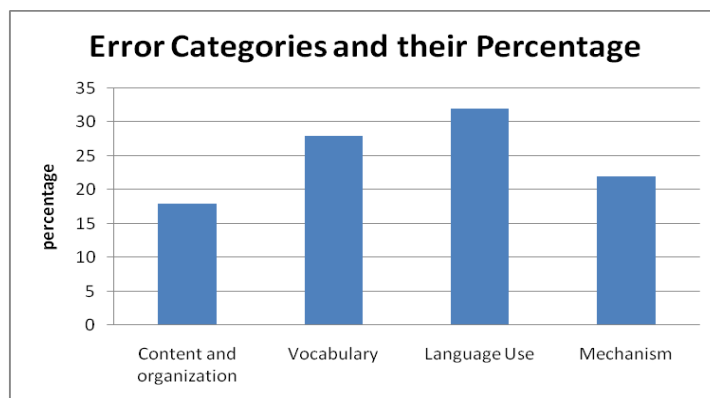


Figure one demonstrates that the category of 'language use' was with the high percentage, 32% of the students' errors in this study related to this category. While 27% of the errors committed by the learners, in this study, is attributed to 'vocabulary' errors. 23% of the errors related to 'mechanism'. It consists of spelling, punctuation and capitalization. 'Content and organization' is the least frequent with 18 percent.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The current study attempts to investigate and analyze the types of errors in writings committed by Arabic native speakers who study English as their major at an Israeli Arab College, Sakhnin College for TE.

The findings show the participants committed four main types of errors; they are: content and organization (discourse), vocabulary (semantics and pragmatics), language use (morphology and syntax) and mechanism (spelling, punctuation and capitalization).

The recent study also demonstrates that the most frequent type of errors committed by the participants is errors of 'language use' and 'vocabulary'. This might be attributed to the fact that Arabic morphology and structure are different from the target language, English. This justifies Anker's claim (2000) that interference of L1 in learning L2 and over generalization could be the main reasons for committing errors by Arab learners of English. This kind of interference or transfer could be negative, because it hinders learning.

The least frequent types of errors are content and organization. This could be attributed to the fact that Arabic and English are similar in this respect. This could be positive transfer, especially in cases of similarities between L1 and the target language (TL). Neither the gender nor the age played any role in this study since the participants' age and gender are almost identical.

It is recommended to conduct another study with participants from different ages. This allows comparison in errors in writings committed by Arab learners of English from different ages. Moreover, it is recommended to conduct another study to examine the errors, in speaking, committed by Arab learners of English.

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Tareq Mitaib Murad has been teaching English as a foreign language in high schools since 1990, and he has been teaching linguistic courses in Sakhnin College, Academic College for Teacher Education since 2001. Recently, he holds a position in the College: The Practicum General coordinator. Courses: Intro to linguistics, Second language acquisition, Morphology and Syntax, Semantics and pragmatics.

He has BA in English linguistic and literature from Ben-Gurion University, MA in English Linguistics from Haifa University, Pedagogical supervision from Machon- Mofet. TA and PhD in English curricula and Instructions. Research interests: pragmatics: speech acts, second/foreign language acquisition and task-based language teaching (TBLT). The author has published papers in international and national refereed journals, textbooks for high schools in Arabic and English.

Mahmood Hasan Khalil is a Professor of Science Education and Biology. He serves as the President of the Arab Academic College for Teacher Education in Sakhnin, Galilee, Israel. He received his B.Sc. in Biology at the Hebrew University of Jerusalem and his M.Sc, Ph.D., and Certificate of Teaching from the Department of Education in Technology and Science at the Technion – Israel Institute of Technology, Haifa, Israel. His research interests lie in the areas of science teachers education and the integration of new pedagogical methods of instruction in teaching biology (STS and STEPS). In addition to presenting his research studies at international and national conferences, he has published papers in international and national refereed journals, textbooks for high schools in Arabic, English and Hebrew, and books on education and science education for teachers and student teachers. He is a member of the editorial boards of journals both in Israel and abroad, and serves as a member of national education committees for science curriculum development, education for gifted students, and in-service teachers education.

The Linguistic Content of the Iẓon Language Curriculum for Primary Schools

God'spower Tamaraukuro Prezi

Department of English and Literary Studies, Faculty of Arts, Niger Delta University, Wilberforce Island, Bayelsa State, Nigeria

Abstract—The curriculum is the most important document at any level of the educational system of a country. The manner of its implementation can contribute to the growth and development of a nation, or cause its stunted growth. The Iẓon language curricular for the Basic Education Programme for primaries 1-6 were developed by the Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC) in 2010. However, although these curricular have been approved by the relevant authorities including the National Council on Education (NCE) for use in schools, up till this moment the curricular have not been used in the State Government Primary Schools in Bayelsa, Delta, Edo and Ondo States. This is a cause for concern by both teachers and pupils who should be teaching and learning the content of these curricula as well as linguists and language experts involved in their development. In this paper, we take a look at the linguistic content of the Iẓon language curriculum for primary 1-6, viz. *bẹlẹ emi tọrọ, fie bara, goo bara, poi ma fie, goo ma geẹ*. This paper also takes a look at the issues involved in the development and use of the curricular and underscores the need for the State Governments to demonstrate commitment and urgently implement the use of the curricular in their schools and produce reading texts and grammar books for the realization of the goals of the Iẓon language curricular. If this is done soon, the Iẓon language curricula can achieve great success.

Index Terms—linguistics, Iẓon, curriculum, numeracy

I. INTRODUCTION

The Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC) having the mandate to develop curricula for use at all levels of education in Nigeria, was directed by the National Council on Education (NCE) to re-structure and re-align the existing primary and junior secondary school curricula to meet the targets of the 9-Year Basic Education programme. This was decided upon by the Federal Government in the context of the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategies (NEEDS) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The curriculum represents the total experiences to which all learners must be exposed. The curriculum therefore provides the contents, performance objectives, activities for both teachers and learners and evaluation guides. What remains to be done now is the production of reading texts and grammar books for the realization of the goals of the Iẓon curricula.

A. The Curriculum

In a formal educational setting, a curriculum refers to all the planned interaction of students with course content, instructional materials, instructional resources, and processes for evaluating the attainment of educational objectives. The curriculum also refers to the total learning experience provided by a school which includes the course content, the teaching methods, statements of desired pupil outcomes, and so on. A primary or secondary school curriculum often covers several classes. The curriculum is the most important document at any level of the educational system of a country. The manner of its implementation can contribute to the growth and development of a nation, or cause its stunted growth.

B. Iẓon

Iẓon is one of the six main languages in Nigeria, the others being Fulfulde, Tiv, Kanuri, Efik/Ibibio, and Edo. Igbo, Hausa and Yoruba are the 'major' languages in Nigeria. In 2007, a meta-language for Iẓon was written by this author, Late Dr E.E. Efere and Mr C.B. Agbegha. In 2011, the present author again worked with Mr C.B. Agbegha of College of Education Warri to produce *A Unified Standard Orthography for the Ijọ Language Cluster (NIGERIA)*. It was approved by the Federal Ministry of Culture and handed over to the Federal Ministry of Education in 2012 to be used in schools and colleges for all the Ijoid languages. Curricula have also been developed for Iẓon through a partnership between the Federal Ministry of Education, Bayelsa State Ministry of Education, Nigerian Educational Research and Development Centre (NERDC) and lecturers in institutions of higher learning. The Iẓon curricula were drawn up by the present writer and Mr B. Perekeme, both of Niger Delta University and Mr C.B. Agbegha of College of Education, Warri.

II. THE IẐON LANGUAGE CURRICULUM

A. The Primary One IzOn Language Curriculum

The linguistic content of the IzOn language curriculum for primary one includes:

1. IzOn abidi. IzOn gee umgbomo poi, lelei, goo, ma gee kijirimo.
2. IzOn erebibiama lelei. t.a. sei, beni, gee, oki, bunu, akasi, wari, bara, ofoni, fun, boi, buo, bugo.
3. Ma fie umgbō IzOn erebibiama t.a. mu, bo, go, du, mo; tara fie umgbō erebibiama mo t.a. sei, lei, dei, so, oki, fun.
4. Dua IzOn kule bibiama lelei, ma ifie-ifie kule bara. t.a. pekei, erein biri ma buboru, yo duo bo ifie, ye toru kori kule bibi, kosi otu kule bara, t.a. doo, i serido, dii mu, baiyo, i mie kami, ukoido, nua.
5. Kienbiri. Kien umgbomo 1-50 lelei, ma kien. Kienyemi erebibimo lelei, kien ma gee.

B. The Primary Two IzOn Language Curriculum

The following is the linguistic content of the IzOn language curriculum for primary two:

1. IzOn gee umgbomo (abidi). Mamu aki kenj gemo umgbomo (diagirafumo) poi, lelei kijirimo, goo, gee kijirimo, ma aki erebibiji mie.
2. IzOn aki goo. Bibisunmo ma egberi itu mo poi, goo kijirimo, ma bii bibiama parai. Sele wonimi erebibibiama aki bibisun mie.
3. IzOn kule baramo. Dua IzOn kule baramo gba, ma pekei, erein biri, buboru ma dein ifie dii kule bara. Kule baramo t.a.: nua, doo, i serido, dii mu, baiyo, i mie kami, ukoido. Dudo kule, ma bebe kule bara aki ere toi.
4. Kienbiri. Kien umgbomo 50 - 100 lelei, ma kien. Kienyemi erebibimo lelei, kien kijirimo ma gee.
5. Erema (nouns). La gbelenghi erema (concrete nouns) t.a. akasi, aru, fun, wari, bele. La gbelenghi yeama ere tin, ma la gbelenghi ye erema aki bibisun mie.
6. Emi bara gba (descriptive adjectives) t.a. pina, duba, zau, kosu, danghain. Ye emi bara gba erebibibiama lelei, tin, ma yeama emi bara gba erebibimo aki na bibisun mie.
7. Toki/agguda (riddles). Toki poi, toki lelei, kijiri toki tua/bii ma toki parai.
8. Dein kien. Wiki ereinmo kien, ma fou ereinmo. (The days of the week and market days.)
9. Kien bibi umgbō. Kenj mo kenj denghi erebibibiama t.a. kimi/kimjama (kimibo); aru/arumama; agbaka/aggbaka-ama; fun/fun-ama. Kenj erebibiji dei kenj denghi erebibiji ghō mu, kenj denghi erebibiji/erema dei kenj erebibiji ghō mu, ma kenj mo kenj denghi erebibibiama gba, poi, lelei, gee, parai, aki bibisun mie.

C. The Primary Three IzOn Language Curriculum

The linguistic content of the IzOn language curriculum for primary three includes:

1. Kien umgbō. Kenj mo kenj denghi erebibibiama t.a. kimi/kimjama (kimibo); aru/arumama; agbaka/aggbaka-ama; fun/fun-ama; anga/angamo, anga-ama; bugo/bugomo, bugo-ama; wari/warimo, wari-ama; ololo/ololomo, ololo-ama. Kenj ere dei kenj denghi ere ghō mu, ma kenj mo kenj denghi mo erema gba, poi, lelei, gee, parai, aki bibisun mie.
2. ere dei yeama (Pronouns). Kenj mo kenj denghi eredei yemo t.a. eri/omini; aru/omini; ari/woni. Kenj mo kenj denghi eredei yemo poi, lelei, gba, gee, parai, ma aki bibisun mie.
3. Bebei-itu mo lei-itu mo (Antonyms and synonyms). Bebei-itu t.a. bo/mu; owei/ere; zau/duba; danghain/kesi; emi/fa. Lei-itu t.a. ovuru/akarabiri, akikabiri, oturu, oturubiri; egba/di; ogbonomo/bunuye, ebine, obine, ; apapa/esawou; butuwei/aru. Bebei-itu mo lei-itu mo erebibibiama lelei kijirimo, ma erebibibiama aki bebei-itu mo lei-itu mo diemo.
4. Mie-erebibiji (verbs). Mie-erebibiji t.a. gee, tuo, goo, yeri, desi, banghi. Dua mie-erebibibiama poi, lelei, gba, gee ma aki bibisun mie.
5. Toki/agguda (riddles). Tokjama t.a. Toki poi, toki lelei, toki tu gba, kijiri toki tua/bii ma toki parai.
6. IzOn goo. Goo funbo egbei egberi-itu. Gori egberi-itu goo, gori erebibiji tin kijirimo, ma tuu nimi da biibibi parai. Bibisunmo ma egberi itu mo poi, goo kijirimo, ma bii bibiama parai.
7. Kien umgbomo 100 - 1000. Kien umgbomo 100 – 1000 lelei, goo, kien kijirimo ma gee.

D. The Primary Four IzOn Language Curriculum

The linguistic content of the IzOn language curriculum for primary four includes:

1. Ye emiyo gba erebibimo gba, tin, tuu gba. Ye emiyo gba erebibimo lelei t.a.: ogono, bulou, anga, bolou, ukukuru, boo, ghō. Ye emiyo gba erebibimo gee. Ye emiyo gba erebibiji aki bibisun mie. Ye emiyo gba erebibiji aki biibibi bii.
2. Benimo gba. Nimidei egberimo aki benimo gba. I disē fiji, Uge tei bara, I dau wari bi, inē amabi. eio
3. Erema. Gesiye eremo lelei. Papaye eremo lelei. Gesiye eremo mo ma papaye eremo mo aki bebe lelei. Gesiye eremo mo ma papaye eremo t.a.: Gesiye ere-ama. t.a.: Timi-ebi, Pere-owe, Ebi-ere, Zidu-bado, Ebi-owe. Papaye ere-ama. t.a.: obori, beriba, aru, ilia, oun.
4. Eredei erebibiji-ama. Bibetibi eredei erebibimo lelei. Kenj mo kenj denghi eredei yemo lelei. Bei eredei yemo aki kijiri bibisun mie. Bibetibi eredei yeama. t.a.: eri, omi, aru, omi, ari, woni, ari, omi. Nanabo eredei yemo lelei. Nanabo eredei yemo aki bibisun mie. Nanabo eredei yemo, t.a.: inei, inein, woi, woi, orei, orei. Ani, aniyō, biyo.
5. Kimimose duu-ama. (folk tales). Duu bo emi tolu mo bibimo lelei. Duu bolou bo emi kimimo tonmo. Duu gba. Tolumo-duu. Tuu gba duu t.a.: tibi okpokpo, ipion tua iwiri, don mo iwiri mo, ogbono mo ere mo, otiti mo uge mo.
6. Toki (agguda). Toki tua. Toki parai. Toki t.a.: Toki:- Tobou gbala aru fou ghō bonimi. Parai: osun/osi. Toki:- Zau denghi erema ama wenj bein mi. Parai: oku. Toki:- I dau opu aru pou igbenimi. Parai: biyain

7. Goo. Gori sele wonimi erēbībī-ama goo. Egberī-itu goo kīrīīmō. Egberībō tunimi da biībībīmō parai. Kīlasi goo-fun bolou bō sēlē wonimi egberī-itu goo ma biībībī bii.

8. Oruseri kumō wēniyemi firīmō. Oruseri kumō wēniyemi firīmō tīn, t.a.: indi dō, kiri gboro, bou tein, iye deri, aru kara, koro pin, lii gbein. Firī wēniyemi ikpesemō, t.a.: dei, igbo, dii, zuye, ekere, ogou, ogidi, asubai, agba, anga.

9. Kīenbiri. 1000-5000 lelei, kīen ma gē.

10. Miē-ife erēbībīmō lelei tīn. Miē-ife erēbībī leleimō tīn. Tīe kiri bonghimi ma bōdē miē-ifiemō lelei mō kīrīīmō. Bībīsūn boloubō miē-ifiemō dei. Tīe kiri miē-ife t.a.: tū, gboro, mu. Bōdē miē-ife, t.a.: tūmī, gboromī, mumī. Bonghimi-ife t.a.: tūonghimi, gboronghimi, munghimi.

11. Oruseri kumō birii bīdē. Dūa oruseri kumō birii bīdē tīn. Ere mō oweī mō biri bīdē pamō akī bēbē lelei. Oruseri kumō birii bīdē-ama: Oweī birii bīdē. Bīdē mō etibō mō Egburu mō etibō mō, Saka mō etibō mō, Tum ugbele (akolō) agbaka, ɔwoko, ebulo. Ere birii bīdē. Kēnī bīdē kubu mō butei mō, ma bīdē kubu mō butei mō, kala-lōsi, opu-lōsi, agbaka, ela, koon tuaye, beri-tekele (beri-tuaye), uruka, ebulo, egbine.

12. Gē pēlē lelei-ama. Gē pēlē leleimō lelei kīrīīmō ma gē pēlē leleimō akī bībīsūn ghō tua kīrīīmō. Gē pēlē lelei-ama t.a.: dū pele (.), gbiki (.), dorou (-), biībībī (?), ke (!), opu gē umgbō t.a.: (A, B, C, D).

E. The Primary Five IzOn Language Curriculum

The following is the linguistic content of the IzOn language curriculum for primary five.

1. Daamiē. erēgha bara ye daamiē. Kēsī zoru daamiē. Daamiē pamō: Vi bō miē bara di miē, ɔngō akī tōnmō, bībī finī nī erē kumō erēgha bara.

2. Tīn ghō sei erēbībīama. Tīn ghō sei erēbībīama lelei, gba, tīn ma goo. Tīn ghō sei erēbībīama t.a.: Arī IzOn kīmī, arī Ajegunle ghō ɔlōwō jēunjē ɔwō kō emi. Farun farun fun bun bou banghi abedi mō lei mō. I dau daba kala koro kala koro.

3. Gbelemēn erēbībī. Gbelemēn erēbībīmō lelei ma akī bībīsūn miē. Gbelemēn erēbībīmō, t.a.: mō + mō, kpō, dēi sē, barī, daba.

4. Okoyai. Kēsī okoyai goo. Tībī biri ghō okoyai ukie. Okoyai: t.a.: Uge o peri yo peri yo peri yo. Ikisa bira yon mō werere. Boi yo boi, Boi bala bala boi.

5. Lei-itu mō Bēbē-itu mō. Dua lei-itu erēbībīama lelei. Erēbībī akī lei-itu mō bēbē-itu mō diē mō. Lei-itu mō Bēbē-itu mō t.a.: Erēbībī: dō, duba, ikisa. Lei-itu: kīrīkīrī, opu, ɔmgbō; kēsī, kēlū, kolu. Bēbē-itu: ofīrī, afurū, zau, kala, dīn, danghain.

6. Emiyo-gba. Ye emiyo-gba erēbībīmō lelei, ma akī bībīsūn miē. Emiyo-gba erēbībīmō t.a.: 1). Erēbībīama: ɔgōghō, ukukuru, bolou, toun, tuu. 2). Bībīsūn: Ofonibi tīn ɔgōghō ghō emi. Iliabī mezē ukukuru ghō emi. Tōbōuma warī tounbō emi. Eyingi warī bulou ghō emi.

7. Oroupa otu dū. Oroupa otu dū lelei. Egidebō oroupa otu gba. Oroupa otu dū gba. Oroupadē otumō t.a.: Ozidi, Oriami, Temu gedege, Azizabifī, Isaac Boro, E.K. Clark, Tompolo.

8. Goo. Gori erēbībīmō tīn. Sēlēwonimi erēbībīama akī bībīsūn miē. Tunimi da bii bībī mō parai. Egbeinimi kīlasi goo fun. Sēlē wonimi egberī-itu.

9. Isomū firīmō pamō. Oruseri kumō isomū firīmō pamō lelei. Aya ɔkpō isomū firīmō pamō lelei. Bei isomū firīmō pamō yela nīmī baramō gba. Oruseri kumō isomū firīmō pamō yeama: Eze bībī tua. Ekpe kpe gbe. Isomū tua. Fun tua (lētā gē). Aya ɔkpō isomū firīmō pamō yeama: Telefonu, Bara fonu, Redio, Intanētī tua wonimi kōmputa, Televisonī.

10. Kīen-umgbō. 1-500 kīen-umgbōmō tīenimi yomō gba kīrīīmō. Igballi ghō tīenimiyo kīen-umgbōama tīenimi t.a.: 1st Bōlō bōlō. 2nd Mamū karamō. 3rd Tarū karamō. 4th Noin karamō. 5th Sōnrōn karamō. 6th Sondie karamō. 7th Sōnoma karamō. 8th Ningina karamō. 9th Ise karamō. 10th Oi karamō. 20th Maa oi finī karamō. 30th Tara oi finī karamō. 50th Sōnrān oi finī karamō. 7th Sōnoma oi finī karamō. 90th Ise oi finī karamō. 100th Odōzō karamō.

11. Lētā Gē (Fun tua). Palīnīmī otu dūdū gē lētā lelei. Palīnīmī otu lētā emi tōrū gba. Palīnīmī otu lētā pabī gē. Palīnīmī otu dūdū gē lētā emi tōrū. Gē-bō yenriyemi yō. Gē bai. Kule bībī. Gba finī. Lētā ɔngobī. Tupēlē kule ma erē mō.

12. Oruseri kumō wēnī yemō firīmō. Oruseri kumō wēniyemi firīmō lelei. Oruseri kumō wēniyemi firīmō yela nīmī baramō gba. Bei firīmō duo panghi yemō gba. Akī firīmō wēniyemi ikpesemō gba. Oruseri kumō wēniyemi firīmō: Kiri gboro, Indi dō, Koro pīn, Lī gbein, Oun sou. Firī wēnī ikpesemō: Arū, Di (Ariri), Ogoun, Asubai. Firīmō duo panghi yemō: Taba pulou, Uru, Indi, Osi, Ofoniyān.

F. The Primary Six IzOn Language Curriculum

The linguistic content of the IzOn language curriculum for primary six is as follows.

1. Puyai. Gori na erēbībīmō tīn pamō. Sōnī-sōnī egberī tībīmō gba. Puyai emi tōrū: Gbafinī, Būlō būlō, mamū karamō, kūrō denghī, iyela denghī, tukunimō, Sōnī-sōnī.

2. Oruseri kumō gbanai wonimi yeama. Dua gbanai wonimi yeama lelei. Bei gbanai wonimi yemō yelanīmī bara gba. IzOn otu gbanai wonimi yemō mō, ɔrō yelanīmī bara mō t.a.: Dii ye (tōnye), Karibū, Gbanai bolou, Kōnō bara.

3. Ereama. Laa kīenyemi ye erēama lelei. Kīengha ye erēama lelei. Erēbībī akī kīenyemi ye erēama mō ma kīengha ye erēama mō diēmō. Bei erēmō akī bībīsūn miē. Kīenyemi ye erēama: Warī, Akasī, Kīmī, Gbasa, Buru. Kīengha ye erēama: Oun, Beni, Ude, Pulou, ɔrōsī.

4. Tɔnmɔ ɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛ. Tɔnmɔ ɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛ lelei. Dei ɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛ akɪ bɪbɪsɔn mɛ. Tɔnmɔ ɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛ: Eni, Bisa, Bei, Ani. Tɔnmɔ ɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛ akɪ bɪbɪsɔn mɛ: Bei erema ɪzɔn ere. Bisa kɪmɪmɔ bodɔ. Anɪ tɔbɔ kɪ gbamɪ.

5. Biibɪbɪ. Biibɪbɪ lelei. Bii bɪbɪ akɪ bɪbɪsɔn mɛ. Bii bɪbɪ ɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛɛ t.a.: Tuba? Tubara? Dɛnghɪ seri? Dɛnghɪ yɔ? Tei ki donɪ a?

6. ɪzɔn otu duo payɔ. ɪzɔn otu duo payɔ lelei. Orɔ ibe/ama koromɔ otumɔ gba. ɪzɔn otu duo boyɔ bii, kpɛti, parai ma gɛɛ.

7. Aya-ɔkpɔ ɪsɔmɔ firimɔ pamɔ. Aya-ɔkpɔ ɪsɔmɔ firimɔ pamɔ lelei. Orɔ yelanimi bara mɔ gba. Aya-ɔkpɔ ɪsɔmɔ firimɔ pamɔ: Redio, Tɛlɛvisiɔnɪ, Kɔmputa, I-meli (Intanɛti), Tɛlɛfonu, Bara fonu.

8. Akarɪbɪbɪ. Akarɪbɪbɪ lelei. Orɔ wɛniyemi firimɔ gba. Akarɪbɪbɪ ghɔ tuu gba. Akarɪbɪbɪ-ama t.a.: Pɛrɛ-owei ba pumu furugha. Inɛ la bonghi benibɪ e tɛin bogha. Tin pounimi anga kiri kɪ koroyemi. Fɔn gbɛinbɔ kɔ tuduoyemi.

III. A SUMMARY OF THE LINGUISTIC CONTENT OF THE ɪZɔN LANGUAGE CURRICULUM FOR PRIMARIES ONE TO SIX

A. A Summary of the Linguistic Content for Primary One

The topics to be taught in primary one include: ɪzɔn alphabets (and words in which they are found), matching ɪzɔn words with pictures, members of the immediate family (i.e. father, mother, brother, sister, elder/younger brother/sister), writing ɪzɔn words, greetings, counting and recognizing one to fifty (1-50), means of transportation (on water, on land, and in the air), ɪzɔn songs, places of origin (hometown, quarter, State), occupations, diagraphs in ɪzɔn (gb,gh,kp,ng).

B. A Summary of the Linguistic Content for Primary Two

The topics to be taught in primary two are: reading in ɪzɔn, greetings (at different times of the day), counting and recognizing fifty to one hundred (50-100), moonlight plays and songs, ways of receiving visitors, names of objects and using the names in simple sentences, adjectives and using them in simple sentences, riddles, children's plays, days of the week and market days, singular and plural of words and using them in simple sentences.

C. A Summary of the Linguistic Content for Primary Three

The topics to be taught in primary three include: singular and plural of words and using them in simple sentences, olden days songs, words of same and opposite meanings, festivals, parts of the body, verbs and using them in simple sentences, riddles, reading words and simple sentences, counting and recognizing one hundred to one thousand (100-1000), crops and their planting season.

D. A Summary of the Linguistic Content for Primary Four

The topics to be taught in primary four are: prepositions (above, in, beside, inside, under, etc.), making simple sentences, names of persons (proper nouns) and names of objects (common nouns), singular and plural of pronouns, folk tales and fables, possessive pronouns (mine, his, theirs, etc.), riddles, reading and understanding selected words and simple sentences and answering questions based on them, occupations and their tools, counting, recognizing and writing one thousand to five thousand (100-1000), present, past and future tenses, ɪzɔn traditional dresses of men and women, punctuation marks.

E. A Summary of the Linguistic Content for Primary Five

The topics scheduled to be taught in primary five are as follows: imitation and miming, words that are difficult to pronounce, conjunctions, rhymes, words of same meanings and opposite meanings, prepositions (above, under, in, behind, at the back of, etc.) and their use in sentences, stories of great men - epics and legends (of Ozidi, Isaac Boro, E.K. Clark, Tompolo, etc.), reading words and using them in making simple sentences and answering questions, old and modern ways of sending information and messages, ordinal numbers from first to hundredth (1st, 2nd, 3rd, etc.), informal letter-writing (address, date, greeting, introduction, body and complimentary close), ɪzɔn traditional occupations (fishing, farming, palm wine tapping, etc.).

F. A Summary of the Linguistic Content for Primary Six

The topics to be taught in primary six are: linking words (introduction, firstly, secondly, more importantly, most importantly, lastly, etc.), ancient beliefs (forbidden things, religious worship, religious belief, left-handedness), countable and uncountable nouns, demonstrative pronouns and their use in making simple sentences, question words and their use in asking simple questions, the origin of the ɪzɔn people and the founders of their towns and clans, modern ways of sending information and messages and their importance, proverbs and wise sayings.

IV. AN APPRAISAL OF THE LINGUISTIC CONTENT OF THE ɪZɔN LANGUAGE CURRICULUM FOR PRIMARIES ONE TO SIX

Although the ɪzɔn curricula for primaries one to six were developed from that of English as requested by the Federal Ministry of Education through the NERDC, the following pertinent observations have to be made concerning their linguistic content.

A. An Appraisal/Academic Analysis of the Linguistic Content of the ɪzɔn Curriculum for Primary One

Ịzọn alphabets, diagraphs, words, greetings are the linguistic topics in primary one. Counting from one to fifty (1-50) i.e. numeracy is part of Mathematics, while members of the immediate family, means of transportation, Ịzọn songs, places of origin and occupations are part of Social Studies.

B. An Appraisal/Academic Analysis of the Linguistic Content of the Ịzọn Curriculum for Primary Two

Reading in Ịzọn, greetings, singular and plural of words, names of objects, adjectives and using them in simple sentences, riddles, children's plays and moonlight plays are the linguistic topics in primary two. Counting i.e. numeracy is part of Mathematics, while songs, ways of receiving visitors, days of the week and market days are part of Social Studies.

C. An Appraisal/Academic Analysis of the Linguistic Content of the Ịzọn Curriculum for Primary Three

Singular and plural of words and using them in simple sentences, words of same and opposite meanings, verbs and using them in simple sentences, and riddles are the linguistic topics in primary three. Counting from 100-1000 i.e. numeracy is part of Mathematics, olden days songs and festivals are part of Social Studies, while parts of the body, crops and their planting seasons are part of Integrated Science.

D. An Appraisal/Academic Analysis of the Linguistic Content of the Ịzọn Curriculum for Primary Four

Prepositions, reading and understanding selected words, making simple sentences and answering questions based on them, proper nouns and common nouns, possessive pronouns, singular and plural of pronouns, present, past and future tenses, punctuation marks, riddles, folk tales and fables, are the linguistic topics in primary four. Counting from 100-1000 i.e. numeracy is part of Mathematics, while occupations and their tools, Ịzọn traditional dresses of men and women are part of Social Studies.

E. An Appraisal/Academic Analysis of the Linguistic Content of the Ịzọn Curriculum for Primary Five

Imitation and miming, words which are difficult to pronounce, conjunctions, rhymes, words of same meanings and opposite meanings, stories of great men - epics and legends, using words in making simple sentences and answering questions, and informal letter-writing are the linguistic topics in primary five. Ordinal numbers i.e. numeracy is part of Mathematics, but old and modern ways of sending information and messages, Ịzọn traditional occupations are part of Social Studies.

F. An Appraisal/Academic Analysis of the Linguistic Content of the Ịzọn Curriculum for Primary Six

Linking words, countable and uncountable nouns, demonstrative pronouns and their use in making simple sentences, question words and their use in asking simple questions, proverbs and wise sayings are the linguistic topics in primary six. Ancient beliefs, the origin of the Ịzọn people and the founders of their towns and clans, modern ways of sending information and messages, and their importance are part of Social Studies.

V. DISCUSSION

A. General Discussion of the Linguistic Content of the Ịzọn Language Curricula for Primaries One to Six

Firstly, topics which broadly fall under other primary school subjects such as Social Studies, Integrated Science, Mathematics, and so on (as can be seen from section 9 above) are to be taught under Ịzọn for now. However, as time goes on and we start implementing the teaching of the other primary school subjects in Ịzọn, as required by the National Policy on Education, such topics that fall under other subjects may have to be taught under their appropriate subjects.

Secondly, the serial and chronological arrangement of the linguistic topics in the Ịzọn Curricula (following the recommendation by the FME and thus the NERDC) seems to be faulty. The topics are hereby arranged as they ought to be. Ultimately, the core and peripheral linguistic topics in the Ịzọn Curricula for Primaries one to six are as follows:

- a. Reading Ịzọn alphabets, diagraphs and words. Punctuation marks. Greetings.
- b. Reading and understanding selected words, making simple sentences and answering questions based on them. Singular and plural of words and their use in making simple sentences and answering questions.
- c. Verbs and using them in simple sentences. Adjectives and using them in simple sentences. Prepositions. Conjunctions (linking words). Countable and uncountable nouns, proper nouns and common nouns (names of objects). Present, past and future tenses.
- d. Imitation and miming. Words which are difficult to pronounce. Words of same meanings and opposite meanings.
- e. Singular and plural of pronouns, and their use in making simple sentences. Demonstrative pronouns. Possessive pronouns. Question words and their use in asking simple questions.
- f. Informal letter-writing. Proverbs and wise sayings. Riddles. Stories of great men: epics and legends. Folk tales and fables. Rhymes, children's plays and moonlight plays.

B. Responsibility of the Government in Implementing the Ịzọn Language Curricula

The Ịzọn language curricula for the Basic Education Programme for primaries 1-6 were developed by the Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC) in 2010 and Ịzọn has been approved by the relevant authorities including the National Council on Education (NCE) for use in schools, but the actual implementation has not

yet started in Bayelsa State and other Iẓon-speaking States. Up till this moment the curricular have not been widely used in the State Government Primary Schools in Bayelsa, Delta, Edo and Ondo States. Prezi (2014) notes that “Iẓon is taught only in a few government-owned and private primary and secondary schools in Bayelsa State which include Ayakpo Group of Schools, Benny’s International Group of Schools, Faith Comprehensive Secondary School, and Tare Pet Group of Schools all in Yenagoa,” and in the Diploma in Iẓon Language Programme of the Centre for Niger Delta Studies of Niger Delta University. (pp. 265-266, 272). This is a major cause for concern for both teachers and pupils who should be teaching and learning the content of these curricula, as well as for linguists and language experts involved in their development. The manner of implementation can contribute to the growth and development of a nation or state or language (as in this case), or cause its stunted growth. It is the responsibility of the Governments of Bayelsa, Delta, Edo and Ondo States especially as well as their Local Governments in their various domains of authority to demonstrate commitment and assiduity as well as urgently take the right steps to start implementing the use of the curricular in their schools and encourage writers to produce reading texts and grammar books for the realization of the goals of the Iẓon language curricular.

Second, it is the duty of Iẓon linguists and literary authors to aid the development of Iẓon by publishing texts such as primers, grammars, educational books, and cultural materials, lexical innovation, lexical expansion, and so on in Iẓon as well as developing a suitable numeral system (Prezi, 2013 and 2014).

C. Teaching Methods

In order to achieve proficiency in Iẓon, the learner must use it for communication, that is, in conversations. More class time should be spent on developing listening, reading abilities as well as speaking practice.

Teachers should supply appropriate materials for pupils learning, and systematically evaluate the effectiveness of language teaching practices in promoting Iẓon language acquisition and learning by pupils schooling in the Bayelsa State Educational System.

Iẓon language teachers should do a Contrastive Analysis of English and Iẓon to bring out the differences between the two languages which are expected to pose problems to learners and also bring out the similarities between the two languages which would facilitate learning.

D. Responsibility of the School

Time-table planning: The various schools should ensure that there is enough time on the class and general school time-table for the teaching of Iẓon in Bayelsa, Delta, Ondo, Edo and other Iẓon and Ijọ speaking states in Nigeria. We recommend teaching these languages at least for two lesson periods of 40-45 minutes each, at least three days a week.

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper looks at the issues involved in the development and use of the Iẓon language curricular for primary schools and underscores the need for the State Governments to demonstrate commitment and assiduity as well as urgently take the right steps to start implementing the use of the curricular in their schools and produce reading texts and grammar books for the realization of the goals of the Iẓon language curricular. If this is done soon, the Iẓon language curricular can achieve great success. Iẓon, has been accepted for use in schools, but the actual implementation has not yet started in Bayelsa State and other Iẓon-speaking States. As the author noted in section 10.2 above, Iẓon is taught only in a few government-owned and private primary and secondary schools in Bayelsa State which include Ayakpo Group of Schools, Benny’s International Group of Schools, Faith Comprehensive Secondary School, and Tare Pet Group of Schools all in Yenagoa. (Prezi, 2014, pp. 265-266, 272).

Second, it is the duty of Iẓon linguists and literary authors to assist the Government of Iẓon-speaking States in the development of Iẓon by publishing texts such as primers, grammars, educational books, cultural materials, lexical innovation, lexical expansion, and a modern numeral system in Iẓon (Prezi, 2013, p. 245-257; and Prezi, 2014, p. 267, 272).

VII. RECOMMENDATIONS

The author wishes to reiterate here his recommendations to Bayelsa State Government in his paper titled “The State of Iẓon in Bayelsa State Schools”. (Prezi, 2014, 272-274).

First, we recommend to Bayelsa State Government and other Iẓon-speaking States, the immediate urgent and compulsory implementation of the teaching and learning of Iẓon as a school subject in all classes of the primary schools and as the mother-tongue of the immediate environment in our UBE system, from Primary One to JSS 3 in all public and private schools in their States.

Second, Iẓon language planning activities (status planning and corpus planning) vis-a-vis other mother tongues in the states, English (as the second and official language in Nigeria), and French (as the recommended Foreign language in Nigeria) should therefore be carried out by the Governments of Iẓon-speaking States.

Third, we recommend the establishment of a Bayelsa Readers Project. Bayelsa State and Local Governments, through its Ministry of Education, its UBE Board and its Local Government Education Authorities need to finance the training and retraining of teachers on how to use the readers and other language materials that were published by the

defunct Rivers Readers Project. There is also the need to rejuvenate, revise and re-edit the materials to make them suitable for current use in our primary and secondary schools in Bayelsa State. This should be done in conjunction with the Language lecturers in the Department of English and the Faculty of Education at Niger Delta University as well as the Kay Williamson Language Centre. Izon-speaking State Governments and Local Governments should also encourage and sponsor Izon (and Ijo) language teachers, scholars and linguists to cooperate and write textbooks, documents and articles on Izon language, literature and other school subjects such as religion which should be printed and published free of charge by the State printing and publishing corporation for use in Bayelsa and other State schools and colleges. Specifically, to attract more readers in Izon language, authors and publishers have to diversify from publishing only primers, grammars and course books and go into interesting literary publication of folk tales, fables, and children story books. Also, a standard Ijo dictionary should be produced with dialectal cross-referencing.

Fourth, the Bayelsa State Government should organize a series of Izon language, linguistics and training Workshops, Conferences, Symposia and Seminars at the CNDS at NDU or at Kay Williamson Language Centre in and on Izon language for indigenous Bayelsa State language teachers at all levels of Education. The Niger Delta University Inter-disciplinary Studies Committee should work with the CNDS or Kay Williamson Language Centre and collaborate with the Department of English and Literary Studies at NDU, the Faculty of Science at NDU, and the Department of Linguistics and Communication Studies of the University of Port Harcourt for the development of scientific and technical terminology such as square, cylinder, etc. in Izon.

Fifth, payment of undergraduate and post-graduate scholarship awards, bursaries and research grants to students of Linguistics and Izon, as well as scholarship to serving teachers in the Universal Basic Education system who are doing the Diploma in Izon Language Programme of the NDU Centre for Niger Delta Studies should be sustained by the Bayelsa State Government over the next three to five years to enable the State have at least an average of one trained Izon teacher to one primary or secondary school. This will encourage both those who are interested in teaching Izon and those who are interested in learning Izon. (Prezi, 2014, 272-274).

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God'spower Tamaraukuro Prezi is Lecturer 1 in English in the Department of English and Literary Studies at Niger Delta University, Wilberforce Island, Bayelsa State, Nigeria. He was born in Burutu in Delta State of Nigeria on 20th May, 1959. He obtained a Bachelor of Arts (Education) Honours in English from the University of Port Harcourt in Rivers State, Nigeria in 1985, and a Master of Arts in English from the University of Conakry in the Republic of Guinea in 2000. He is currently writing a Ph.D Thesis in Linguistics and Izon in the Department of Linguistics and Communication Studies at the University of Port Harcourt in Nigeria. He is married to Dr Mrs Grace Onyemaechi Prezi who is also a Linguist. He has two sons, Thompson Eniye and Frederic Tamaraukuro Junior.

He taught at Ekiobirowei Primary School, Isampou; Burutu Grammar School, Burutu and Government Comprehensive Secondary School, Borokiri in Port Harcourt. He was a Lecturer at College of Education, Warri and currently serves as External Examiner in the Department of Izon. He also lectured at the University of Conakry in the Republic of Guinea, and Bayelsa State College of Arts and Science, Agudama-Epie, Yenagoa. He was also Coordinator of the International Institute of Journalism, Yenagoa Campus. He is currently Lecturer 1 in English in the Department of English and Literary Studies at Niger Delta University, Wilberforce Island, Bayelsa State, Nigeria. His current and previous research interests are in English, Izon and General Linguistics. His previous publications include:

"Nasalization of the initial consonant (d-) of the Present Perfect Tense Marker (-dẹ) after the Main Verb in Izon: A Case Study of the Tarakiri Dialect". In *US-China Foreign Language Journal*, ISSN 1539-8080, January 2014, Vol. 12, No. 1, January 2014, Pages 36-43. (Serial Number 124). Rosemead, California: David Publishing Company. 2014a.

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Mr Prezi is a member of the Linguistic Association of Nigeria (LAN), the West African Linguistic Society (WALS) and the Association of Child Development and Communication Disorders of Nigeria. He is a regular member of the Editorial Boards and Committees on Izon Language Development and Translation for the Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC), UNICEF and UNESCO. He is a member of the Editorial Board of the Centre for Niger Delta Studies, Niger Delta University, Wilberforce Island, Bayelsa State, Nigeria for Izon Language Development and Translation. He received an award and attestation of participation from Republic of Guinea's Ministry of Education for "his brilliant participation in the conception of Workbooks of Mobil organized by the English Language Section of the National Institute for Research and Pedagogy (INRAP)..." from 13th August to 5th September, 2001. He has also worked in the past as an English-French bilingual Translator for the National Council of Women Societies (NCWS) Regional and African Conferences.

Making Sense of Errors Made by Analytical Chemistry Students in Their Writing

Misiwe Katiya

Fundani Centre for Higher Education Development, Cape Peninsula University of Technology, Cape Town, South Africa

Thembinkosi Mtonjeni

Fundani Centre for Higher Education Development, Cape Peninsula University of Technology, Cape Town, South Africa

Puleng Sefalane-Nkohla

Fundani Centre for Higher Education Development, Cape Peninsula University of Technology, Cape Town, South Africa

Abstract—This paper investigates the influence of the writing errors made by first year Chemistry students at CPUT. The aim is to determine their pedagogic implications. Effectively, students writing in a second language at university exhibits linguistic errors which when properly defined and corrected can promote epistemological access to and mastery of disciplinary knowledge. Error Analysis provided theoretical and analytical framework for this study. Unlike classical Contrastive Analysis (CA), Error Analysis (EA) analyses all sources of errors (Sanal, 2008). EA suggests that the learners' learning strategies are the main causes of errors. These errors are: 'transfer', 'overgeneralisation', 'simplification', 'avoidance' and 'overproduction' (Zhuang, 2011). This qualitative study examined and analysed a corpus of Chemistry 1 students' essays. It was found that mother tongue interference, syntactic and morphological errors, misapplication of essay construction rules, punctuation and spelling errors compromise the quality, meaning and rhetoricality. Essentially, the results provided feedback to the lecturers regarding the nature of students' writing errors and how have the students progressed toward the acquisition of academic language. Therefore, the study establishes the need for a tailored academic literacy intervention to promote academic language proficiency in the Chemistry discipline.

Index Terms—error analysis, academic language proficiency, academic writing, disciplinary literacy, writing errors

I. INTRODUCTION

The level of language competency exhibited by many students writing English as second language in South African universities present a window of opportunity to both the content lecturers and academic literacy lecturers to reflect and interrogate their pedagogic practices. There is greater demand for the development of students' academic language proficiency which will serve as a practical response to the generally held belief that the students who get enrolled in higher education institutions are not adequately prepared (cognitively and linguistically) to receive and appreciate tertiary education. This belief emanates from the fact that university students encounter some difficulty in learning and processing academic language.

The ability to process academic language, according to Lankshear and Knobel (2003), requires students to demonstrate the following skills and competences: (i) *operational* (competence with procedures), (ii) *cultural* (competence with the meaning system of social practices), and (iii) *critical* (social practices – values, rules, purposes). In relation to writing, operational literacy denotes writing in clear sentences, checking spelling and use punctuation correctly; cultural literacy symbolises the incorporation of ideas from other authors, the structuring of an essay, writing introductions and conclusions in an appropriate style, and referencing; critical literacy is underscored by being able to analyse an assignment question, reading academic text and reflecting critically on ideas and experiences (Green, 1999).

Krashen and Brown (2007) propose Academic Proficiency (AP) as that which could serve to make input more comprehensible and thereby help in the acquisition of academic language, and the learning of new concepts and facts. They categorise AP (knowledge and skill) in terms of two central components: knowledge of academic language and knowledge of specialised subject matter. Knowledge of academic language refers to the knowledge of the special language used in education and the professional fields whereas knowledge of specialised subject matter consists of knowledge of math, science, history and other academic subjects.

Chemistry discipline expects students to study and function with complex concepts, to memorise facts and to write lab reports explaining the experiments conducted and procedures followed when doing practicals. Wilson and Spink

(2005) believe science teaching in schools should introduce the learner to one form of social language of science (school science) and that the teacher has a key role to play in mediating the language used by scientists for the learners. However, Chemistry teachers lack adequate expertise required to teach and evaluate language (Klein & Aller, 2008; Kelly, 2010), and this makes it difficult for them to address language problems which hinder the students' academic progress. In the context of CPUT, where many students are second or third language speakers of English, students are immersed in the medium of English, which exacerbates their lack of epistemological access to disciplinary knowledge.

This paper investigates the writing errors made by the Chemistry 1 students at Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT). The aim is to determine the pedagogic implications of the errors exhibited.

A. Literature Review

The critical issues explored in the literature reviewed are: the importance of academic language proficiency and disciplinary literacy and the significance of Error Analysis. Academic language proficiency is crucial for students to acquire a number of requisite skills that reinforce the knowledge gained in the classroom, and yet the acquisition of academic proficiency proves to be a daunting task to some students.

For Becher (1994) disciplines are the lifeblood of higher education and the basis of its organisation. Becher argues that universities are composed of different (disciplinary) tribes that only in some senses share a common culture. Each tribe has its own territory, a distinct language or at least a distinct "dialect". In other words, disciplines have their own specialised vocabulary and "register" that present challenges for students that are new to the discipline (Green, 2009). According to Turner (2011) faculties should not only teach their own discipline specific language, but there are basic, generalisable linguistic, textual and rhetorical rules for the entire academic community to which students must be exposed.

Kovac and Sherwood (1999) suggest, "since chemistry is content-rich, it is easy to cover the material but neglect the development of such intellectual process skills as reading, critical thinking, and problem solving". As content and process are synergistic both must be developed systematically if students are to become independent learners (Reif *et al.*, 1976; Kovac & Sherwood, 1999). Snow (2010) puts forward an interesting argument that science teachers are not generally well prepared to help their students penetrate the linguistic puzzles that science texts present. These teachers recognise the value of teaching vocabulary, but they typically focus on the science vocabulary. Furthermore, Snow maintains that efforts to help the students understand science should not be ignored as well their need to understand the words used to write and talk about science (the all-purpose academic words as well as the discipline-specific ones).

Purser, Skillen, Deane, Donohue and Peake (2008) reckon while students need to develop high level communication skills, in genres often quite specific to higher education, in order that their learning can be assessed, teaching them academic writing during the course of their disciplinary studies raises a number of pedagogical and philosophical questions. Reporting on collaborative work done by a group of academics in different geographic and institutional locations, who share a dream of improving student learning through curriculum-integrated teaching of writing they put forward the following argument:

Perhaps the need for explicit instruction in academic literacy is most frequently and acutely felt by specialists in the teaching of academic language and the general development of learning in universities, as their work, and institutional positioning, often affords unique insights into the relationships between learning, teaching and assessment, curriculum development, educational policy and institutional governance.

Shin *et al.* (2009) emphasise the point made by Purser *et al.* (2008) when they argue that critical language and literacy skills are essential elements in acquiring scientific content knowledge i.e. the understanding of "technical vocabulary and concepts, writing and following procedures, reviewing information, summarising data, constructing logical arguments, responding to critical analysis of peers or teachers, and communicating results for a variety of different audiences with a specific focus on the expository genres associated with science".

Everybody makes mistakes in both native and second language situations. Normally native speakers are able to recognise and correct such mistakes, which are not the result of a deficiency in competence, but they are the result of imperfection in the process of producing speech (Brown, 1987). Hussain, Hanif, Asif and Abaid Ur Rehman (2013) contend that all learners make mistakes irrespective of the language they are learning, but the nature of errors in L1 is quite different from those of L2. They further state that the nature of errors changes as the learner move from one stage to another. This means that errors are a useful strategy in acquiring both mother tongue and learning a target language.

Robinson (1998) error making is a natural phenomenon in learning, and it has pedagogical implications. Errors are significant to the teacher because they indicate how far the learner has progressed and, consequently, what remains to be learnt. They are indispensable to the learner because they can be regarded as a device the learner uses in order to learn a target language. Since writing at university is one of the important mediums to measure the conceptual, linguistic and academic productive capacity of each student, it is vital to "make sure that the errors existing in their work are identified and corrected" (Mutema & Mariko, 2012).

Richards and Schmidt (2002, p.184) put forward three reasons why Error Analysis must be carried out, namely: (i) to identify strategies which learners use in language learning, (ii) to identify the causes of learner errors, and (iii) to obtain information on common difficulties in language learning as an aid to teaching or in preparation of teaching material. Corder (1967) cited in Abeywickrama (2010) classifies errors as diagnostic and prognostic. They are diagnostic because they can present teachers with the learner's state of the language at a given point during the learning process. They are

prognostic because they can inform course organisers to reorient language learning materials on the basis of the learners' current problems.

Since Chemistry students have to write reports and essays in English (target language) they are prone to make grammatical and conceptual mistakes. These students experience both linguistic and conceptual challenges upon entering into technical disciplines such Chemistry. The teaching of academic language coupled with disciplinary literacy cannot be totally ignored. Therefore, strategies to help the chemistry lecturers and students must be devised and investigated to thwart linguistic and conceptual challenge faced by the students learning Chemistry in a second or third language.

B. Theoretical Framework

Error Analysis is a theoretical framework used in this study. This theory was conceptualised out of dissatisfaction with Contrastive Analysis (CA). The process involved in CA is the comparison of learners' mother tongue and the target language (Heydari & Bagheri, 2012) while Error Analysis analyses all sources of errors (Sanal, 2008). Unlike classical CA, Error Analysis suggests that the learners' learning strategies are the main causes of errors, namely: 'transfer', 'overgeneralisation', 'simplification', 'avoidance', and 'overproduction' (Zhuang, 2011).

Richards (1971) cited in Heydari & Bagheri 2012 categorised into:

- Interference errors: errors resulting from the use of elements from one language while speaking/writing another,
- Intralingual errors: errors reflecting general characteristics of the rule learning such as faulty generalization, incomplete application of rules and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply, and
- Developmental errors: errors occurring when learners attempt to build up hypothesis about the target language on the basis of limited experiences.

Corder (1967) who is a forerunner of the Error Analysis Theory states, "errors provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in the discovery of the language" (Corder, 1967, p.167). James (1998) defines Error Analysis as "the process of determining the incidence, nature, causes and consequences of unsuccessful language" (p.1). Falih (2010) maintains that errors have proved to be inevitable to the development of language learning and have come to be taken as 'a healthy sign of learnability'.

Huan (2011) concurs with Falih (2010), but extends this argument by stating that Error Analysis is one of the ways to study the second/foreign language, and the aim of which is to know the learners' learning strategies and reasons for causing errors. Error Analysis is not only about identifying and detecting errors but actually trying to explain why they are made (Taher 2011; Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). Error Analysis can be considered as a fundamental tool in language teaching in order to reorganise teacher's point of view and readdress his/her methodology for fixing and fulfilling the students' gaps (Heydari & Bagheri, 2012).

Error Analysis Hypothesis does not pin down error causes on L1 interference but regards error making as 'an inevitable and positive part of language learning as the learner gets creative in the construction process' (Mutema and Mariko, 2012; Hedge 2000). Though their study is meant to benefit the L2 teacher, from high school right up to tertiary level, they also believe that learners should be exposed to more practice in academic writing in the L2 and making sure that the errors existing in their work are identified, corrected and then, the learner takes note of them and tries to improve on them (Mutema and Mariko, 2012).

II. METHODOLOGY

The study was designed to help elucidate the important phenomenon of social reality in Applied Sciences by analysing the errors Chemistry students show evidence of in their writing. The idea was both to determine the impact of the central concept or phenomenon (writing errors) has in the context (learning of chemistry) with the goal (aim for the future) of informing teaching and learning strategies.

Qualitative research approach was used to analyse the Chemistry 1 students' written assignments. This study is phenomenological and since it is based on social reality it is explorative and interpretivist in nature (Merriam, 2002; Denzin & Lincoln, 2003, 2011; Flick, 2011; Moriarty, 2011; Joubish, Khurram, Ahmed, Fatima & Haider, 2011). The study analysed errors exhibited by Chemistry 1 students at CPUT with the aim of establishing the influence these errors have in their academic performance and the role played by language to access disciplinary knowledge.

Qualitative researchers deploy a wide range of interpretive practices to get a better understanding of the subject matter (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011:4). When conducting an *Error Analysis* there are some steps that are included in the process (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). These steps are: (i) the collection of a sample of learner language, (ii) identification of errors, (iii) description of errors, (iv) explanation of errors, and (v) the evaluation of errors. To mark the quality of students' writing the following constructs were designed: (i) student's performance above 65%, (ii) performance between 50 and 65%, and (iii) performance below 50%. See table 1 below:

TABLE 1:
LEVEL DESCRIPTION AND MARK ALLOCATION

Performance Indicator	Description of Category
Students performance above 65%	Complex Vocabulary and Rhetoricity: Using complex jargon, limited grammatical and spelling errors and persuasive argument.
Students performance between 50 and 65%	Persuasive Writing: Using persuasive argument, not adequately sophisticated jargon, and exhibit some grammatical and spelling errors.
Students performance below 50%	Ambiguous Argument: Showing too many grammatical and spelling errors, and less sophisticated use of jargon.

The above three categories were determined in terms of mark allocated by the Chemistry lecturers who evaluated the students' assignments. Basically, two samples of text from each category were chosen (Complex Vocabulary and Rhetoricity, Persuasive Writing and Ambiguous Argument) to determine the types of errors made.

III. RESULTS

A. Presentation of Findings

The study is confined to the identification, categorisation, classification and analysis of the impact of errors in the Chemistry 1 students' writing/essay. Effectively, the study will use Richards' (1971) model by identifying the three broad categories such interference, intralingual and developmental errors. **Interference errors** entail the use of elements from one language while speaking or writing another. **Intralingual errors** reflect general characteristics of the rule learning such as faulty generalisation, incomplete application of rules and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply. **Developmental errors** occur when a learner attempts to build up a hypothesis about the target language on the basis of limited experience.

To provide a holistic classification of errors the following categories were identified: meaning, tense and verb-related, grammatical and spelling errors. Transitive and intransitive were considered to be syntactic errors; tense errors tend to interfere with the meaning of the whole sentence. Common errors found can be attributed to the following:

- Colloquialism (pronouns, register, oral vs. written genre)
- Syntax (short, incomplete and long sentences)
- Referencing (inconsistency, plagiarism and bibliography)
- Misapplication of essay construction rules
- Introduction (thesis statement and plan of development)
- Paragraph formation (argumentation)
- Subject-verb agreement

B. Data Analysis

The analysis of errors is presented in three groups (Category 3 Errors, Category 2 Errors and Category 1 Errors). These categories are determined by the Performance Indicator and Description of Category reflected in table 1. Data analysed is presented in Fig 1 to 6. Effectively, data analysis begins with Category 3, Category 2 and Category 1 Errors respectively.

Category 3 Errors

Fig 1 and Fig 2 fall into the Category 3 (Ambiguous Argument). The respondents in this category demonstrate too many grammatical and spelling errors, punctuation and syntactic errors, faulty argumentation and the absence of the writers' voice. Interference, Intralingual and Developmental errors are prevalent. However, intralingual and developmental errors are dominant.

Fig 1 exhibits two categories of errors such as intralingual and developmental errors. Although the respondent shows awareness of structure and layout of the essay, there are a number of errors exhibited. The respondent does not include all the important features or elements of a well-formed introduction. For example, there is no thesis statement, no indication of the scope of argument and no plan of development. The background information and definition of the key concept (pharmaceutical industry) has been provided, but the reader is left wanton in terms of the overview and point of departure.

The introductory paragraph presents an example of material copied and pasted without being properly integrated into the appropriate narrative of the introduction. There is a gap between the introductory paragraph and the body of the essay. This shows that the student is trying to build up an argument, but has limited experience in essay writing. As much as this is a developmental error this writing shows elements of intralingual errors – reflecting general characteristics of the rule learning such as faulty generalisation, incomplete application of rules and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply.

Common errors identified in Fig 1 in respect of the introductory paragraph are the following: (i) ambiguity, (ii) colloquialism, (iii) referencing, and (iv) syntax. Ambiguity and colloquialism are demonstrated by use of phrases and words such as “but there are hundreds more”, which finishes the second sentence and “here”, at the end of the sentence. The word “here” in the third sentence is misleading in terms of locality. In other words, such mistakes indicate that the

material presented has been copied and pasted without acknowledging the source. This is antithetic to proper application of essay construction rules.

The incorporation of statistics without reference points to the direction of plagiarism in the fourth sentence. Moreover, the embedded clause, “of these 25,000 work in R&D” makes it difficult for the reader to identify the subject refer to. The abbreviation “UK” increases confusion hence in academic writing all abbreviations should be preceded by an explanation every time they are introduced in a new context.

Other errors can be identified in respect of layout and paragraphing. The writer understands the structural pattern of the essay that it must have an introduction, body and conclusion. However, the word “body” needs not be reflected. The subheading “identity testing” should be used instead. Even so, the body section has little connection with the introductory paragraph. Furthermore, the writer has one big paragraph representing the discussion (in the body section of the essay). The writer should have broken the argument into different paragraphs with themes.

Faulty syntax is indicated by the use of many conjunctions in fifth sentence, which reads, “many are scientists..... or other specialists in the field”. The reader would end up losing the overall meaning. The sentence becomes too long. Another example in the second last sentence of the introductory paragraph is indicated by the phrase “during this time”. The reader could get confused about the actual reference indicated by the phrase. The parallelism employed regarding the subjects of the two clauses ‘different people are involved’ and ‘the medicine passes’ is problematic as it can cause confusion. In addition, the use of the pronoun “these” is unclear as to whether it refers to the ‘tests’ or ‘a large number of tests’. These types of syntactic errors render the writer’s argumentation fragmented and ambiguous.

The errors identified in Fig 1 can be associated with developmental errors because the writer is trying to build up a hypothesis about the target language (academic essay writing genre) on the basis of limited experience. Effectively, the entire essay represents an example of material copied and pasted without the writer’s voice or interpretation thereof. In proper academic writing, secondary material or experts’ views need to be tactfully integrated into the writer’s narrative. As much as the errors identified are developmental there are elements of intralingual errors – reflecting general characteristics of the rule learning such as faulty generalisation, incomplete application of rules and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply. See Fig 1 below.

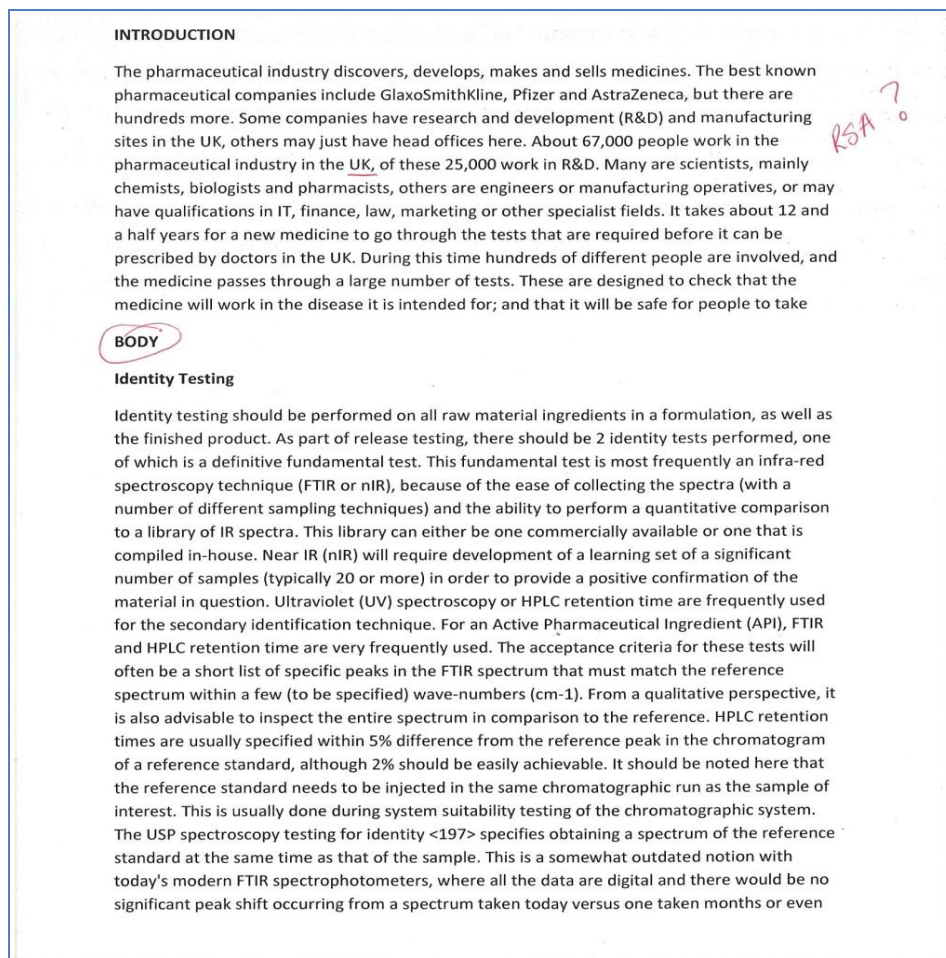


Figure 1. Pharmaceutical Testing Industry

In Fig 2 three main errors such as interference, intralingual and development error albeit the last two being dominant. The writer’s voice is prevalent, which is a good sign of authority. Different sections are marked by means of sub-

headings. However, there is neither introduction nor identification of themes. The writer starts off by delving straight into the discussion. Generally, errors identified are: paragraph formation, referencing, spelling, syntax, punctuation, tense, verb choice and misapplication of rules.

In the opening sentence, "From the coal mining industry it is imported to know the oxygen content, namely hydrogen, carbonate and sulphur content" verb-related error is identified. The verb "imported" is confusing. Coal is imported, but not the coal mining industry. It is either the writer spelt the word "important" incorrectly or does not understand the meaning of the word "imported". Another error is identified at a syntactic level: beginning a sentence with a preposition, "from" as if it is a predicate. Furthermore, colon should precede the listing of items, but in the opening sentence it is absent. Therefore, the meaning of the sentence is impaired. See Fig 2 below.

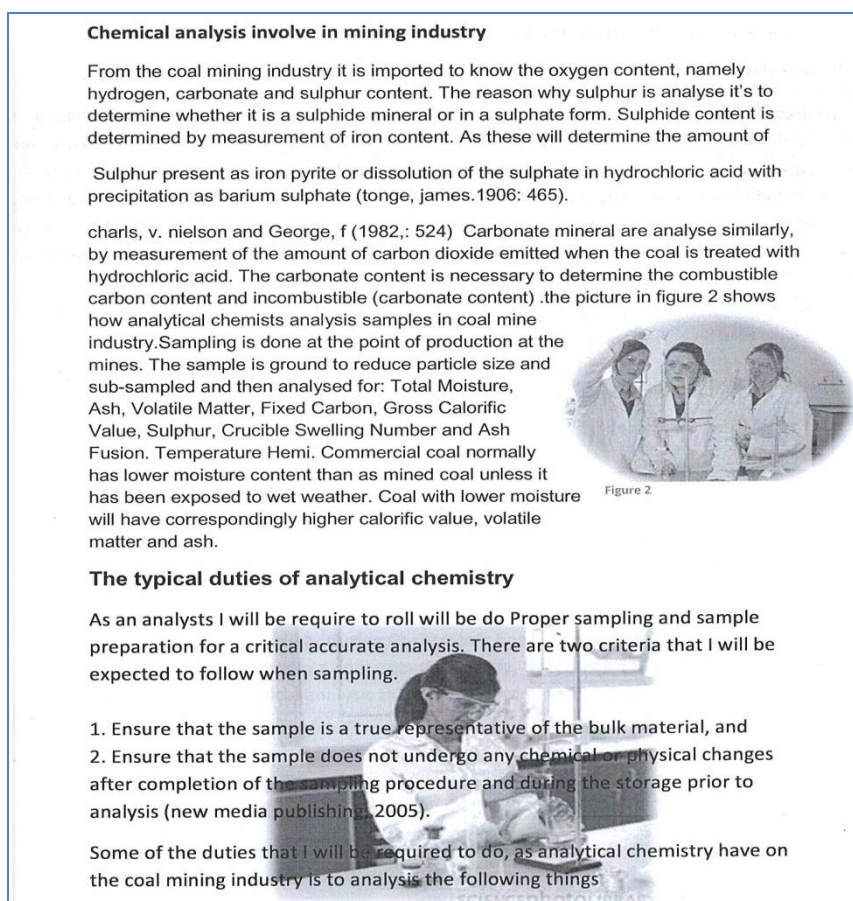


Figure 2. The Role of Analytical Chemistry in the Mines

There is a syntactic error in the second sentence, "the reason why sulphur is analyse it's to determine it is sulphide mineral or in sulphate form", as the word order is inappropriate; inclusion the noun phrase "the reason" and tautology "why"; the omission of "a" in the phrase "in sulphide form". The inclusion of phrases "it's" and "the reason why" indicates mother tongue interference.

There are a number of developmental errors made, namely: (i) verb-tense, (ii) contraction, (iii) colloquialism, (iv) double-noun phrase, and (v) omission. The verb in "is analyse" indicates the absence of past tense marker, "ed". Contraction occurs in the phrase "it's to determine" which serves to indicate both the influence of mother tongue (interference) and colloquialism. The employment of double-noun phrase (the reason and its referential pronoun "it") augments the sentence construction challenge.

The pronoun "it" which succeeds the verb "to determine" is misleading. It is not known whether "it" represents the analysis of sulphur or the reason why sulphur is to be analysed. There is also an omission of the complementary clause, "if" or "whether", between the verb "to determine" and pronoun "it". This affects the meaning of the sentence. As much as the above errors can be categorised as developmental, they reflect the challenge the writer experiences in terms of understanding rules and conditions under which they apply – intralingual challenge.

Other errors arising from Fig 2 are: paragraphing, punctuation, referencing, omission, verb tense and syntax. In the second and third paragraph an error associated with misapplication of the referencing rule is evident (intralingual error). The two sentences containing errors are: "Sulphur present iron pyrite or dissolution of sulphate in hydrochloric acid with precipitation as barium sulphate (tonje, james. 1906:405)" and "charls, v. nielson George f (1982,:524) Carbon mineral are analyse similarly, by measurement of the amount of carbon dioxide emitted when coal is treated with hydrochloric acid". In terms of the application of rules: (i) though the page numbers are provided there are no inverted

commas used by the writer to indicate direct citation, (ii) first names or initials of the author cannot be applied inside the text (in-text referencing), (iii) first letter in the person's name or surname ought to be written in capital letters, (iv) full-stop cannot be included on the in-text referencing, (v) comma cannot be inserted between the year of publication and semicolon, (vi) there is no need for starting the word "Carbon" with a capital letter after the reference, and (vii) it is unclear whether "charls, v. nielson George f (1982,:524)" refers to court case or Harvard system of referencing.

Furthermore, the writer tends to employ two different font types. This indicates copying and pasting from different sources, which renders the sentences unclear and ambiguous. The use of personal pronoun "I" in the second part indicates partiality of voice, subjectivity, authority and shift in the thinking trend. In the first part the writer sounds more objective even though lots of omission occurs. There is possibility that the writer was aware of the need to paraphrase by leaving out certain parts of the information, especially in the last paragraph.

The opening sentence of the second part "As an analysts I will be require to roll will be do Proper sampling and sample preparation for a critical accurate analysis" comprises of a number of errors such as mother tongue interference, tense, faulty syntax, subject-verb agreement. The last sentence "some of the duties that I will required to do, as analytical chemistry have on the coal mining industry is to analyse the following things" presents similar errors. It is difficult to make sense of what the writer is trying to say. Thus, these types of errors signify the students' limited exposure to academic writing—the developmental challenge.

Category 2 Errors

Fig 3 and Fig 4 fit into Category 2 Errors (Persuasive writing). This type of writing shows elements of persuasive writing, but not adequately sophisticated jargon is used, and exhibits some grammatical and spelling errors.

In Fig 3 the writer's voice is present and is carried throughout the argumentation process. Upon examining the student's voice, one can conclude that there is humility and persuasion in the voice. The writer offers a good justification for the choice of a topic in the first sentence of the introductory paragraph. There is some form of authority in the voice which could also be witnessed in the first/opening sentence, "I have chosen this topic because it is very important in human life and has a pharmacist I can be able to help indirectly." Moreover, layout is clear. The essay is structured with the necessary headings.

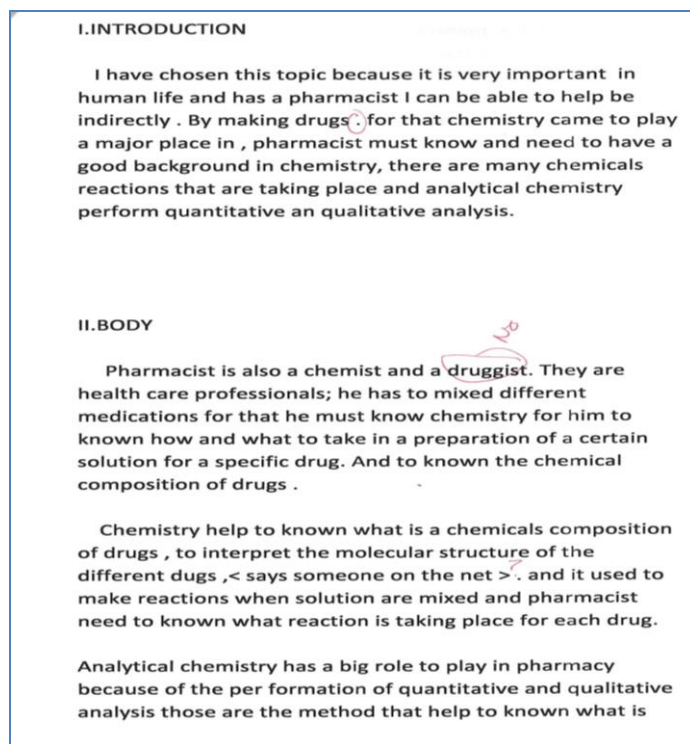


Figure 3. Being a Phamarcist

Although there is an indication a topic whose relevance is specified in the opening sentence thesis statement is missing. There is a problem of punctuation and lack of vocabulary so as to enable the writer to express him or herself properly and comprehensively. Syntax is faulty. Sometimes, there is a wrong use of concepts. Conjunction "as" has been replaced by an auxiliary verb "has". The second sentence is not complete ("By making drugs") because there is no noun phrase. The predicate would often confuse the readers if its subject is unknown or omitted.

The sentence which reads, "for that chemistry came play a major place in, there are many chemicals reactions that are taking place and analytical chemistry perform both quantitative and qualitative analysis" contains a number of unwarranted syntactic and semantic faults. Firstly, this sentence begins with a small letter. Secondly, the use of verbs

“came” and “play” is confusing. Possibly, the writer sought to use the word “can” for *came* and “role” for *place*. There is no object after the preposition “in” (defaulted intransitive sentence). The inflectional suffix “s” attached to the words “chemicals” breaks the relationship between the word “chemical” and “reactions”. It now reads as two distinct words whereas it should logically have been treated as one phrase (“many chemical reactions”) with the head word “reactions”. This is clearly a problem of word formation – morphological compounding.

Usually, the word “body” does not have to appear within the body text of an essay. It is an imaginary structure. In fact, three issues arise from the body section of the essay, namely: sloppy or faulty syntax, wrong of punctuation and wrong application of conjunction rules. The sentence “Chemistry help to known what is the chemicals composition of drugs, to interpret the molecular structure of the different drug, <says someone on the net>. and it used to make reactions when solutions are mixed and pharmacist need to know what reaction is taking place for each drug” contain a number of grammatical mistakes. Firstly, the infinite verb and subject-verb concord rule are flouted in the phrase “Chemistry help to known”. The choice of verbs and tense (“chemistry help”, “to known”, “pharmacist need” the chemicals composition of drugs”) shows inadequate development of grammatical, morphological and syntactic competence. It also indicates the lack of competence in general sentence construction rules.

The encircled phrase “<says someone on the net>” uses greater and smaller than instead of inverted commas when citing directly from external sources. Moreover, the last paragraph/sentence does not make sense at all. There is also an incorrect word use, for example, the word “per formation”. It does not exist both as a stand-alone lexical item or compound. Generally, the types of errors identified above demonstrate that the writer is still in learning process and has not yet mastered the rules. Claims are not substantiated by means of reference to expert views or secondary material. This shows that the writer has a long way in terms of learning academic language or academic writing conventions. Errors identified were classified as developmental and intralingual errors.

In Fig 4 the writer/student is fairly persuasive. The structure is evident and the reader is made aware of the phenomenon under discussion. Background information is provided and the presence of voice gives authority and confidence to the utterances made. However, the introduction misses: (i) thesis statement, (ii) scope, and (iii) plan of development (i.e. the outlining of key issues or themes). The second paragraph under the introduction section does not give any detail about the direction the discussion will assume. In addition, paragraph does not be a single sentence.

Though there is connection between the body of the essay and the content of the introduction utilising a question in the heading “Why Forensics?” makes it sound advertorial. The style is similar to that of a brochure, magazine, newspaper or pamphlet. Clearly, the writer intends to be persuasive although employing non-academic style. Ideas are appropriately discussed in separate paragraphs, and the argument is presented generally in third person. The writer’s voice is heard throughout the essay. The inclusion of the pronoun “I” in the opening sentence of the body give credibility to claim made about the writer’s confidence and sustainability of voice. Besides, there a number of errors identified. See figure 4 below.

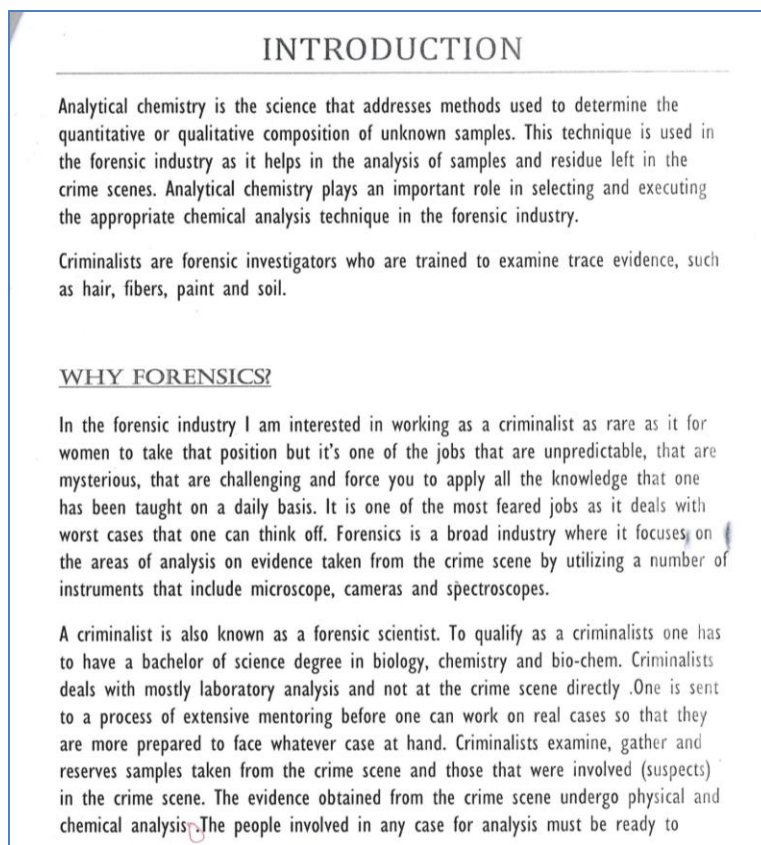


Figure 4. Forensic Industry

There is one incident of the use of the first person pronoun “I” (in the opening sentence of forensic discussion) and one occurrence of contraction in the phrase “it’s one of the jobs that are in unpredictable”. Syntax is also identified as a challenge – the use of long meandering sentence with so many conjunction does not only make this writing colloquial or informal, but senseless. Without the use of examples and references the argument becomes too abstract and somewhat vague. There is also a missing plural marker and inconsistent application of subject-verb-agreement rule in “Criminalists gather, examine and reserves” and “The evidence obtained from the crime scene undergo physical and chemical analysis”. This indicates that the rules are known but not consistently applied. Such mistakes are associated with developmental and intralingual errors.

Category 1 Errors

Fig 5 and Fig 6 (Complex Vocabulary and Rhetoricity) show that the students in this category are capable of using complex jargon, demonstrating limited grammatical and spelling errors, and their argument is persuasive. In other words, the students’ voice is heard and understanding is evident. Though three categories of errors (interference, intralingual and developmental) were identified the former is not a dominant feature.

In Fig 5 one cannot clearly identify the structure because in the introductory paragraph the writer did not identify the key points (themes). Due to the justification for the choice of industry the first sentence/paragraph serves as an introduction. The writer’s voice is present and the personal pronoun “I” in the first sentence legitimises the writer’s utterances or claim to be authoritative. The confident and persuasive voice is carried out through the essay.

The following errors were identified: (i) claims are not supported or explicated, (ii) the use of bullet points which are not followed by an explanation, (iii) citations and references are not included, (iv) punctuation is not done properly, (v) there is no logical connection of ideas, and (vi) syntax is faulty. For instance, the first sentence in the introduction is long and meandering. It contains a number of conjunctions (‘but because’, ‘and’, ‘and also’), which interfere with the intended meaning. In the event where “but” is used to mark the beginning of the embedded clause there is no need for one to include another conjunction “because”. It is redundant to do so. One can conclude that there is mother tongue interference. See Fig 5 below.

I chose this industry because not only Chevron is a crude oil refinery but because Chevron is a major contributor to the regions economic growth ,and it supports many organisations that need food ,money and also giving a helping hand to people who need them most .Chevron is also contributing in HIV/AIDS programs

Chevron owns and operates five refineries in the United States, Cape Town South Africa and the one in Burnaby British Columbia .It is the worlds fifth largest company. It markets its products under the Caltex brand .Chevron operates the worlds largest crude oil refinery with a productive of 110 000 barrels a day. They supply chemicals ,namely ,catalysts ,gases(meth manganese) ,Ammonia ,Sulphuric acid and many more other products

Chevron is the non-operating partner in seven joint venture refineries

- Pascagoula=Mississippi
- Salt Lake City-Utah
- Richmond-California
- Burnaby-Canada
- Cape Town-South Africa
- El Segundo-California

Chevron is developing alternative energy sources . Those include Geothermal, Solar ,Wind, Biofuel ,fuel cells ,photo voltares ,advanced and hydrogen fuel for transport and power technologies through Chevron energy solutions and Chevron technology ventures.

Figure 5. Oil Refinery (Chevron)

Two sentences cannot stand in the place of a paragraph. The introductory paragraph is made up of only two sentences. Besides the provision of background information about the phenomenon (Chevron), the writer does not provide the thesis statement, scope and plan of development. In addition, the word “regions” should have been apostrophised to give the indication of possession. Finally, the word “them” in the clause “and also giving a helping hand to people who need them most” is misleading. It is clear the writer here is referring to money and food or the organisations or Chevron. Though it is evident that the writer presents the background of Chevron the developmental errors made have a potential to indicate both progress and the amount of work needed to be done to assist the student to advance in learning the target language.

Some details in the second paragraph are provided authoritatively without reference. In other words, there are signs of plagiarism. The language used, except for punctuation, is without errors. Subject-verb agreement is appropriately used, and sentences are short. The overall argument is persuasive with enough examples being provided. Thus, types of errors identified are developmental.

Fig 6 below contains some positive features of academic and persuasive writing. There is authority and confidence in the utterances made. Key features such as contextual significance of the phenomenon, the outlining of the key themes and thesis statement made a powerful introductory paragraph especially for a short essay. Though the thesis statement is not accurate in terms of indicating the topic, but one can identify the topic to be chemical analysis in food industry. The layout is spot on. The opening sentence gives an indication of a writer’s legitimate and confident voice. It comes across as an attention grabbing device. The personal pronoun “us” presents a compelling argument. Examples are provided and the reader is left clear what the content is about.

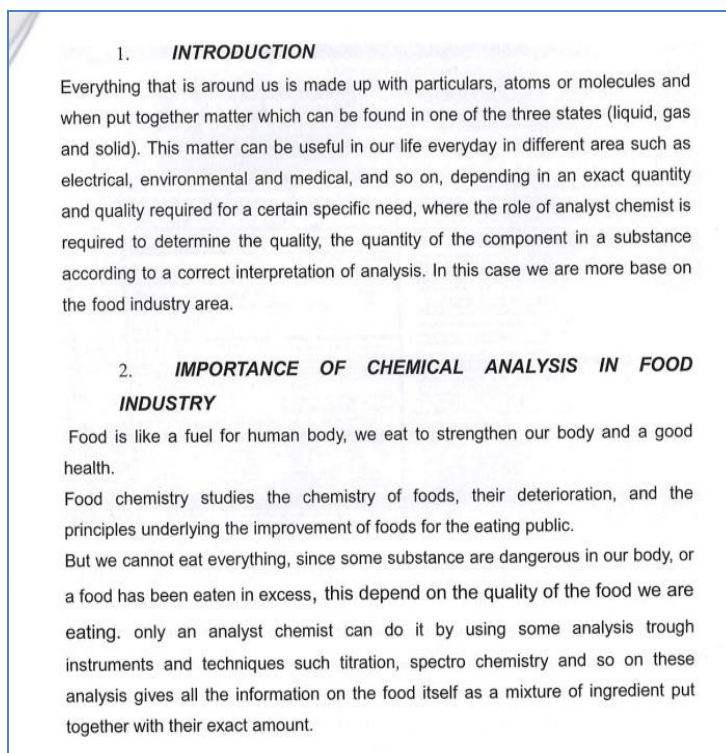


Figure 6. Chemical Analysis in Food Industry

Nonetheless, there are basic errors identified, namely: (i) second person pronouns (“us”, “we”, “our”), (ii) colloquial utterances (words or phrases) such as “like”, “eat everything”, “the chemistry of foods” (iii) paragraphing (the use of short and improper paragraphs), (iv) punctuation, (v) the misapplication of subject-verb agreement rule, and (vi) absence of citations and referencing. Though these errors many not necessarily negatively affect the meaning but they have a bearing on the assessment of the quality and authenticity of the argument presented.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The analysis of errors made by the Analytical Chemistry first year students in their writing provided an insight into how the academic language proficiency of students reflects both their writing challenges and progress they have made in the learning of chemistry through medium of second language (English). Based students’ performance which varied according to the students that performed above 65%, between 50% and 60% and those below 50% in their assignment, Richard’s (1971) categorisation (interlanguage, intralingual and developmental errors) was used to identify, classify and determine the impact these errors may have on students’ performance and their ability to communicate meaning in Chemistry.

The study helped the lecturers to get feedback on how writing errors can affect teaching and learning practices. Two dominant errors identified are **intralingual** (faulty generalisation, incomplete application of rules and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply) and **developmental errors** (building hypothesis about the target language on the basis of limited experience). Put differently, mother tongue interference, syntactic and morphological errors, misapplication of essay construction rules, punctuation and spelling errors are found to compromise the quality and rhetoricality in students writing. Falih (2010) maintains that errors are ‘a healthy sign of learnability’. They are a natural phenomenon in learning with pedagogical implications (Robinson, 1998). Errors found in the study are mother tongue interference, sentence formation, morphological errors, punctuation and spelling errors, and misapplication of essay construction rules. They are grouped into intralingual and developmental errors. These two categories of errors compromise the quality of students’ writing; interfere with students’ ability to communicate meaning; and their rhetorical capability. The study also revealed without the elimination of linguistic and conceptual obstacles the students will find it difficult to learn Chemistry successfully.

Dominant categories of errors found are developmental and intralingual errors. There are instances where mother tongue interference is evident. These errors cannot be attributed to mother tongue interference. For instance, in Figure 2 and Figure 5, there are errors than can be associated with mother tongue interference. Though the use of the first person pronouns “I” and “us” is prohibited in academic writing, as it flouts maxim of objectivity and impartiality. Avoiding personal pronouns forces one to be objective; to sound more formal; and maintain an appropriate tone (Maddalena, 2010), but at the same time, it increases credibility, precision and clarity of identity on the writer’s voice. Personal pronoun “I” gives a powerful authorial presence, which often display the writer’s high level of authority within the text.

This authority legitimises ‘a right to control or command others’ and ‘knowledge or expertise in a particular field’ (Kuhi, 2012; Tang & John, 1999).

Monica Chavez Muñoz who studied discourse functions of personal pronouns and verb forms referring to writer and reader interaction adds, “the interpreter” construct to Tang and John (1999) taxonomy (1. I as representative; 2. I as the guide; 3. I as the architect; 4. I as the recounter of the research processes; 5. I as the opinion holder and 6. I as the originator). Interpreter explains and constructs knowledge based on the researcher’s experience, expertise and understanding the field of study (Muñoz, 2013). In terms of rhetoricality science writing places high premium on objectivity and neutrality (Allen, 2004). However, knowledge of the strategic use of personal pronouns is of great value to journal article writers (Kuo, 1999). For instance, when used properly as in Figure 6 the first person pronoun can be a crucial instrument for conveying the writer’s voice and communicating originality.

The presence of errors in Chemistry students’ writing demonstrates the pedagogic value of focusing curriculum on teaching and learning of academic language. Errors should not discourage lecturers but instead expose the students more into academic writing activities so as to enable them to identify, correct and improve upon errors (Mutema and Mariko, 2012). Many errors identified do interfere with the meaning. Mother tongue interference, incorrect use of tense, incorrect application of disciplinary concepts, omissions, faulty syntax, use of first person pronouns and subject-verb disagreement often challenge the reader to guess what the intended meaning could be.

Krashen and Brown (2007) propose Academic Proficiency (AP) as a mechanism to make input more comprehensible and the acquisition of academic language or the learning of new concepts and facts possible. Therefore, critical language and literacy skills are essential elements in acquiring scientific content knowledge (technical vocabulary, concepts), writing, research and critical analysis and communication (Shin *et al.*, 2009; Purser *et al.*, 2008). The teaching of academic language and discipline-specific concepts concurs with the principle of reorganising teacher’s point of view and methodology for fixing and fulfilling the students’ learning gaps advocated by Heydari & Bagheri (2012). Though Chemistry teachers lack adequate expertise required to teach and evaluate language (Klein & Aller, 2008; Kelly, 2010), but Wilson and Spink (2005) suggest that teachers should introduce the learner to one form of social language of science (school science) and should mediate the language used.

The study also revealed that the successful teaching and learning Chemistry subject depends on the elimination of linguistic and conceptual obstacles. This contributes to the ongoing research on the value of language in helping university students to gain epistemological access to disciplinary knowledge. Thus, Discipline-Specific Academic Literacy Intervention Programme should be conceptualised in Applied Sciences to empower the Chemistry students with critical literacy, disciplinary knowledge, metacognition, self-monitoring and self-editing capabilities.

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Misiwe Katiya is a Senior Academic Staff Development Lecturer at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT) in Cape Town (South Africa). She obtained PhD in Linguistics in 2004 from the Nelson Mandela University of Technology (NMMU) in Port Elizabeth. She has a vast teaching experience in high school and tertiary education. She has been born in the Grahamstown in the Eastern Cape Province. She is passionate about language development, how language is used in society (sociolinguistics), second language acquisition and learning, the use of language in technology and language and culture. She has experience in both student development and academic staff development.



Thembinkosi Mtonjeni is an Academic Literacy Lecturer at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT) in Cape Town (South Africa). He was born in the area of Cala in the Eastern Cape (South Africa). He has worked in the Writing Centre for more than a decade (since 2001). He is passionate about the student's cognitive, conceptual and linguistic development, especially in the context multilingual and multicultural South Africa. In 2013, he obtained Mphil in Intercultural Communication from the University of Stellenbosch, South Africa.



Puleng Sefalane-Nkohla is an Academic Literacy Lecturer with vast experience in leading and coordinating the Writing Centre at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT) in South Africa. She is interested in student writing in higher education, second language writing, academic development of students and leadership in higher education. She was born in Burgersdorp along the Drakensburg in the Eastern Cape. She graduated Masters in Language Technology in 2009, and is currently doing second Master's Degree MPhil in higher education at the Stellenbosch University.

Relationship between Acculturation Attitude and Pragmatic Comprehension

Vahid Rafieyan

School of Educational Studies, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia

Nazanin Behnammohammadian

School of Educational Studies, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia

Maryam Orang

Department of TEFL, Hamedan Branch, Islamic Azad University, Hamedan, Iran

Abstract—Comprehension of target language implicatures requires familiarity with the culture-specific conventions encoded in target language expressions which presupposes tendency to learn about the culture of target language community. To this end, a study was conducted over 80 Iranian undergraduates of English in universities in Australia to explore the relationship between acculturation attitude and pragmatic comprehension ability. Data for the study were collected through an acculturation attitude questionnaire and a pragmatic comprehension test. The results of the spearman rank order correlation indicated a strong positive relationship between level of attitude toward target language culture and pragmatic comprehension ability. Pedagogical implications of the findings suggested a high level of interaction with target language speakers and familiarity with culture of target language community for language learners during educational sojourns.

Index Terms—acculturation, contact, implicature, pragmatics, Sojourn

I. INTRODUCTION

Comprehension of target language expressions, according to the relevance theory set forward by Sperber and Wilson (1986), involves the interaction of two elements: the contextual effects that the utterance yields and the processing effort that the audience needs to make to comprehend the utterance. Relevance theory is concerned with two general principles: the cognitive principle of relevance and the communicative principle of relevance. The cognitive principle of relevance states that the greater the contextual effects achieved by the audience, the greater the relevance of the input to the person processing it; however, the smaller the processing effort required by the audience to obtain these effects, the greater the relevance of the input. The communicative principle of relevance states that human communication creates an expectation of optimal relevance on the part of the audience that his/her attempt at interpretation will yield adequate contextual effect at minimal processing effort (Zixia, 2009).

Comprehension of implied meanings (implicatures), referred to as pragmatic comprehension, involves “understanding meaning at two different levels: utterance meaning, or assigning sense to the words uttered; and force, or speaker’s intention behind the words” (Thomas, 1995, p. 22). To arrive at the optimal comprehension of target language expressions, familiarity with the culture-specific conventions encoded in the target language expressions is essential because knowledge of target language culture decodes the contextual cues encoded in target language utterances and consequently reduces the processing effort which is required to arrive at the intended meaning of the utterances. In this respect, educational sojourns, defined as “periods spent in a region where a target language is used as a medium of everyday communication” (Culhane, 2004, p. 50), are supposed to be influential to the development of pragmatic comprehension as they provide abundant exposure to the culture of the target language community and interaction with target language speakers.

However, studies show that educational sojourns are not always advantageous for pragmatic comprehension development (e.g. Taguchi, 2008a; 2008c). The reason is that exposure to target language culture and input is not the sole factor affecting language learners’ pragmatic comprehension rather the type and quality of interactions with target language speakers as well as the level of tendency to learn about the culture of the target language community can be determining factors. In other words, pragmatic comprehension gains may depend on the degree which language learners seek to acculturate to the target community. Therefore; acculturation, defined as “the phenomena which result when groups of individuals having different cultures come into continuous first-hand contact, with subsequent changes in the original culture patterns of either or both groups” (Redfield et al., 1936, p. 149), can be a major predictor of pragmatic comprehension development.

In this respect, the various ways in which people acculturate has been outlined in the working model of acculturation attitudes developed by Berry (1980). In this model two major issues are involved: the extent to which people are willing to maintain their heritage culture and the extent to which people wish to adopt the culture of the target society.

Preferences toward any of these two issues lead to the adoption of four different acculturation strategies. These four acculturation strategies are termed by Berry (1980) as assimilation, integration, separation, and marginalization (Sam & Berry, 2010).

Assimilation refers to the acculturation strategy in which people are not willing to maintain their heritage culture and wish to adopt the culture of the target society. Integration refers to the acculturation strategy in which people are willing to both maintain their heritage culture and adopt the culture of the target society. Separation refers to the acculturation strategy in which people are willing to maintain their heritage culture and do not wish to adopt the culture of the target society. Finally, marginalization refers to the acculturation strategy in which people neither are willing to maintain their heritage culture nor wish to adopt the culture of the target society (Sam & Berry, 2010).

TABLE I:
ACCULTURATION STRATEGIES

		Maintenance of Heritage Culture	
		+	-
Adoption of Target Culture	+	Integration	Assimilation
	-	Separation	Marginalization

Considering the importance of possessing a high level of pragmatic comprehension ability for successful cross-cultural communication on one hand and the significant effect which high degree of acculturation attitude to the target culture might have on the comprehension of target language pragmatically implied meanings, the current study seeks to investigate the relationship between the degree of acculturation to target culture and the ability to comprehend target language implied meanings during an educational sojourn in Australia. More specifically the research question to be addressed in the current study is:

What is the relationship between the degree of acculturation to Australian culture and the ability to comprehend Australian implicatures?

Correspondingly, the null hypothesis is:

There is no relationship between the degree of acculturation to Australian culture and the ability to comprehend Australian implicatures.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The studies conducted so far on acculturation and pragmatic comprehension have either explored the relationship between level of acculturation attitude toward target language culture and general language proficiency or investigated the effect of various individual difference variables on pragmatic comprehension ability in language learners. There is, however, a dearth of research on the relationship between language learners' level of acculturation attitude toward target language culture and their target language pragmatic comprehension ability.

A. Acculturation Attitude

The majority of studies conducted on acculturation to date have investigated the psychological outcomes of acculturating toward heritage or dominant culture among immigrants. Very few studies have explored acculturation in relation to language acquisition among language learners during academic sojourns (e.g. Jiang et al., 2009; Waniek-Klimczak, 2011; Rafieyan et al., 2014a). Either investigating the psychological outcomes of acculturating or exploring acculturation in relation to language acquisition, the majority of recent studies have adopted the working model of acculturation proposed by Berry (1980) as the theoretical underpinning of their studies.

Jiang et al. (2009) conducted a study to investigate whether a positive correlation between degree of acculturation to American society and English language attainment can be observed or not. Participants were 49 Chinese international students enrolled in graduate programs at a university in the United States. The Stephenson Multigroup Acculturation Scale was used to measure participants' acculturation progress toward the ethnic society and the dominant society, respectively. A sentence reading task and a language proficiency interview were used to measure participants' target language attainment. The findings indicated that participants were unanimously more immersed in their original culture than in the dominant American culture. Also, the degree of immersion in American society contributed to participants' speaking proficiency but not pronunciation.

Waniek-Klimczak (2011) also explored language experience and acculturation strategy in Polish speech community in Britain who was believed to have achieved the status of language experts by means of their educational and occupational advancement. Participants were three Polish-born and Polish-educated immigrants to the United Kingdom. The three expert English as Second Language users had been living in the United Kingdom for at least 5 years before the recording. The data were collected with the use of an open-format questionnaire. The observations made in the study suggested that both assimilation and integration may be chosen as acculturation strategies in the case of expert English as Second Language users.

Most recently, Rafieyan et al. (2014a) conducted a study to explore the acculturation attitude of learners of English as a Second Language. The participants in the study consisted of 70 Iranian learners of English during an academic sojourn in a university in the United States. Acculturation attitude was assessed through a 5-point likert scale questionnaire. The study found that integration and assimilation strategies received the highest preference by Iranian sojourners whereas separation and marginalization strategies received the lowest preference indicating that Iranian sojourners tend to adopt target language culture while maintaining their heritage culture.

B. Pragmatic Comprehension

A review of studies conducted on pragmatic comprehension reveals that most studies have investigated the role of individual difference variables in the language learners' abilities to comprehend target language implicatures. The types of individual difference variables investigated in these studies consist of language proficiency level (e.g. Taguchi, 2005; Taguchi, 2008b; Taguchi, 2011), target language exposure (e.g. Taguchi, 2008a; Taguchi, 2008c; Taguchi, 2011), cognitive processing ability (e.g. Taguchi, 2008b; Taguchi, 2008c), target language contact (e.g. Taguchi, 2008c; Rafieyan et al., 2014b), and cultural distance (e.g. Rafieyan et al., 2014c). There is a dearth of research on the effect of acculturative aspect of individual differences on the development of pragmatic comprehension, however.

In one study, Taguchi (2005) explored the effect of target language proficiency on accuracy and comprehension speed of different types of implied meanings referred to as pragmatic comprehension. Participants were 160 Japanese learners of English at a university in Japan. General language proficiency was operationalized by the institutional TOEFL and the ability to comprehend implied meaning was assessed by a computerized multiple choice pragmatic listening task. The results of the study identified a strong proficiency effect on the accuracy but not on the speed of comprehension of pragmatic functions.

Taguchi (2008a) also investigated the differences in the development of accurate and speedy comprehension of implied meaning between language learners in English as Foreign Language and English as Second Language contexts. Participants of the study consisted of 57 Japanese language learners in a college in the United States and 60 Japanese language learners in a college in Japan. Comprehension of implied meaning was assessed by a computerized pragmatic listening task used as pre-test and post-test. The findings of the study suggested improvement in pragmatic comprehension ability in terms of both accuracy and speed among both learners of English as Foreign Language and learners of English as Second Language.

Taguchi (2008c) conducted another study to explore the influence of target language contact and cognitive processing ability on the development of accurate and speedy comprehension of implied meaning over a period of 4-month sojourn in the target language country. Participants were 44 Japanese language learners in a college in the United States. Ability to comprehend implied meaning, cognitive processing ability, and the amount of target language contact were respectively assessed through a computerized pragmatic listening test, a lexical access test, and a survey questionnaire. The findings of the study revealed that cognitive processing ability and language contact have significant impact on the speed but not the accurate comprehension of target language implied meaning.

In another study, Rafieyan et al. (2014b) explored the influence of contact with target language speakers on the development of pragmatic comprehension ability. Participants included two groups of Iranian undergraduate learners of English at a university in Iran, one group connected to native American students through social networks whereas the other group was not involved in such intercultural interaction. Pragmatic comprehension ability was measured using a multiple choice pragmatic listening task testing comprehension of implied meaning. The findings of the study suggested that contact with target language speakers has a significantly positive impact on the development of pragmatic comprehension ability in language learners.

Finally, Rafieyan et al. (2014c) investigated the relationship between the degree of cultural distance from the target language community and the level of pragmatic comprehension ability. Participants of the study included 30 German undergraduate learners of English at a university in Germany, perceived as culturally close to the British, and 30 South Korean undergraduate learners of English at a university in South Korea, perceived as culturally distant from the British. Pragmatic comprehension ability was measured through a pragmatic listening task testing comprehension of implied meaning. The findings of the study revealed that language learners whose culture is perceived to be close to the culture of the target language community possess higher ability to comprehend target language implied meaning than language learners whose culture is perceived to be distant from the culture of the target language community.

III. METHODOLOGY

To examine the relationship between language learners' level of acculturation attitude toward target language culture and their target language pragmatic comprehension ability, the current study adopted a correlational research methodology on a group of Iranian learners of English as a Second Language in Australia by first descriptive analysis of language learners' level of acculturation attitude on a 4-level scale ranging from marginalization to assimilation as well as pragmatic comprehension ability on a 4-level scale ranging from poor to optimal and then assessing the type and level of relationship between the two continuous variables.

A. Participants

Participants in the study consisted of 80 Iranian undergraduates studying English as a Second Language in different universities in Australia. According to the data derived from demographic questionnaire, among all the participants, 47 were males and 33 were females. Their age ranged from 18 to 24 with an average age of 22 years old. Their length of residence in Australia ranged from 6 to 10 months at the time of data collection. They were all at the first year of studies and possessed an IELTS overall band of 6.5 as entry requirement to their universities. Therefore, they were considered to be approximately at the same level of language proficiency and have the same level of target culture and language exposure.

A minimum of six months residence in the target culture was adopted as according to the U-curve theory of adjustment and the concept of culture shock (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Lysgaard, 1955; Oberg, 1960), during the first six months, referred to as the 'honeymoon' stage, expatriates are excited with the new and interesting aspects offered by the host country and the feelings of being a tourist cannot be avoided (Black & Mendenhall, 1990). It is from the sixth months up to one year, referred to as the 'crisis' stage, that the expatriates are expected to be more susceptible to the feelings of despair and the tolls of adjusting become apparent (Copeland & Giggs, 1985).

B. Instruments

Three different instruments were used to collect the data for the current study: a demographic questionnaire, an acculturation attitude questionnaire, and a pragmatic comprehension test.

1. Demographic Questionnaire

The demographic questionnaire elicited information about participants' gender, age, length of residence in Australia, year of study, and level of language proficiency according to their IELTS scores.

2. Acculturation Attitude Questionnaire

To assess language learners' level of acculturation attitude toward Australian culture, the East Asian Acculturation Measure (EAAM), developed by Berry (2001), was adapted. The questionnaire consisted of 29 items with four subscales: assimilation attitude (items 1-8), integration attitude (items 9-13), separation attitude (items 14-20), and marginalization attitude (items 21-29). The items were based on a likert scale ranging from strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, to strongly agree with values 1 to 5 assigned to them respectively (Rafieyan et al., 2013). The original questionnaire had been designed for a group of Asians including Chinese, Japanese, and Korean immigrants to America. In the adapted version of the questionnaire Asian was replaced by Iranian and American was replaced by Australian.

To assess the validity of the questionnaire, the items went through content validity. Researchers gave the definition of what they intended to measure, a description of the participants of the study, and the questionnaire to two lecturers in the University of Tehran who were expert in the field of educational psychology. The lecturers confirmed that the questionnaire is suitable to be used for the study (Rafieyan et al., 2014c). To assess the reliability of the questionnaire, the questionnaire was piloted on 30 Iranian language learners in an intensive English program in Australia. The reliability coefficient computed through Cronbach Alpha for each sub-scale including assimilation, integration, separation, and marginalization attitudes were respectively 0.82, 0.75, 0.80, and 0.85 (Rafieyan et al., 2014a).

3. Pragmatic Comprehension Test

To assess language learners' ability to comprehend implied meaning, a pragmatic listening comprehension test, developed by Taguchi (2005, 2008a, 2008b, 2008c, 2011), was adopted. The pragmatic comprehension test was a 24-item test assessing comprehension of conversational implicatures. The items on the pragmatic comprehension test were based on a multiple choice design with 4 options consisting of one appropriate option and three distractors. For each item there was a dialogue between a male and a female native Australian speaker. The reply given at the end did not provide a direct answer to the speaker's question. Participants had to listen to each dialogue and choose the option which referred to the most appropriate intention of speaker (Rafieyan et al., 2014c; Rafieyan et al., 2014d).

To assess the validity of the pragmatic comprehension test, content validity was used. The researchers gave the definition of what they intended to measure, a description of the participants of the study, and the test to two lecturers in the University of Tehran who were experts in the field of interlanguage pragmatics. The lecturers confirmed that the test is suitable to be used for the study (Rafieyan et al., 2014c). To assess the reliability of the pragmatic comprehension test, a pilot study was conducted over 30 undergraduate students of English in Islamic Azad University of Abadan, Iran. The reliability coefficient assessed through Kurder-Richardson 21 was 0.82 (Rafieyan et al., 2014e).

C. Procedure

During the second semester in academic year 2013/2014, 80 copies of the pragmatic comprehension test were administered to the participants in the study. The participants were alerted that the recordings would be played once only. They were then instructed to listen to each dialogue and choose one of the four options provided which best refers to the idea implied in the dialogue. They were also informed that there is no negative mark for the wrong answers and were assured that the results would not affect their marks in the courses they were taking. The test took around 20 minutes to be completed. Following the completion of the test, test slips were collected and 80 copies of the demographic questionnaire and the acculturation attitude questionnaire were distributed among the participants right away. Participants were instructed to answer each item on the acculturation attitude questionnaire by circling one of the numbers ranging from 1 at the most extreme disagreement to 5 at the most extreme agreement with the expressed idea. They were also assured that their answers would remain private and confidential. Participants were then given ample

time to reflect on their attitude toward the ideas mentioned in the questionnaire and return the questionnaire. All the test and questionnaires slips were then collected by the researchers and prepared for the analysis.

D. Data Analysis

To assess the relationship between the degree of attitude toward and acceptance of target language culture and the ability to comprehend target language implied meanings, a total of two variables were considered: language learners' type of acculturation attitude and their level of pragmatic comprehension ability. Acculturation attitude was assessed through language learners' attitude toward ideas expressed in the acculturation attitude questionnaire. Level of pragmatic comprehension was also determined based on the pragmatic comprehension indicators developed through piloting the pragmatic comprehension test on a large group of language learners with the same characteristics as the participants in the current study.

1. Language Learners' Acculturation Attitude

To assess language learners' acculturation attitude, descriptive statistics were used to describe and summarize the properties of the data collected from the participants. Descriptive statistics consisted mainly of mean and frequency percentages. The acculturation attitude was represented by a mean score on a 5-point scale, where 1 (strongly disagree) represented the minimum score on the scale and 5 (strongly agree) represented the maximum score on the scale. The overall mean score for each acculturation strategy determined language learners' level of attitude regarding that specific strategy. The acculturation strategy which received the highest mean score represented language learners' acculturation attitude (Rafieyan et al., 2014a). The percentage of participants in each classification was then presented in graphic form. The analysis was performed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software, version 21.

2. Pragmatic Comprehension Indicators

To develop indicators of language learners' pragmatic comprehension levels, the pragmatic comprehension test was administered to 240 international undergraduates of English in various universities in Australia. The mean score and the standard deviation of the obtained marks were then assessed and transformed into z-score to determine the cut scores for the classification of language learners into four pragmatic comprehension levels including optimal pragmatic comprehension, strong pragmatic comprehension, weak pragmatic comprehension, and poor pragmatic comprehension. The classification was based on the principle of relevance which states that pragmatic comprehension level is determined through the degree of contextual effects the text/utterance yields and the degree of processing effort the reader/hearer needs to make to comprehend the text/utterance. In this respect, scores above the z-score of +1.00 standard deviation would fall into the category of optimal comprehension, scores between the z-scores of +1.00 and 0.00 standard deviation would fall into the category of strong comprehension, scores between the z-scores of 0.00 and -1.00 standard deviation would fall into the category of weak comprehension, and scores below the z-score of -1.00 standard deviation would fall into the category of poor comprehension. The mean and the standard deviation obtained from language learners' performance on the pragmatic comprehension test were respectively 12.95 and 5.86. Therefore, the z-score of +1.00 which corresponds to a position exactly 1 standard deviation above the mean would be 18.81 and the z-score of -1.00 which corresponds to a position exactly 1 standard deviation below the mean would be 7.09. Consequently, participants who get a score of 19-24 would be classified as optimal comprehension performers, participants who get a score of 13-18 would be classified as strong comprehension performers, participants who get a score of 8-12 would be classified as weak comprehension performers, and ultimately participants who get a score of 0-7 would be classified as poor comprehension performers.

TABLE II:
PRAGMATIC COMPREHENSION INDICATORS

Scores	Categories of Performers	Pragmatic Comprehension Ability
19-24	Optimal Comprehension	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ► Contextual implications are fully comprehensible ► Language learners do not need to make any unnecessary processing effort to comprehend implied meanings
13-18	Strong Comprehension	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ► Contextual implications are relatively clear ► Language learners need to make some unnecessary processing effort to comprehend the implied meaning
08-12	Weak Comprehension	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ► Contextual implications are implied ► Language learners need to make considerable processing effort to comprehend implied meanings
00-07	Poor Comprehension	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ► Contextual implications are vague and unclear ► All processing effort to comprehend implied meanings is in vain

3. Language Learners' Pragmatic Comprehension Level

To determine language learners' level of pragmatic comprehension, descriptive statistics were used. Descriptive statistics consisted of the sum of the marks obtained through the pragmatic comprehension test. In this respect, 1 mark was assigned to each correct answer whereas no mark was assigned to the wrong answers (Rafieyan et al., 2014d). As there were 24 items on the pragmatic comprehension test, each language learner could get a mark between 0 and 24. Then based on the obtained marks and the cut scores determined by pragmatic comprehension indicators, language learners were classified into one of the four classifications of optimal pragmatic comprehension, strong pragmatic

comprehension, weak pragmatic comprehension, and poor pragmatic comprehension performers. The analysis was performed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software, version 21.

4. Relationship between Acculturation Attitude and Pragmatic Comprehension

To determine the relationship between acculturation attitude and pragmatic comprehension, spearman rank order correlation (ρ), which measures the relationship between two variables when both variables are measured on ordinal scales (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013), was used. The size of the value of spearman correlation can range from -1.00 to +1.00. This value indicates the strength of the relationship between the two variables. A value of 0 indicates no relationship at all, a value of +1.00 indicates a perfect positive correlation (as one variable increases, so does the other variable), and a value of -1.00 indicates a perfect negative correlation (as one variable increases, the other variable decreases) (Pallant, 2013). Cohen (1988) suggests a set of guidelines to interpret the values between 0 and 1. The guidelines, which have been presented in table III, apply whether or not there is a negative sign out the front of the r value.

TABLE III:
STRENGTH OF RELATIONSHIP

r Value	Strength of Relationship
$r = 0.10$ to 0.29	Small Correlation
$r = 0.30$ to 0.49	Medium Correlation
$r = 0.50$ to 1.00	Large Correlation

In this respect, values 1 to 4 were assigned to acculturation attitudes ranging respectively from marginalization, separation, integration, to assimilation, where marginalization (1) represented the lowest level of acculturation attitude whereas assimilation (4) represented the highest level of acculturation attitude. Accordingly, values 1 to 4 were assigned to pragmatic comprehension levels ranging respectively from poor comprehension, weak comprehension, strong comprehension, to optimal comprehension, where poor comprehension (1) represented the lowest level of pragmatic comprehension whereas optimal comprehension (4) represented the highest level of pragmatic comprehension. The correlation coefficient was assessed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software, version 21. The squared correlation (r^2), called the coefficient of determination, was then used to measure the proportion of variability in pragmatic comprehension ability that can be determined from its relationship with acculturation attitude. Criteria for interpreting the value of r^2 as proposed by Cohen (1988) have been presented in table IV.

TABLE IV:
PERCENTAGE OF VARIANCE EXPLAINED, R^2

r^2 Value	Strength of Relationship
$r^2 = 0.01$	Small Correlation
$r^2 = 0.09$	Medium Correlation
$r^2 = 0.25$	Large Correlation

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The current study examined the relationship between the acculturation attitude of Iranian learners of English toward Australian culture and their ability to comprehend Australian implicatures. The results were presented through descriptive analysis of language learners' acculturation attitude on four levels of marginalization, separation, integration, and assimilation as well as their pragmatic comprehension ability on four levels of poor, weak, strong, and optimal. The relationship between both variables was then assessed using spearman rank order correlation (ρ) and discussed based on relevance theory.

A. Findings

1. Language Learners' Acculturation Attitude

Table V presents the distribution of language learners into various levels of acculturation attitude. Among all 80 language learners participating in the study; 18 (22.5 percent) adopted assimilation attitude, 28 (35 percent) adopted integration attitude, 22 (27.5 percent) adopted separation attitude, and 12 (15 percent) adopted marginalization attitude. The distribution of language learners into levels of acculturation attitude from the highest percentage to the lowest percentage would be respectively integration, separation, assimilation, and marginalization. In this respect, the highest percentage of language learners adopted integration attitude (35 percent), that is, tended to both maintain their heritage culture and adopt the culture of target society whereas the lowest percentage adopted marginalization attitude (15 percent), that is, tended to neither maintain their heritage culture nor adopt the culture of the target society.

TABLE V:
LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ACCULTURATION ATTITUDE

Acculturation Attitude	Number of Language Learners
Assimilation	18
Integration	28
Separation	22
Marginalization	12
Overall	80

2. Language Learners' Pragmatic Comprehension Level

Table VI presents the distribution of language learners into various levels of pragmatic comprehension. Among all 80 language learners participating in the study; 10 (12.5 percent) were categorized as optimal comprehension performers, 21 (26.25 percent) were categorized as strong comprehension performers, 33 (41.25 percent) were categorized as weak comprehension performers, and 16 (20 percent) were categorized as poor comprehension performers. The distribution of language learners into levels of pragmatic comprehension from the highest percentage to the lowest percentage would be respectively weak, strong, poor, and optimal. In this respect, the highest percentage of language learners were categorized as weak comprehension performers (41.25 percent), that is, needed to make considerable processing effort to comprehend implied meanings whereas the lowest percentage were categorized as optimal comprehension performers (12.5 percent), that is, did not need to make any unnecessary processing effort to comprehend implied meanings.

TABLE VI:
LANGUAGE LEARNERS' PRAGMATIC COMPREHENSION LEVEL

Category of Performers	Number of Language Learners
Optimal Comprehension	10
Strong Comprehension	21
Weak Comprehension	33
Poor Comprehension	16
Overall	80

3. Relationship between Acculturation Attitude and Pragmatic Comprehension

Table VII presents the results of the correlation between language learners' acculturation attitude and their pragmatic comprehension ability. The correlation coefficient measured through spearman rank order correlation was 0.82 which according to the guidelines set by Cohen (1988) indicates a large correlation between the two variables (above 0.05), suggesting a strong positive relationship between level of acculturation attitude and pragmatic comprehension ability, that is, a higher attitude toward the adoption of target culture was positively correlated with a higher ability to comprehend target language conversational implicatures.

TABLE VII:
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ACCULTURATION ATTITUDE AND PRAGMATIC COMPREHENSION

		Pragmatic Comprehension Level		Acculturation Attitude
Spearman's rho	Pragmatic Comprehension Level	Correlation Coefficient	1.00	0.82**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	0.00
		N	80	80
	Acculturation Attitude	Correlation Coefficient	0.82**	1.00
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00	.
		N	80	80

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

To measure the proportion of variability in pragmatic comprehension ability that can be determined from its relationship with acculturation attitude, the squared correlation (r^2), called the coefficient of determination, was used. The squared correlation derived from the computation of spearman correlation for acculturation attitude and pragmatic comprehension ability in the current study was $r^2 = (0.82)^2 = 0.67$, that is, 67 percent of variability in pragmatic comprehension ability can be determined from its relationship with acculturation attitude which according to the guidelines set by Cohen (1988) indicates a large correlation (above 0.25).

B. Discussion

The present study investigated the relationship between language learners' level of acceptance of heritage and target culture referred to as acculturation attitude and their ability to comprehend target language conversational implicatures referred to as pragmatic comprehension. The findings suggested a strong positive relationship between the two variables, that is, language learners who were more immersed in Australian culture had a higher capability to comprehend Australian conversational implicatures appropriately. These findings reject the null hypothesis which states there is no relationship between the degree of acculturation to Australian culture and the ability to comprehend Australian implicatures.

There are two factors which can explain the findings obtained in the current study: target culture familiarity and target language contact. Language learners who were more immersed in the target language culture, adopting

integration and assimilation attitudes as their acculturation strategies, had more opportunities to learn about the cultural features of the target language community than language learners who were more immersed in their heritage culture, adopting separation and marginalization attitudes as their acculturation strategies, as they explored the target culture more. Consequently, they were more familiar with the sociopragmatic features of the target language which refer to the appropriate use of language according to the social context (Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1983), that is, they knew what is appropriate to say in a particular situation according to the sociocultural norms of Australia.

Accordingly, language learners who were more immersed in the target language culture had more opportunities to interact with target language speakers than language learners who were more immersed in their heritage culture as most of their friends were from the target society. The frequent interaction with target language speakers certainly led them to be more familiarized with the pragmalinguistic features of the target language which refer to the appropriate use of language (Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1983), that is, they knew what is appropriate to say according to the linguistic rules of the English language.

The familiarity with the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic features of the target language provided language learners with enough contextual effects to help them comprehend the meanings implied in target language expressions without any unnecessary processing effort. On the contrary, language learners who did not develop knowledge of target language pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic features were not equipped with sufficient contextual effects to comprehend the meanings implied in target language expressions. Consequently, they had to put considerable effort to process target language conversational implicatures as they were vague and unclear to them.

The findings obtained in the current study are consistent with the findings obtained in the studies conducted by Jiang et al. (2009) and Waniek-Klimczak (2011) who found that successful language learners were more immersed in the target culture than their heritage culture. The findings are also in line with those obtained in the study conducted by Rafieyan et al. (2014b) who found that contact with target language speakers develops pragmatic comprehension ability. The findings obtained in the current study, however, do not support the findings obtained in the study conducted by Taguchi (2008c) who found that contact with target language speakers does not have a significant effect on appropriate comprehension of target language conversational implicatures.

V. CONCLUSION

The study found that there is a strong positive relationship between degree of acculturation attitude toward target language culture and pragmatic comprehension ability. Language learners who were more immersed in the target culture, adopting integration and assimilation as acculturation strategies, were more successful in appropriate comprehension of target language implicatures than language learners who were more immersed in their heritage culture, adopting separation and marginalization as acculturation strategies. Therefore, language learners who are on an educational sojourn are advised to interestingly explore target language culture and interact with target language speakers in order to develop target language pragmatic competence.

The study was limited in some ways, however. First of all, the study only explored the ability to comprehend conversational implicatures to measure pragmatic comprehension ability and did not include conventional implicatures. Furthermore, the study only explored the relationship between acculturation attitude and pragmatic comprehension ability and did not explore the effect of pragmatic instruction on developing pragmatic comprehension ability. Therefore, future researchers are recommended to include both conversational and conventional implicatures and investigate the effect of various methods of pragmatic instruction including Focus on Form and Focus on Forms methods on the development of pragmatic comprehension ability.

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Vahid Rafieyan is a PhD in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) from school of educational studies in Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM). He has twelve years of experience teaching IELTS, English conversation, and academic writing. He has a number of publications in the field of interlanguage pragmatics including “relationship between attitude toward target language culture instruction and pragmatic comprehension development”, “relationship between cultural distance and pragmatic comprehension”, and “pragmatic comprehension development through telecollaboration”. He holds the 2012 best TESL student award from Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM).



Nazanin Behnammohammadian graduated from school of educational studies in Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM) with a Master's degree, majoring in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). She has been teaching English as a second language for more over than six years; in Mashhad, Iran and currently in Penang, Malaysia.

Maryam Orang is a Ph.D. Candidate at the School of Languages, Literacies and Translation at Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM), She is an expert of educational and research affairs employed by the Islamic azad University, Hamedan Branch, Hamedan, Iran. Her research interests include syntax, pragmatics, and psycholinguistics

Towards Idiomatic Competence of Yemeni EFL Undergraduates

Abdu Mohammad Talib Al-kadi
Language and Translation Center, Ibb University, Yemen

Abstract—This study investigates how Yemeni EFL undergraduates recognize, comprehend, and use English idioms. It attempts to find out the link between English proficiency and idiomatic competence of a sample of 63 sophomores recruited from the Department of English at the Faculty of Education, Taiz University. Three idiom tests and a questionnaire were used to answer three research questions: a) To what extent are Yemeni EFL undergraduates able to process English idioms? b) What strategies do they use to learn idioms? c) What challenges do they encounter in acquiring idiomatic expressions? Findings of the study show that high-scoring students in the idiom tests outperformed their low-scoring counterparts in achievement tests of listening and speaking skills. The study highlighted some major challenges that face Yemeni EFL learners and the strategies they tend to use in order to tackle those challenges. Some implications and recommendations were suggested accordingly.

Index Terms—idiom, idiomatic competence, EFL learners, Yemen

I. INTRODUCTION

A language, in essence, is a vessel that contains and exposit culture, thoughts, and history of a given nation. In all languages, there are several devices to convey and perceive cultural aspects, ideas, and abstract meanings showing how people interact culturally and pragmatically. One major linguistic device is using idioms. English language, a case in point, is known as a language of idiomaticity. It is rich in metaphors, similes, phrasal verbs, and figurative speech, conventionally referred to as “idiomatic expressions” or as some linguists call a register that makes a significant portion of academia and everyday communicational English. Cooper (1998, p.255) estimates that “over a lifetime of 60 years, a person would use about 20 million idioms”.

As idioms are omnipresent in all languages, they are part and parcel of human communication. Despite their pervasiveness in English language, they baffle the novice learners to such a large extent. They might cause not only linguistic but also cultural and technical problems to non-English speakers who learn English as an L2, and these problems may jeopardize communication (Thawabteh, 2011). This brought about a common belief among several language researchers that a sound knowledge of idioms is inevitable for English proficiency and fluency (Wray, 1999, 2002; Liu, 2008; Shirazi & Talebinezhad, 2013; Liontas, 2002; Sinclair, 1987), and a lack of knowledge of idioms most frequently poses big misunderstandings. Such idiomatic knowledge involves, according to (Zwiers, 2007, cited in Guduru, 2011, p.540), “cognitive processes, complex relationships, and abstract concepts, which are difficult to see, point to, touch, or act out.” Thus, ESL/EFL learners cannot help but learn idioms, not only for academic purposes but also for day-to-day communication.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. What Is an Idiom?

In the body of literature, several attempts have been made to define an idiom. According to Larson (1984, p.20), an idiom is a “string of words whose meaning is different from the meaning conveyed by the individual words.” This is quite similar to the dictionary definition that an idiom is “a group of words that has a special meaning that is different from the ordinary meaning of each separate word” (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2012, p. 870). Some researchers approached it from different perspectives. They attempted to define the content of idioms. To mention a few, Carter (1998) used the term “fixed expressions”, Moon (1997) picked up the term “multi-word items”, Howarth (1998) prompted for the term “phraseology”, Gläser (1984) adopted the term “phraseological unit”, and more recently Yi (2006) referred to idioms as “multiword expressions”. However, some others preferred the traditional term “idiom”. To elaborate, Mitsis (2004) defined an idiom as a continuum of non-literal expressions starting with usual collocations continues with stable or fixed collocations, metaphorical collocations, and the continuum ends with idioms of absolute abstract meaning. This continuum provides a spectrum of idioms where there is a possibility for transparency, semi-transparency, opacity areas in the gamut of an idiom. In a word, idioms vary from familiar to unfamiliar and from transparent to opaque idioms. Idioms, by definition, thus, are not literally translatable, as their meanings are unpredictable from the usual meaning of their constituent parts, particularly idioms of socio-cultural, historical, or political backgrounds.

Linguistically speaking, idioms, by their very nature, have certain linguistic features. They operate on three aspects of language: form, meaning, and usage, i.e. they have syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic dimensions. At the syntactical level, idioms are thought of as fixed expressions, inseparable units. For instance, an idiom like *it rains cats and dogs* is fixed and cannot be descended, i.e. there is not a possibility to make any of its nouns (cats & dogs) singular or alter the sequence of the words. In addition, it is impermissible to transform it in any other form. One more example is the idiom *kick the bucket*. It cannot be transformed to the passive form, *the bucket was kicked*. Similarly, phrasal verbs, which constitute an integral part of English language, are irreversible, similar to idioms in nature as they consist of a sequence of words, linguistically are taken as "single lexemes." A good example to illustrate the point is the phrasal verb "put off" which is a single semantic unit, having a single verb word equivalent, "postpone." Dobrovol'skiy and Piirainen (2005, p.10) contend that idioms must be fixed in their lexical structure, and they must be, at the same time, semantically reinterpreted units and/or semantically opaque. Fernando and Flavell (1981, p.48) summarize the syntactic and semantic features of an idiom as a construction of words with the following five properties:

- a. Its meaning is not the compositional sum of its constituents.
- b. It is a unit that has either a homonymous literal counterpart or at least individual constituents that are literal, although the expression as a whole would not be interpreted literally.
- c. It is transformationally deficient in one way or another.
- d. It forms part of a set of expressions in a given language.
- e. It is institutionalized.

Pragmatic knowledge of idioms is even more complex. L2 learners get puzzled when using idioms in appropriate contexts. For one thing, meanings of many idioms cannot be inferred from the meanings of their constituents. Since idioms are language-specific conventionalized expressions, they need to be slotted in their appropriate contexts which generally vary in formality from slang and colloquialism to those used in very formal situations (Irujo, 1986). It is widely accepted that if learners rely on their L1 to use idioms in their L2, they will be successful in only very few instances. In most cases, this strategy leads to incorrect and often funny interpretations. A good example is this: "*kick the bucket*," which has a humorous meaning (pass away), is neither used on the demise of somebody nor in a condolence to grieving people. Another example is "*pull one's leg*" which jokingly means "to fool or trick someone" has nothing to do with physically pulling someone's leg. One more example is the old-fashioned expression "*so long*" which is now simply replaced by "goodbye." Add to that the expression "*shape up or ship out*," which means "either you improve your behavior/performance or leave" might be said by an employer or a supervisor to his/her employee, but not used in other social contexts. That is to say, certain idioms are used only in certain situations and not applicable in some other ones.

In a nutshell, idioms are better thought of as fixed structures of fixed meanings. This bond of fixedness generates non-literal metaphorical meaning which is not the sum of the meanings of its parts or its constituents. Such structures tend not to have straightforward meanings. They generally depend on the context in which they occur and they convey meanings that common words may not substitute. This necessarily requires a good command of cultural and linguistic proficiency.

B. Idiomatic Competence vs. Communicative Competence

As recent research has shifted emphasis on communicative competence and the social role of language, there is a great concern about linguistic appropriateness rather than accuracy (Shirazi, & Talebinezhad, 2013). Today there is a wide agreement among language learning theorists and researchers that the number of idioms acquired is positively correlated with the degree of success on communicative tasks, suggesting a close connection between idiom acquisition and communicative abilities (Wray, 1999, 2002; Liu, 2008; Shirazi & Talebinezhad, 2013). Liontas (2001, 2002) postulates that idioms form a large part of natural communication, and a knowledge of idiomatic expressions increases conversational fluency. This was reinforced by an earlier proclaim that idiomaticity would allow learners to produce English more confidently and "with less effort" (Sinclair, 1987, 159). It becomes clear, thus, that idioms are quite essential in the ESL/EFL contexts where L2 learners' English proficiency could be assessed on the basis of their good grasp of idiomatic expressions. In other words, the more idioms one knows, the more native-like one's English will sound, and by learning idioms, one consequently learns a big deal of the culture of the community speaking the language in question. Researchers like Ellis (1997) and Yorio (1989) suggest that adequate knowledge and appropriate use of idioms in L2 is an important indicator of L2 communicative competence. That is why in most rubrics of language skills (e.g. writing) using idioms is assessed as an indication of a good masterpiece.

C. Idiom Teachability

Idiom teachability has been a subject of controversy, investigated from different perspectives. One of the debatable issues is whether idioms are acquired in social contexts or learnt in formal settings in the same way that grammar and vocabulary are taught in schools and universities. In the literature, there is no clear-cut answer to this disputable issue. However, researchers generally assert that there is no limited or specific time to learn idioms. Some language researchers like Nippoland (1991, as cited in Cooper, 1998, p.259) maintain that "there seems to be no clear point in human development when it can be said that idioms have been mastered."

As a matter of fact, idioms are taught at an advanced level of ESL/EFL learning/teaching programs where learners expectedly stumble upon difficulties in recognizing, comprehending, and using idioms. For EFL learners who lack exposure to the target language and culture, acquiring idioms means learning both language and cultural conventions (Chen & Lai, 2013). The difficulty of teaching idioms, according to Hussein, Khanji and Makhzoomy (2011) stems from the fact that idioms are arbitrary and none-literal. The arbitrariness of idioms makes them incomprehensible from the meaning of their constituents, and hence they cannot be taught systematically. Buckingham (2006, p.35) maintains that “idioms’ arbitrary language-specific nature makes them difficult for learners to understand and acquire, and resistant to translation”. Accordingly, the easiest idioms to learn and teach, McPartland (2000) argues, are those which have exact counterparts in learner’s mother-tongue, and the most difficult ones are those which have no analogue in L1 and whose meaning cannot be derived from the conjoined meaning of their constituents. In her perceptive article on learning and teaching idioms, Irujo (1986) postulates that the difficulty of idiom acquisition is because idioms are frequently omitted in the speech addressed to L2 learners; and native speakers tend to use simple, concrete, everyday vocabulary while addressing L2 learners. In Pimenova’s (2011, pp. 117-119) viewpoint, the difficulty of learning idioms could be attributed to five major challenges:

- a. Unknown vocabulary and unfamiliar idioms.
- b. No analog idioms in L1.
- c. Cultural differences.
- d. Lack of experience dealing with idioms.
- e. Lack of the broad context of a given idiom.

These challenges were echoed in the studies of Nippold and Rudzinsky (1993) and Irujo (1986) where it is reported that idiom familiarity, transparency, and context could facilitate idiom comprehension. Opacity, or lack of transparency, refers to the difficulty in explaining the link between the lexical structure and the actual meaning of the idiom. As for lack of experience, idioms are taught at an advanced level as L2 learners make mistakes/errors due to L1 interference. For instance, a high level of difficulty for Arab EFL learners is the absence of exact counterparts in their mother tongue (Arabic) as the idiom systems in Arabic and English are distinguishable. Arab learners of English (e.g. the Yemenis) cannot fail to realize this complexity.

In the context of classroom teaching, EFL/ESL teachers have been always trying hard to find appropriate methods and techniques to teach idioms and they still do. Addressing the issue of idiom teaching, some language researchers have come up with several suggestions. For instance, Wu (2008) suggested designing a variety of collaborative activities for students to use English idioms to interact with peers and share fun in learning. The author suggested situations where idiom could be taught integrating the four language skills, such as teaching idioms in story contexts or with rich illustrations, group discussion, retelling and rewriting, dialogue writing and role-play. For Guduru (2012, p. 488), the following can be put forward as useful methods for learning/teaching English idioms.

- a. Memorization
- b. The keyword method.
- c. Using idiom Notebook.
- d. Learning idioms through conversations.
- e. Learning idioms through idioms.
- f. Display on notice boards.

However, it is hard to believe any of these strategies/techniques is a watertight method to adopt for all ESL/EFL contexts. Some other researchers suggested some other techniques. For instance, Azar and Talebinezhad (2013) propose teaching idioms through poetry as an authentic source of contextualization for idiomatic expressions, namely metaphoric aspects of language. The authors argue that through poetry teaching, students are exposed to authentic materials filled with concepts and idioms, comprehending meaning rather than understanding words in isolation, and hence improving their metaphorical competence. Similarly, Rohani, Ketabi and Tavakoli (2012) recommend learning/teaching idioms in a context. Goshkheteliani and Megrelidze (2013) suggest a lingua-cultural approach to teaching English idioms, as idioms reflect national specificity of the native speakers and a big deal of idioms are of folk, biblical, mythological origins. The authors argue that knowing the culture and literature of the target language greatly helps L2 learners understand and interpret idioms more efficiently. Chen and Lai (2013), likewise, suggest a teaching method that considers both language and culture, providing L2 learners with dependable clues in comprehending and learning idiomatic expressions. These techniques of idiom teaching were discussed elaborately in Cooper’s (1998, p.265) study and it would be useful to quote his concluding words, “students seem to benefit most from a plan of instruction that incorporates a wide range of activities that appeal to various intelligences, for they are given a greater chance to succeed in learning idiom than with an instructional plan that is restricted to only linguistic exercises”.

D. Idioms in Yemeni EFL Context

English is recognized as the most important foreign language in Yemen. It is taught as a Major at the university level. Pre-college curriculum includes a compulsory English course as a school subject. Although advanced learners majoring in English Language Studies are supposed to get adequate knowledge of English idioms, the introduction of idioms in the EFL syllabus is vulnerable and disappointing. As a teacher of English for about eight years, I have realized that idiom acquisition has been a neglected area of English in the local EFL teaching/learning environment where idioms are

selected and taught on a random basis, adopting ad hoc teaching methods and techniques. In some university syllabi (e.g. Taiz University), idioms are deduced in courses like *Spoken English*, and *Writing Skills*. In many cases, students fail to use and/or interpret idioms. I believe, and many other researchers would agree, that this is partially because idioms are not integrated into the context-sensitive environments of the language curriculum. Cooper (1998, p. 255) asserts that “since idiomatic expressions are so frequently encountered in both spoken and written discourse, they require special attention in language programs and should not be relegated to a position of secondary importance in the curriculum.”

Likewise, L2 research into idiom learning/acquisition in the Yemeni EFL context has not received adequate attention. This is probably due to a traditional emphasis on the acquisition of English grammatical system at the expense of some other aspects of linguistic proficiency including the idiomatic competence. Irujo (1986) contends that many L2 materials either ignore idioms entirely or relegate them to the “other expressions” section of vocabulary list, without providing exercises for learning them. As far as the local EFL context is concerned, the problem of idiom misuse is obviously noticed when learners of English provide funny translations where slips of literal translation take place. Some Yemeni learners, for instance, translate some L1 expressions into English literally, such as “*from my eyes!” which means “with a pleasure” or the expression, *any service?, which simply means “how can I help you?” They assume that such expressions which are direct transfer from Arabic would be understood by (native) speakers of English. To conclude, overlooking idiom teaching in the Yemeni EFL context has resulted in improper use of idiomatic expressions by EFL learners. Generally speaking, lack of idiomatic competence is one of the factors that limit the Yemeni EFL learners’ English production. Therefore, this study comes as a small-scale attempt to investigate the idiomatic competence in terms of idiom recognition, comprehension, and use. It investigates the link between oral communication skills and idiomatic competence of Yemeni EFL at the undergraduate level.

E. Questions of the Study

The proposed study addressed the following three research questions:

1. To what extent are Yemeni EFL undergraduates able to process English idioms?
2. What strategies do they use to learn idioms?
3. What challenges do they encounter in acquiring idiomatic expressions?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Design

This study was designed of two parts. The first one was assigned for idiom tests, with a purpose to measure the participants’ existing idiomatic competence. Their scores in the idiom tests were compared to their scores in listening and speaking in their BA program. According to the results of the idiom tests, the participants were divided into two groups: high-scoring (those who scored 50+) vs. low-scoring (those who scored 49-). The second part of the study investigated, through a questionnaire and informal interviews, how the participants recognize, comprehend and use idioms, difficulties, and strategies that they have to handle in learning/acquiring idioms. A questionnaire was administered to compare the difficulties, learning styles, strategies and idiom intake of both groups.

B. Participants

The participants were sixty-three male and female EFL sophomores enrolled in a 4-year English program at the Department of English, Faculty of Education, Taiz University. They voluntarily took part in the study. They were divided, according to the *idiom test* results, into two groups: high achievers (n= 39) vs. low achievers (n=24). Aged between 19 and 22, the learners in question were assumed to be socio-linguistically homogeneous. Their level in English language was estimated to be between high intermediate and advanced. They took up two Spoken English courses in the first year (viz. Spoken English 1, Spoken English 2) and other two courses in the second year (viz. Spoken English 3, and Spoken English 4). According to the course syllabus, this series of courses in listening and speaking varies from intermediate to advanced levels. Before entering university, the participants had no previous knowledge of idioms except that they all had the same modules of English course at the school level. Their exposure to L2 is restricted to L2 being a subject of study, i.e. English input is available to these learners basically within classroom contexts.

C. Instruments

Tests

Three tests of 125 idioms were administered during three class sessions. The students in focus completed each test at the same time on the same day. The first test (multiple choices) is a completion test consisting of 40 idioms with a focus on idiom structures. All the sentences/idioms in the test were different with some idioms known to the students. These idioms/idiomatic expressions were adopted from the book, *Speak English like an American* by Gillett (2004). The second test is a multiple-choice test comprising 60 idioms with a focus on idioms’ meaning and usage. These idioms/idiomatic expressions were adopted from a PhD dissertation entitled, *The effects of Transfer on the acquisition of idioms in a second language*, by Irujo Suzanne (1984). The third test is made up of 25 idioms with a focus on idiom translations. Informants were asked to translate those idioms into their L1 (Arabic). The purpose of these three tests was

to compare the overall results of the idiom tests with the academic transcripts of the participants. All the three tests were modified in such a way to fit in with the study under investigation. They include different idiomatic expressions (collocations, phrasal verbs, metaphors, etc.). 25 of these idioms are similar and the rest are dissimilar to L1 (Arabic). Prior to test-taking, the participants were given some instructions on how to go about each test.

Questionnaire

The researcher developed a questionnaire with a flashback on the literature review. The rationale of this questionnaire was to look into idiom learning difficulties, strategies, and learning styles of both groups (high vs. low achievers). It was also used to reinforce the results obtained from the idiom tests. Results could help the researcher to compare the responses of both groups. Rubin (1975) argues that strategies of successful learners, once identified, could be made available to less successful learners. Similarly, Carton (1971) supports the notion that a successful learner usually uses useful learning strategies that ultimately help him/her to cope with their learning situations.

D. Description of the Course

The participants were assessed in terms of oral performance (listening and speaking skills). They took up a course of *Spoken English* at the first and second levels as an integral part of their BA program (with a credit of 3-hour lecture every week, 12-15 lectures per semester). According to the syllabus, the course aims to build confidence among learners to speak English and get over their fear and tongue-tiedness while using English. It is taught consecutively, starting with a focus on language functions and negotiating through language items in an appropriate manner. It helps individual learners to make presentations and participate in debates, recitations, declamations and take part in plays and skits. To facilitate these tasks, students are to work in groups and take up small projects that can be reported orally after accomplishing the tasks. Inter-class debates, language games recitation, competitions are also organized. At the end of the course, students sit for oral and written tests. Besides, the course evaluation includes assessing students' performance in classroom discussions, presentations, debates, and the like. As far as the students under scrutiny are concerned, they were taught an advanced course in Spoken English (namely, North Star 5: Focus on Listening and Speaking), an advanced edition written in 2009 by Sherry Preiss.

E. Analysis

Data collected by means of tests and questionnaires were analyzed statistically by using the SPSS program. Frequency of occurrences and percentages were obtained. Results were classified and arranged in tables and figures as explained in section IV below.

IV. RESULTS

A. Idiomatic Competence vs. Communicative Competence

Table 1 below outlines the scores of the participants' performance in *Spoken English* against their scores in the idiom tests. The average of the high-scoring group was 71% in the achievement tests and 63% in the idiom tests. The average of the low-scoring group, on the other hand, was 62% in the achievement tests and 39% in the idiom tests. Noticeably, the performance of both groups in idiom tests is relatively poor (average = 63%, 39%). Nevertheless, comparing the cumulative scores obtained in Spoken English 1 through Spoken English 4 shows that high-scoring learners are those who scored high points in idiom test1, idiom test 2, and idioms test 3 altogether. This indicates that their oral communicational abilities, in one way or another involves idiomatic competence. This is consonant with the results of some previous studies (e.g. Wray, 1999, 2002; Liu, 2008) in that idiomatic competence positively correlates with communicative competence.

TABLE 1
RESULT OF ACHIEVEMENT TESTS VS. IDIOMS TESTS

	high achievers		low achievers	
	achievement tests	idiom tests	achievement tests	idiom tests
Max. scored points	79%	89%	88%	49%
Min. scored points	53%	50%	44%	14%
Average	71%	63%	62%	39%

B. L2 Learners' Views on Idiom Learning

Probing the informants' views on the importance of idioms in their English learning, the results of Q1 in the questionnaire are shown in Table 2. It shows that low achievers tend to believe that idioms are not of high importance in their English studies (Mean value =4.58). Similarly, the high achievers seem to share the same opinion with a lesser degree (Mean value =4.36). This could be attributed to the negligence of introducing idioms in the syllabus throughout their four-year English program.

TABLE 2
IDIOM SIGNIFICANCE IN EFL LEARNING

How important, do you think, are idioms for your English studies?	low achievers			high achievers		
	No.	Mean	Std	No.	Mean	Std
	24	4.58	.584	39	4.36	.778

Scale: very important= 1, important=2, undecided=3, slightly important=4, not important=5

C. Frequency of Idiom Use in Spoken and Written Discourse

In response to Q2 in the questionnaire, the mean values of *idiom use* in spoken and written English are 2.8750 and 2.7179 of both groups (low vs. high achievers) as indicated in Table 3. That is to say, both groups infrequently use idioms in their English. This could be stemmed from the fact that they believe idioms are not important for their studies as indicated in Table 2 above. Hence, students do not have much care for acquiring and using idioms.

TABLE 3
FREQUENCY OF IDIOM USE

How often do you use idioms in your spoken and written English?	low achievers			high achievers		
	No.	Mean	Std	No.	Mean	Std
	39	2.8750	.8998	39	2.7179	.7930

Scale: never= 1; rarely=2; sometimes=3; often= 4; always=5

D. Sources of Idiom Learning

As Fig. 1 displays, the respondents in both groups stated that they pick up English idioms from different sources, starting with teachers at the percentage of (96%, 87%), books (83%, 59%), friends (44%, 25%), the Internet (21%, 10%), and some other sources such as TV programs, games, films, etc. which account for 21%, and 8% of the participants. In spite of diversity of learning sources, the idiomatic competence of the respondents is not satisfactory. Being contextual by nature, idioms in non-native environment is not always meaningful as students fail to use them properly by just reading idiom books or attending English classes. In the local EFL environment, students in focus are taught by local and East-Asian teachers, a learning/teaching environment that lacks authentic exposure to English in general and idiomatic expression in particular.

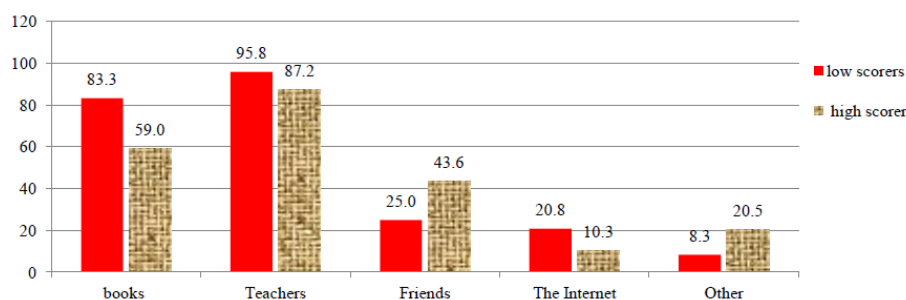


Figure 1. Sources Of Idiom Learning

E. Perceptions of L2 Learners on Idiom Instruction

According to Fig. 2, about half of the high-scoring group think that idioms should be taught at the “intermediate” level, whereas the low achievers believe it should start a little earlier, namely at the “elementary” level (See Fig. 2) below. However, in an informal discussion with EFL teachers, there was a wide consensus that idioms have no limited level to be taught; easy-to-learn idioms are to be introduced at the school level and gradually deduced throughout the entire English program at the tertiary level. This somehow corresponds with Cooper’s (1998) findings that learning idioms is a continuum, starting at an early age with literal figurative expressions and advances to abstract non-literal idioms.

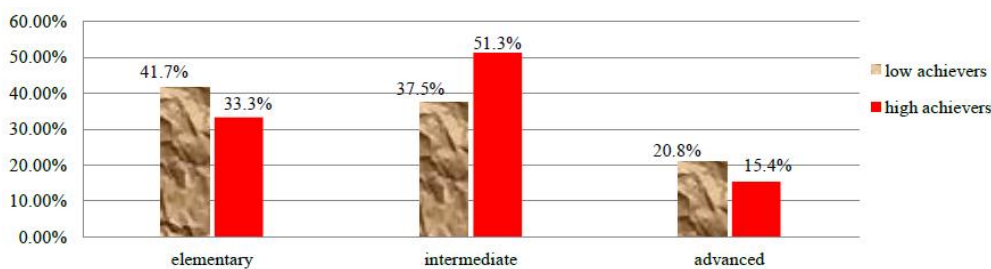


Figure 2. Perceived Level Of Idiom Instruction

F. Motivation of Idiom Learning

Driven by the importance of idioms, 79.2%, of the low achievers vs. 76.9% of the high achievers stated that idioms enhance their English learning. In addition, 69.2% of the high achievers are aware that idioms make an essential part of English language and 66.7% of them stated that idioms help them convey meanings, ideas and thoughts more appropriately. Underachievers, however, seem to be less alert to this importance with a percentage of 50% and 37% (See Table 4). Noticeably, a small percentage of both groups are motivated to learn idioms for achievement tests. This small percentage illustrates that idioms are taught, if so, basically for exam purposes.

TABLE 4
MOTIVATION FOR LEARNING IDIOMS

	low achievers		high achievers	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
a. They improve my English fluency.	19	79.2%	30	76.9%
b. They help me convey meanings mere words cannot.	9	37.5%	26	66.7%
c. They make an essential part of English language.	12	50.0%	27	69.2%
d. They are important for my exams.	6	25.0%	7	17.9%
e. Other	1	4.2%	6	15.4%

G. Strategies of Learning Idioms

The fact that learners are different, they learn differently. They tend to use different learning and coping strategies that help them perform well in L2. In response to Q7 in the questionnaire, the respondents in both groups stated that they use different strategies to process English idioms (See Fig. 3). Prior research supports the notion that a successful learner usually uses useful learning strategies that ultimately help him/her to cope with their learning situations (Rubin, 1975; Carter, 1971). Hence, comparing the learning strategies used in learning idioms by the high achievers may help the low achievers to follow suit, and therefore their idiomatic competence improves exponentially.

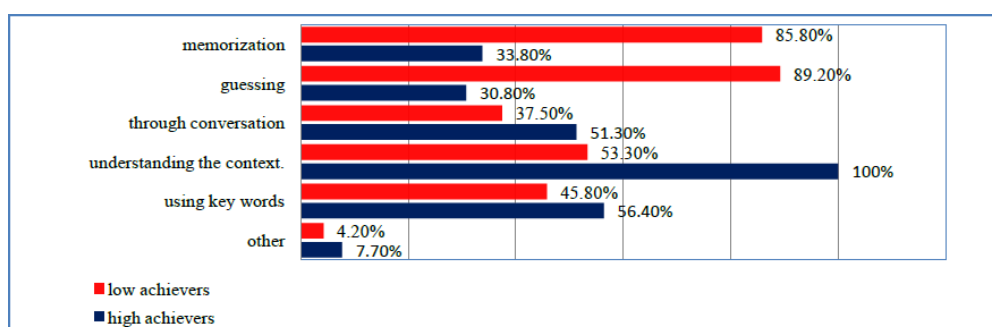


Figure 3. Idiom Learning Strategies

Whereas all high achievers in the sample tend to understand the context in which idioms occur, and 56.40% of them use key words, the low achievers give priority to “guessing” as a learning strategy with a percentage of (89.20%), followed by “memorization” at the percentage of 86% and thirdly “understanding the context” (53.30%). These learning strategies were suggested in the studies of Rohani, Ketabi, and Tavakoli (2012) and Guduru (2012). It is fair to state that some strategies might be more efficient than some others. Hence, low achievers could opt for the strategies used by their peers of high achievements to improve their idiomatic competence.

H. Difficulties of Learning Idioms

Based on the idiom tests and questionnaire, both groups seem to have difficulties to understand idioms without contexts (75%, 74%), followed by idioms of unfamiliar words (63%, 64%). In addition, a dichotomy of idioms in L1 and L2 (i.e. no analogy in Arabic) posits a problem for 26% of the high achievers and 29% of the low achievers (See Table 5). It is to be noted that both groups share more or less the same difficulties in recognizing idioms, particularly those idioms with no similarity in their L1 (Arabic). This confirms Pimenova's (2011) findings that L2 idioms with no analogue in mother-tongue are more difficult to grasp and use.

TABLE 5
COGNITIVE DIFFICULTIES OF LEARNING IDIOMS

Sources of difficulties	low achievers		high achievers	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
a. Idioms which have unfamiliar words.	15	62.5	25	64.1
b. Idioms which have no analog in Arabic.	7	29.2	10	25.6
c. Idioms which have no context.	18	75.0	29	74.4
d. Other	0	0%	1	2.6

As far as practical use of idioms is concerned, high achievers seem to have fewer problems in comprehending idioms. In response to a question of the practical problems of idiom learning, the group of high achievers stated that “translating” and understanding the “gist” of idioms topped the list of difficulties at a rate of 67% and 44% respectively. Low achievers, on the other hand, stated that they have more striking problems of “recognizing” and “using” idioms in meaningful contexts, which is not very problematic for the high achievers (See Table 6). It is useful to discuss these problems with reference to the learning strategies discussed above; as high achievers make use of effective learning strategies (such as using key words) that probably lessen practical problems of learning idioms.

TABLE 6
PRACTICAL DIFFICULTIES OF LEARNING IDIOMS

Major problems	low achievers		high achievers	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
a. Recognizing idioms (structure)	3	42.5	14	15.9
b. Understanding idioms (meaning)	14	58.3	17	43.6
c. Using idioms in sentences of my own (production)	11	45.8	7	17.9
d. Translating idioms	15	62.5	26	66.7
e. Other	1	4.2%	3	7.7%

1. Idioms in Yemeni EFL Context

In response to Q13 in the questionnaire, the respondents in both groups seem to have low self-esteem at English idioms (See Table 7). Expectedly, low and high achievers stated that idioms are hard to learn (Mean scores= 4.1250, 3.1795) and they are unhappy with their current idiomatic competence (Mean scores= 3.6667, 4.0513). They wish that they were taught useful learning strategies to learn idioms (Mean=1.6250, 1.6923) such as learning idioms by means of video-graphics to support their use and incorporating funny contexts, cartoons, and jokes as useful techniques to recognize and comprehend idioms (Mean scores=2.3333, 1.9167; 2.5128, 1.8205 respectively).

Items *f* through *h* in Table 7 are related to idioms in the local EFL curriculum. Coming from the same educational background, the informants in both groups stated that they were not taught idioms at the school level (Mean scores = 2.7500, 2.7436). Similarly, both groups stated that idioms are marginalized in their EFL syllabus (M=4.9167, 3.6923). This probably explains why respondents in both groups are dissatisfied with the status of idiom instruction in the school and university levels (Means scores=4.0000, 3.7692).

TABLE 7
IDIOMS IN LOCAL EFL CONTEXT

Items	low achievers			high achievers		
	No.	Mean	Std	No.	Mean	Std
a. For me, idioms are easy to learn.	24	4.1250	.9918	39	3.1795	.9139
b. I'm satisfied with my present knowledge of English idioms.	24	3.6667	1.3405	39	4.0513	1.0990
c. I learn idioms better with video-graphics that support its use.	24	2.3333	1.1293	39	2.5128	1.0729
d. I learn idioms better in funny contexts, cartoons, and jokes.	24	1.9167	.7755	39	1.8205	.8847
e. I like to be taught specific strategies in learning idioms.	24	1.6250	.76967	39	1.6923	.97748
f. I was taught idioms at the school level.	24	2.7500	1.4218	39	2.7436	.9139
g. Idioms are given enough attention in the syllabus in my dept.	24	4.9167	1.1764	39	3.6923	.8631
h. I'm satisfied with the way idioms are treated in my classes.	24	4.0000	1.2510	39	3.7692	1.0628
i. My EFL teachers use idiomatic expressions in their teaching.	24	2.9583	1.33447	39	2.9692	1.1112
j. My EFL teachers encourage me to learn/acquire idioms.	24	3.3333	1.52277	39	3.1795	1.14413

Scale: 1= strongly agree; 2= agree; 3= not sure; 4= disagree; 5= strongly disagree

As reflected in Fig. 1 above, teachers constitute a source of teaching idioms for a good number of learners. Since teachers in the local context play a traditional role as “knowledge-transmitters,” students are likely to be influenced by their teachers’ use of idioms. Items *i* and *j* in Table 7 clearly indicate that both groups likely agree that EFL teachers uncommonly capitalize on using idioms in classroom teaching and they scarcely encourage students to learn idioms (Mean scores= 2.9583, 3.3333; 2.9692, 3.1795 respectively). Arguably, this tendency is transmitted from teachers to their students, as teachers’ attitudes, beliefs, and practice inevitably get transferred to the students, and consequently students shrink to bring idioms into recurrent practice. This is in line with Copper’s (1998, p. 257) argument that the “L2’s mastery of idiom interpretation is reflected in an increased use of figurative language by teachers in classroom”.

As far as the responses of the participants to the open-ended questions are concerned, the informants in question have generally emphasized the importance of idioms in teaching and learning English. However, they lack confidence in using idioms as they believe idioms would be “slippery” if the context is not obviously stated. They also stressed the fact that raising learners’ awareness of importance of idioms in enhancing language learning should be given a prime importance. Acknowledging the usefulness of social networks, EFL learners believe that the internet tools and applications can compensate the distinct shortage of idiom practice in real life communication and/or classroom instruction.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Although Yemeni EFL learners at the undergraduate level tend to use several strategies and have hands on various sources to learn idioms, their idiomatic competence is still quite limited. Findings of the study show that they encounter several learning as well as linguistic challenges in processing English idioms. To begin with, learning challenges can be encapsulated into personal and institutional constraints. At the personal level, EFL learners generally pay less attention to English idioms. They consider idioms to be unimportant beyond classroom environment and irrelevant to their L2 competence, contrary to the results of several previous studies (e.g. Ellis, 1997; Liu, 2008; Shirazi & Talebinezhad, 2013; Wray, 1999, 2002) that consider using idioms in spoken and written discourse as a significant indicator of a high level of English proficiency. The low motivation of Yemeni EFL learners could be attributed to the fact that idiomatic expressions are not lively in their EFL teachers' classroom English. Besides, teachers hardly motivate students to pick up some idioms beyond the classroom contexts. As far as the institutional limitations are concerned, the status quo of idioms in the EFL program is imperceptible. Idioms are neither taught at the school level nor given adequate attention at the tertiary level. To remedy these pitfalls, idioms should be given a formal status in the EFL program. They should be infused in the program and carefully incorporated in a sequential series. When designing English courses, suggestions for teaching idioms in previous studies (e.g. Cooper, 1998) should be consulted and made use of.

Linguistic features of idioms are also another challenge for EFL learners. The results of idiom tests indicated that linguistic challenges stem primarily from three dimensions – syntactic, semantic and pragmatic. EFL learners find difficulties in recognizing idiom structures, comprehending their meanings and converting meanings (translating) into L1, a common shared situation in some other contexts as echoed in the studies of Chen and Lai (2013), Hussein, Khanji and Makhzoomy (2011), Mahmoud, (2002), Meryem (2010), Nakhallah (2010), Thawabteh (2011), and Buckingham (2006). To deal with such linguistic difficulties, students in focus have a tendency to use different strategies to recognize and grasp idiomatic expressions, yet their performance is quite unsatisfactory. EFL teachers should enhance and scaffold those strategies and students should be sensibilized to the importance of idioms as they constitute a major characteristic of conversational English. In addition, idiom learning strategies used by high-scoring learners might be useful for the underachievers to learn idiom more efficiently.

The most noteworthy conclusions of the study are threefold. First, the results confirm that students scoring high points in idiom tests are scoring high points in listening and speaking achievement tests, as far as the scope of this study is concerned. This confirms previous claims that there is a positive link between idiomatic competence and English proficiency (e.g. Wray, 1999, 2002; Liu, 2008; Shirazi & Talebinezhad, 2013; Ellis, 1997; Yorio, 1989). This implies that idioms should be given a due attention in the EFL program in Yemen. Second, idioms with analog in L1 (similar idioms) are easier to learn than idioms with no similarity in L1 (Arabic). This comes in concordance with some previous studies such as Wray (1999, 2002) and Liu (2008). This is important for EFL teachers, course and syllabus designers. Quite understandable idioms should be introduced first and idioms which have analogue in L1 (familiar words) should motivate L2 learners to go for more difficult ones. Third, as idioms are not well-defined, there seems to be no specified method or technique to learn idiomatic expressions. Different learners might make a selection of a wide range of learning strategies suggested by several language researchers such as Cooper (1998), Rohani, Ketabi and Tavakoli (2012), and Guduru (2012). The choices of high achievers might be useful for low achievers as well.

Although this study provides some insights into idiomatic competence of Yemeni EFL learners, the findings remains inconclusive to offer a comprehensive picture of the possible factors tied to EFL learners' use of idioms in the Yemeni EFL context. As research on idiom acquisition in general and idiom learning in the local EFL context in particular is scant, this study is just a short-scale attempt investigating the link between the participants' oral proficiency and their idiomatic competence, delving into the strategies, and challenges of idiom learning in the local EFL environment. In the view of foreign language learning, there are bound to be some other factors that may be linked to L2 use of idioms. Further studies might expand the scope of investigation by including other factors such as age, academic rank, years of learning, etc. In terms of methodology, the idiom tests were self-managed; other studies might adopt more reliable tests such as TOEFL, IELTS, etc. Some other task-based activities are also recommended to check the use of idioms and test frequency instead of asking students' perceptions. The informants in this study were recruited from the Department of English at the Faculty of Education, Taiz University. Further similar studies of a larger sample size might be conducted to ensure the validity and generalizability of research findings.

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Abdu Mohammad Talib Al-kadi was born in 1980 in Yemen. He is a faculty member at Language and Translation Center, Ibb University, Yemen. He is currently a PhD research student in Tunisia. He obtained his MA in Applied Linguistics from ISLT, Tunis, and his BA and post-BA diploma in English Studies from Taiz University, Yemen. He has been teaching English as EFL at Taiz University for about 6 years. He also taught English as ESP to the students of Dentistry and Engineering at Ibb University. His major contributions are:

- *English Needs Analysis of Dentistry Students at Ibb University, Yemen* (Unpublished MA thesis, 2012). ISLT, Tunis.

- English Acquisition through Unstructured Internet Use in Yemen. *The Internet Journal of Language, Culture and Society*, 38, 2013.

- Adopting ICT for Autonomous EFL Learning: A Case Study. *Tunisia TESOL First International Conference*, Feb. 6-8, 2014.

His areas of interest include language acquisition, needs analysis, ESP, and CALL.

Mr. Al-kadi is a member of Ibb University Teachers' Syndicate, and a member of the Tunisian TESOL.

The Effect of Familiarity with Content Knowledge on Iranian Medical Students' Performance in Reading Comprehension Texts: A Comparative Study of Medical and TEFL Students

Anis Ashrafzadeh

Faculty of Language and Linguistics, University of Malaya, Malaysia

Zuraidah Mohd Don

Faculty of Language and Linguistics, University of Malaya, Malaysia

Mojtaba Meshkat

Faculty of Medicine, Azad University of Mashhad, Iran

Abstract—This study considers the effect of relevant background knowledge (schema) on reading comprehension in a group of Iranian medical students. The participants were selected using random sampling from two different groups: thirty students enrolled in an MA course in TEFL, and thirty medical students in years 4 to 7 of a seven year medical course. The selection requirement for all participants was an IELTS score of between 6 and 7. All participants were asked to respond to two texts. The first was an academic text with a tendency towards using sub-technical medical terms (e.g. asthma, air ventilation), and which was part of a sample text for an IELTS reading skill test. The second text contained highly technical or subject-specific medical terms from neurology as a specific area of medicine. Both texts were selected by a medical specialist who had also taught English for Medical Purposes (EMP) for several years in medical colleges in Iran. After reading each text, students were asked to answer questions based on the text. The results obtained from an analysis of the scores using SPSS indicated that background knowledge plays an important role in text reading comprehension for medical students in Iran ($p < 0.05$). The study also considered the three phases of reading (pre-reading, reading, and post-reading) and ways to build and activate background knowledge (schema) to achieve better reading comprehension.

Index Terms—schema, reading comprehension, English for academic purposes, medical students, TEFL students

I. INTRODUCTION

English has, for several decades, been the major language of higher education in many countries where English is a second or foreign language. This increasing use of English is reflected in the development of courses in English for medicine, law, and business, and also English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

Reading has long been considered a crucial component in the learning of any subject. The ability to read relevant texts is the most useful skill students can have for obtaining the necessary information about their subject areas. Reading is a complex process involving several different skills, and it has an important place in acquiring both general and specific kinds of English. According to Hancock (1998), the process of reading “comprehension involves understanding the vocabulary, seeing relationships among the words and concepts, organizing ideas, recognizing the author’s purpose, evaluating the context, and making judgments” (p. 69). This complexity, together with the development of new teaching approaches which recognize the important role played by comprehension, has encouraged researchers to carry out studies on different areas of reading. These studies include Johnson’s (1982) study on prior vocabulary, Nassaji’s (2003) study on the role of higher-level syntactic and semantic processes and lower-level word recognition and graphophonic processes in adult English as a second language (ESL) reading comprehension, and Brantmeier’s (2005) study on the relation between subject knowledge and reading comprehension.

Background knowledge has also been the focus of attention as a top-down tool for text comprehension, bringing in relevant information not contained in the text itself (Donin & Silva, 1993), such as general knowledge about people, culture and the universe, or information about the discourse structure itself. Chen and Donin (1997) found evidence for the bottom-up influence (retrieving data first from the letters of the text) of linguistic proficiency as opposed to prior

knowledge in reading comprehension, but pointed to the compensatory role of background knowledge in the case of participants who had a high level of knowledge about the texts but a lower level of proficiency in their L2.

Although, the role of background knowledge in reading comprehension has already been investigated widely by researchers, but there are few empirical studies on the role of schema (background knowledge) in reading comprehension in medicine. This is the main topic of this paper - the role of background knowledge in reading comprehension in Iranian medical students. In addition this paper seeks to identify the ways in which this background knowledge is activated. This is a significant issue for researchers both in medicine and EAP.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It is not clear to what extent background knowledge, as opposed to familiarity with the subject matter, plays a role in reading comprehension in medical texts.

Clapham (2001) studied three groups of students: students of Business Studies and Social Sciences (BSS), students of Life and Medical Sciences (LMS), and students of Physical Science and Technology (PST). She found that, although students generally achieved higher scores on texts in their subject areas, this was not always the case. In fact, they sometimes did better on texts outside their area. Clapham concluded that students vary widely in terms of their background knowledge as the texts varied in terms of their specifications. She also found that although they had obtained a pass on general English tests, many medical students were not well prepared for the academic activities they had to tackle, including reading and writing journal articles, collaborating on research projects, attending conferences and lectures, and participating in discussions. Although many of these tasks are limited to the training period, all physicians are in fact required to be lifelong learners, especially those choosing careers in the academic areas of medicine. In any case, the reading skill is tied to their careers and to their academic lives.

III. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A. Reading and Background Knowledge

It has long been recognized that reading is an interactive process, in which readers draw on existing background knowledge to construct the meaning of texts. Attempts to formalize the notion of background knowledge have centered on the concept of schema, a term derived from the Greek *σχῆμα* 'shape, form' and introduced by von Ehrenfels (1890) in the context of Gestalt psychology. The widespread use of the term in psychology and education is attributed to Bartlett (1932), who in a study of the recall of Native American folktales observed that many recalls were inaccurate, and included the introduction of extraneous information. The recalls also included retrieved inferences which went beyond the information given in the original text. From his observations on recall, Bartlett (1932) concluded that there is an unconscious mental structure or schema which models general knowledge about the world. He defined a schema as the prior knowledge stored in the human mind for reading a text (Bartlett, 1932).

We deal here first with schema theory in general, and then more specifically with its application to reading.

B. Schema Theory

According to Nassaji (2002) schema theory has produced new developments in the field of cognitive psychology. For example, a group of cognitive processes, like inferencing, remembering, and problem solving, has been explained by this theory. Schema theory has also been considered the motivation for a lot of the empirical research related to learning, comprehension and memory (*Ibid*). At the same time, the important role of schema theory in describing the structure of knowledge of ordinary events in a variety of domains has been considered using a number of different terms. Nassaji (2002) cites terms such as "frames" (Minsky, 1975), "scripts" (Schank & Abelson, 1977), and "plans" (Schank, 1982). In linguistics, the concept of schema theory has been used in the terms "sentence schemata" (Winograd, 1983), "story schemata" (Johnson & Mandler, 1980; Mandler, 1978), "formal/ rhetorical schemata," "content schemata" (Carrell, 1984), "textual schemata" (Swaffar, 1988), and "symbolic schemata" (Oller, 1995).

Although, in practice, schema theory is often associated with reading comprehension, in principle it is concerned with comprehension and cognition in general, and has no specific connection with reading. According to Anderson et al. (1977; cited in Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983, p. 73) "every act of comprehension involves one's knowledge of the world". Rumelhart (1982) calls schemata "the building blocks of cognition", a definition that suggests how schemata build a network of information to make sense of new events, situations, and stimuli (Al-Issa, 2006). Widdowson (1983) took the view that it is the organized information in our long-term memory that creates schemata as cognitive constructs. The connection with reading is that schemata "reflect the experiences, conceptual understanding, attitudes, values, skills, and strategies ... [we] bring to a text situation" (Vacca & Vacca, 1999, p. 15). The critical role of the reader and the interaction between the background knowledge of the reader and the text has also been considered one of the major insights of schema theory. These developments have affected research in the area of L2 comprehension considerably (Nassaji, 2002).

C. Schema Theory and Reading Comprehension

Brown (2001) points to the prominent role of schemata in reading skills, and suggests that meaning is not conveyed

by the text alone, because readers bring their own schemata consisting of information, knowledge, emotion, and culture to the printed words. Brown cites Clark and Silberstein (1977), who suggested that reading is incidentally visual, and requires the reader to contribute more information to supplement the words on the page. Readers (both native and non-native) will have poor reading comprehension if they lack the appropriate schemata to infer the meanings of the words on the page.

Similarly, Al-Issa (2006) suggests that readers use their schemata to build up a meaningful image of the text. Drawing on earlier work including that of Anderson and Pearson (1984), Carrell et al. (1988), and Hudson (2007), Al-Issa (2006) defines a schema as a collection of default ideas, principles and judgments about events and locations. The collection contains different folders which store specific information about a topic, and play a major role in guiding the reader to the meaning of the text. An important condition, of course, is that the reader must be able to refer to the appropriate mental folder for a particular text topic. Nguyen (2012) suggests that schemata can be seen as abstract bodies of 'pre-owned' information which have an essential role in the reading process. Other studies which demonstrate the impact of prior cultural or content knowledge on reading comprehension include Brantmeier, 2005; Carrell, 1983; Hammadou, 1990, 2000; and Johnson, 1982. Carrell (1984b) investigated the influence of descriptive passages (English expository text) on non-native readers, and found a significant difference between the recall of strongly organized structures and a collection of English expository texts a finding later confirmed by Tian (1990).

What is obvious in the literature is that there are two recognised types of schema, content schemata and formal schemata. Brown (2001) defines content schemata as those schemata which contain information about people, culture, the world, and the universe, while formal schemata include knowledge about discourse structure. In other words, content schemata involve general knowledge of life, including culture, history, and society (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983; Fisher & Frey, 2009), while formal schemata involve language knowledge, including syntax, semantics, and phonology. Most research has concentrated on content schemata, but in the special case of reading comprehension, due attention also needs to be paid to formal schemata.

Carrell (1984) investigated the impact of formal schemata, and in particular the impact of story structure, on reading recall by ESL subjects. She found conventionally ordered stories were recalled significantly better than stories that were ordered in an unconventional manner. In a study of the impact of both content and formal schemata, Johnson (1981) found that cultural information has more effect on reading comprehension than the syntactic structure of the text. Carrell (1987) investigated the concurrent effects of content and formal schemata and other potential interactions between them. She studied two high intermediate ESL learner groups, one containing Muslims and the other Catholics, and gave them two texts to read, one with culturally familiar content and the other with culturally unfamiliar content. She found that both kinds of schemata had a significant impact on reading comprehension, and that both brought about better reading comprehension.

D. Topic Familiarity

Brantmeier (2003) also emphasizes the role of topic familiarity as a significant factor in L2 comprehension, following Afflerbach's (1986) claim that topic familiarity obtained by reading a text enhances the rebuilding of the main idea. Swaffer (1988) considered schemata plays a priority role in applying world knowledge to reading comprehension. An important contribution (p. 126) was his emphasis on topic familiarity as the facilitator of "language recognition", "inferential reasoning", and the recall of concepts. Liu, Schedl, Malloy, and Kong (2009) refer to Bartlett's (1932) study, which adduced evidence of the impact of cultural schema or topic familiarity on the comprehension of texts, as a seminal work in L1 studies.

Moreover, the effect of background knowledge on reading comprehension in L1 and L2 reading has been the topic of a number of investigations. Floyd and Carrell (1987) studied ESL students with intermediate level proficiency. They divided students into two groups, the treatment group and the control group. The treatment group was given two training sessions on cultural knowledge. Both groups took pre- and post-tests to measure their performance in reading comprehension. The results showed a significantly better performance for the treatment group. This possibly explains in part why some students fail to comprehend the main purpose of a text.

Spiro, Bruce, and Brewer (1980) suggested that text comprehension is brought about by the application of the reader's knowledge of the world and language to the interpretation of meaning. According to others, including Anderson (1982), Read and Rosson (1982), and Reutzel and Hollingsworth (1991), text comprehension is only possible when there is an interaction between prior world knowledge and language and the content of the text. This confirms the view of Barnitz (1985) that if readers do not have sufficient familiarity with a text, more effort is required to construct reading comprehension. On the other hand, Freire and Macedo (1987) found that it is the interaction between text content and the reader's background knowledge that builds comprehension through the process of reading.

In summary, many studies involving schema theory show that comprehension is more effective when the reader's content schema is closely matched to the text. As Fisher and Frey (2009) and Hudson (2007) point out, text comprehension depends very much on the way readers apply their schema. While some researchers (Carrell & Eisterhold (1983); Fisher & Frey (2009)) take the view that schemata are arranged hierarchically, from the most general information at the top to the most specific information at the bottom, Carrel and Eisterhol (1983) and others claim that the different levels of schema are connected through bottom-up and top-down processing. (The concepts of bottom-up and top-down processing are considered further below).

As noted earlier, schema theory shows how the prior information a reader has about a text activates the information required to solve reading problems (Rumelhart, 1983; Nassaji, 2002). In other words, it is the combination of information retrieved from the written text and the reader's schema which enables the comprehension of the text. Conversely, according to Hudson (1982), problems in reading in L2 are not caused by a lack of schemata to activate, but from activation of the wrong schemata. This was later contradicted by Bransford et al. (1986) who found that readers' problems with reading comprehension are caused by a lack of necessary background knowledge (schema), so readers are unable to fill in the missing information gaps.

According to Aebersold and Field (1997), "If the topic ...is outside [students'] experience or base of knowledge, they are adrift on an unknown sea" (p. 41). The importance of content schemata has led some researchers to assert the need for further research to identify ways to activate the schemata (Al-Issa, 2006).

There is also a general agreement in studies of background knowledge that familiarity with the text topic puts students in a better position to understand what they read (Al-Issa, 2006). This confirms the earlier view of Carrell (1988 p.245), that "students' apparent reading problems may be problems of insufficient background knowledge [content, formal, and linguistic]". However, she added that students with proper schemata might still be unable to comprehend a text if their schemata has not been activated appropriately (Ibid). According to Fisher and Frey (2009), readers know when and where to use their own schemata to construct a more comprehensible reading.

Bartlett (1932) emphasized the importance of both bottom-up and top-down processing in reading comprehension, and suggested that information is first retrieved from the letters of the text using bottom-up knowledge, and then a meaningful representation of the text content is constructed using top-down knowledge. It has generally been accepted that top-down processing affects information retrieved from bottom-up processing (Williams & Lombrozo, 2010). According to Bacon (1992), while top-down processing includes paying attention to the topic, guessing "from context", hypothesizing, using "schemata", making inferences, "global processing" and avoiding translation, bottom-up processing involves concentrating on "text-based aspects", including "structure" focus, "structure" segmentation, and attention to "known words" (p.165). Nuttall (1998) agrees that it is the combination of top-down and bottom-up processing that enables reading comprehension. She includes understanding "the overall purpose of the text", and making "a reasoned guess" (p.16) in top-down processing, and understanding the meanings of words and the structure of sentences in bottom-up processing.

According to Al-Issa (2006), bottom-up processing handles and rearranges visual data to enable the reader to make a decision on the raw data. When there is a clash in background knowledge and viewpoint between the reader and writer, the reader is left confused. In this situation, the reader's attention focuses on the syntax, words and vocabulary in order to reconstruct the text meaning. On the other hand, in the case of top-down processing, readers interpret the writer's intention, make inferences, try to work out the overall point of the text, and may predict the next part of the text and what it might contain (Ibid).

E. Reading Skills

The focus of interest in this paper is on L2 reading comprehension. In Iran as elsewhere, an immense amount of effort is devoted to the development of reading skills in L2 learners. This being so, it is reasonable to predict that *ceteris paribus* successful language learners will be particularly skilled in comprehending texts. In the present case, MA ELT students, who have not only developed reading skills for themselves but who are being trained to develop reading skills in their own students, can be expected to be more successful than, say, medical students, who have no special linguistic expertise beyond what they have learnt in developing general proficiency.

However, if the comprehension process begins bottom up, it can easily be blocked if the reader does not know a sufficient proportion of the words. We can expect medical students to comprehend a technical medical text better than ELT students, even if they have poorer reading skills. But the medical students should lose this advantage given a text – even a medical text – containing words familiar to the ELT students.

On the other hand, such a prediction is based on the conventional bottom-up approach to reading skills. If comprehension also involves schemata, topic familiarity and schema activation, then the medical students should have an advantage with any medical text. The main goal of the present study is, therefore, to answer the question: To what extent does background knowledge play a role in reading comprehension in the case of Iranian medical students?

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants included 60 students selected from two groups: MA TEFL students (N=30), and medical students (N=30). The TEFL students were in their second or third semester at the University of Tehran, Kish International campus. They were aged between 24 and 29 (average 25.5), and included 16 males and 14 females. The medical students were from the Azad Medical University of Mashhad. They were aged between 22 and 37 (average 24.5), and included 14 males and 16 females, and they were selected from students who were at the clinical stage, i.e. years 4 to 7 of a 7 year course. Tables 1 and 2 summarize the details of the participants.

TABLE 1
PARTICIPANTS' GENDER

		Group					
		Medicine		English		Total	
		Count	Column N %	Count	Column N %	Count	Column N %
Sex	Female	16	53.3%	14	46.7%	30	50.0%
	Male	14	46.7%	16	53.3%	30	50.0%
	Total	30	100.0%	30	100.0%	60	100.0%

TABLE 2
PARTICIPANTS' AGE

			Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Group	Medicine	Age	22	37	24.5	3.4
	English	Age	24	29	25.4	1.2
	Total	Age	22	37	24.9	2.6

B. Procedure

The research was carried out in two stages. Participants were matched for English proficiency, having IELTS scores between 6 and 7 (intermediate level). Thirty TEFL students, all having IELTS scores of over 6, which is the minimum for MA TEFL students in Iran, were selected using random sampling, while thirty of seventy medical students were similarly selected. These students also had an IELTS score of more than 6.

Participants in both groups were asked to read two texts. The first contained general medical knowledge, and consisted of about 280 words including sub-technical medical terms (e.g. *asthma*, *air ventilation*). It was taken from part of an IELTS reading test. The other text was about 350 words, and included highly technical medical terms relating to neurology, e.g. neurological terms such as *corticonuclear fibers* and *ipsilateral*, and required specialist medical knowledge. This second text was taken from an authentic medical textbook, namely *Gray's Clinical Neuroanatomy: The Anatomic Basis for Clinical Neuroscience*. The comprehension questions were devised by a medical specialist in general surgery from Azad Medical University who had taught English for Medical Purposes (EMP) for several years. The texts and comprehension questions are included in the Appendix.

After reading each text, participants were given fifteen minutes to answer the questions devised by the medical specialist. To ensure validity, different formats were used, including cloze-tests, blank tests, short answers, and open-ended questions. The Mann-Whitney test was used in SPSS to process the data and to ascertain any significant differences between the two groups.

C. Results

The medical students obtained a higher mean score in comprehending both texts, i.e. the text with sub-technical words ($M=8.4$, $SD=1.0$), and the text with high-technical words ($M=5.0$, $SD=1.5$). The difference was significant ($p < 0.05$). However, the mean scores for the TEFL students in comprehending the text with sub-technical words ($M=5.7$, $SD=1.7$), and the text with high-technical words ($M=3.4$, $SD=1.1$) were significantly different ($p < 0.05$), and lower for the more technical text. Tables 3 and 4 show the details.

TABLE 3
THE INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	4.325	.042	-1.426	58	.159	-.933	.654	-2.243	.377
Equal variances not assumed			-1.426	36.09	.162	-.933	.654	-2.261	.394

Figures 1 and 2 give the mean scores for correct answers following reading sub-technical and highly technical medical texts.

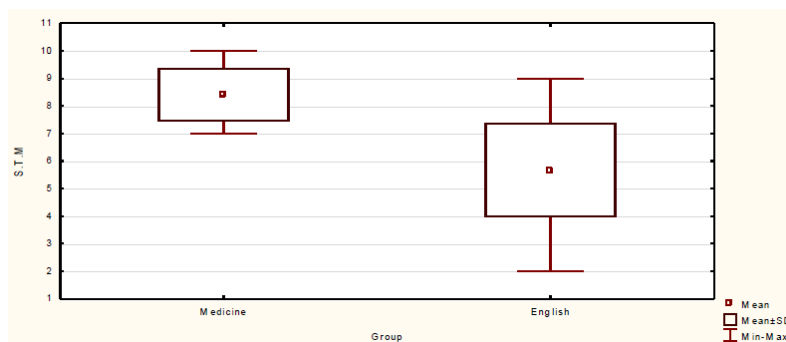


Figure 1: The students' mean score in reading sub-technical medical text

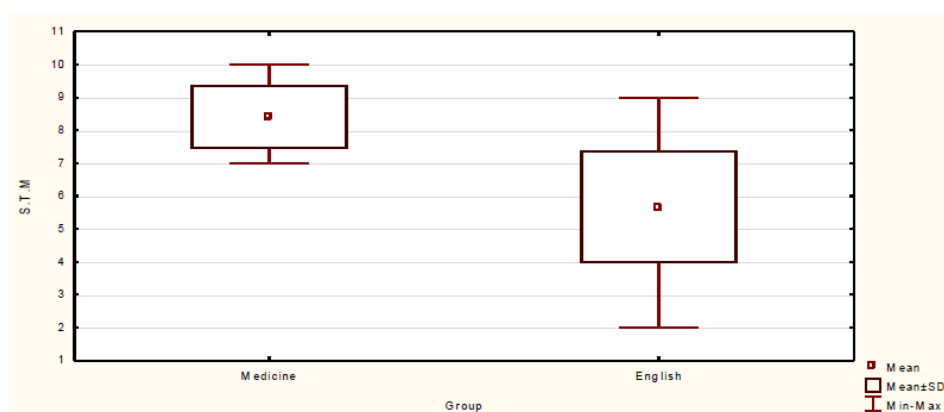


Figure 2: The students' mean score in reading high-technical medical text

Table 4 summarizes the findings and computed mean scores

TABLE 4
DEPENDENT VARIABLE SCORE

	English	Medicine	P-Value
Age*	25.4±1.2	24.5±3.4	0.162
Sex(Male/Female)	16/14	14/16	0.606
S.T.M.	5.7±1.7	8.4±1.0	0.0001S
H.T.M.	3.4±1.1	5.0±1.5	0.0001S
*Mean±SD			
s :significant level is p<0.05			

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The results of the study confirmed the high impact background knowledge has on comprehending medical texts. This study also confirms the studies of Johnson (1982); Lee (1986); Hammadou (1991, 2000); and other researchers who have concluded that background knowledge helps readers better understand the relevant texts.

According to Nassaji (2002), while there is no doubt about the important role of background knowledge in L2 reading comprehension, it has been schema theory which has led our attention to the role of knowledge.

This study was designed to assess the role of background knowledge in the comprehension of medical texts by Iranian medical students. To do this, we compared a group of medical students with MA TEFL students. At the beginning of the study, it was supposed that TEFL students, as MA students of English and having studied English academically for several years, would be familiar with general topics in English, including medicine. At this point it is appropriate to take note of a distinction made by Chou (2011) between topic familiarity and background knowledge. Background knowledge consists of different kinds of information, such as information about terminology, vocabulary, and information which enables members of a group to make inferences (Chou, 2011). Familiarity with the topic or knowledge about the topic is not sufficient on its own to comprehend a specific text. In other words, as researchers such as Al-Issa (2006) claim, if readers are absolutely unfamiliar with the subject matter or the text content, no matter how well they may know the language, they will not achieve good comprehension. However good the TEFL students were at handling general English topics, they needed to activate their background knowledge before doing the tests in order to achieve better reading comprehension. Krashen (1993) makes two suggestions on how to activate the students' schemata, namely free voluntary reading and reading in the first language. Ways of activating students' schemata are discussed further in section 6 below.

The other way in which the process of reading comprehension can be improved is by employing the pre-teaching

vocabulary technique, which is used as a method for improving reading comprehension in native speakers. This method has been supported recently by researchers in literature (Maghsoudi, 2012). The researchers believe that, in an L2 setting, teachers can also benefit from pre-teaching the relevant vocabulary through pre-reading activities (Taglieber *et al.*, 1988; Kameenui *et al.*, 1982).

Finally, what is obvious in all these activities is the importance of the role of the teacher in an EFL class. Guiding students to relate the new schema to their background knowledge (existing schema) could be a basic step in the reading comprehension process. Encouraging them to pay more attention to all parts of a written text including titles, tables, pictures, contextual clues, etc., is another way to teach them how to take advantage of the text in order to improve their comprehension, which is the ultimate goal of reading a text. It is worth remembering Stevens' (1982) claim about the vital role of reading teachers, "a teacher of reading might thus be viewed as a teacher of relevant information as well as a teacher of reading skill" (Stevens, 1982, p.328). Thus, one of the basic roles of the reading teacher could be to offer practical tools to students to enable them to process different kinds of texts (Daniels and Zimelman, 2004). As noted earlier, the role of the teacher in guiding students to relate new schema to existing schema is vital in reading comprehension and also needs to be considered (Maghsoudi, 2012).

VI. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

All studies dealing with background knowledge point to the value of schemata in teaching, especially content schemata. Regarding EFL readers (in the current study, the students of TEFL), having the proper background knowledge is important for readers encountering scientific texts (Maghsoudi, 2012).

As Williams (1987) argues, there are three phases in the reading comprehension process that need to be reflected on in teaching, namely pre-reading, reading, and post-reading. Building up background knowledge needs special attention during the first phase, and it is during this phase that the instructor can make use of audio-visual devices such as pictures, slides, and movies to construct and activate the students' schemata. This can be done by asking students to write about their knowledge of different topics, then discussing these topics with each other. The second phase requires students to read a lot of relevant material to build up their schemata and to make these schemata accessible for activation, as well as enrich their knowledge of the subject. In the third phase, background knowledge is integrated into the new schema structure (Al-Issa, 2006). Since relevant background knowledge determines the ease with which students comprehend a particular text, it is important for teachers to select appropriate materials to construct this background knowledge and schema. Teachers can improve the reading comprehension process for students by teaching them how to use their background knowledge to fill information gaps in the context (Elbro & Buch-Iversen, 2013). It is also helpful to take note of other factors, including whether students find the materials interesting or relevant to developing their English proficiency, selecting appropriate materials for all phases of reading (pre-reading, reading, and post-reading), activating students' hidden schemata, or recognizing their hidden comprehension problems (Al-Issa, 2006). In some cases teachers are faced with the problem that students lack the background knowledge and schemata to understand the texts, in which case teachers have to create this for them using appropriately designed activities (Floyd and Carrell, 1987). This can be as simple as providing mini-lesson teaching sessions (Floyd and Carrell's own example), showing an audio-visual clip related to the topic and discussing it with the students, or even giving students a diagram or illustration.

These methods not only minimize irrelevant prior knowledge (which could distract students from creating relevant schemata), but also help teachers and students alike to use schemata actively in the process of reading comprehension. In the longer term, it could help students become more independent L2 readers.

APPENDIX A. THE TEXTS

a. The general medical text

Exercise

Exercise is a very common precipitant of accurate episodes of asthma. This stimulus differs from other naturally occurring provocations, such as antigens, viral infections, and air pollutants, in that it does not evoke any long-term sequel, nor does it increase airway reactivity. Typically, the attacks follow exertion and do not occur during it. The critical variables that determine the severity of the postexertional airway obstruction are the levels of ventilation achieved and the temperature and humidity of the inspired air. The higher the ventilation and the lower the heat content of the air, the greater the response. For the same inspired air conditions, running produces a severer attack of asthma than walking because of its greater ventilator cost. Conversely, for a given task, the inhalation of cold air markedly enhances the response, while warm, humid air blunts or abolishes it. Consequently, activities such as ice hockey, cross country skiing, and ice skating (high ventilation of cold air) are more provocative than is swimming in an indoor, heated pool (relatively) low ventilation of humid air). The mechanism by which exercise produces obstruction may be related to a thermally produced hyperemia and capillary leakage in the airway wall.

Emotional Stress Psychological factors can worsen or ameliorate asthma. Changes in airway caliber seem to be mediated through modification of vagal efferent activity, but endorphins may also play a role. The extent to which

psychological factors participate in the induction and/or continuation of any given accurate exacerbation is not established but probably varies from patient to patient and in the same patient from episode to episode.

The questions:

- 1) Exercise rarely causes acute bouts of acute asthma.
 - A) True
 - B) False
- 2) Emotional status exacerbates asthma exclusively through endorphins.
 - A) True
 - B) False
- 3) The degree of participation of emotional factor is constant in the same patient.
 - A) True
 - B) False
- 4) Alterations in the blood circulation in the airway may be related to exercise-induced asthma.
 - A) True
 - B) False
- 5) Increased airway reaction to exercise is followed by..... .
 - A) heart attack
 - B) disabilities
 - C) apnea
 - D) acute attacks of asthma
 - E) heart failure
- 6) Exercise-induced asthma is followed by..... in the patient.
 - A) long term disabilities
 - B) short term disabilities
 - C) heart attack
 - D) asthma attack
 - E) apnea attack
- 7) Ice-skating has the same provocative role for asthma as.....
 - A) exercise test
 - B) running
 - C) ice hockey
 - D) walking
 - E) swimming
- 8) Lower ventilatory effort during walking precipitates, compared with running.
.....
- 9) There is no marked difference in the airway response to cold or..... .
.....
- 10) Usually exercise-induced attacks of asthma occur during.....
.....

b. The technical medical text

Transverse section of the medulla at the level of the decussating of the medial lemniscus

The medullary white matter is rearranged above the level of the pyramid decussating. The pyramids contain ipsilateral corticospinal and corticonuclear fibers, the latter distributed to nuclei of cranial nerves and other medullary nuclei. At this level, they form two large ventral bundles flanking the ventral median fissure. The accessory olivary nuclei and lemniscal decussation are dorsal.

The nucleus gracilis is broader at this level and the fibers of its fasciculus are located on its dorsal, medial and lateral surfaces. The nucleus cutaneous is well developed. Both, nuclei retain continuity with the central grey matter at this level, but this is subsequently lost. First-order gracile and cuneate fascicular fibers, which have ascended ipsilaterally and uninterrupted from their origin in the spinal cord, synapse upon neurons in their respective nuclei. Second-order axons emerge from the nuclei as internal arcuate fibers, at first curving ventrolaterally around the central grey matter and then ventromedially between the trigeminal spinal tract and the central grey matter. They decussate to form an ascending contralateral tract, the medial lemniscus. The lemniscal decussation is located dorsal to the pyramids and ventral to the central grey matter. The latter is, therefore, more dorsally displaced than in the previous section.

The medial lemniscus ascends from the lemniscal decussation on each side as a flattened tract near the median raphe. As the tracts ascend, they increase in size because fibers join from upper levels of the decussation. Corticospinal fibers are ventral, and the medial longitudinal fasciculus and tectospinal tract are dorsal. Fibers are rearranged in the decussation, so that those from the nucleus gracilis come to lie ventral to those from the nucleus cuneatus. Above this, the medial lemniscus is also rearranged, ventral (gracile) fibers becoming lateral, and dorsal (cuneate) fibers medial. At this level, medial lemniscal fibers show a laminar somatotopy on a segmental basis, in that fibers from C1 to S4 spinal segments are segregated sequentially from medial to lateral, respectively.

(Gray's Clinical Neuroanatomy: The Anatomic Basis for Clinical Neuroscience, p. 158)

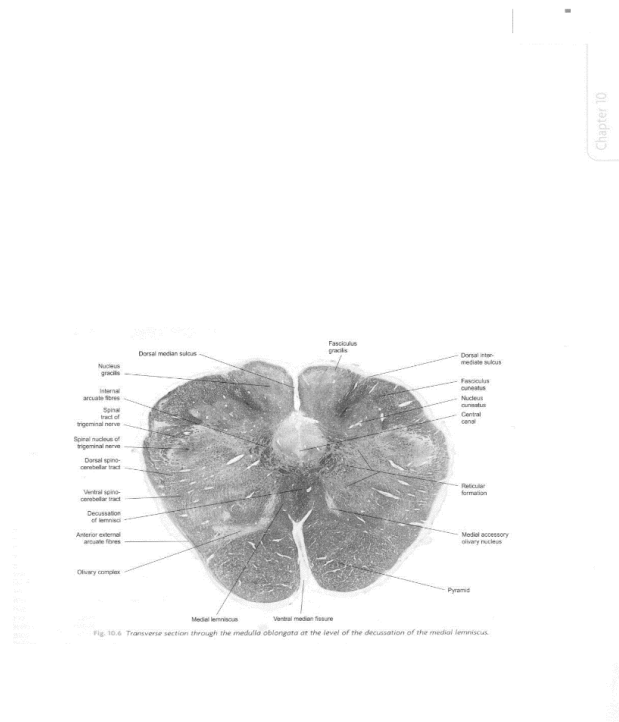


Figure 3. Gray's Clinical Neuroanatomy: The Anatomic Basis for Clinical Neuroscience, p. 161)

- 1) Tectospinal tract are located opposite to medial longitudinal fasciculus and ipsilateral to corticospinal fibers.
 - A) True
 - B) False
- 2) The continuity of nucleus gracilis is lost at the level of pyramid.
 - A) True
 - B) False
- 3) Above the decussation, the gracile fibers are rearranged medially.
 - A) True
 - B) False
- 4) The dorsal median fissure is partly formed by.....
 - A) nucleus gracilis
 - B) fasciculus fibers
 - C) craniospinal fibers
 - D) cranial nerves
 - E) S4 spinal fibers
- 5)are located in the most lateral somatotopic lamina in the medial lemniscus.
 - A) S4 spinal fibers
 - B) Fasciculus fibers
 - C) Gracile fibers
 - D) Nucleus gracilis
 - E) Craniospinal fibers
- 6) Internal arcuate fibers:
 - A) are located in the grey matter of medulla
 - B) cross to form the lateral lemniscus
 - C) forming the lateral lemniscus, it is ventral to pyramids
 - D) are located dorsal to pyramids
 - E) are located lateral to pyramids
- 7) The ventral aspect of pyramid contains the fasciculus fibers of:

- 8) Which fibers are distribute to cranial nerves at the pyramid level?

- 9) Where does cuneate fibers synapse?

- 10) Which fibers are rearranged at the decussation of pyramid?

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

Zuraidah Mohd Don is professor of language and linguistics in the Faculty of Languages & Linguistics, University of Malaya (UM), Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. Her research covers a wide field centered on the study of language, ranging from pragmatics, discourse analysis to corpus linguistics, and English Language Teaching.

Mojtaba Meshkat is specialist in statistics in the Department of Immunology, Mashhad Branch, Azad University of Mashhad, Iran.

The Causes of Writing Apprehension through Students' Perspective

Yasser Al-Shboul

Salt College for Human Sciences, Balqa Applied University, Salt, Jordan

Ibrahim Fathi Huwari

Department of English Language and Literature, College of Arts, Zarqa University, Jordan

Abstract—Although studies on the causes of writing apprehension on native learners of English have been done extensively, studies on English as foreign language (EFL) learners are scant. In fact, limited studies have examined writing apprehension experienced by EFL postgraduate learners, in particular written academic discourse. Therefore, the study focused on writing apprehension experienced by Jordanian EFL learners when writing their PhD thesis in Malaysia. The objective of the study was to explore the causes of writing apprehension among Jordanian PhD students at Universiti Utara Malaysia. In this qualitative case study, the researchers interviewed 21 Jordanian PhD students. Four main themes emerged pertaining to causes of writing apprehension which are Lack of knowledge in English structure, Negative attitude toward writing, Negative writing experience in the past, and Inadequate knowledge in academic writing. The study concluded that writing apprehension was a prevalent phenomenon among the students. The study contributes to the body of knowledge on writing apprehension related to the causes of writing apprehension. It highlights internal and external factors which contribute to writing apprehension.

Index Terms—writing apprehension, Jordanian PhD student, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Writing Apprehension

Writing apprehension is a term that has been introduced by Daly and Miller (1975). They defined writing apprehension as "A subjective complex of attitudinal, emotional, and behavioral interaction which reinforces each other" (Daly & Miller, 1975, p. 11). Researchers have used many terms to refer to writing apprehension such as anxiety and blocking (Al-Ahmad, 2003; Gungl & Taylor, 1989; Rose, 1980, 1983). They consider writing apprehension as a complex term because of the complexity of writing. Writing apprehension is a serious problem that can hinder the performance of both native and non-native learners (Al-Sobh & Al-Abed Al-Haq, 2012; Graves, 1984).

Writing apprehension is associated with many kinds of experiences. First, it refers to a behavior of resistance by an individual writer in a situation when he/she cannot begin to write or is being interrupted in the writing process owing largely to writing avoidance. Second, it is used to describe a writer who negatively judges a particular writing project's value or any writing project's value; in other words, the avoidance stems from the writer's negative attitude. It is also used to refer to a general anxiety and agitation during the writing process in cases whereby the writer is blocked or otherwise (Hettich, 1994). In addition, writers generally experience one or more elements of writing apprehension including negative attitudes, emotional agitation or blocking. In some cases, the writer manages to finish the project but in others he/she fails to. Writers suffer from writing apprehension owing to feelings of anxiety or negative attitudes towards writing but there is no clear cut solution for their problem (Hettich, 1994).

Researchers have found three levels of writing apprehension, ranging from high, moderate, and low level (Daly & Miller, 1975). A study done by Hanna (2010) discovered that writing apprehension may influence students at all levels even after they have graduated from universities. Her research on apprehensive graduate students at Midwestern University found that they experienced a high level of writing apprehension and produced a paper which was of less quality than the low apprehensive writers. She also found that students with high level of writing apprehension like to avoid writing tasks whenever possible and procrastinate their work. Daly and Miller (1975) believe that writing apprehension is associated with the tendency of people to approach or avoid writing. In other words, highly apprehensive students avoid writing whenever possible.

Three studies (Abu Shawish & Atea, 2010; Al-Sawalha & Chow, 2012; Salem, 2007) on writing apprehension among Arab EFL students showed that they experienced high level of writing apprehension. The sampling of two (Abu Shawish & Atea, 2010; Al-Sawalha & Chow, 2012) studies consisted of both gender, but Salem's study involved only male students. All the participants in these studies were undergraduate students majoring in English language. However, the present study consisted of postgraduate students majoring in various majors including English major. The present study is similar to Salem's (2007) study with regards to the sampling of the study, as this study is concerned with male students while the other studies focused on both two genders. A study was done by Al-Sawalha and Chow (2012) on

Jordanian students at Yarmouk University who were at the third year of English language and literature major. The results of this study showed that majority of the Jordanian EFL students at Yarmouk University experienced a high level of writing apprehension.

A study done by Salem (2007) explored the views of 50 male undergraduate students majoring in English concerning writing in English at the University of Al-Azhar. Most of the students felt overwhelmed when they were required to write on a certain topic. They did not know how to start, how to develop their ideas or how to conclude the essay. They also lacked the technical skills of writing acceptable for compositions in English. They often repeated their ideas, reported few if any valid points, made serious mistakes in grammar and punctuation, and included irrelevant information.

The sampling for the present study is the same as the previous study done by Huwari and Noor Hashima (2011) i.e. on Jordanian postgraduate students. Both studies focused on the same context i.e. UUM. Huwari and Noor Hashima (2011) investigated writing apprehension among one hundred and three Jordanian postgraduate students in Universiti Utara Malaysia. The instrument used in this study was Writing Apprehension Test (WAT) developed by Daly and Miller (1975) to measure writing apprehension. The results of this study showed that majority of the Jordanian postgraduate students experienced high level of writing apprehension. There was a significant relationship between age, socio-economic status and writing apprehension. The researchers also included open-ended question in the survey. Majority of the respondents said that they experienced apprehension in writing a thesis more than writing assignments, or writing journals. It is important for the supervisors of the Jordanian postgraduate students in UUM specifically to be aware of their students' problems in writing in English.

In summary, researchers consider writing apprehension to be a complex term and a critical problem which may be faced by both native and non-native English learners. It will eventually impact the student's learning process. Researchers have also considered writing apprehension as synonymous with writing anxiety or blocks while others have categorized it into two main levels called high apprehensive writers and low apprehensive writers. For those reason the researchers have decided to study the causes of writing apprehension among Jordanian PhD students those who study abroad.

B. Studies on the Causes of Writing Apprehension

ESL and EFL learners often face challenges while writing in English language because of writing apprehension. Lin and Ho (2009) also conducted a study exploring the causes of writing apprehension at a college located in Southern Taiwan. The researchers collected data through interviewing sixteen undergraduate students after taking a writing course. The outcome of the study was categorized into five different challenges that the students felt they were up against. These challenges were: (1) Issues of time restriction such as thinking of the limitation of a time during testing or classes, (2) Issues of teacher's evaluation such as students are looking for teacher's evaluation and negative comments in their work, (3) Issue of peer competition such as peer's comment and attitudes of competition, (4) Issues of writing subjects, (5) Issue of required writing format. Thus, this study is important as it explored the causes that ESL/EFL experience when writing in English.

A similar study was conducted by Daud, Daud and Kassim (2005) involving 186 third year university students at MARA, Malaysia. The target subjects admitted to suffering from anxiety stemming from their lack of writing skills attributable to lack of vocabulary knowledge and experience of language use. It was concluded that writing teachers needed to modify their teaching of writing from a lecture-based model which was found to be ineffective. It is recommended that teachers encourage students in using the target language in an authentic way. The study concluded that low performing students had higher apprehensiveness in writing compared to high performing students. Thus, this study is important as it explained the causes among Asian students in regarding to the writing apprehension.

More recently, A study was done by Kara (2013) on 150 first year students studying at Anadolu University in Turkey found the students having writing anxiety. They had problem in writing because they were not used to write but were familiar in taking tests. Thus, this study is important as it explored the causes of writing apprehension on the countries in the Middle East. As we noticed that the previous studies have investigated writing apprehension on undergraduate students. This study has discovered writing apprehension among postgraduate students.

On the other hand, Tighe (1987) mentions only two main causes of students' writing apprehension and these are: (1) Critical comments, (2) Fear of evaluation. Similarly, in investigating writing apprehension among Egyptian EFL university students, Latif (2007) reveals the following causes of writing apprehension: (1) Lack of linguistic knowledge like grammar and vocabulary knowledge, (2) Low foreign language competence, (3) Poor history of writing achievement and perceived writing performance improvement, (4) Low English writing self-efficacy, (5) Instructional practice of English writing and (6) Fear of Criticism. Even though these two studies are done on EFL context especially from Arab context but still there are differences in relation to the causes that might discovered from Jordanian PhD students and the relationship between supervisors and their students which might affect them in writing.

Al-Khasawneh (2010) explored the writing problems and their causes in Arab students' writing courses at the College of Business programs (COB) in Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM). The study involved 10 Arab postgraduate students and data was obtained through face to face interview. The results revealed that the students felt challenged by their lack of vocabulary, organization of ideas, grammar, spelling, and referencing. The study concluded by providing the causes of writing problems: (1) Weak foundation such as the status of English, the students' motivation to learn

English, and the teachers' lack of interest, (2) Environment reasons such as the use of the mother tongue, few opportunities to practice English, and isolated culture, (3) Methods of teaching English in their countries such as using Arabic in English classes, (4) Writing done in Arabic, (5) Teachers' low proficiency in English, (6) Lack of writing practice in educational institutions. Al-Khasawneh's (2010) study is important because it is the only study that focused on the difficulties that Arab postgraduate students experience in writing in UUM. This study, however, has some limitations. For example, Al-Khasawneh's (2010) study has used only one method for the study of perception. Hence, perception can be examined using document analysis. Regarding the participants, those who served as native speakers of Arabic came from two region of Arab (the Middle East) and they may not be representative. Thus, Al-Khasawneh's (2010) study has interviewed Arab postgraduate students in College of Business only. The present study, the researchers have interviewed Jordanian PhD students in different colleges in UUM.

Moreover, very few studies have discovered writing apprehension on Arab students (Latif, 2007). It can be seen that the previous studies have been done on undergraduate students except for in Al-Khasawneh (2010) study's on postgraduate students. The researchers of this study have taken this issue into consideration to study writing apprehension on postgraduate students to fill in this gap. The findings of the previous studies reviewed above are mostly consistent. The researchers have noticed that few research have identified the causes of writing apprehension when writing PhD thesis. It also can be seen from the literature that writing apprehension has not been studied adequately in Arabic culture.

II. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Writing is a serious problem for first and second language learners (Al Ahmad, 2003). It is more complex in second language contexts where learners write in language systems that may be completely different from their first language system. There are limited number of studies on writing apprehension among ESL/EFL learners. Some researchers state that most of the research on writing apprehension focused on native English learners (Al-Ahmad, 2003; Atay & Kurt, 2007; Cheng, 2004; Cheng, Horwitz & Schallert, 1999; Cornwell & McKay, 1999; Daud, Daud & Kassim, 2005; Gungle & Taylor, 1989; Hassan, 2001; Jones, 1985; Masny & Foxall, 1992; Rankin-Brown, 2006; Salem, 2007). Only few research have focused on writing apprehension among second and foreign language (ESL/EFL) learners (Al-Ahmad 2003; Atay & Kurt, 2007; Hassan, 2001; Latif, 2007; Salem, 2007; Singh & Rajalingam, 2003). According to Cheng et al. (1999), one possible reason for this neglect to investigate writing apprehension in ESL/EFL contexts could be due to the second or foreign language instruction that is oral proficiency in the target language is a more important skill to master than writing skill. However, most studies on writing apprehension in Second Language (L2) contexts have reported mixed and confusing results pertaining to writing apprehension (Cheng et al., 1999). In this regard, Hassan (2001, p.12) remarked that "there is a need to investigate writing apprehension in an Arabic speaking context".

The number of Jordanian PhD students studying in Universiti Utara Malaysia is increasing. The number of Jordanian PhD students who graduated from UUM in 2011 was 44 students. In 2011, there are 77 Jordanian PhD students in UUM were still studying in the first semester 2010/2011 (Graduate Studies Unit in UUM, 2011). From the researchers observation, these students faced great problem when writing their PhD thesis in English because of their educational background and less practice of writing in English. From the researchers knowledge, students in Jordan lack the ability to write in English at school and university level because they did very little writing in English. Moreover, writing apprehension has been found to be a major problem facing Jordanian students at different stages of learning whether at school, university or postgraduate level (Al-Sawalha & Chow, 2012; Al-Sobh & Al-Abed Al-Haq, 2012; Huwari & Noor Hashima, 2011; Muhaisen & Al-Abed Al-Haq, 2012). Research done on Jordanian students found that they faced high level of writing apprehension at different stages of learning whether at school, university, or postgraduate level. Therefore, there is a need to study on causes of writing apprehension (WA) on Jordanian students (Al-Sawalha & Chow, 2012; Al-Sobh & Al-Abed Al-Haq, 2012; Muhaisen & Al-Abed Al-Haq, 2012). Although studies have been done on Jordanian students, these studies were done in Jordan. Therefore, there is a need to conduct a study on Jordanian students who are studying abroad and this study tries to fill in this gap. Moreover, very few studies have been done on Arab postgraduate students overseas compared with local students. This has made the researchers interested to highlight writing apprehension among Jordanian PhD students who are studying in UUM.

III. RESEARCH QUESTION

This study would be done with the following objective: *What are the causes of writing apprehension among the Jordanian PhD students when writing their PhD thesis in Universiti Utara Malaysia?*

IV. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study is significant because it is one of the very few studies to be conducted on Jordanian students who are studying overseas and doing postgraduate studies. Most of the literature written on writing apprehension come from the English speaking countries. Therefore, this study can contribute to the existing research on writing apprehension among postgraduate students especially Jordanians. This study can add to the literature on EFL context to help researchers understand writing apprehension phenomenon among EFL learners like Jordanian context. Exploring the causes of

writing apprehension among Jordanian PhD students would enhance our understanding of the writing apprehension among Arab students. It is also hoped that this study will help learners to become aware of the causes of writing apprehension. By exploring the causes of writing apprehension among Jordanian PhD students in UUM, supervisors can help their supervisees to reduce writing apprehension. In addition, the present research will contribute to the literature and growing research on writing apprehension from students' perspective.

V. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

to explore the students' beliefs and thoughts about writing apprehension. This study employs qualitative case study research design. The researchers used semi-structured interviews. A qualitative case study is defined by Merriam as "an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single instance, phenomenon, or social unit" (1998, p.27). In this study, an intensive and holistic description of WA phenomenon from Jordanian PhD students' perspectives was given.

B. Participants

The participants in this study consisted of 21 male Jordanian PhD students in UUM. There was no female PhD students studying in UUM before the first semester, 2011-2012 when the researchers started to conduct this study. The participants were PhD students at one of the three colleges in UUM: College of Arts and Sciences (CAS), College of Business (COB) and College of Law, Governance and International Studies (COLGIS). The type of sampling used for this study was purposive sampling in order to select information rich cases which refers to "those cases from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research" (Patton, 1999, p. 169). In this study, the Jordanian PhD students in UUM were interviewed to get their perspectives on writing apprehension. The sampling strategy employed for this study was homogeneous sampling which means that "the researcher purposefully samples individuals or sites based on membership in a subgroup that has defining characteristics" (Creswell, 2012, p. 208).

C. Data Collection

The researchers used semi-structured interview to collect the data. The researchers stopped interviewing the participants at the 21 participant although data saturation had been reached at the nineteenth participant. This was done to make sure that the data had reached the point of saturation and that no more new information could be obtained from the participants. In this study, the length of interviews varies from twenty minutes to forty minutes (Creswell, 2012). The difference in the lengths of the interviews was due to the differences in the students' speech flow and the number of events they had experienced. The researchers interviewed Jordanian PhD students in a room in the library to make sure that the environment was suitable for recording data. All the interviews were conducted one time with each interviewer. In the beginning of the interview, the researchers did some introductory explanation about the research, a word of thanks to the interviewee for agreeing to be interviewed, and then the researchers obtained permission to tape-record the interview. All the students' interviews were tape-recorded. The researchers checked the recorder before conducting the interview to make sure it worked. The interviewer managed to make the participants open and relaxed about tape recording. The researchers showed that the answers given were interesting, straightforward, and helpful by using eye contact, nods, and other reinforcements. All the semi-structured interviews were asked in English language because all of the students and supervisors were able to understand the language well. Besides, this step was adopted to avoid any misrepresentation while translating the interview responses. However, none of the participants asked the researchers to translate the interview questions. The participants were allowed to choose the language they preferred to answer the interview questions. At the end of each session, the researchers thanked the participants for their time.

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The research question of this study was: What are the causes of writing apprehension among the Jordanian PhD students when writing their PhD thesis in Universiti Utara Malaysia? It was found that the students associated apprehension in writing their PhD thesis with the lack of knowledge in English structure, negative attitude toward writing, negative writing experience in the past, and inadequate knowledge in academic writing.

A. Theme 1: Lack of Knowledge in English Structure

The first theme which emerged from this study was lack of knowledge in English structure, which is divided into three sub-themes: problems with coherence, problems in mechanism of writing and limited vocabulary. Majority of the participants (20 out of 21 participants) in this study associated writing apprehension with the lack of knowledge in English structure.

TABLE 1.
CAUSES OF WRITING APPREHENSION (THEME 1)

Theme 1	Sub-theme	Occurrences
Lack of knowledge in English structure	Problems with coherence (Writing flow, conjunction words, unrelated sentences, repetition, and sentence length).	20
	Problems in mechanism of writing (Grammar, reporting verbs, punctuation, spelling, paraphrasing, and capital letters).	18
	Limited vocabulary	14

Most of the Jordanian PhD students interviewed claimed that they faced problem with the writing flow such as how to connect between sentences and paragraphs, and organization of ideas. For example, participant 11 who is majoring in Applied Linguistics programme expressed his problem of linking the paragraphs. He said:

It was a big challenge for me to link the paragraphs, for example, when I finish one paragraph I do not know how to make a connection with the next one. How should I start the next paragraph (Participant, 11).

Participant 7, majoring in Information Technology programme talked about the same problem that he was facing which is making the sentences linking with each other. He said:

I have faced problem with linking between sentences and the paragraphs because I rarely write in English before I come to Malaysia (Participant, 7).

Participant 2, for example, was sure that he had made grammatical mistakes in his proposal but he could not find them easily by himself. He said:

I have faced a lot of grammatical mistakes such as using simple present or simple continuous in some cases, maybe because I am not native speaker of English language (Participant, 2).

Participant 8 had less confidence in using grammar in writing. He believed that he was weak in grammar since he was a child. He could not produce a good paper. He remarked:

I know myself; I am very weak in grammar since I was in the school. My supervisor always complains because of my silly grammar mistakes such as subject verb agreement (Participant, 8).

In addition, some participants could not differentiate between some similar words such as required and need. Participant 14 remarked:

Another challenge is the correct usage of words. Sometimes, I misuse the words need or required. Sometimes I use the one in the place of another one which give very weak sentences. Writing PhD thesis in English is much difficult than writing other tasks because it is related to specific area and specific domain and specific discipline of knowledge it will be governed by a set of idioms and keywords which is related to this discipline while the writing other tasks, maybe it will not be governed or control by specific keywords or idioms. This is my weak part also (Participant, 14).

Moreover, participant 16 admitted not having enough vocabulary to improve his writing. He said:

For me, I feel struggle to write in English as I don't have enough vocabulary to use. At the same time, I used many vocabularies in the wrong place or situation (Participant, 16).

In the present study, majority of the PhD Jordanian students mentioned problems in coherence as the major cause of writing apprehension when writing their PhD thesis. The problems with coherence were related to writing flow, conjunction words, unrelated sentences, repetition, and sentence length. These findings are similar to the findings by (Al Fadda, 2012; Daud et al., 2005; Daly, 1978a; Khan, 2011; Latif 2007; Mo, 2012; Salem, 2007).

B. Theme 2: Negative Attitude toward Writing

The second theme which emerged from this study was negative attitude toward writing. This theme means that students are afraid of writing because of various reasons such as no motivation to write in English, and fear of evaluation. In this study, almost all of the participants (17 out of 21) admitted of having negative attitude toward writing. Table 2 displays the main theme, the sub-themes and occurrence i.e. how many times the participants mention the sub-theme. The main theme is divided into two sub-themes which are lack of motivation to write in English, and fear of evaluation.

TABLE 2.
CAUSES OF WRITING APPREHENSION (THEME 2)

Theme	Sub-themes	Occurrence
Negative attitude toward writing	Lack of motivation to write in English.	16
	Fear of evaluation.	10

As shown in Table 2, majority of the students (16 out of 21) mentioned that they lack the motivation to write in English. This sub-theme is an unexpected sub-theme for the researchers because the participants of this study are PhD students and they are required to write in English. Some of the participants preferred to write in Arabic language which is their mother tongue because they believed they could express their ideas and thoughts faster and easier than writing in English. Participant 2 said:

Writing in Arabic language is better and easier for me rather than writing In English because while writing in Arabic language, I can express my ideas about the topic that I am writing on. This is because that Arabic language is more rich language. You can find one vocabulary has different alternative vocabularies that you can use them (Participant, 2).

Some of the participants associated apprehension with lack of motivation to write in English because they considered themselves to be new users of English language. They rarely wrote in English before coming to Malaysia. They were still hesitant to write in English. Participant 7 expressed this idea by saying:

I always like to write in Arabic language because Arabic is my original language from my school until 1999, I was writing in Arabic but when I came to Malaysia, the environment force me to speak or write English. Can we say English is still new language for me. I still did not get good skills of English language such as writing. The Arabic is better for me because it is original language for me (Participant, 7).

Participant 19 believed that evaluation by panelists would increase his apprehension when writing in English. He said:

Everything in your PhD thesis will be judge by the panels. So, you have to write something new and perfect (Participant, 19).

Participant 12 highlighted an important issue by claiming that the level of apprehension in writing would increase when he had to write in formal situations such as writing PhD thesis. He said:

My apprehension for the formal situations will be high because others will evaluate your works (Participant, 12).

The second main theme which emerged from this study was Negative attitude toward writing which was divided into Lack of motivation and fear of evaluation. These findings are the same as those found by other researchers such as (Clark, 2005; Latif, 2007; Mo, 2012; Reeves, 1997; Tighe, 1987). The researchers found Lack of motivation and fear of evaluation are the most frequently cited cause of writing apprehension by the participants in their studies. In the present study, some of the participants said that they were afraid of being evaluated because they were very concerned about the kind of feedback that they would get from their supervisors and the examiners.

C. Theme 3: Negative Writing Experience in the Past

The third theme which emerged from this study was Negative writing experiences in the past. It means that participants went through a bad writing experience in the past which increased the level of apprehension. Majority of the participants (19 out of 21) admitted feeling apprehensive because of negative writing experience in the past. This theme is divided into two sub-themes which are less practice in writing, and thinking in Arabic, and then translating into English. Table 3 displays the main theme of this study which is negative writing experience in the past. Occurrence refers to how many times the participants mentioned it.

TABLE 3
CAUSES OF WRITING APPREHENSION (THEME 3)

Theme	Sub-themes	Occurrence
Negative Writing Experience in the Past	Less practice in writing	13
	Thinking in Arabic, and then translating into English.	8

As shown in Table 3, the third theme of this study was negative writing experiences in the past which is divided into two sub-themes; less practice in writing, and thinking in Arabic, and then translating into English. The first sub-theme of this study is concerned with less practice in writing. About half of the participants (13 out of 21) admitted that they were facing problem in writing PhD thesis because they did not write in English much. They associated this problem to the past learning process starting from school, bachelor and then master levels. Some of the participants said that they started writing in English when they came to further their studies in Malaysia and some of them said that they had never written in English for academic purpose. Participant 4 said that he had never written in English before he came to Malaysia because he obtained his first and second degrees from Ukraine which used Russian as the medium of instruction. He said:

I rarely wrote in English before I start writing my proposal because I graduated from Ukraine while the medium of instruction is Russian language. Actually, I start concern about writing in English since I register for PhD in UUM. Since that time, writing in English was a new thing for me because I left my country to study in Ukraine when I was 18 years old. So, I did not use English at all in Ukraine because the medium of instruction there is in Russian language. For example, my project for master degree I wrote in Russian language. The most difficult things while writing my project was I have to write the abstract in English language. So, I used Google translation to translate it to English. But when I have a look to that page now; I found it almost wrong. It is missing to the organization and has grammatical mistakes (Participant, 4).

Participant 15 explained the reasons behind his weaknesses in writing which was regarding his educational background and the major that he studied which was focusing on numbers rather than writing itself. He remarked:

I started writing in English just 3 years ago before that I never write in English. During the school, I write at the final stage. We try to write in English. For bachelor degree, I just study in science language which is not totally depending on writing. It depends on mathematics (Participant, 15).

However, participant 20 commented on an important issue which was the differences between studying in English and writing in English. He said:

I studied in English language for my bachelor and master degrees but studying in English is different than writing in English. If you just write to answer the question is different from write something such as thesis or story, letters. It is quite different between studying and writing (Participant, 20).

Participant 2 associated thinking and writing in Arabic as the cause of this problem. It is acceptable to write long paragraphs in Arabic but in English the paragraphs are usually short and precise. Participant 2 said:

The way that I write was too long sentences, too long paragraphs but when I was reading other articles, they can express their ideas with a short sentence and paragraphs. This is because the difference between writing in English and writing in Arabic. It is accepted to write a long sentence in Arabic language (Participant, 2)

Participant 16 stated that he was using this strategy whereby his apprehension of writing increased day by day. He said:

I always thinking how to write in Arabic, then translate it to English which I think is the wrong way. So, this problem is really increased my apprehension of writing because once you translate from Arabic to English, you will get a lot of mistakes, misunderstanding the ideas (Participant, 16).

An interesting finding found in this study was the response given by the participants whereby they think in Arabic and then translate it into English. One of the reasons giving by the participants was because they found it easy to express their ideas in mother tongue, Arabic compared to English. Another reason mentioned by the participants was because they found it easy to write long paragraphs in Arabic compared to writing short paragraphs in order to be precise in English. The main theme Negative Writing Experience in the Past is similar to the findings by Al-Khasawneh (2010) who found it as the most frequently mentioned cause of writing apprehension by the Arab postgraduate students in UUM.

D. Theme 4: Inadequate Knowledge in Academic Writing

The fourth theme which emerged from this study was inadequate knowledge in academic writing. Some of the Jordanian PhD students were found struggling with academic writing for several reasons. Half of the participants (12 out of 21) declared that they were weak in research methods. This theme is divided into two sub-themes which are weak in writing the PhD proposal such as writing introduction (Chapter One), writing literature review (Chapter Two) and writing the methodology (Chapter Three). The second sub-theme was problems with writing styles. Table 4.4 displays the main theme, and two sub-themes, as well as the occurrence of these themes.

TABLE 4
CAUSES OF WRITING APPREHENSION (THEME 4)

Theme	Sub-theme	Occurrence
Inadequate Knowledge in Academic Writing	Weak in writing the PhD proposal such as writing introduction (Chapter One), writing literature review (Chapter Two) and writing the methodology (Chapter Three)	12
	Problems with writing style	6

Participants in this study admitted having problem in writing their proposal especially during the first semester because they wrote their master thesis in Arabic language or they did follow UUM standard of writing the thesis. Participant 2 commented that he did not know how to write his PhD proposal because his mother tongue is Arabic language and he wrote his master thesis in Arabic. He said:

I faced a problem of how to write a PhD thesis at the beginning because I have did my bachelor and master degrees in Arabic language (Participant, 2).

Likewise, participant 7 said that he was not familiar how to write a research proposal during the first semester following UUM standard. He said:

I do not know how I should start with the PhD proposal because I do not follow UUM standard of writing thesis because it is not clear to follow first, then because I think there is no different between UUM and my old university. For example, UUM standard is complicated for me at the beginning such as I have to complete write my three chapter in one year (Participant, 7).

The second sub-theme which emerged from this study was problems with writing style that is writing the references, citation and following the APA style 6th edition. 6 out of 21 participants admitted that they were having problem in this issue which increased their level of apprehension. For example, participant 2 stated that he had problem with writing the references because he graduated from Jordan where he wrote the references in Arabic which is different from English. It took him some time before he could understand how to write the references. He said:

I faced problem with APA style because the way you make a citation in English is different from Arabic language (Participant, 2).

Similarly, other participants shared the same problem of doing the citation correctly and writing the references at the end. The researchers observed that those students who were having this problem graduated from Jordan while those students who graduated from Malaysia did not face the same problem. For example, participant 3 expressed his problem of following APA style by saying:

I have faced problem with APA style to make the references on how to write the citation. For examples, when you write “et al” for several authors (Participant, 3).

This theme Inadequate Knowledge in Academic Writing was similar to the findings by (Al Fadda, 2012; Daud et al., 2005; Salem, 2007). The researchers found Arab students weak in writing thesis because of the educational system in Arab countries which is different from other countries. To conclude, this study discovered the same causes of writing apprehension among Arab students in research done by Al-Khasawneh (2010) and Latif (2007). Moreover, Jordanian culture is similar to the Arab culture because they share the same language, attitude, behavior, and religion.

VII. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

A. Summary of the Findings

This study employed qualitative case study while the participants were 21 Jordanian PhD students at UUM. The sampling of this study was purposive sampling while the researchers selected homogeneous sampling strategy. The researched collected the data through face to face interview with the participants. The findings of this study revealed the causes of writing apprehension among Jordanian PhD students. It was found that the Jordanian PhD students in UUM faced several causes of writing apprehension when writing their PhD thesis such as: Lack of knowledge in English structure, negative attitude toward writing, negative writing experience in the past, and inadequate knowledge in academic writing.

B. Implications of this Study

This study has provided the researchers with a better understanding of writing apprehension among the Jordanian PhD students in UUM. The implications of this study are divided into two main parts which are implications for learners and implications for supervisors.

1. Learners

First of all, students should realize that apprehension in writing is different from one student to another. The researchers observed that students who obtained a master degree from Malaysia were less apprehensive than those who obtained their master degree from another country such as Jordan and Iraq. So, this study hopes that the students will believe on their ability to produce a very good paper. Second, students should believe that making mistakes while writing the PhD thesis is part of the learning process because some students almost gave up when they were facing some difficulties to write their PhD thesis such as finding the gap of the research. Third, by discovering the causes of writing apprehension among the Jordanian PhD students in UUM will help learners to become aware of the causes of writing apprehension.

2. Supervisors

Supervisors play an important role to decrease the apprehension of writing among PhD students. One student mentioned that he preferred to do his work in a group. Supervisor can make their supervisees work in a group because it can be a good way to decrease their level of apprehension because students can share their knowledge, and experience. At the same time, they can correct themselves. One important implication is that supervisors should be aware of the causes of students writing apprehension. This study provides some causes that Jordanian PhD students have while writing their PhD thesis. Supervisors should be aware of this case.

C. Limitations of the Study

The researchers interviewed male Jordanian PhD students in UUM only because at present there are no female Jordanian PhD students in UUM.

D. Recommendations for Future Research

There are many opportunities for further research concerning writing apprehension and postgraduate students. Based on the findings of this study, these are some recommendations for further research. First of all, this study is done among Jordanian PhD students who are studying abroad a very limited number of studies have been done on Jordanian students. The researchers recommend that more studies should be done on Jordanian postgraduate students to compare the results of the causes of writing apprehension. In addition, the researchers recommend identifying the strategies that students use based on their level of apprehension in writing. Another recommendation is to conduct a similar study across different institutions and/or across other disciplines. It is important to mention that the number of case studies was very small and bound to one institution. The sample was also very much gender-oriented as most of the interviewees were men.

E. Conclusion

The study concurs with the relevant studies such as (Al Fadda, 2012; Al-Khasawneh, 2010; Daud et al., 2005; Daly, 1978a; Khan, 2011; Latif 2007; Mo, 2012; Salem, 2007). This paper has presented the objective, process and results of the study in hope of contributing to the research of language acquisition, psycholinguistics. Although there are a lot of studies in this field, more research in different contexts should be implemented to have a broader view because apprehension in writing is important to students in reducing students' level of apprehension.

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Yasser Al-Shboul received his PhD in English Language Studies from Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. He is currently a full-time lecturer at the department of English Language and Literature at Salt College for Human Sciences, Balqa Applied University, Salt, Jordan. His research interest includes topics related to Sociolinguistics, Sociopragmatics, and Linguistics in Education.

Ibrahim Fathi Huwari received his PhD in Applied Linguistics from Universiti Utara Malaysia. He is currently an Assistant professor at the department of English Language and Literature at Zarqa University, Zarqa, Jordan. His research interest includes language anxiety, writing anxiety/apprehension, sociolinguistics, and psycholinguistics.

The Consistency between Writing Self-efficacy and Writing Performance

Ilyana Jalaluddin

Faculty of Modern Languages, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

Shamala Paramasivam

Faculty of Modern Languages, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

Salina Husain

Faculty of Modern Languages, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

Roslina Abu Bakar

Faculty of Modern Languages, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

Abstract—This study aimed to evaluate the consistency between tertiary learners' writing self-efficacy and writing performance evaluation in academic writing in order to understand the tertiary students' self-efficacy phenomena in learning to write. Two measurements were analysed and compared namely the learners' writing self-efficacy scales and learners' writing performance. Basically, it is a case study where 33 UPM students participated in the research for four months. In this study, the learners' writing self-efficacy was assessed based on the writing self-efficacy (WSE) scale adapted from Bottomley, Henk & Melnick (1997), while, the document analysis was based on the students' writing performance throughout the four months. Overall, this study did not mainly based on the score of WSE scales only but also looked from the angle of the students' writing performance by looking at writing skills in detail namely content, organization, grammar, vocabulary and mechanic of writing. Here, the analysis of the essay and rating was done from the perspective of Jacobs, Zinkgraf, Wormuth, Hartfiel, & Hughey (1981) and adapted by Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1992). In order to plot the consistency and trend of the two measurements (WSE and writing skills), ratio and Chi-square analysis were carried out using SPSS program. Findings showed that the distribution of writing skills performance vary depending on the self-efficacy level (i.e. high, average and low self-efficacy level).

Index Terms—writing skills, writing self-efficacy level, tertiary learners

I. INTRODUCTION

In previous years, the 2005 School Certificate Examination Report on English Language 2 showed that a high number secondary schools learners were still unable to grasp the required skills in writing (Samuel & Zaitun Bakar, 2008). In 2008, the Ministry of Education (MOE) has recognized writing as the major difficulty for learners to obtain good marks either at higher certificate level (SPM) or lower secondary certificate level (PMR). This is due to the fact that writing component bears 85 marks of the total marks at the SPM level and 60 marks at the PMR level. "Year after year, examiners express with great dismay the fact that after having learnt English language for eleven years, Malaysian rural learners in most cases fail to produce even a short paragraph of intelligible writing" (Samuel & Zaitun Bakar, 2008 as cited in Ilyana Jalaluddin, Melor Md Yunus & Hamidah Yamat, 2011, p. 1845). Malaysian government has carried out many programmes as an effort to attract rural area learners especially to learn and master the English language. "One of the government programmes is the *First Step Program* which emphasises on reading and writing to help rural learners improve their command of English" (Ilyana Jalaluddin, Melor Md Yunus & Hamidah Yamat, 2011, p. 1845). However, the MOE reported that "the effectiveness of the programme and the quality of teachers teaching the language in rural schools is still a big question" (Anon, 2008, p. 19). This is because "the command of English language in rural schools, in Teluk Intan specifically, is still poor" (Anon, 2008, p. 19). Despite 11 years of learning, Malaysian learners still feel writing in English as a difficult task and to them, it has very few social uses in life (Chitravelu et. al, 2005). According to Samuel and Zaitun Bakar (2008, p. 1):

Learners in rural schools generally find it difficult to maintain their interest in English language learning as English is not seen as important for their immediate need. Teachers on their part are unable to sustain learners' genuine interest in continuing to learn English and to use the language once the examination is over.

Writing is not an easy task as it is a highly complex and demanding task that requires a number of skills to be performed. It is a complex cognitive activity involving attention at multiple levels: thematic, paragraph, sentence, grammatical and lexical (Lavelle, Smith & O'Ryan, 2002). Hidi and Pietro (2008, p. 145) noted that "writers, in contrast to readers, produce/create texts rather than simply consume them and, writers often have minimal

environment/curricular input". For example, "when given a topic to write about, the ideas and text generated require a knowledge base on which the individual can draw" (MacArthur, Graham & Fitzgerald, 2008, p. 145). In addition, "the complexity of the task, the solitary nature of the activity, with no immediate feedback and the effort needed to persist in the task are other aspects of writing that can adversely affect writing" (Hidi & Pietro, 2008, p. 145). Even though writing can be approached via teaching, it is still not an easy task transform one's thought to written communication as it requires many other levels of complementary skills. Some of the complementary skills that add to the difficulty of acquiring writing skills are outlined by Montague and Leavell (1994) as cited in Scott and Vitale (2003, p. 220):

Writing requires co-ordination and integration of multiple processes, including planning, production, editing, and revision. Composing requires prior knowledge of topic, genre, conventions, and rules as well as the ability to access, use and organise that knowledge when writing.

With the complexity that the learners will face when writing, learners will experience various kinds of scarcity and are often feel devastate when involve in writing activities (Scott & Vitale, 2003).

Scott and Vitale (2003, p. 221) identified that learners' writing problems range "from lower level mechanical problems such as spelling, capitalisation, and punctuation, to higher order cognitive and metacognitive problems such as planning and revision". The writer also suffers from the disadvantage of not getting immediate feedback from the reader and sometimes not getting feedback at all (Harmer, 2000). Nevertheless, even though the learners will face all the difficulties, it is still feasible to teach and guide the learners to acquire the necessary skills and the process in writing (Graham & Harris, 2000 as cited in Scott and Vitale, 2003). Marchisan and Alber (2001, p. 154) pointed out that "it is crucial to understand that learners will write and will care about writing when it is personal, and with extra support and guidance from more capable individuals, writers can benefit from writing experience". Hidi and Pietro (2008) further elaborated that "nurturing learners' positive beliefs or self-efficacy about writing, fostering authentic writing goals and contexts, providing learners with a supportive context for writing, and creating a positive emotional classroom environment are the conditions that determine learners' motivation to write" (MacArthur, Graham & Fitzgerald, 2008, p. 145). The role of self-efficacy has received extensive support from a growing body of findings from diverse fields in the United States for meta-analysis of research on the correlation between self-efficacy and academic performance. Nevertheless, there is one area which has obtained less attention from self-efficacy researcher that is writing skills. The few researchers (Pajares & Johnson, 1995; Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003; Ergul, 2004; Pajares, 2003; Rahil Mahyuddin et al., 2006; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007) who have investigated self-efficacy beliefs and essay writing agree that the two are related. However, the studies conducted to explore the relationship between self-efficacy and writing have been correlational researches so far. The studies conducted were basically based on the correlation between scores on self-efficacy and holistic essay scores. This study tries to look at different angle by studying the dependency between writing self-efficacy and writing performance, and plot the consistency pattern of the relationship of these variables.

Socio-cognitive theory: Fundamental of the study

Social cognitive theory is used as the theoretical framework to pursue the study on the development of the learners' self-efficacy. Overall, Bandura's social cognitive model emphasises effective learning as involving three elements: the person (internal), the behaviour, and the environment. This is because "how people interpret the results of their own behaviour informs and alters their environments and the personal factors they possess which, in turn, inform and alter subsequent behaviour" (Pajares, 2004, p.1). This is the foundation of Bandura's (1986) conception of *reciprocal determinism*, the view that (a) personal factors in the form of cognition, affect, and biological events, (b) behaviour, and (c) environmental influences, create interactions that result in a *triadic reciprocity* (Pajares & Usher, 2008, p. 392). In the model of triadic reciprocity, the behaviour, personal factors, and environmental events all operate as interacting determinants of one another. This model is illustrated in Figure 1 below:

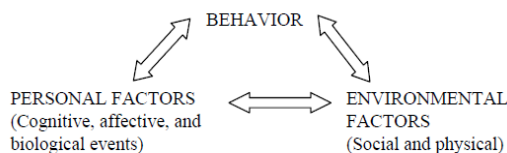


Figure 1 Bandura's concept of triadic reciprocity behaviour
Source: Bandura (1986)

Briefly, the theory portrays that the three factors which are environment, personal factors and behaviour are all constantly influence one another. "With respect to the link between personal factors and behaviour, learners' self-efficacy beliefs influence achievement behaviour such as choice of tasks, effort, persistence, and achievement" (Schunk, 2003, p. 160). This implies that when the learners have high self-efficacy in writing, they are probably more optimistic and confident in completing their writing tasks. Conversely, learners' behaviours can also alter efficacy beliefs. For example, as they work on their writing tasks, they notice their progress and capabilities in writing. This goal progress and accomplishment will convey to the learners that they are capable of performing well. As a consequence, it enhances self-efficacy for continued writing. As noted by Pajares and Valiante (2008, p. 159), "learners' academic

accomplishments can often be better predicted by their self-efficacy beliefs than by their previous attainments, knowledge, or skills”.

The connection of self-efficacy in writing

Bandura (1986, p. 391) defined self-efficacy as “people’s judgments of their capabilities to organise and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances”. In short, self-efficacy is a judgment of the confidence that one has in one’s abilities, and the answers to the self-efficacy questions such as “Can I write well” reveal whether one possesses high or low confidence to accomplish the tasks or succeed at the activity (Pajares & Schunk, 2001).

Spicer (2004) further outlined three dimensions which govern self-efficacy. The first dimension refers to the level of task difficulty. According to Spicer (2004, p. 1), “the magnitude of one’s self-efficacy beliefs will differ upon how difficult he/she perceives a task to be; a task may be perceived as easy resulting in high self-efficacy, whereas a task thought to be difficult may lower self-efficacy”. The second dimension is the area or domain to which one’s self-efficacy beliefs are applied. Spicer (2004) termed the second dimension as generality. For example, through generality, learners may have high self-efficacy for writing when they believe that writing is a necessary component of their study. Thus, they will work hard, have high perseverance and will succeed eventually. A learner with low writing self-efficacy may feel insecure and not confident that he would be able to complete the writing task successfully.

The final dimension of one’s self-efficacy is strength (Spicer, 2004). According to Spicer (2004), learners with strong self-efficacy have a high perseverance to confront any challenge in comparison to the students with weaker self-efficacy. Thus, it can be concluded that a low self-efficacy learner may easily alter his self-efficacy belief when confronting any challenge, even though he might achieved successful outcome before. Strength is a dimension which must be considered when measuring self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Strength, as used by Bandura (1981), describes “how strong a person’s sense of self-efficacy is”. “People who have strong beliefs in their capabilities approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided” (Bandura, 1997, p. 39). Such an affirmative orientation fosters interest and engrossing involvement in activities (Pajares, 1995).

In sum, one of the best ways of knowing whether one is capable of some performance is by actually attempting it. Repeated success at an activity results in high self-efficacy, while failures will lower self-efficacy, unless lack of effort or adverse circumstances are involved (Bandura, 1977). Once a strong sense of efficacy (or inefficacy) is established, it perhaps generalise to similar tasks and situations. This is because according to Bandura (1997), sometimes, a learner does not have to directly perform a task to gain efficacy information, but by watching others succeed on a task can raise his/her own sense of efficacy, especially if the person perceives himself/herself to be similar to those observed. A learner may think that “if he can do it, why can’t I?”. By the same token, observing others who are similar to us failed despite high effort lowers our efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Thus, it is important for teachers to encourage interaction and cooperation among learners in class, so that they can see how others work and at the same time emulate the way their friends work.

The importance of analysing writing self-efficacy

Bandura’s theory of perceived self-efficacy overall predicts that a child’s self-perception of writing self-efficacy will affect his/her subsequent writing growth. It means that an individual who holds positive writer self-efficacy will perhaps have the strength to continue writing despite all the challenges, persevere and willing to maximize their effort to achieve the goal. Thus, understanding why a learner perceives inability to perform or achieve will give evidence to understanding how to correct writing problems. In this study, it may help to contribute to understanding the importance of teacher’s assistance that might affect the learners’ writing self-efficacy and writing skills in English. Therefore, it is hoped that a connection can be established by having a detailed analysis of how teacher’s assistance affect the rural learners’ writing skills and writing self-efficacy. It is also hoped that information obtained from the writing self-efficacy scale can be useful for monitoring individual learners.

The scale may be able to assist teachers to identify learners whose self-efficacy are either initially below the norm or who do not respond positively as a result of writing instructions. In addition, by having writing self-efficacy analysis, it might enable the researcher to describe what possible learners’ writing self-perceptions that the teacher is unaware of. Furthermore, the information on teacher’s assistance and writing self-efficacy will be useful to teachers in helping them to select suitable instructional approaches and learning materials for the learners. This will help the teachers to modify current classroom learning environment to address areas of need in the learners’ writing self-efficacy and become more aware of the indirect cues that they send to learners regarding their writing performance. According to Stipek (1993, p.162), learners’ answers to questions on their perception of their ability to succeed in school tasks can help explain maladaptive (e.g. not trying, giving up easily) behaviour and can help teachers to structure the curriculum and assignments in ways that maximize learners’ self-confidence. Thus, it is useful to ask learners how difficult they find the tasks are or whether they believe that they are able to complete the tasks.

II. METHODOLOGY

The objective of this study is to investigate the consistency between the level of Universiti Putra Malaysia learners’ writing self-efficacy and their writing performance. Specifically, it tries to look at the dependency of these two variables by looking at the distribution of the marks among the three groups of learners. These groups were determined

based on the writing self-efficacy scores. Learners' writing self-efficacy was evaluated using the writing self-efficacy scale adapted from Bottomley, Henk and Melnick (1998). Both provided the researcher with the descriptive statistics such as mean and overall scores which described the level of the learners' writing self-efficacy. Meanwhile, the dependency of the two variables was calculated using Chi square test for independence, and ratio patterns of the two variables were discussed using the scatterplot.

The process in collecting data

One class consisted of 33 students from final year of BA (English) class was asked to conduct a self-appraisal for their writing self-efficacy at the beginning of the semester. The instrument was adapted and altered based on the writing self-efficacy scale used by Bottomley, Henk and Melnick (1997). The 37 items on the writing self-efficacy scale analyze how confident the students feel about their writing abilities; the aspects of writing for self-evaluation on the scale include ideas and content, organization, paragraph formatting, voice and tone, word choice, sentence fluency and conventions. Furthermore, the questionnaire assesses the learners' confidence level on the Likert scale of strongly agree to strongly disagree, as Pajares (2003, p. 144) emphasized that "since neither a Likert-type scale nor a 0-100 scale is more difficult or longer than the other, using any of the format that adds predictive utility and correspond to the outcome being measured are especially warranted". Based on the result obtained, three groups of learners were identified namely the highest self-efficacy writer, the average self-efficacy writer and the lowest self-efficacy writer. These groups then were given three different written assignments to be assessed throughout the semester.

III. DATA AND SYNTHESIS

From a broader view, the cross tabulation table generated from SPSS 21 portrayed that there was a certain pattern that could be generalized as shown below;

TABLE 1.
CROSS TABULATION OF THE MARKS AMONG THE THREE GROUPS OF WRITERS

			Final score category		
			Essay 1	Essay 2	Essay 3
WSE Score Category	Group 1	Count	1	4	10
		Expected Count	1.4	4.1	9.5
	Group 2	Count	1	3	10
		Expected Count	1.3	3.8	8.9
	Group 3	Count	1	2	1
		Expected Count	0.4	1.1	2.5
Total	Count		3	9	21
	Expected Count		3.0	9.0	21.0

Based on the table 1.0, it could be seen that for students from group 1 (low self-efficacy writers), expected frequency was somewhat slightly greater than the observed frequency in Essay 1 and 2, and slightly lower for Essay 3. This was also similar for students in Group 2 (average self-efficacy writers) where the expected frequency was somewhat greater than the observed frequency in Essay 1 and 2, but slightly lower for Essay 3. This was somehow different for group 3 (high self-efficacy writer) where the observed frequency for Essay 1 and 2 were greater than expected frequency, and fewer than expected frequency in Essay 3. This variation might lead to the assumption that there was slight association between the variables given the slight differences between the observed frequency and expected frequency. Thus, Chi-square test for independence between writing skills and writing self-efficacy was conducted. Two hypotheses were formed namely;

H_o – Writing skills performance is independent on writing self-efficacy

H_A – Writing skills performance is dependent on writing self-efficacy

TABLE 2.
CHI-SQUARE TESTS

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.298 ^a	4	.509
Likelihood Ratio	3.090	4	.543
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.324	1	.250
N of Valid Cases	33		

a. 7 cells (77.8%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .36.

Based on Table 2.0, all expected cell frequencies were lesser than five. Thus, hypothesis null was rejected and it implied that writing skills performance was actually dependent on writing self-efficacy, $X^2(1) = 3.298$, $p = .509$. The strength of this dependence could be shown as in Table 3.0 below;

TABLE 3.
SYMMETRIC MEASURES

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.316	.509
	Cramer's V	.224	.509
	Contingency Coefficient	.301	.509
N of Valid Cases		33	

Table 3.0 showed that Cramer's V value was .224 while the contingency coefficient value was .301. Based on Guilford's rule of strength of relationship, this indicated that there was a low relationship between writing skills performance and writing self-efficacy, $\phi = 0.316$, $p = .509$. A visual representation of the data association and distribution could be portrayed as below;

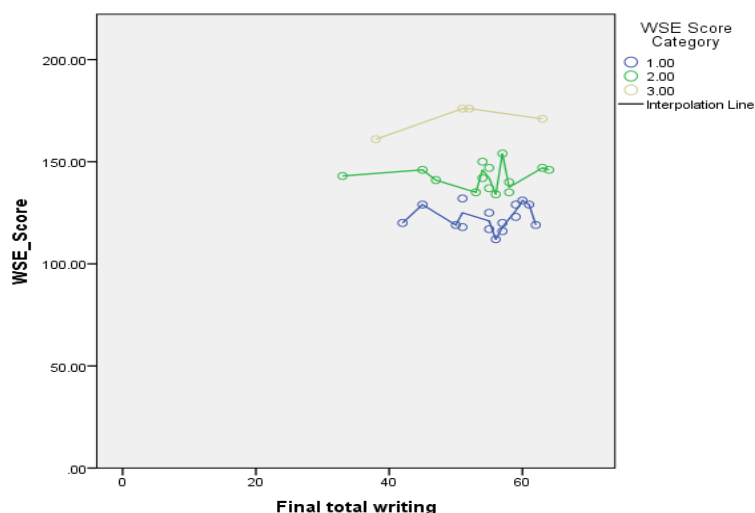


Table 4.0 Scatterplot of marks

Scatter plot above showed the distribution of marks among the three groups of writers namely the high self-efficacy writers (Group 3), average self-efficacy writers (Group 2) and low self-efficacy writers (Group 1). The lowest line, which ranged below 150 WSE score represented the low self-efficacy writers group, while the middle line that was within the range of 150 WSE score represented the average self-efficacy writers. Finally, the top line which ranged between 150 to 200 WSE scores represented the high self-efficacy writers. Generally, it could be seen that the ratio whether the high self-efficacy scores tallied with the high scores in writing performance was actually depending on the self-efficacy categories (high, average and low).

In the high self-efficacy category, it could be seen that not many students were in the range of high self-efficacy level. The diagram showed that the higher scores that the students' obtained for self-efficacy, the higher the marks obtained for their writing skills. Only one student in high self-efficacy category indicated a slight drop in self-efficacy level but increased in terms of the writing scores. This implied that when these students perceived their writing as very competent, it was thus depicted in their writing performance where marks also increased correspondingly. However, there was a different pattern in the writing scores plot among the average self-efficacy writers. The study showed that the lower the marks in self-efficacy, the higher the marks were in terms of writing performance. This result also contradicted the low self-efficacy writers group. In the low self-efficacy writers group, the students writing scores increased when their self-efficacy increased at the same time. The variety of scores distribution among the three groups perhaps explained the variety of expected and observed frequency as discussed earlier.

IV. DISCUSSION

In this study, the participants' writing performance shows dependent on the participants' ability perception as from the WSE Scale findings show. This supports Pajares, Johnson and Usher's (2007) view that the manner in which the learners engage text is mediated by the interpretations learners make about the skills they possess. In conclusion, both findings from the learners' writing proficiency level and writing self-efficacy level have given a new perspective in the teaching of writing and also raised a few questions. Firstly, it seems that the participants' performance depend on the topic discussed. This can be seen from the various frequency of expected and observed frequency for essay 1 to 3. It perhaps depends on whether the topic relates to their *sociocultural* or requires them to write in vacuum namely devoid of any social attachments or factors. Thus it can be implied that this factor determines how the participants in this study actually wrote. Secondly, the writing performance among the three groups of writers also shows that one was able to

perform well as the self-efficacy getting higher, but not for the average self-efficacy writers. This brings into the discussion that self-efficacy is actually weak independent variable and perhaps cannot be generalized to all types of writing or genre. This is because though the average self-efficacy writers scored high in self-efficacy, their marks for writing nevertheless not necessarily will increase. Both conditions discuss above imply that social and cognitive are actually closely related in developing writers' skills in writing. Here, the sociocultural and socio-cognitive theories can make two sorts of contributions to a child's intellectual development. First, through sociocultural, the child acquires much of the content of his/her thinking, that is, his/her cognitive. Second, the surrounding culture provides him/her with the processes or means of his/her thinking which Vygotsky calls the "tools of intellectual adaptation". In conclusion, the combination of the sociocultural and cognitive theories implies that culture teaches children both what to think and how to think.

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Ilyana Jalaluddin is a senior lecturer at the English Department of Modern Language, Universiti Putra Malaysia. Previously, she worked as a secondary school teacher in Malaysia for 5 years. She holds a B.Ed (English studies) from University of Otago, New Zealand, and M.Ed (TESL) from University of Malaya Kuala Lumpur. She then earned her PhD in Education (TESL) from Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Bangi. Her areas of concentration are TESL, Writing in ESL context, Discourse Analysis, and language pedagogy. Currently, Dr Ilyana Jalaluddin teaches Research Methodology, Sociolinguistic, Applied Linguistics and Discourse Analysis.



Shamala Paramasivam is an Associate Professor at the Department of English, Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM). She has taught English language at the university since 1991. She has published in several international journals including *Journal of Asian Pacific Communication*, *Journal of Intercultural Communication*, *Journal of Universal Language*, *Asian EFL Journal*, and *Journal of Language and Linguistics*. She has presented papers in conferences such as Asia Pacific Airline Training Symposium, International Aviation English Forum, International Conference on Discourse, Communication and Enterprise, International Conference on Politeness Research, and European Conference for Academic Disciplines. She has a specialization in language use in intercultural communication, English for Specific Purposes (ESP), and Teaching English as a Second language (TESL). Her research interests lie in

discourse, communication, and culture in educational and professional settings, particularly in business and workplace communication.



Salina Husain is a senior lecturer at Foreign Language Department, Faculty of Modern Language and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia. Her areas of specialization are Spanish verbs and Malay verbs, and Linguistics. She holds a Diploma in Malay Language from Universiti Malaya, Certificado Inicial (Instituto Cervantes Madrid), Bachelor in Language and Linguistics along with Master (Modern Language studies) from Universiti Malaya and finally her PhD (Comparative study) from UPM. Dr Salina Husain is an active member of Malaysian Linguistics Society and has taught many courses for Spanish Language.



Roslina Abu Bakar is a senior lecturer at Malay Language Department, Faculty of Modern Language and Communication, University Putra Malaysia. She holds a Bachelor of Education (Teaching Malay as First Language), Master of Arts and Doctor of Philosophy (Malay Studies). She has been working as a Malay Language senior lecturer at Malay Language Department, Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, University Putra Malaysia since 2012 academic year. Previously, she was a Malay Language senior lecturer at University Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia for two years. Dr Roslina Abu Bakar's areas specialization is Teaching Malay as First Language, Malays Literature and Malay studies.

The Development of Interactive Multimedia for First-grade Beginning Readers of Elementary School: An Innovative Learning Approach

Irlidiya

Bahasa Education of State University of Makassar, Indonesia

Achmad Tolla

Bahasa Education of State University of Makassar, Indonesia

Nurdin Noni

English Department of State University of Makassar, Indonesia

Anshari

State University of Makassar, Indonesia

Abstract—The purpose of this research is to develop interactive multimedia for beginner readers in the first-grade students of elementary school. This research was a research development, using the method of experimentation. One class as a class experiment got a treatment and one class as a control group. Data source this study was taken from a limited test and application of more extensive tests. The data were collected by using the techniques of observations, interviews, and tests. The data were analyzed using t-test analysis by applying IBM SPSS statistics 20 facilities. Based on the results of the calculations for the control class, the significance of the test results showed that $p = .000 < 0, 05$. That means that H_0 is accepted. Therefore, there is no difference in learning outcomes of interactive multimedia for beginner readers on the first-grade students, Maros Regency. For experimental class, the significance of the test results (t-test), with a value is $p = 015 > 0, 05$. It means that H_0 is rejected, and H_1 is accepted. These results prove that there is a difference between learning outcomes using interactive multimedia and the class that does not use interactive multimedia. Therefore, interactive multimedia effectively improves student learning outcomes.

Index Terms—interactive multimedia, beginner readers, and innovative learning

I. INTRODUCTION

In carrying out the learning for the beginner readers, there are some issues that are perceived by teachers. One of the problems is the lack of media or learning tools in beginning reading (Sumardi, 2012). Although teachers have conducted many attempts to make the students can read well, but in fact, many students found difficulty in reading (Winihasih, 2005). In addition, the main issue that is still perceived is a lack of knowledge about learning innovations that can help teachers in teaching Indonesian Language Lesson material. In relation to this statement, the teacher is required to master many approaches and techniques of teaching, especially in teaching students to read. Therefore, the learning activities for beginning reading have to be designed either in relation to the content, learning methods or the media to be used. According to Muslimin (2011, p. 5), one of the efforts to improve the quality of teaching can be performed by implementing the innovation learning by utilizing the tool technology called with information and communication technology (ICT). The purpose of this research was to develop a multimedia interactive learning for beginner readers on the first-grade students of elementary school. The theoretical benefit of the research is to be a reference for teachers in developing the innovation learning Indonesian Language, especially teaching reading. The practical benefit is as media and learning resources that are designed based on fun and meaningful learning.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Interactive Multimedia

One of the strategies to improve the quality of learning is by utilizing Information Communication Technology (ICT) via interactive multimedia Prabhu (2011). For the aspects of learning, learning outcome improvement is supported by the use of media of instruction. Through the media, the potential sense of students can be accommodated. One of the aspects of leading media that can improve learning outcomes is the multimedia. The technology of multimedia is one of the latest developments in the world of education. It can give the impression of a vast and deep in the fields of communication and education. It can quicken and able to give familiarity with about something interestingly,

appropriately, effectively and efficiently (Faturromahman, 2012). Constantinescu (2007, p. 2) states that "Multimedia refers to computer-based systems that use various types of content, such as text, audio, video, graphics, animation, and interactivity". Multimedia is a combination of at least two media input or output of data. This media can be audio, animation, video, text and images. A multimedia computer is the utilization of the computer to create and combine text, graphics, audio, animation and video by integrating links and tools that allow users to navigate, interact, create and communicate. Interactive multimedia is an application that contained the entire multimedia elements that exist, and users are given the freedom to control and animate the elements (Suyanto, 2005).

B. Beginner Readers

There are some definitions of reading expressed by some experts. According to the Pandawa (2009), reading is a process of thinking through the process of perception and understanding of information, as well as giving meaning to the readings performed by readers. According to Johnson (2008), reading is not only learning competence through instruction but also through practice. In line with that, Winch (2006) states that Reading is the process of constructing meaning from the text. A purposeful thinking act can be described as bringing meaning to and taking meaning from the text. According to Scanlon (2010, p.9), reading is a complex process that requires coordination, analysis, and interpretation of the various information sources. Reading is essentially a mechanical skill of decoding. Changing the print symbols into sounds is to get the meaning. Reading is the main source of growth in vocabulary, language, and intelligence (Slavin, 2009).

Developing reading skill is ranging from *pre-reading* to the highest level. There are some stages that are passed by someone in reading.

a. Stage 0: *Pre-reading (pattern recognition)* is a stage experienced by preschool children that are characterized by pretending to read. For example, when a child is brought to a store, the child will "read" the label of goods bought by his mother. Whereas, children have not read, but they recognize patterns of letters.

b. Stage 1: *Discovery of Alphabet Principle/decoding stage* is the actual reading stages. For example, that is when children find that letter is voiced expression representation. However, we have not been able to "teach reading" If a child has not been ready. Preparedness is characterized by the readiness of orthographic. It is the readiness of the neural connections between the involvement of the parts of the brain that records the letter moulds and parts of the brain that activates the function to talk. For example, the word of B-O-L-A read: bola.

c. Stage 2 is *Development of Automaticity ("ungluing from print")*. At this stage, the children begin quite fluent in reading. They learn to use the ability of decoding in reading. They become curious on reading. He/she would like to read more. At this stage, the children learn the linking between the text reading and pronunciation, even from the text to a new thought or idea. Their decoding skills have developed, and their speeds in reading have increased. Reliability in reading also increased and become more fluent. At this stage, the child should be able to give attention to the meaning of the text. In general, this stage is reached when the children are 8 years old.

d. Stage 3: *Incorporation of Learning Subroutines (Reading for Learning the New)* or read to learn. At this stage, the motivation to read the changes. The change from "learning to read" to "reading to learn" begins in stage 3, when children can master the information from written materials; that can be examined through the school curriculum. At this stage, to read text is to obtain information and thus rapidly expanding their vocabulary. This stage of development is usually achieved when children sit in class 4 or about age 9-10 years. They are learned from books that she had. However, if the child has not mastered grade 4 "how to" of his reading, then in the next intermediate reading class, they are difficult is enhanced.

e. Stage 4: *Taking Multiple View Points during Reading*, namely the ability to compare two or more viewpoints, based on comparisons of the readability of articles. This step has not appeared until the child enters high school, and this ability will appear when the teacher gives a comparative thinking exercise.

f. Stage 5: *Reading for Building Personal Testing & Theory*. It is the perfect stage is achieved at age of students and manifested through various research results. Students read with the goal of creating formulas, or to define the position and his opinion about such a phenomenon, as well as consolidate over what she has. While reading, the individual concerned while doing personal Chall theory construction (1979) as cited in Kumara (2010, p. 6).

C. Innovative Learning

Innovative is the adjective of innovation. According to Indonesian Language Dictionary (KBI), innovation means a new invention which differs from previously idea, method, and tool. Innovative means are introducing something new, are updates (new creation) (Tim Penyusun Kamus, 2008).

Some sense of innovation expressed by experts include: Rogers (1983, p. 11) as cited in Su'ud (2008, p. 4) says that *An innovation is an idea, practice, or object; that is perceived as new by an individual or other unit of does.*

By Gufran (2010), Innovation means making changes or introducing something new; it can also be interpreted as an invention. In this case, there are five types of innovation that is; products, processes, marketing, organization, and business. It was concluded that understanding that innovation is something new, either in the form of tools, ideas and methods. Based on such understanding, the learning innovation is a new effort undertaken in the process of learning, using a variety of methods, approaches, means and atmospheres which support the achievement of learning objectives.

While learning according to law No. 20 in 2003, learning is a process of interactions with educators and learners learning resources on the learning environment. So, innovative learning is a process of learning that is designed differently from the existing and creative idea born from teachers using learning resources (Depdiknas, 2007).

Innovative learning leads to more learning-centred students. Innovative learning as learning innovations may include modifications to learning, both in terms of the means and infrastructure as well as the applied learning models. Innovative learning is fun and requires creativity of teachers in the learning process so that students active, so that the achievement of learning outcomes more effective. Essentially, the innovative study was born from innovative thinking that can facilitate students in the learning process.

In the study of innovative teachers for creative, demanding to can develop and choose a strategy, methods, evaluation and learning media effectively. It is important, especially for creating a climate conducive to learning and fun.

The willingness of teachers to seek and find a variety of breakthroughs, either in the form of media and methods of learning is one of the supports will be the emergence of many innovations that will brighten. The willingness of teachers to always innovate in the lesson, students will address the saturation in the study.

One of the innovative learning models among different models of learning by Gufran using learning is computers as media in conveying instruction. Computer-based technology to display information to the students through the on-screen display. Various types of computer applications developed based on cognitive theories can be tutorial. Through the use of computers, learning will be centred on students with a high level of activity.

III. METHODOLOGY

This type of research is research development. This research uses research design used as follows:

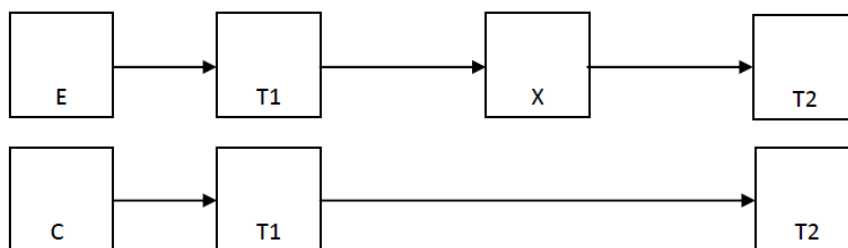


Figure 1. Design Research

Description:

E= Classroom experiments

C= Control class

T1= Pre-test in the experimental class

T1= Pre-test in the control group

T2= Post-test in the experimental class

T2= Post-test on the control class

X= Given the treatment

. = Not given preferential treatment

The Data were analyzed by t-test for paired data.

The source of the data in this study is the source of data on the implementation of the test is limited. Limited testing is done in primary school 103 presidential instruction of Hasanuddin, Mandai Subdistrict. Research on subject tests tailored to the purpose and scope of the stages of the research. Therefore, the target subject tests in the study 1st grade in lessons of 2013/2014, 1st A grade as class experiments and 1st B grade as the class of the control.

IV. RESEARCH RESULTS

Research hypothesis: there is a difference between the learning outcomes of students using interactive multimedia with students who do not use interactive multimedia.

A. Statistical Hypothesis

For the hypothesis, testing is done using the t-test criteria student as follows:

Ho is rejected if $p < \alpha$ or $p < 0.05$.

Ho accepted if $p \geq \alpha$ or $p \geq 0.05$

B. Research on Hypothesis Testing Can Be Seen in the Following Table

The use of interactive multimedia for the reader beginner grade beginning in primary school for the two results, i.e. results of the test on the implementation of pre-test-post-test on the control class and classroom experiments, and control test result of combined classes and class experiments.

Test results the use of interactive multimedia for the reader beginner grade beginning in elementary school can be seen in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
TEST RESULTS FROM THE USE OF INTERACTIVE MULTIMEDIA FOR BEGINNER READER CLASSROOM PRE-COMMIT TEST CONTROLS AND TESTS.

No.	T-Test	Sig (2 tailed)	Test results	Conclusion
1.	Smooth pre-test-a smooth post-test	.015	.015 > 0,05	Ho accepted
2.	The pronunciation of the pre-test- Pronunciation post-test	.032	.032 > 0,05	Ho accepted
3.	Intonation pre-test -intonation post- test	.000	.000 < 0,05	Ho is rejected
4.	sound pre- test - sound post-test	.000	.000 < 0,05	Ho is rejected

Based on the table above regarding the significance of the test results (test-t) to find out whether there is a difference between the control and experimental classes (using interactive multimedia) for beginner readers, elaborated as follows:

The significance of the test results (test-t) against the smooth implementation of the pre-and post-test class controls with value $p = .015 > 0,05$ mean H_0 is received. Statement of H_0 is no difference learning outcomes without the use of interactive multimedia for the reader beginner students early in elementary school class Maros. Thus, it can be asserted that there is no significant difference between the results of the study without the use of interactive multimedia for beginner readers.

The significance of the test results (test-t) on aspects of pronunciation on the implementation of the pre-test and post-test controls class with value $p = .032 > 0,05$ mean H_0 is received. Statement of H_0 is no difference learning outcomes without the use of interactive multimedia for the reader beginner students early in elementary school class Maros. Thus, it can be asserted that there is no significant difference between the results of the study without the use of interactive multimedia for beginner readers.

The significance of the test results (t-test) on aspects of the intonation on the implementation of the pre-test and post-test class control with value $p = .000 < 0,05$ mean H_0 is rejected. There was a difference H_0 statement learning outcomes without the use of interactive multimedia for the reader beginner students early in elementary school class in Maros. Thus, it can be asserted that there is a significant difference between the results of the study without the use of interactive multimedia for beginner readers.

The significance of the test results (t-test) on aspects of the implementation of the pre- test and post-test control class with value $p = .000 < 0,05$ mean H_0 is rejected. There was a difference H_0 statement learning outcomes without the use of interactive multimedia for the reader beginner students early in elementary school class in Maros. Thus, it can be asserted that there is a significant difference between the results of the study without the use of interactive multimedia for beginner readers.

Based on the description it can be concluded that in the classroom pre- test and post-test control class, learning outcomes is not effective without the use of interactive multimedia for beginner readers in the early grades in elementary school both in the aspect of Maros Regency fluency, pronunciation, intonation, sound.

While the test results the use of interactive multimedia for the reader beginner classes beginning in the elementary school class in Maros Regency in experiment class can be seen in table 2.

TABLE 2.
TEST RESULTS IN THE USE OF INTERACTIVE MULTIMEDIA FOR BEGINNER READERS IN EXPERIMENT CLASS OF PRE-TEST AND POST-TESTS.

No.	T-Test	Sig (2 tailed)	Test Result	Description
1.	Fluency of pre-test Fluency of post- test	.001	.001 > 0,05	Ho Accepted
2.	Pronunciation of pre-test Pronunciation of post-test	.032	.032 > 0,05	Ho Accepted
3.	Intonation of pre-test Intonation of post-test	.000	.000 < 0,05	Ho Rejected
4.	Sound of pre-test Sound of post test	.000	.000 < 0,05	Ho Rejected

Based on the table above regarding the significance of the test results (t-test) to find out whether there is a difference between the control and experimental classes (using interactive multimedia) for beginner readers, elaborated as follows:

The significance of the test results (t-test) on the smooth implementation of the pre- test and post-test control class with p value $= .001 < 0,05$ mean H_0 is rejected. There was a difference H_0 statement learning outcomes with the use of interactive multimedia for the reader beginner students early in elementary school class in Maros Regency in the experimental class. Thus, it can be asserted that there is a significant difference between the results of the study without the use of interactive multimedia for beginner readers.

The significance of the test results (t-test) on aspects of pronunciation on the implementation of the pre- test and post-test control class with value $p = .000 < 0,05$ mean H_0 is rejected. There was a difference H_0 statement learning outcomes with the use of interactive multimedia for the reader beginner students early in elementary school class in

Maros in the experimental class. Thus, it can be asserted that there is a significant difference between the results of the study without the use of interactive multimedia for beginner readers.

The significance of the test results (t-test) aspects of intonation in the implementation of the pre- test and post-test control class with value $p = .000 < 0,05$ mean H_0 is rejected. There was a difference H_0 statement learning outcomes with the use of interactive multimedia for the reader beginner students early in elementary school class in Maros. Thus, it can be asserted that there is a significant difference between the results of the study without the use of interactive multimedia for beginner readers.

The significance of the test results (t-test) against sound on implementation of pre--test and post-test control class with the value $p = .000 < 0,05$ mean H_0 is rejected. There was a difference H_0 statement learning outcomes with the use of interactive multimedia for the reader beginner students early in elementary school class in Maros. Thus, it can be asserted that there is a significant difference between the results of the study without the use of interactive multimedia for beginner readers.

The t-test results in total use of interactive multimedia can be seen in Table 3 below:

TABLE 3.
THE T-TEST RESULTS FROM TOTAL CONTROL CLASS PRE-TEST & POST-TEST.

No.	T-Test	Sig (2 tailed)	Test Result	Description
1.	Control pre-test Control post-test	.000	.000 < 0,05	H_0 accepted

Based on the table above regarding the significance of the test results of the t-test, shows $p = .000 < 0,05$ mean H_0 is accepted. Statement of H_0 is no difference interactive multimedia learning outcomes for the reader beginner students early in elementary school class in Maros Regency.

TABLE 4.
THE T-TEST RESULTS FROM TOTAL EXPERIMENTAL CLASS PRE-TEST & POST-TEST.

No.	T-Test	Sig (2 tailed)	Test Result	Description
1.	Experiment of pre-test Experiment of post-test	.015	.015 > 0,05	H_0 rejected

Based on the table above regarding the significance of the test results (t-test) with a value of $p = .015 > 0.05$. These results prove that there is a difference between learning outcomes learning using interactive multimedia in learning without the use of interactive multimedia for the reader beginner students early in elementary school class in Maros Regency. So there is a relationship between linear and positive nature variable of Pre-Test and Post-Test. It shows that if there are students who at the time of pre-test value are already good, then after being given the treatment and then given a post-test, its value will be the better.

TABLE 5.
STATISTICS TEST SCORE RESULTS OF STUDENT LEARNING IN THE EXPERIMENTAL CLASS.

Statistics		Pre-test Experiment	Post-test Experiment
N	Valid	33	33
	Missing	0	0
Mean		64.9091	84.7879
Median		69.0000	87.0000
Mode		75.00	100.00
Std. Deviation		14.73805	13.01383
Sum		2142.00	2798.00

The table above shows that the score aspects of student teaching outcome 1st grade SD Negeri Hasanuddin as the experimental class on pre-test obtained an average score of 64.90 with the standard deviation of 14.73, while the post-test obtained an average score of 84.78 with the standard deviation of 13.01.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The results of calculations on the IBM SPSS statistic 20 gained control class the results of significance test (t-test) with $p = .000 < 0,05$ means H_0 is accepted. H_0 statement is no difference in the results of an interactive multimedia learning for new reader's grade students beginning in elementary school Maros. While in the experimental class, the results of significance test (t-test) with $p = .015 > 0,05$. H_0 refused and H_1 accepted. These results prove that there are differences in learning outcomes between the classes that implement the use of interactive multimedia learning with a class that does not employ the interactive multimedia.

Based on the results of the research that the researcher did, then it can put forth a summary of the test results of the significance of that class of experiments it was found that the overall results obtained good fluency, pronunciation, intonation, sound is value smaller than 0.05 meaning H_0 is rejected, this proves that there is a difference learning

outcomes between learning to use interactive multimedia for the reader beginner students early in elementary school class in Maros Regency. Thus the use of interactive multimedia for the reader beginner grade beginning in elementary school effective in Maros Regency well seen from the aspect of fluency, pronunciation, intonation and sound.

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Irlidiya, was born in 1973, 21st February in Ujung Pandang, South Sulawesi. She graduate her elementary school in SDN Ladange Kecamatan Camba, Maros Regency in 1986, her junior high school in SMPN Ladange in 1989, and then she continued her senior high school in SPGN 1 in Ujung Pandang and graduated in 1991. She start her carrier as a teacher in elementary school in SDN No, Parasangan Beru in 1995.

She finished her undergraduate in study program of Indonesia Education, Language and Literature in STKIP Yapim Maros in 2004. And then she continued a graduate program, study program of Indonesia Language in State University of Makassar, in 2006 and graduated in 2008. She registered as lecturer in STKIP Yapim Maros in 2007. She follow Sandwich Like Program in 2012 in Flinders University, South Australia.



Achmad Tolla, was born on March 21, 1949 in Leling-Mamuju, Indonesia. He is a lecturer at the Faculty of Languages and literature at State University of Makassar.

He graduated in elementary school in Mamuju in 1965. He graduated Junior High School in Mamuju in 1968. And then he continued his Senior high School in Mamuju and graduated in 1970, Bachelor's degree (S1) in Education of language and Literature of IKIP Ujung Pandang in 1980, Master (S2) in Indonesian Language Education, post graduate IKIP Malang in 1991, and Postgraduate Degree (S3) in Indonesian Language Education, UM Malang in 1996.

Prof. Dr. Achmad Tolla, M.Pd has some scientific publications, namely: (1) Shifting of languages as the result of a merging of different ethnic, in 2007, (2) Language shift in environmental migrants in Luwuk, 2004, and (3) The development of communicative language Indonesia test device for primary school Pupils in the city of Makassar, in 2003. He has been the Chairman of the Indonesian Language Education Program studies S-2 and S-3 since 2009-present.



Nurdin Noni, was born in 1962, 22 December in Barru, South Sulawesi. He graduated his elementary school in 1975 in SDN Lompengen. And then he graduated his junior high school in MTs Muhammadiyah in 1979. And then he graduated his Senior high school in Muhammadiyah Barru in 1982. He assumed his educational bachelor in 1987, English Department. And then he continued his education in Postgraduate Program, study program of English in 1991 and graduated in 1994 in State University of Makassar. In 1994, he continued his education in English Department, doctoral program in Hasanuddin University and assumed title of Doctoral in 2004. He assumed as Head of ICT, State University of Makassar. He has been assumed as Assistant President IV and present he assumed as Assistant President II in State University of Makassar. He has been published book entitled *“Teknologi Informasi dan Komunikasi”* in 2010 and scientific research entitled *“The facts about the use of technology and english language teaching at senior secondary school 2014 proceeding ICMSTEA”*



Anshari, was born in 1964, 29 April in Enrekang, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. He graduated his undergraduate in IKIP Ujung Pandang in 1988. He assumed his magister title in the field of Humanities in Hasanuddin University in 1999. He graduated his doctoral program in State University of Malang in 2007.

He started his career as a lecturer in Faculty of Language and Literature in IKIP Ujung Pandang since in 1989. He lecturing in Postgraduate program in State University of Makassar since in 2007 until present. He assumed his Professor in 2010. Present he active as writer in some print media in Makassar, as well as speaker in various of training of learning activity. Present he is a head of *“Tidang Sipulung”* Magazine in 2009-present.

He has been published book entitled *“Budi Bahasa”* in 2007 and scientific research entitled *“Representasi Bahasa sebagai sistem makna sosial, politik, dan historis; riset pengembangan dan implementasi teori linguistik Gramscian, Penelitian RUKK- Menristek”*.

Relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Pragmatic Comprehension

Vahid Rafieyan

School of Educational Studies, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia

Hassan Golerazeghi

Shiraz Azad University, Shiraz, Iran

Maryam Orang

School of Languages, Literacies and Translation, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia

Abstract—Cultural intelligence is supposed to be influential to the development of pragmatic comprehension as individuals with a higher cultural intelligence can more easily navigate and understand unfamiliar cultures and adjust their behaviors to perform effectively in culturally diverse situations. To assess the actual relationship between cultural intelligence and pragmatic comprehension ability, a study was conducted over 120 Iranian learners of English in the intensive English program of universities in the United States. Data were collected through a cultural intelligence scale and a pragmatic comprehension test. The results of the Pearson product-moment correlation indicated a strong positive relationship between level of cultural intelligence and pragmatic comprehension ability. Pedagogical implications of the findings suggested exploring target language culture and interacting with target language speakers for language learners who are on educational sojourns.

Index Terms—cultural intelligence, implied meaning, pragmatic comprehension

I. INTRODUCTION

Cultural intelligence, defined as an individual's capability to function and manage effectively in culturally diverse settings (Earley & Ang, 2003), was first introduced by Earley and Ang (2003). Cultural intelligence is composed of four dimensions: metacognitive, cognitive, motivational and behavioral. Metacognitive cultural intelligence refers to the mental processes that people apply to learn about and understand other people's cultures. Cognitive cultural intelligence refers to the knowledge of norms, practices and conventions in various cultures obtained through education and personal experiences. Motivational cultural intelligence refers to the ability to direct attention and energy toward learning about and functioning in situations which are characterized by cultural differences. Finally, behavioral cultural intelligence refers to the ability to show appropriate verbal and nonverbal actions in interaction with people from different cultures (Ang et al., 2007).

People who possess high metacognitive cultural intelligence are consciously aware of other people's cultural preferences and adjust their mental models during interactions with them. People who possess high cognitive cultural intelligence are able to understand the similarities and differences across cultures. People who possess high motivational cultural intelligence are able to direct attention and energy toward cross-cultural situations based on intrinsic interest and confidence in their cross-cultural effectiveness. Finally, people who possess high behavioral cultural intelligence show situationally appropriate behaviors based on their wide range of verbal and nonverbal abilities, such as exhibiting culturally appropriate words, tone, gestures and facial expressions (Ang et al., 2007).

Cultural intelligence is supposed to be influential to the development of pragmatic comprehension as individuals with a higher cultural intelligence can more easily navigate and understand unfamiliar cultures and adjust their behaviors to perform effectively in culturally diverse situations (Earley & Ang, 2003; Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; Rosen et al., 2000). Past research also supports the use of soft skills such as cultural intelligence to help people adapt to the cultural values and norms of the target country and to better understand intercultural interactions (Ang et al., 2007; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Earley, 2002; Templer et al., 2006). In fact, people with high cultural intelligence are more familiar with the distinctions of intercultural interactions so that they naturally know how to behave in order not to cause any intercultural mistakes and to facilitate positive reactions (Thomas & Inkson, 2005).

Therefore; given the significance of pragmatic comprehension knowledge for appropriate comprehension of implied meanings encoded in a culturally different language on one hand and the value of having a high level of cultural intelligence to efficiently understand unfamiliar cultures and adjust in culturally diverse situations on the other hand, the current study seeks to investigate the relationship between cultural intelligence and pragmatic comprehension. More specifically, the research question to be addressed in the current study is:

What is the relationship between the level of cultural intelligence and the ability to comprehend target language implied meanings?

Correspondingly, the null hypothesis is:

There is no relationship between the level of cultural intelligence and the ability to comprehend target language implied meanings.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A review of studies on pragmatic comprehension, defined as “the ability to recognize a mismatch between the literal utterance and the intention of the utterance” (Taguchi, 2005, p. 547), reveals that the majority of studies conducted so far have investigated the role of individual difference variables in the language learners’ abilities to comprehend implied meanings. The types of individual difference variables investigated in the studies consist of cognitive processing ability (e.g. Taguchi, 2007; Taguchi, 2008), target language contact (e.g. Taguchi, 2008), language proficiency level (e.g. Taguchi, 2007; Taguchi, 2011), study-abroad experience (e.g. Taguchi, 2008; Taguchi, 2011), attitude toward target language culture (e.g. Rafieyan et al., 2013a), and cultural distance (e.g. Rafieyan et al., 2014a). There is a dearth of research on the effect of cultural intelligence on the development of pragmatic comprehension, however.

In one study, Taguchi (2007) explored the effect of time, general language proficiency, and cognitive processing skills on the development of accuracy and speed of pragmatic comprehension. Participants in the study were 92 Japanese learners of English in an intensive English program in a university in Japan. A computerized yes/no design pragmatic listening task was used to assess pragmatic comprehension ability. A computerized word recognition task was used to measure the cognitive processing ability. The institutional TOEFL was also used to determine general target language proficiency. The study found that both accuracy and speed of pragmatic comprehension developed over time. The study also found a significant relationship between accuracy of pragmatic comprehension and general language proficiency as well as speed of pragmatic comprehension and cognitive processing ability.

In another study, Taguchi (2008) explored the effect of cognitive processing ability and target language contact on the development of speedy and accurate comprehension of implied meaning over a period of 4-month educational sojourn. Participants in the study consisted of 44 Japanese students of English in a college in the United States. Ability to comprehend implied meaning was assessed by a yes/no design computerized pragmatic listening test. Cognitive processing ability was assessed through a lexical access test. The amount of language contact was also determined by a survey instrument. The findings of the study revealed that cognitive processing ability and language contact have significant effect on the speed but not the accurate comprehension of implied meaning.

Taguchi (2011) further examined the effect of target language proficiency and study-abroad experience on speedy and accurate comprehension of implied meaning. Participants consisted of three groups of Japanese learners of English in a college in Japan including a low language proficiency without study-abroad experience group, a high language proficiency without study-abroad experience group, and a high language proficiency with study-abroad experience group. Ability to comprehend implied meaning was assessed by a computerized multiple choice pragmatic listening test. The study found that both target language proficiency and study-abroad experience had a significant effect on accuracy of comprehension but only target language proficiency not study-abroad experience had a significant effect on comprehension speed.

Rafieyan et al. (2013a) also conducted a study over the effect of attitude toward target language culture and inclusion of target language culture in classroom instruction on the development of pragmatic comprehension. Participants were 32 learners of English at a language academy in Malaysia. Pragmatic comprehension ability was assessed by a multiple choice pragmatic listening test assessing comprehension of implied opinions used as a pre-test and post-test. Attitude toward target language culture was also assessed through a likert scale attitude questionnaire measuring affective, cognitive, and behavioral attitudes. The findings revealed that both positive attitude toward target language culture and inclusion of target language culture in classroom instruction were conducive to the development of pragmatic comprehension in language learners.

Most recently, Rafieyan et al. (2014a) investigated the effect of cultural distance from the target language society on the level of pragmatic comprehension ability. Participants in the study were 30 German undergraduate students of English at a university in Germany who were considered culturally close to the British and 30 South Korean undergraduate students of English at a university in South Korea who were considered culturally distant from the British. Pragmatic comprehension ability was assessed through a pragmatic listening test assessing comprehension of implied opinions. The findings of the study indicated that language learners whose culture was perceived to be closer to the culture of the target language society had higher ability in comprehending target language pragmatically implied meanings.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Participants in the current study consisted of 120 Iranian learners of English. They were all studying English at the intensive English program of universities in the United States. Among all the language learners participating in the study, 38 were males and 82 were females. Their age ranged from 18 to 27 with a mean age of 24.2 years old. Their

length of residence in the United States ranged from 6 to 8 months and they were all at the intermediate level of the intensive English program. Therefore, they were supposed to possess the same level of language proficiency and have the same amount of target language and target culture exposure.

B. Instruments

To assess language learners' level of cultural intelligence, the cultural intelligence scale (CQS), developed by Ang et al. (2007), was adopted. The questionnaire consisted of 20 items with four subscales: meta-cognitive cultural intelligence (items 1-4), cognitive cultural intelligence (items 5-10), motivational cultural intelligence (items 11-15), and behavioral cultural intelligence (items 16-20). The items on the questionnaire were based on a 7-point likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree with values 1 to 7 assigned to them respectively (Rafieyan et al., 2013b). A high score indicated that a person can better adjust to new cultures, understand local practices, and can behave appropriately and effectively in other cultures outside their own (Chen et al., 2011).

To assess language learners' pragmatic comprehension ability, a pragmatic listening comprehension test, developed by Taguchi (2007, 2008, 2011), was adopted. The pragmatic comprehension test was a 24-item test assessing comprehension of implied meanings. The test used a multiple choice design with 4 options including one appropriate option and three distracters. For each item there was a dialogue between a male and a female native American speaker. The reply that appeared at the end did not provide a straightforward answer to the speaker's question. Participants had to listen and choose the option which referred to the speaker's intention encoded in the reply (Rafieyan et al., 2014a; Rafieyan et al., 2014b).

C. Procedure

During the academic year 2013/2014, 120 copies of the pragmatic comprehension test were administered to the participants in the study. They were instructed to listen to each dialogue and choose one of the four options provided which best refers to the idea implied in the dialogue (Rafieyan et al., 2014a). They were also alerted that the recordings will be played once only. Following the completion of the test, 120 copies of the cultural intelligence scale were distributed among the participants right away. Participants were instructed to answer each item on the cultural intelligence scale by circling one of the numbers ranging from 1 at the most extreme disagreement to 7 at the most extreme agreement with the expressed idea. Participants were given enough time to reflect on their perceptions toward the ideas mentioned in the questionnaire and return the questionnaire. All the test and questionnaire slips were then collected.

D. Data Analysis

To assess language learners' cultural intelligence, descriptive statistics was used to describe and summarize the properties of the data collected from the participants. Descriptive statistics consisted mainly of mean and standard deviation. The cultural intelligence was represented by a mean score on a 7-point scale, where 1 (strongly disagree) represented the minimum score on the scale and 7 (strongly agree) represented the maximum score on the scale. A mean score of 4, however, represented the average score (Rafieyan et al., 2013a). Therefore, mean scores of above 4 represented a high level of cultural intelligence while mean scores of below 4 represented a low level of cultural intelligence. The mean score and standard deviation were computed for each subscale of cultural intelligence including metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral individually as well as all subscales generally.

To determine language learners' level of pragmatic comprehension, descriptive statistics was used. Descriptive statistics consisted of the mean score and the standard deviation of the marks obtained through the pragmatic comprehension test. In this respect, 1 mark was assigned to each appropriate answer whereas no mark was assigned to the inappropriate answers. As there were 24 items on the pragmatic comprehension test, each language learner could get a mark between 0 and 24. A mean of below 12 suggested the low performance of language learners on the pragmatic comprehension test whereas a mean of above 12 suggested a high performance of language learners on the test (Rafieyan et al., 2014b).

To determine the relationship between cultural intelligence and pragmatic comprehension, Pearson product-moment correlation (r), which measures the degree and the direction of the linear relationship between two variables (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013), was used. The size of the value of Pearson correlation can range from -1.00 to +1.00. This value indicates the strength of the relationship between the two variables. A value of 0 indicates no relationship at all, a value of +1.00 indicates a perfect positive correlation (as one variable increases, so does the other variable), and a value of -1.00 indicates a perfect negative correlation (as one variable increases, the other variable decreases) (Pallant, 2013). Cohen (1988) suggests a set of guidelines to interpret the values between 0 and 1. The guidelines apply whether or not there is a negative sign out the front of the r value. The guidelines have been presented in Table I.

TABLE I:
STRENGTH OF RELATIONSHIP

r Value	Strength of Relationship
$r = 0.10$ to 0.29	Small Correlation
$r = 0.30$ to 0.49	Medium Correlation
$r = 0.50$ to 1.00	Large Correlation

The squared correlation (r^2 , called the coefficient of determination), was then used to measure the proportion of variability in pragmatic comprehension ability that can be determined from its relationship with cultural intelligence. Cohen (1988) proposed a set of criteria for interpreting the value of r^2 . The criteria proposed by Cohen (1988) have been presented in Table II. All the analysis was performed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software, version 21 (Rafieyan et al., 2014a; Rafieyan et al., 2014b).

TABLE II:
PERCENTAGE OF VARIANCE EXPLAINED, r^2

r^2 Value	Strength of Relationship
$r^2 = 0.01$	Small Correlation
$r^2 = 0.09$	Medium Correlation
$r^2 = 0.25$	Large Correlation

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Findings

Table III presents the mean scores for language learners' cultural intelligence on each individual subscale as well as the overall mean score. The mean scores for language learners' metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral cultural intelligence were respectively 5.13, 3.61, 5.12, and 4.27. The overall mean score was also 4.46. As the table shows, language learners in general demonstrated a high metacognitive and motivational cultural intelligence and a low cognitive cultural intelligence. However, they generally demonstrated an above average cultural intelligence. The overall standard deviation is also 1.48 which does not indicate a high variation in language learners' level of cultural intelligence.

TABLE III:
LANGUAGE LEARNERS' CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE

Subscales	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Metacognitive	120	5.13	1.60
Cognitive	120	3.61	1.57
Motivational	120	5.12	1.60
Behavioral	120	4.27	1.50
Overall	120	4.46	1.48

Table IV presents the overall mean and standard deviation for language learners' performance on the pragmatic comprehension test. The mean score obtained from language learners' answers to the 24 items on the pragmatic comprehension test was 13.08 which suggests that language learners in general had an above average level of pragmatic comprehension. The standard deviation was also 5.17 which indicates an approximately low range of variation in language learners' answers to the items on pragmatic comprehension test.

TABLE IV:
LANGUAGE LEARNERS' PRAGMATIC COMPREHENSION LEVEL

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Pragmatic Comprehension	80	2	22	13.08	5.17

Table V presents the results of the correlation between language learners' cultural intelligence and their pragmatic comprehension ability. The correlation coefficient measured through Pearson product-moment correlation was 0.88 which according to the guidelines set by Cohen (1988) indicates a large correlation between the two variables (above 0.05), suggesting a strong positive relationship between level of cultural intelligence and pragmatic comprehension ability, that is, a higher cultural intelligence was positively correlated with a higher ability to comprehend target language implied meanings.

TABLE V:
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE AND PRAGMATIC COMPREHENSION

		Pragmatic Comprehension	Cultural Intelligence
Pragmatic Comprehension	Pearson Correlation	1	0.882**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
	N	120	120
Cultural Intelligence	Pearson Correlation	0.882**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	
	N	120	120

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

To measure the proportion of variability in pragmatic comprehension ability that can be determined from its relationship with cultural intelligence, the squared correlation (r^2 , called the coefficient of determination), was used (Rafieyan et al., 2014b). The squared correlation derived from the computation of Pearson correlation between cultural intelligence and pragmatic comprehension ability in the current study was $r^2 = (0.88)^2 = 0.77$. In other words, 77 percent

of variability in pragmatic comprehension ability can be determined from its relationship with cultural intelligence which according to the guidelines set by Cohen (1988) indicates a large correlation (above 0.25).

B. Discussion

The present study investigated the relationship between language learners' level of ability to function and manage effectively in culturally diverse settings referred to as cultural intelligence and their ability to comprehend target language implied meanings referred to as pragmatic comprehension. The findings suggested a strong positive relationship between the two variables, that is, language learners who were more able to function and manage effectively according to target language culture had a higher capability to comprehend target language implied meanings appropriately. These findings reject the null hypothesis which states there is no relationship between the level of cultural intelligence and the ability to comprehend target language implied meanings.

The findings derived from the current study can be explained through the fact that language learners who were more culturally intelligent had higher awareness of the differences between norms and conventions of their heritage culture and the target culture and were more interested and confident to direct their attention and energy toward exhibiting situationally appropriate behaviors based on their broad range of verbal and nonverbal capabilities such as existing culturally appropriate words, tone, gestures, and facial expressions than language learners who were less culturally intelligent (Ang et al., 2007).

Knowledge of cultural norms and conventions of the target society as well as the interest and confidence to apply that knowledge in interactions with target language speakers provided them with sufficient contextual effects to enable them to process target language implied meanings without putting unnecessary processing effort. Consequently, they were successful in arriving at appropriate comprehension of most target language implied meanings. However, none of the language learners managed to comprehend all target language implied meanings appropriately. Therefore, some sort of educational intervention seems to be required to optimize their target language pragmatic knowledge.

On the contrary, language learners who were less culturally intelligent had lower awareness of the differences between norms and conventions of their heritage culture and the target culture. Moreover, they were less interested and confident to direct their attention and energy toward exhibiting situationally appropriate behaviors as they lacked a sufficient range of verbal and nonverbal capabilities such as existing culturally appropriate words, tone, gestures, and facial expressions than language learners who were more culturally intelligent.

Lack of knowledge of cultural norms and conventions of the target society and uncertainty to interact with target language speakers did not equip them with sufficient contextual effects to be able to process target language implied meanings without unnecessary processing effort. Consequently, they were not successful in arriving at appropriate comprehension of most target language implied meanings. However, all of language learners managed to comprehend at least some of the target language implied meanings which implies that contact with target language speakers and exposure to target language culture (depending on the level of contact and exposure) develops target language pragmatic knowledge in language learners.

The findings obtained in the current study are consistent with the findings obtained in the studies conducted by Taguchi (2007), Taguchi (2011), Rafieyan et al. (2013a), and Rafieyan et al. (2014a) who found the positive effect of various individual difference variables such as language proficiency, cognitive processing ability, attitude toward target culture, and cultural distance on the development of pragmatic comprehension ability. The findings obtained in the current study, however, do not support the findings obtained in the study conducted by Taguchi (2008) who found that contact with target language speakers does not have a significant effect on appropriate comprehension of target language implied meanings.

V. CONCLUSION

The study found that there is a strong positive relationship between level of cultural intelligence and pragmatic comprehension ability. Language learners who were more able to function and manage effectively according to target language culture were more successful in appropriate comprehension of target language implied meanings than language learners who were less able to function and manage effectively according to target language culture. Therefore, language learners who are on an educational sojourn are advised to interestingly explore target language culture and interact with target language speakers in order to develop target language pragmatic competence.

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Vahid Rafieyan is a PhD in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) from school of educational studies in Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM). He has twelve years of experience teaching IELTS, English conversation, and academic writing. He has a number of publications in the field of interlanguage pragmatics including “relationship between attitude toward target language culture instruction and pragmatic comprehension development”, “relationship between cultural distance and pragmatic comprehension”, and “pragmatic comprehension development through telecollaboration”. He holds the 2012 best TESL student award from Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM).



Hassan Golerazeghi is an MA in Teaching English as a Second Language from Shiraz Azad University of Iran. He has been teaching IELTS and TOEFL for 15 years. He has founded and directed two English schools Parsian and Ma'refat in Fassa, his hometown, which are giving educational services to plenty of learners of all ages and levels. As a university lecturer, he has taught a variety of subjects such as *Phonetics and Phonology*, *Translation*, *Methodology*, *Psychology of Language Learning and Teaching*, *Linguistics*, *Translation Methods*, and *Research*, to name a few, to under-graduate English students. He has done a lot of research on different aspects of language learning and teaching.

Maryam Orang is a Ph.D. Candidate at the School of Languages, Literacies and Translation at Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM). She is an expert of educational and research affairs employed by the Islamic azad University, Hamedan Branch, Hamedan, Iran. Her research interests include syntax, pragmatics, and psycholinguistics.

The Phonological Rhetoric and Poetical Texture in *Ulysses*: A Cognitive Phonological Perspective*

Xianyou Wu

Chongqing Normal University, Chongqing, China

Abstract—The phonological figures in *Ulysses* have been the weakest aspect in Joycean studies, calling for a systematic scrutiny. From a cognitive phonological perspective, this article aims at a brief survey of those phonological figures in *Ulysses* and illustrates how much phonological figures have contributed to the poetic texture of the novel. Taking as the point of departure the phonological figures in *Ulysses*, by means of a revised model of phonological figures by Plett, this article explores some 15 phonological figures concerning phonemic deviations and phonemic enforcement, and their stylistic effects. These figures have contributed much to the musicality and playfulness, and also to the textual cohesion and coherence of the novel, and in some contexts they may produce synaesthesia in the reader's mind and carry an obvious interpersonal function. Moreover, they have played an important part in the linguistic poeticality of the novel.

Index Terms—*Ulysses*, phonological figures, stylistic effects, poetical texture

I. INTRODUCTION

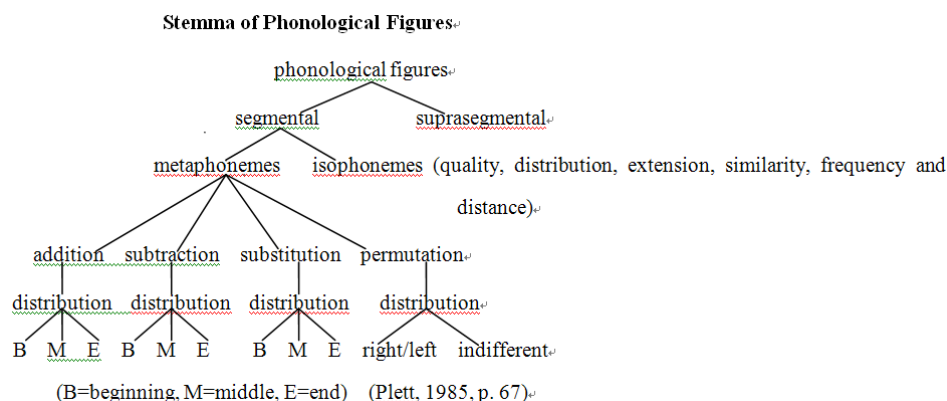
Phonological figures or schemes, refer to those phonemic patternings which can produce particular sound effects in readers. In terms of rhetorical studies in *Ulysses*, some essential findings have been made by quite a few Joycean scholars such as S. Gilbert (1952), D. Gifford & R. J. Seidman (1988), K. Wales (1992), J. Barger (2001), and others, who seem to rejoice in rhetorical figures at lexical and syntactical levels, of a specific episode, say, "Aeolus", but tend to overlook phonological schemes. But it is a pity that there is no sufficient study of its musicality and poeticality. As we know, one common feature of these two aspects lies in its unusual rhythmic sound patterns and its aesthetic effects, which largely derive from phonological figures, such as assonance, alliteration, rhyme, meter, repetition, and so on. Phonological figures which are inadequately studied, I argue, provide a good angle of vision to understand the poetic texture of the novel. From a cognitive phonological perspective, this article aims at a brief survey of those phonological figures in *Ulysses* and illustrate how much phonological figures have contributed to the poetic texture of the novel.

II. PLETT'S MODEL OF PHONOLOGICAL FIGURES

In this section, I shall make a preliminary study of phonological figures by employing H. F. Plett's rhetorical model (1985).

Plett has made a thorough study of classic and modern rhetoric. According to the three dimensions of syntactics (relation: sign—sign), pragmatics (relation: sign—sender/recipient) and semantics (relation: sign—reality), Plett has offered a systematic and practical model of rhetorical figures. He divides rhetorical figures into two basic linguistic types: linguistic levels and linguistic operations or deviations. Linguistic levels refer to the six linguistic aspects: phonological, morphological, syntactic, textological, semantic and graphemic. "The linguistic operations consist of two types of rules, one violating the accepted linguistic norm and the other enforcing the primary norm. The former are also known as rhetorical licences, anomalies, metaboles or simply deviations (anti-grammatical forms), the latter as equivalences, restrictions or isotopes (syn-grammatical forms). The rule-violating operations or deviations are carried out by such specific methods as addition, subtraction, substitution and permutation of language signs; the rule-enforcing operations mainly deal with their repetitions." (Plett, 1985, p. 62) According to these two basic linguistic types, the corresponding figures are constructed at different linguistic levels. For convenience's sake, I am only interested in phonological figures of various subclassifications. Here is the stemma:

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As shown in the above diagram, phonological figures can be divided into two broad categories: segmental and suprasegmental. The former refers to phonological figures at phonemic level and the latter to those derived from such prosodic elements as pitch, range, stress, loudness, pause, speed, rhythm and quality. For the sake of space, I shall only discuss the first category of phonological figures.

The segmental category in turn can be divided into two kinds: metaphonemes and isophonemes. The former refer to those phonological figures deriving from rule-violating operations in metaphonemes and the latter stand for those resulting from the rule-enforcing operations in isophonemes as a result of phonological quality, distribution, extension, similarity, frequency, distance and so on. Plett's model is comprehensive and systematic, but as "all grammar leaks", so does Plett's model. His obvious blemish is that the model is excessively detailed and overlapping. One example will suffice. Look at the last two kinds of phonological figures he listed:

(16) Frequency: single or multiple repetition of phonemes, e.g. at the beginning of a word:

A *cruel crafty Crocodile* (Spencer)

(17) Distance: insertion of words between the representatives of phonological equivalence:

a) A^xB^x: A coryph *é*, covetous of applause (T. E. Hulme)

b) A^xBC^x: The Court and Country (Breton)

c) A^xBC^xDEFG^xHJ^xKL:

If to her share some *female errors fall*, Look on her *face*, and you'll forget them all. (Pope) (Plett, 1985, p. 69)

It seems that there is not much substantial difference among those figures, and what really counts is the number of the words put between the alliterated words. If that is what "distance" means, the list of such figures would be endless. What's worse, we have to name them! Obviously that is Plett's headache as he cannot name them. In fact, they are just alliterations with some variations. So this kind of classification is significant in theory, but not much in practice.

In the case of the phonological figures in *Ulysses*, not all of Plett's classifications are meaningful. According to my practical study, I shall discuss 7 figures at metaphonemic level and 4 at isophonemic level, and add 4 more unusual phonological figures to the list.

III. THREE CATEGORIES OF PHONOLOGICAL FIGURES IN *ULYSSES*

A. *Phonological Figures of Metaphonemes*

Phonological figures of metaphonemes are made by various kinds of rule-violating operations such as addition, subtraction, substitution and permutation at the front, middle and end of a word. But in my analysis, I find that subtraction has much in common with permutation, so I will make no further distinction between them. Generally, there are 7 kinds of such phonological figures.

(1) **Prosthesis**: addition of sound or syllable to the beginning of the word. Prosthesis is a special kind of phonological figure and it is rarely seen even in poems or songs. It is mainly used for rhythmic purpose. For example:

Do *ptake* some *ptarmigan*. (8: 223)¹

But wait *awhile*. (10: 305)

A sail! A veil *awave* upon the waves. (11: 329)

Lenehan, small eyes *ahunger* on her humming, bust *ahumming*, tugged Blazes Boylan's elbowsleeve. (11: 342)

(2) **Epenthesis**: intercalation of a vowel in a word. Such a figure is rarely found even in classic poetry and it is typical of Joyce's style.

Seabloom, grease**ea**bloom viewed last words. (11: 375)

—A—sudden—at—the—moment—though—from—lingering—illness—often—previously

—expectorated—demise, Lenehan said. (7: 181) ("expectorated" for "expected"; "expectorate" is also a euphemism for "to spit")

¹ This refers to chapter and page numbers, 8: 11 means Chapter 8, Page 11 in *Ulysses* (James Joyce, 1996), and all the other examples follow the same format.

(3) **Aphaeresis**: the omission of the one or more letters at the beginning or end of a word by the apostrophe ('). Such a figure is seen not only in poems or songs, but also in our daily writing for rhythmic or humorous effects. Look at the following examples:

—But alas, 'twas idle dreaming.... (11: 353)

Si sang 'Twas rank and fame: in Ned Lambert's 'twas. (11: 357)

'Tis the last rose of summer Dollard left Bloom felt wind would round inside. (11: 372)

His image, wandering, he met. I mine. I met a fool i' the forest. (9: 256)

(4) **Syncope**: loss of sounds in the interior of a word with or without the sign ('). The first example below is a typical syncope showing loss of sounds at the front, middle and end of words. Syncope is one obvious feature of everyday speech, and in *Ulysses* it frequently occurs in characters' monologues, suggesting the flow of thought and the oral feature of the text. Here are some examples:

...fanned by gentlest zephyrs *tho'* quarrelling with the stony obstacles...or '*neath* the shadows cast o'er its pensive bosom by the overarching leafage of the giants of the forests. (7: 157) (*tho'* for *though*, '*neath* for *beneath*, o'er for *over*) Are you off? *Yrfrmstbyes*. *Blmstup*. O'er ryehigh blue. Bloom stood up. (11: 370). (*Yrfrmstbyes* is really hard to decipher and possibly it is the narrator's cliché. The letters "oo" in "Bloom" and "ood" in "stood" are omitted.)

(5) **Apocope**: the loss of one or more sounds from the end of a word, as in Modern English *sing* from Middle English *singen*. (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Apocope>) Apocope is pervasive in *Ulysses* and it is largely used in a character's interior monologue to suggest urgency or inarticulacy. It is the most faithful representation of a character's speech. Sometimes, a humorous effect or intimacy is expected in certain contexts. Look at the following examples:

He doesn't hear it. *Nannan*. Iron nerves. (7: 152) (*Nannan* for *Nannetti*) *Indiges*. (8: 199) (*indiges* for *indigestion*)

Best value in *Dub*. (11:349)

Bloom dipped, *Bloo mur*: dear sir. Dear Henry wrote: dear Mady. Got you *lett* and *flow*.

Hell did I put? Some *pock* or *oth*. It is *utterl imposs*. Underline *imposs*. To write today. (11: 360) (The original words: *Bloom murmurs, letter and flower, pocket or other, utterly impossible, impossible*)

(6) **Antisthecon**: substitution of one sound, syllable, or letter at the beginning, in the middle or at the end of a word for another, frequently to accomplish a pun. Such a figure is rare even in classic poems and it fully reveals the playfulness of language. For examples:

quotatoes (8: 201) (instead of "potatoes")

the Anient Concert Rooms²(11: 114, instead of "ancient")

(7) **Anagram**: a word or phrase formed by reordering the letters of another word or phrase, which can bring about pleasure or humorous effect to people, e.g. "emit" to "mite", "lived" to "devil". Anagrams can be made in several ways. 1) One-word anagrams (where a single word is anagrammed into another single word) are sometimes referred to by wordplay specialists as transpositions. For example, "orchestra" is a transposition of "carthorse". 2) Some anagrams are created by perfectly reversing the order of the letters. Examples include "Naomi" → "I moan", "Evian" → "Naïve". 3) There are even anagrams which do not involve any rearranging of the sequence of letters at all: merely the insertion or deletion of spaces. (<http://anagramgenius.com/definition.html>) Here are two good examples: "Psychotherapist" → "Psycho, the rapist" and "The IRS" → "Theirs!" Anagrams are popular with ordinary people, particularly children. Let us see two examples in *Ulysses*. "—Hush, Lenehan said. I hear *feetstoops*". (7: 162) A humorous effect is easily achieved when Lenehan used "*feetstoops*" instead of "footsteps". By the way, "*feetstoops*" is also a euphemism. A typical example is found in Episode 17 when Bloom plays with his own name:

What anagrams had he made on his name in youth?

Leopold Bloom

Ellpodbomool

Molldopeloob

Bollopedoom

Old Ollebo, M. P. (17: 792)

B. Phonological Figures of Isophonemes

Phonological figures of isophonemes are made by rule-enforcing operations or repetition of certain phonemes including such devices as quality, distribution, extension, similarity, frequency and distance. Alliteration, assonance and consonance are derived from distribution of vowels or consonants, while rhyme, reversed rhyme, and pararhyme result from extension.

(8) **Alliteration**: known as "head rhyme" or "initial rhyme", the parallelism or repetition of the initial consonant cluster in stressed syllables in any sequence of neighboring words. The initial consonant letter may consist of zero or 1—3 consonants. Occasionally, alliteration occurs in the middle of the word and this is called internal or hidden alliteration. Internal alliteration is not so striking as at the beginning of the word. Alliteration often appears in poems, proverbs and idiomatic expressions and gives a musical property to the poem as "parallelism of sound is the aspect of poetic language which most obviously relates it to music". (Leech, 2001, p. 93) Surprisingly enough, alliteration is frequently found in *Ulysses*, which adds to the musical property of the novel. For example:

² At 42 Great Brunswick (now Pearse) Street, a hall that private groups rented for concerts, plays, and other public gatherings.

Dirty Dublin (7: 183)

Joyce borrowed this phrase from the Irish woman writer Lady Sydney Morgan (1780-1859). This phrase, succinctly structured, is impressive for two things. One is its striking alliterative sound [d]. This voiced plosive in all three words bears a stressed syllable and a rhythmic feature, and it is both easy to read and to remember, suggesting a decisive unwavering tone. The speeding-up effect is mainly caused by the alliterative stop consonant [d] and two short vowels in the last word. And then, there is its deep implication: Joyce's pet phrase fully reveals his strong ambivalent feelings for his distressed motherland. On the one hand, Joyce cherishes an unwavering love for his motherland; on the other, he bitterly hates her paralysis and provincialism. The "chiming" sound or phonetic bond [d] connects three words by similarity of sound so that "you are made to think of their possible connections" (Leech, 2001, p. 95), and in this case, the sharp contrast is made. Joyce's ingenious idiom here is similar to Jakobson's classic example "I like Ike". (Jakobson, 1996, p. 16) *Ulysses* teems with alliterations. More examples:

Memories beset his brooding brain. (1: 19)

Belly without blemish, bulging big, a buckler of taut vellum.... (3: 46)

Poor Penelope. Penelope Rich. (7: 188)

a rugged rough rugheaded kern³ (9: 265)

Beer, beef, business, bibles, bulldogs, battleships, buggery and bishops.⁴ (14: 556)

(9) **Assonance** or **vowel rhyme**: a partial or half-rhyme much used in poetic language as an aspect of sound patterning and cohesion. The same (stressed) vowel is repeated in words, but with a different final consonant (Wales, 2001: 33), e.g. "stroke" and "luck", "quite like". It is unlike rhyme, in which initial consonants differ but both vowel and end-consonant sounds are identical, as in the phrase "quite right." (<http://global.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/39488/assonance>) "Assonance not only contributes to musical quality of a literary text, but also to its meaning." (Wang Shouyuan, 2000, p. 101) Echoic effects can often be conveyed. Consider the following examples:

Hoarse, masked and armed, the planters' covenant. The black north and true blue bible. (2: 38)

But I old men, penitent, leadfooted, underdarkneath the night: *mouth south: tomb womb*. (7: 175)

Blew. Blue bloom is on the (11: 329)

A sail! A veil awave upon the waves. (11: 329)

(10) **Consonance**: from Lat. "to harmonize", consonance in literary criticism refers to a kind of half-rhyme or end-alliteration or consonantal assonance whereby final consonants are repeated, but with different preceding vowels (Wales, 2001: 79), e.g. great/meat, send/hand.

... and ever shall be, world without end. (3: 62)

All wheel, whirl, waltz, twirl. (15: 679)

(11) **Rhyme**: as a basic component of verse form, correspondence between rhythmic measures or that of terminal sounds of words or of lines of verse so as to echo one another. Normally the last stressed vowel in the line and all sounds following it make up the rhyming element: this may be a monosyllable known as "masculine rhyme", or two syllables known as "feminine rhyme", e.g. *butter/splutter*, or even three syllables known as "triple rhyme" or "polysyllabic rhyme", e.g. *civility/mobility*. Rhyme is used by poets and occasionally by prose writers to produce sounds appealing to the reader's senses and to unify and establish a poem's stanzaic form. Almost all the rhymes are expected to be found not only in quoted poems or songs but also in narrative sentences or internal monologues in *Ulysses*. Please look at the following examples:

I am the boy / That can enjoy (1: 10)

She rose and closed her reading, rose of Castille.⁵ Fretted fornlorn, dreamily rose. (11: 340)

Charming, seasmiling and unanswering Lydia on Lidwell smiled. (11: 363)

C. Some Unusual Phonological Figures

In addition to the above list of phonological figures, there are some exceptions to Plett's model. Possibly, any other rhetoric models will encounter the same difficulty. Here are 4 additional kinds:

(12) **Onomatopoeia**: use of words to imitate natural sounds. It can be understood in two ways: (1) the use of words formed in imitation of the natural sounds associated with the object or action involved; (2) the recurrence of phonemes in a text unit that suggests certain natural sounds which reinforce the meaning conveyed in that text. "Sirens" contains numerous collections of letters which are not words but typographical representations of sounds. The most memorable may be the "Rrrrrr", "Prrrrr", "Fff! Oo. Rrpr." and "Prrrrffrrppffrr" (11: 373—376) of Bloom's flatulence at the end of

³ Joyce's allusion to Shakespeare's *The Tragedy of King Richard II*. Richard II callously turns from the news of John of Gaunt's death: "Now for pure Irish wars: / We must supplant those rough rugheaded [shaggy-haired] kerns [Irish foot soldiers]" (II. i. 155-56).

⁴ Parodied from eight beautitudes in the Bible, they are believed to be eight traditional beautitudes or blessings by the British people. Here, Joyce made scathing remarks on the "brutish empire" for her outdated ideas.

⁵ A light opera (1857) by the Anglo-Irish composer Michael William Balfe (1808-1870). It tells of a beautiful love story. The queen of Leon, Elvira, is betrothed to Don Sebastian, the brother of the king of Castile. Elvira is under the impression (mistaken) that Sebastian has disguised himself as Manuel, a muleteer, so she disguises herself as a peasant girl in order to meet him as one belonging to his class. A group of inert conspirators, led by one Don Florio, plot to seize the throne of Castile, and to further their plot they disguise Elvira, the queen-turned-peasant-girl, as queen. (Faced with this transformation, Manuel sings "'Twas rank and fame that tempted thee"). The conspiratorial farce collapses, and Elvira and Manuel are reunited as peasant girl and muleteer—except that he turns out to be the king of Castile in disguise.

the episode. There are numerous other examples: “Tschink. Tschunk” of clinking glasses (11: 330); “Pwee! Pwee little wee” of a shepherd’s pipe (11: 372); the sound of the tram that masks Bloom’s gas: “Tram kran kran kran. . . Krandlekrankran.” (11: 330); the previously discussed “Imperthnthn thnthnthn”; “Hufa! Hufa!” (11: 328). Attridge (1988) calls these fragments “non-lexical onomatopoeia” and argues that onomatopoeia presents itself and is frequently perceived as having an unusually strong intrinsic physical relationship to its object, i.e. of being a non-arbitrary or “motivated” sign—while in fact even non-lexical onomatopoeia depends upon familiarity with a system of signs as much as any word. (p. 136). Consider the following examples:

They bundled their books away, pencils *clanking*, pages *rustling*. (2: 31)

Sllt. Almost human the way it *sllt* to call attention (7: 154, 6)

*Rrrpr: Kraa. Kraandl.*⁶(11: 330)

With a cock *carracarracarra* cock. *Cockcock*. (11: 364)

(13) **Diaeresis**: the separation or resolution of one syllable into two by a mark placed over the second of two adjacent vowels or an intentional extension of a letter, such as co[o]perate, a[e]rial. Diaeresis is usually used for emphasis, fun or rhythm, but sometimes for emotional purposes such as annoyance, disgust or anger. Examine the following examples:

My familiar, after me, calling *Steeeeeeeeee*phen. (1: 24)

Co-ome thou lost one, / *Co-ome* thou dear one.⁷(7: 149)

ADONAI: *Dooooooooooooog!* (15: 696)

waaaaaaalk (11: 370)

(14) **Spoonerism**: an accidental transposition of sounds, usually the initial sounds, of two or more words as in “a blushing crow” for “a crushing blow”. It is a kind of word game like anagram. For examples:

Quickly he does it. Must require some practice that. *mangiD kcirtaP* (7: 155)

—*Clamn dever*, Lenehan said to Mr O’Madden Burke. (7: 174)

Substituting Stephen for Bloom *Stoom* would have passed.... Substituting Bloom for Stephen *Blephen* would have passed.... (16: 798)

(15) **Mimology or contamination**: contamination or influence of some previous sounds or words on later sounds or words. By playing with sounds or words, some humorous effect can be achieved. For examples:

Essex bridge. *Yes...yessex*. (11: 336)

Her first merciful *lovesoft ofloved* word (11: 353)

Like lady, ladylike. (11: 340)

Some phonological figures, such as alliteration and onomatopoeia and anagram, are pervasive in *Ulysses* while others like metathesis, antisthecon and spoonerism, are few. But it is sufficient enough to illustrate the complexity and intricacy of the phonological figures in *Ulysses*. It is no doubt that I have lost a great deal by almost isolating phonological figures from their contexts. Space permitting, a detailed stylistic analysis would be more significant. To make up for the loss, I shall discuss some typical phonological figures and illustrate their contribution to the tendency towards poeticity in the next section.

IV. THE POETICAL TEXTURE IN *ULYSSES*

Meighan (1999) holds that phonological figures such as assonance, alliteration, rhyme and repetition, contribute a lot to the poeticity of the text as he points out: “Poeticity generally involves phonological patterning—repetition and variation of some kind of sound-based correspondence. Assonance, alliteration, rhyme, meter and repetition are all examples. Words form relationships and patterns based on their phonology, independent of any syntactic and semantic relationships—and in turn modify those relationships (i.e., phonological connections create semantic ones).” His view is conducive to our understanding of the phonological effects brought about by phonological figures, and of the poeticity of the novel. Let us examine the following examples.

Between 11 a.m. and noon, Stephen is walking on the beach at Sandymount, his mind going wild. His meditation is like that of a philosopher and his idiolect is that of a poet.

Stephen closed his eyes to hear his boots *crush crackling wrack* and shells. You are walking through it howsoever. I am, a stride at a *time*. A very short space of *time* through a very short *time* of space, Five Six: the *nacheinander*⁸. Exactly: and that is the ineluctable modality of the audible.⁹(3: 45)

This passage is of a “poetical” style. The schematic patterning is extensive on the phonological as well as the syntactical level in quite a few phonological figures such as alliteration, assonance, onomatopoeia and rhyme. These figures are alliteration: “closed”, “*crush crackling wrack*”; onomatopoeia: “*crush crackling wrack*”; assonances: “*crackling*” and “*wrack*”, “*stride*” and “*time*”. Abstract expressions like “*nacheinander*” and “the ineluctable modality of

⁶ The sound of Bloom’s farting is masked by the sound of a passing train.

⁷ From Lionel’s lament (Act IV), as freely translated into a popular nineteenth-century song: “Forever lost, I love you! / Sweet as a dream...”

⁸ This is translated as “one after another or [one after] the other.”

⁹ Aristotle does argue in *De Sensu Sensibili* (*Of Sense and the Sensible*) that the substance of a thing perceived by the eye is not present in the form or color of the perceptual image (in contradistinction to sound and taste, which involve a ‘becoming’, or an intermixture of substance and form, in the perceptual image). In effect, Aristotle says that the ear participates in (and thus can modify) the substance of what it hears, but the eye does not. (Gifford and Seidman, 1988: 44) This philosophical idea of Stephen’s sticks to his mind all the day.

the audible” adds to the poetic flavor of the passage. More to the point, the passage has a rhythmic regularity: “a catalectic tetrameter of iambs” (3: 46), which enables it to be written out and scanned as poetry in a quasi-blank-verse meter:

Stephen closed his eyes to hear
His boots *crush crackling wrack* and shells.
You are walking through it howsomever.
I am, a stride at a *time*.
A very short space of *time*
Through a very short *time* of space,
Five Six: the *nacheinander*.
Exactly: and that is the ineluctable
Modality of the audible

In so doing, Stephen’s disposition of a would-be poet is fully displayed and sound play echoes the emotive rhetoric which reflects the sensitive perceptions and sensations of the young artist Stephen. Another example from this episode:

His lips lipped and mouthed fleshless lips of air: mouth to her *womb*. *Oomb*, allwombing *tomb*. His mouth moulded issuing breath, unspeached: *ooeeehah*: roar of cataractic planets, globed, blazing, roaring *wayawayawayawayawayaway*. (3: 60)

This passage records well Stephen’s mental activity. Let us begin with Joyce’s unique narrative technique: shifting point of view from the third-person narration to Stephen’s focalization. Seemingly, this passage is narrated by the third-person perspective, but a closer examination will show that the narration is done by both the third-person and Stephen. The beginning parts of both the first and third sentences before the colon are narrated by the third-person and the rest of the passage is Stephen’s focalization. The unconscious shifting of perspective among characters is typical of Joyce’s feat and it calls for further study. Next, let us examine the phonological figures. They are alliteration: *mouth* (3 times) and *moulded*; rhyme: *tomb* and *womb* (including *Oomb*, allwombing); repetition: *mouth* (3 times), *lip* (3 times) and onomatopoeia: *ooeeeha* and *wayawayawayawayawayawa* (also imitation of objects, wave-like hair). Next, there is a superfluous use of English consonants: liquid [l] (9 times), bilabial nasal [m] (8 times), sibilant [s], and semi-vowel [w] (8 times). The bilabial [m] and semi-vowel [w], when being produced, have much to do with lip and mouth. “The connection is made not via the ear alone, but through the little understood pathways of empathy and synaesthesia.” (Leech, 2001, p. 97) Incidentally, Andre Topia(1986) has a convincing discussion of the emblematical functions of “lips” in “Siren” and he concludes: “Indeed, it is significant that in a chapter which is under the sign of the voice, the lips should be so omnipresent. They have a double value: they are the place of both sound and utterance and erotic flirtatiousness. They are at the same time the privileged place of romantic, ethereal, idealized figures such as they appear in love songs or heroic ballads—and a part of body associated with erotic caresses, drinking, eating, sensuality in general... They are a basically ambivalent orifice, disembodied *spiritus* and carnal lure.” (p. 76-81) So I argue that such words as “lips”, “mouth”, and “womb” used in the above passage, also play “a double value” as “lips” do in “Sirens”. These three words have a phonological aptness to its implied meaning: love or sex. Maybe that is why some scholars such as D. Hayman (1977) and S. Hill (1995), think that Stephen has a masturbation here.

Listen: a fourworded wavespeech: *seesoo*, *hrss*, *rsseeiss*, *oos*. In cups of rocks it *slops*: *flop*, *slop*, *sap*: bounded in barrels. And, spent, its speech ceases. It flows purling, widely flowing, floating *foampool*, flower unfurling. (3: 62)

Stephen’s interior monologue consists of 4 sentences and the rolling waves are turned into rhythmic lines in Stephen’s monologue. Four obvious features are revealed in this short passage. (1) A clever use of onomatopoeic words, such as *seesoo*, *hrss*, *rsseeiss*, *oos* and *slops*: *flop*, *slop*, *sap*, appeals much to the ear, suggesting the rolling sounds of the sea. (2) There is an abundant use of phonological figures such as alliteration: *slop* and *slap*, bounded and barrels, *spent* and *speechflow*, *floating* and *flower*; rhyme: *purling* and *unfurling*; assonance: *speech* and *ceases*, *rocks* and *slops*, *flowing* and *flows*, *floating*, *foampool*. Such phonological figures add much to the rhythmic or poetical feature of the passage. (3) “Soft” sounds such as [s] and [f] help to build a vivid image of the running water. The fricatives [s] and [f] are used 20 and 8 times respectively. Abercrombie(1965) tended to attribute some onomatopoeic effects to English consonants on such dimensions as “hardness”/“softness”, “thinness”/“sonority” (p. 16-25), and Leech(2001) listed classes of English consonants impressionistically on a scale of increasing hardness (p. 98). Such sounds as [l], [s] and [m] are typical of Leech’s “soft” sounds, which are effective here in depicting the running water by providing a phonetic correlate of their continuing, fluctuating motion: something we can feel and see as well as hear. (4) The last sentence is a good dynamic imitation of the water flowing far away: as the sentence becomes longer and longer, the force of the running water becomes weaker and weaker. Then what’s Stephen thinking about? At first glance, it seems he is describing the waves of the sea as the word “wavespeech” is very tricky. Imagine all those onomatopoeic words and “soft” sounds I have examined. In fact, he is describing his act of urinating at the holes of rocks! The water “flows purling, widely flowing, floating *foampool*, flower unfurling” all the way from the higher place until it dies away. Please enjoy the Chinese version. By the way, it is very subjective and impressionistic for D. Hayman (1977) and S. Hill(1995) this time to think that Stephen has a masturbation here.

A sail! A veil awave upon the waves (11: 323)

This line is highly poetical with a few phonological figures and a remarkable rhythmic patterning. These

phonological figures are: assonance of long vowel [ei] in “sail, veil, awave, waves”; triple repetition in “A sail! A veil, awave”. What’s striking in this short line is its regular iambic pattern: /x /x /x /x /x /. Such a pattern, appealing to both sight and hearing, is particularly appropriate to give a vivid picture of a small sail rising and falling rhythmically in the sea according to the regular vibrations of the waves. Possibly, Joyce intends to imply the significance of a peaceful relationship between man and nature. What’s more, this poetical line also predicts a storm of a musical performance at the bar in this episode. For Joyce, rhythm is fundamental not only to poems but also to all artistic works as he explains: “Rhythm is the first formal aesthetic relation of part to part in any aesthetic whole or of an aesthetic whole to its part or parts or of any part to the aesthetic whole of which it is a part.” (*A Portrait*, 1996, p. 187)

Miss Kennedy sauntered sadly from bright light, twining a loose hair behind an ear. Sauntering sadly, gold no more, she twisted twined a hair. Sadly she twined in sauntering gold hair behind a curving ear. (11: 331)

This is one of the most interesting sentences in the novel both in sounds and syntax. It seems that this limited linguistic material could be rearranged indefinitely. The linear progress of the sentence is arrested by phonic structures based on repetitions, sound echoes, symmetries and permutations, which fully reveal the playfulness of language. Four words (sauntered”, “sadly”, “twining” and “hair”) appear in all three sentences and seem to be likely to be recombined again and again. Now let us focus our attention to the first sentence—the basic one. Phonologically, the first sentence employs such figures as alliteration: “sauntered” and “sadly” (repeated twice); rhyme: “bright” and “light”; consonance: “sauntered, gold, twisted, twined and behind”; assonance: “light” “twining/twined”, “bright” and “behind”; off-rhyme: “hair” and “ear”. So the poetic effect is accentuated by these phonological figures. Syntactically, the initial sentence is varied and repeated twice, providing further poeticity and playfulness of the three lines. The repetitions serve no narrative function nor provide any new information; the text succumbs to the Siren’s call of sound and dallies with language for its own sake. Citing this passage as an example, Dermot Kelly (1988) argues: “in ‘Sirens’ and ‘Scylla and Charybdis’, the narrative seems to have been read in an echo chamber. The book’s tendency to quote itself becomes a mania ... materials from the omniscient narration, the dialogue and the interior monologue are reiterated either in corrupt forms or in bizarre new contexts.” (p. 15)

V. SUMMARY

From a cognitive phonological perspective, this article aims at a brief survey of those phonological figures in *Ulysses* and illustrates how much phonological figures have contributed to the poetic texture of the novel. Taking as the point of departure the phonological figures in *Ulysses*, by means of a revised model of phonological figures by Plett, this article explores some 15 phonological figures concerning phonemic deviations and phonemic enforcement, and their stylistic effects. These figures have contributed much to the musicality and playfulness, and also to the textual cohesion and coherence of the novel, and in some contexts they may produce synaesthesia in the reader’s mind and carry an obvious interpersonal function. Moreover, they have played an important part in the linguistic poeticity of the novel. My study shows that phonological figures such as alliteration, assonance, consonance and other sound echoes, are the effective devices responsible for the poeticity of the novel which characterizes not only the internal monologues but also the narrative sentences. Reading *Ulysses*, especially aloud, is to take a tour through many possible uses of sounds and songs. On the way, you are sure to be totally enchanted by the melody of a song, by the cadence of a poem and the gracefulness of a piece of prose. But it is important to know that music for Joyce carries special implications: music is not only a natural revelation of one’s true feelings, but also an effective way to enrich the novel genre. By these expressive sounds and songs, Joyce tries to make the best of language’s sounds, to imbue a sense of rhythm, place, object and motion in the reader or more accurately the listener, giving words many more values than those ascribed to them in dictionaries; through them, Joyce is seeking to extend the limits of language, so as to achieve the special effects of musicality, playfulness and expressiveness of language. “Language moves to the foreground and narrative, never fully abandoned, to the background. On one level this is done through lyricism: Joyce as well as anyone employs the poeticity and euphony of language to create aesthetic pleasure through sound.” (Meaghan, 1999)

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Xianyou Wu is currently a professor of English at School of Foreign Languages and Literatures, Chongqing Normal University, China, and also Head of the School. He earned his Ph. D in English Language and Literature from Henan University in 2005, China. As a visiting scholar, he made his research at Sheffield University, UK, from Sept, 2009 to August, 2010. His research interests cover literary stylistics, cognitive poetics and Joyce studies. He published his monograph *Foregrounded Linguistic Features in Ulysses: A Stylistic Way of Reading* (Peking, China Central Documents Press, 2006), and one of his articles "The Poetics of Foregrounding: The Lexical Inventiveness in *Ulysses*" was published at *Theory and Practice in Language Studies* (2011, Finland), and some other 50 articles published in Chinese academic journals.

The Relationship between Iranian EFL Teachers' Behavior and Academic Achievement of High School Students

Ahmad Nouri

Department of English Language, Sistan and Baluchestan Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Zahedan, Iran

Abstract—Johnston & Pennypacker (1993) stated “Behavior” is defined as the action or activities of an organism that is anything that an organism does, including physical action, internal physiological and emotional processes and implicit mental activity. Teaching can in fact, be defined as conscious behavior that makes learning more probable and more efficient than it would have been without that behavior (as cited in Shafgat, 2009). The major purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between EFL teachers' behaviors and the academic achievement of the high school students in Iran. Sixty two High school English teachers from Sistan and Baluchistan were selected via the purposive sampling procedure. One questionnaire, for EFL high school teachers was developed for the collection of data. The data of the study were collected and analyzed through appropriate statistical techniques such as descriptive statistics and inferential statistics (Pearson correlation and linear regression analysis). The results of the study showed that there is significant relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' behavior and academic achievement of high school students. The results also showed that cognitive and psychomotor behavior of EFL teachers could predict academic achievement of students. Therefore, it could be argued that all dimensions of teachers' behavior could not predict academic achievement of high school students.

Index Terms—EFL teachers, behavior, academic achievement, cognitive behavior, affective behavior, psychomotor behavior

I. INTRODUCTION

Behavior is a description of observable outcome of teachers and performance of students in different activities of institutions (Joyce, 1980). Behavior may be negative or positive and ineffective or effective. Effective behavior produces the requisite results. Behavior is an action that is different at different time. There are three types of behavior feeling, thinking and doing (Joyce, 1980). Mostly behavior is also known as affective, cognitive and psychomotor. Affective behavior values the learners' attitudes and feelings. Cognitive behavior involves the learner in, remembering, thinking process, evaluating and problem solving. Psychomotor behaviors are those involving the learner, in some kind of muscular activity (Bloom, 1956).

The way that the teachers allocate time to spend on academic content affects student achievement. Good classroom management is a skill which can lead to high students' achievement. It involves plan effectively, establish rules that are reasonable and not excessive in number, and arrange the classroom so that instruction goes easily. Skills those are necessary for maintain a well-managed classroom contain group alerting, overlapping, using the principle of least intervention, wittiness, and creating smooth transitions (Sadkar, 2000).

Hayon (1989) a good teacher is expected to be committed to his work, would have the ability to take the initiative. Teacher's personality in the attitudinal sense is a significant factor in teacher's behavior and it has great impact on student's achievement. The teachers as a professional must know the art of communication, understanding others and ability to learn from the experiences. They should be able to facilitate learning effectively. Education recognized to be prime key of moral, cultural, political and socio-economic development of a nation. The nations, which have been taken major initiatives, made revolutionary advances and performed miracles in the last two decades. No doubt, this great achievement is based on their effective educational system (Ahmad, 2001). Saeed (2001) stated, educational system of any country can provide the guarantee of success and prosperity for their nations. The achievement of a comprehensive and effective educational system is necessary for the survival of nation (as cited in Shafgat, 2009).

Learning is a central focus of educational psychology. In the words of Santrock (2006), learning is a relatively permanent influence on behavior, knowledge and thinking skills, which comes about through experiences (as cited in Chadory & Arif, 2012).

Academic achievement has been variously defined: as level of proficiency attained in academic work or as formally acquired knowledge in school subjects which is often represented by percentage of marks obtained by students in examinations (Kohli, 1975). Researchers have shown that besides being the criteria of promotion into the next class, academic achievement is an index of all future success in life. Superior achievers in the academic world generally tend

to maintain their level, of achievement in the occupational field also. Moreover, Reis et al. (1984) reported that academic achievement also has a significant effect on self-evaluation of learners. To reach the goal of excellence in the academic sphere, and to optimize academic achievement to a maximum, a review of correlates of academic achievement and its implications for educationists and policy makers would be meaningful (as cited in Shafgat, 2009).

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The study was designed to identify, appraise and analyze the relationship between EFL teachers' behavior and the academic achievement of high school students. The teachers' behavior was seen in the light of his role as an effective teacher.

Iqbal (1996) stated that teaching is an arrangement and manipulation of situation in which there are gaps or obstructions and individual tries to overcome the problem from where he learns. Teaching is an intimate contact between a more mature personality and a less mature one. The more mature one is a teacher and less mature is a student and it is designed to further the education of the latter. He further stated that the teaching might be characterized as an activity aimed at the achievement of bearing and practiced in such names as to respect the student's intellectual integrity and capacity for independent judgment. He described the roles and behaviors of a teacher who is mainly responsible for instruction. The teacher is engaged more and more today in the implementation of new educational procedures taking advantage of all the resources of modern educational devices and methods. He is an educator and a counselor who tries to develop his pupils' abilities and interests (as cited in shafgat, 2009).

A. Behavior

Behavior is a response, which an individual shows to his environment at different times (Taneja, 1989). Various authors have defined it in different words:

UNESCO (1986) documented that the meaning of behavior is conduct or carry oneself or behavior is what we do, especially in response to outside stimuli and anything that an organism does that involves action and response to stimulation.

Joyce (1980) also defined that behavior is lawful and subject to variables in the environment. He further defined that behavior is an observable, identifiable phenomenon.

Watson (1919) defined behavior as follows: "We should mean by response the total striped and unstriped muscular and glandular changes which follow upon a given stimulus" (p. 14).

Das (1993) has suggested seven categories of behavior, response behavior, Association behavior, Multiple-discrimination, Behavior chains, Class concepts behavior, Principles, and Strategies.

He further highlighted the school characteristics that positively affect the students, behavior and their academic achievements. Both good standards set by the institution and good behavior models provided by the teachers had positive effects (as cited in shafgat, 2009).

B. Academic Achievement

Academic achievement has been variously defined: as level of proficiency attained in academic work or as formally acquired knowledge in school subjects which is often represented by percentage of marks obtained by students in examinations (Kohli, 1975). Researchers have shown that besides being the criteria of promotion into the next class, academic achievement is an index of all future success in life. Superior achievers in the academic world generally tend to maintain their level, of achievement in the occupational field also. Moreover, Reis et al. (1984) reported that academic achievement also has a significant effect on self-evaluation of learners. To reach the goal of excellence in the academic sphere, and to optimize academic achievement to a maximum, a review of correlates of academic achievement and its implications for educationists and policy makers would be meaningful (as cited in Shafgat, 2009).

A formal beginning to explore the determinants of academic achievement as made with Binet's attempts to predict children's academic achievement from their intelligence scores. There is an overwhelming evidence establishing intelligence as the most significant predictor of academic achievement (Karnes et al., 1984). Thorndike (1963) pointed out, an exact correspondence between intelligence and achievement (as cited in Shafgat, 2009).

Some studies have been done to relate cognitive style with academic achievement. Field independent subjects were found to be higher on achievement, than field dependent subjects (Holper and Helen, 1986).

Generalized expectancies developed by students also play a crucial role in their achievement. Internality (belief in Internal Control) is positively related with academic achievement (Tesiny et al., 1980).

The teacher's personality and style of interaction with the students has been reported to be a very crucial variable in student's achievement. Pupils like no authoritarian teacher's better, feel free in expressing their difficulties with them, and achieve higher results in their classes. Hsu (1983) found similar results. Teachers who are successful in creating a climate of warmth and support can extract greater pupil achievement. Adjustment in school, at home and with peers generates greater classroom trust (as cited in Shafgat, 2009).

Murray and Staebler (1974) reported that teachers score on Locus of control was directly related with students achievements. Stake and Norman (1985) reported that teacher attraction was positively associated with academic growth, confidence and motivation. But this was true only for students with same sex teacher models. Marshall and

Weinstein (1986) reported that teacher's communication patterns, and his differential treatment to students as perceived by students was very important determiners of student's achievement (as cited in Shafgat, 2009).

Good (1991) reported review of personality characteristics with academic success reveals that, there is not simple straightforward relationship between personality and achievement as there are other relevant intervening variables like teaching strategies, age, sex and arousal level of the learner etc. When teachers, and researchers wanted to discover the reasons for the superior achievement of introverts, a few facts emerged which can be useful in enhancing the academic achievement of extroverts also. It was felt that the low achievement of extroverts could be due to their low arousal, which makes it difficult for them to maintain concentration for long periods required for successful academic study. Campbell and Hawley (1982) carried out a study among students in the university library, with extroverts taking more breaks than introverts, and more concerned about selecting a study location that offered greater socializing opportunities. This need of the extroverts for social stimulation may clash with the need to spend time on studies and thus may be to disrupt their academic pursuits after adolescence. This may be a reason why introversion is associated positively with achievement after 13 years or so only (as cited in Shafgat, 2009).

Teaching strategy has also been found to be very important in determining the achievement of extroverts. It was found that extroverts benefit more from informal, unstructured teaching methods, while introverts learn better in a structured learning environment with traditional teaching approach. When extroverts were taught by the method they preferred, they were higher in achievement than introverts, again which was evident even a month later (Leith, 1974 and Shadbolt, 1978). Until recently our educational system has been highly structured and formal therefore the reported academic superiority of introverts may be due to the fact that our educational system is geared to the needs of introverts rather than extroverts, who require a different teaching strategy, one which stresses individuality, personal interaction, flexibility and spontaneity in teaching. Teachers may be keen on knowing about certain intervention strategies which can improve the achievement of students. In this context, findings of several researches are very relevant (as cited in Shafgat, 2009).

This study aimed at investigating the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' behavior and academic achievement of high school students. For this reason, we try to answer following research question.

1. Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' behavior and academic achievement of high school students?
2. Which dimension of EFL teachers' behavior can more successfully predict academic achievement of high school students?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of the study included 62 male and female EFL teachers and their students at high school in Sistan and Baluchistan province working as full time teachers in Ministry of Education who graduated from teacher training centers. They were selected through purposive sampling. A criterion for including participants was three years of experiences of teaching at high school and having Bachelor of Arts (BA) in teaching English as a foreign language.

B. Instrumentation

As the study was descriptive in nature, one reliable and valid questionnaire was used in the study. The instrument consists of two sections: the first deals with teacher's demographic information. The second section consists of 49 items rated on a five-point-Likert-Scale "strongly agree (1)" to "strongly disagree (5)" (SA = strongly agree, A = Agree, UD = Undecided, DA = Disagree, and SDA = strongly disagree) and three open-ended questions, on the basis of literature. Items of the questionnaire consists of different categories of behavior: A. Cognitive behavior (questions related to process of thinking), B. Affective behavior (questions related to feeling and attitude), and C. Psychomotor behavior (question related to doing activity). This instrument was developed to investigate teachers' behavior in institutes and the relationship between academic achievements of students. The questionnaire was developed and used by Shafgat et al (2009). The reliability of this instrument was estimated through Cronbach alpha. The alpha was .92 which was an acceptable value.

For academic achievement of students their mean scores during three years were calculated.

C. Procedure

As to the procedure applied in this study, 62 Iranian EFL teachers of high school in Sistan and Baluchistan were selected through purposive sampling. Then teachers' behavior questionnaire developed by Shafgat et al (2009) was used. The questionnaire consists of 49 items measured on five-point-Likert-Scale. The teachers were required to rate items of the questionnaire from the following options:

SA= strongly agree (1), A= agree (2), UN= undecided (3), DA= disagree (4), and SDA= strongly disagree (5).

For academic achievement of students their scores during three years were calculated. For each year's scores of one class in grade three of high school was randomly chosen and averages of scores in three years were calculated. The mean for three scores of students across three years were calculated for each teacher. The average of students' scores for each teacher ranges from "not bad (4)" to "excellent (1)" (4= Not bad, 3= Good, 2= Very good, and 1=

Excellent). The students' with scores of 10 to 12.50 were labeled not bad(4), the students' with scores of 12.50 to 15 were labeled good(3), the students' with scores of 15 to 17.50 were labeled very good(2), and the students with scores above 17.50 are labeled excellent(1).

At the end, data was analyzed with statistical procedure of Pearson Product correlation and linear regression to answer research questions.

IV. RESULTS

A. Results for the First Question

For this research question 62 EFL teachers included and answered to items of questionnaire. Responses for forty nine items of the questionnaire were analyzed to answer to this question. Descriptive statistics of items for teachers' behavior questionnaire and students' scores were respectively computed.

For this research question, the best statistical procedure to analyzing data was Pearson Product.

TABLE 1:
PEARSON PRODUCT CORRELATION FOR EFL TEACHERS' BEHAVIOR AND MEAN SCORES

CORRELATIONS

		All items	Students' scores
All items	Pearson Correlation	1	-.401**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001
	N	62	62
Students' scores	Pearson Correlation	-.401**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	
	N	62	62

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

The results in the above table show that Pearson Product correlation for all items of EFL teachers' behavior questionnaire and students' scores were -.401 according to this we concluded Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis which indicated that there is no significant relationship between EFL teachers' behaviors and academic achievement of high school students was rejected. Moreover, the results indicate that p value of Pearson Product correlation is .001, which is less than .01. Therefore, there is a significant relationship between behavior of EFL teachers and their academic achievement of high school students.

B. Result for Research Question Two

The second research question dealt with academic achievement of high school students due to different dimension of EFL teachers' behavior. In doing so, 62 EFL teachers answered to items and the data gathered through the research made scale were submitted to different statistical analyses. Linear regression to determine the relationship between sub-skills behavior of EFL teachers and academic achievement of high school students used and presented in the following sections. Then, all the data are discussed respectively.

TABLE 2:
ANOVA OUTPUT OF REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8.368	3	2.789	6.713	.001 ^b
	Residual	24.099	58	.416		
	Total	32.468	61			

a. Dependent Variable: Students mean scores

b. Predictors: (Constant), Psychomotor behaviour , Affective behaviour , Cognitive behaviour

As it can be seen from the above table, the regression model is significant at $p = 0.05$ ($F = 6.71$, $df = 3$, $p = 0.001 < 0.05$). That is, at least one of the predictors (constant variables) significantly predicts the learners' scores on the dependent variable (students mean scores).

TABLE 3:
REGRESSION MODEL SUMMARY

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.508 ^a	.258	.219	.64460

a. Predictors: (Constant), Psychomotor behaviour , Affective behaviour , Cognitive behaviour

The results in the above table show that the adjusted R square is .219. That is, 21 percent of the variance of students' achievement is predicted by the dimensions of EFL teachers' behavior.

TABLE 4:
BETA, T AND SIG (P) VALUES FOR EACH OF THE MODELS

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1					
(Constant)	2.357	.573		4.114	.000
Affective behaviour	.008	.028	.069	.291	.772
Cognitive behaviour	-.080	.030	-.872	-2.709	.009
Psychomotor behaviour	.053	.025	.437	2.081	.042

a. Dependent Variable: Students mean scores

The results in the above table show, Using the enter method, a significant model emerged ($F, 61=6.71, p < 0.05$. Adjusted R square = .219). Significant variables are shown below:

Predictor variable	Beta	p value
Cognitive behaviour	-.872	$0.009 < 0.05$
Psychomotor behaviour	.437	$0.042 < 0.05$

As it can be seen from the above table, cognitive behavior contributed to the model (Beta= -0.872, $p= 0.009 < 0.05$) and psychomotor behavior contributed to the model (Beta= -0.437, $p= 0.042 < 0.05$) but the affective behavior of EFL teachers do not contribute. The Beta value shows that that each added point on the cognitive behavior and psychomotor behavior increase the students' scores by -.872 and .437.

V. DISCUSSION

The main objective of the present study was to find out the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' behavior and academic achievement of their high school students. The results of the study in table 1 show that behavior of EFL teachers has significant relationship with academic achievement of high school students. The study results showed that for improving the relationship between teachers' behavior and the academic achievement of high school students, no discrimination in students should be maintained. This idea supported Murray and Staebler (1974) who reported that teacher's behavior was directly related with student's achievement. This idea also supported Stake and Norman (1985) they viewed that teacher's behavior was positively associated with academic achievement. This idea supported Lecky (1945) he reported that low academic achievement might be related to a student's self – perception of being unable to learn academic material. The idea was suggested that academic achievement may not be simply an expression of students' intelligence, but of students' perception of their intelligence, which when positive helps them feel confident and able, but when negative makes them feel hesitant and uncertain (as cited in Shafgat, 2009).

The results of the present study (linear regression analysis for affective behavior of EFL teachers and their students mean scores) also indicated that affective behavior of EFL teachers could not predict academic achievement of high school students. Therefore, it could be strongly argued that affective behavior of EFL teachers is not influential factor on students' achievement. These qualities of teachers' behavior increased the performance of students. When anyone becomes a teacher, society will accord him respect because it values the worth of what he does. He will be considered a professional, someone with specialized training and skills that can be used to benefit others. This ideas supported Evans (1965) he stated that pupils appreciate others qualities more, and they like teachers to be patient, friendly and fair with a sense of humor and willing to answer questions. These are qualities, which affect the atmosphere of the life in the classroom and make it comfortable place in which to work (as cited in Shafgat, 2009).

The results of linear regression analysis for cognitive behavior of Iranian EFL teachers and academic achievement of their high school students showed that regression analysis model for cognitive behavior of EFL teachers and students' achievement was significant.

Majority of the teachers held that they treated their students without discrimination; they guided and appreciated students to adopt good manners and habits. They gave feed back to the students with constructive criticism and guided students how to use spare time. They focused their attention on character building of students. The study results showed that teachers performed their duties regularly. They established link between previous learning with present learning and check assignments in time, encourage the students in co-curricular activities and increased participation after getting proper time to answer the required questions This idea supported Smith and Smith (1994) that teachers can shape the views of the people more directly than they can of the public in general (as cited in Shafgat, 2009).

The other finding (linear regression analysis for psychomotor behavior of EFL teachers and their students mean scores) was that psychomotor behavior of EFL teachers could successfully predict academic achievement of high school students. Therefore, it could be argued that those behaviors involving the learner, in some kind of muscular activity can successfully predict academic achievement of high school students. This idea supported Shafqt (2009) that teachers expressed that priority wise, punctuality, honesty and hard work are important qualities of teachers while students viewed that friendship, confidence and competency are important qualities in the behavior of good teachers. Students suggested in their preference that teachers should come in the class well prepared.

VI. CONCLUSION

The study was designed to identify, appraise and analyze the relationship between EFL teachers' behavior and the academic achievement of high school students. The major purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between EFL teachers' behaviors and the academic achievement of the high school students in Iran. The main objectives of the study were (i) to investigate the behavior of the Iranian EFL high school teachers in Iran (ii) to examine the academic achievement of the high school students as a result of teachers' behavior (iii) to highlight the causes which affect academic achievement of the students (iv) to recommend strategies for the improvement of teachers' behavior. Sixty two High school English teachers from Sistan and Baluchistan were selected via the purposive sampling procedure. One questionnaire, for EFL high school teachers was developed for the collection of data.

The data of the study were collected and analyzed through appropriate statistical techniques such as descriptive statistics and inferential statistics (Pearson correlation and linear regression analysis). The results of the study showed that there is significant relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' behavior and academic achievement of high school students. The results also showed that cognitive and psychomotor behavior of EFL teachers could predict academic achievement of students. Therefore, it could be argued that all dimensions of teachers' behavior could not predict academic achievement of high school students.

VII. IMPLICATIONS

The results of the present research, coupled with the results of some other previous studied, may either directly enable us to draw some potential implications. Here, we present the main theoretical and pedagogical implications and we hope the further studies will provide more insights in this regard.

The theoretical implication is that behaviours of teachers influence student's achievements and it can certainly lead to innovation in teaching methodology, syllabus, and types of learning activities, as well teaching materials.

Although there are restrictions to what teachers can do to use assessment effectively to help their students' learning, they are the only ones whose teaching activities directly influence students (Harlen & Crick, 2003 as cited in Pan, 2009). Chapman and Snyder (2000) stated that "it is not the examination itself that influences teachers' behaviour, but teachers' beliefs about those changes" (p. 462). Bailey (2005) also argues that teachers may have limited power to influence international examinations and high stakes national, but they do have great power to guide the students to learn, to teach them the academic language which they need to do the tasks in target language use situations and how to work with test results and tests.

Therefore, those who make the tests should try to use the tests to increase students' learning since at the same time not inhibit the test takers' motivation by cramming too much.

Furthermore, teachers can make use good behavior in order to decrease stressful variables and increase their motivation in order to do both inside and outside the classroom activities.

Moreover, language learners can become more aware about teachers behaviors while they are in the class and students were helped to acquire good manners and habits.

Another important pedagogical implication for teachers in this study is behave with no discrimination in students should be maintained and make teaching more effective.

To conclude, all material designers, schools managers, teachers, and students can draw on the findings of the present study to shape design materials, manage schools and conduct classes accordingly.

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Ahmad Nouri is a student of English Language Teaching Department at Zahedan Islamic Azad University (Science and Research), Iran. He got his B.A. in TEFL from Teacher Training Center and M.A. in TEFL from Islamic Azad University. His areas of interest include Language Teaching Methodology, Psychology, Language Testing, SLA, and Curriculum Planning/Evaluation.

A Survey Study: The Correlation between Introversion/Extroversion and Oral English Learning Outcome^{*}

Yan Chen

College of International Studies, Southwest University, Chongqing, China

Yuhong Jiang

College of International Studies, Southwest University, Chongqing, China

Zengzhen Mu

College of International Studies, Southwest University, Chongqing, China

Abstract—Introversion/extroversion is generally considered to be one of the most important factors affecting the success of foreign language learning, especially spoken language. Extroverts are usually thought to be better at learning a foreign spoken language than introverts. With the intention of finding out whether extroverts are better learners of spoken English (learned as a foreign language in China) than introverts, this study investigated 117 English majors' personality types (in terms of introversion and extroversion) in Chongqing (a municipality city in China), and their spoken English performance through a spoken English test. With the data collected, this paper analyzes the correlation between introversion/extroversion and spoken English performance. The result shows that the two are not correlated. The author discusses factors leading to this phenomenon from various aspects of learning environment, motivation, language intake and output, culture, and concludes that introversion/extroversion is not a key factor contributing to the success of spoken English learning. The research result is of great significance to both English teachers and learners, especially those who are concerned about their personality (introversion) being a barrier to their oral English learning. What matters most in spoken English learning probably are the strategies that learners employ to improve it, which is well worth researching.

Index Terms—introversion/extroversion, spoken English, correlation

I. INTRODUCTION

Typical extroverts are generally depicted as “sociable, like parties, has many friends, has many friends, needs to have people to talk to, and does not like studying by himself. He craves for excitement, takes chances ... generally like change ...” while introverts as “quiet ... introspective, fond of books rather than people; he is reserved and distant, except with intimate friends ...” (Eysenck, 1965, p.59-60). Based on the basic components of extroversion/introversion and some findings of researches, psychologists have predicted that introverts have higher academic achievement than extroverts, which is actually supported by some educational research (Skehan, 1989, p.101).

However, in the area of applied linguistic research, this is not the case. In the eyes of many language teachers and learners, extroversion/introversion constitutes a major factor contributing to success or failure in language learning (Naiman et al.'s, 1978; Griffiths, 1991), however, it is generally held that extroversion is advantageous to foreign/second language learning, while introversion is disadvantageous to foreign/second language learning (Skehan, 1989, p.101). Sociability, outgoing and talkativeness, essential and indispensable features of extroversion, facilitate language learning by learners' getting more chances to practice and more input, hence learners become more successful in language learning, whereas reservation, shyness and self-restrain inhibit introverts from participating openly in the classroom and seeking out opportunities outside classroom to practice. This seems especially true of spoken language learning. Though it seems quite reasonable, empirical researches have not shown any clear relation between extroversion/introversion and language learning, whether extroversion or introversion helps or hinders success in language learning. Despite the vagueness in the relationship between extroversion/introversion and foreign/second language learning, there arise two major assumptions in regard to the relationship between extroversion/introversion and foreign/second language learning. One is that extroversion is positively correlated with Basic Interpersonal

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Communication Skill (BICS); the other is that introversion help learners develop cognitive academic language ability (CALP) faster than extroverts (Ellis, 1994, p.520). However, as are shown in the findings of the previous researches (Rossier, 1975; Busch, 1982; Carrell, Prince & Astika, 1996; Kiany, 1998; Dewaele & Furnham, 1999; Kubota, 2003), whether introversion/extroversion is directly related to success in language learning cannot be concluded (Arnold, 1999).

This paper is to study, in the context of an inland city of China, where English is learned as a foreign language, whether introversion/extroversion of learners is correlated with the outcome of their spoken English ability, and discuss the reasons contributing to the study result.

II. DESIGN OF THE STUDY

A. Research Questions

1. What's the correlation between students' personality (in terms of introversion/extroversion) and their oral English ability?
2. What are the possible factors leading to the study result?

B. Subjects

Due to the restraint of finance, time and personnel, also for the convenience of the study, students of the researchers and of their colleagues were chosen as the subjects for the present study. The students are all freshmen majoring in English, who have been studying in university for almost one year. The total number of the students is 117, 93 of who are female, 24 males. Their age ranges from 18 to 21, with average age of 20.1. They all have been learning English for more than 7 years. All 117 were given a questionnaire of personality and an oral English test.

C. Instruments

1. Instrument for investigating learners' personality (introversion/ extroversion)

The validity and reliability of the instruments used to measure personality variable in some studies has been doubted (Ellis, 1994). Some used the instrument developed by psychologists and tested extensively, such as: Coan and Carttell's Early School Personality Questionnaire, Yatabe/Gruiford Personality Inventory, Eysenck Personality Inventory; others used instrument devised specifically for use with language learning, for example, Ely's and Gardner and Lamber's questionnaires. Ellis (1994) thought "it is not always clear that these instruments measure what they purport to measure" (p.519). Discrepancies might arise between the students' true personality and the results of the self-report questionnaire. If the results are invalid, they can by no means be accepted as genuine. Also, Strong (1983) suggested that better results may be obtained when the measure of extroversion/introversion are based on observation than when they are based on self-report questionnaires. However, as Ellis pointed out that "the effects of extroversion/introversion may be situation-dependent, evident in some learning context but not in others".

Based on the above reasons, in order to "compile a more complete picture" (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989, p.122) of participants' personality types, the present study first adopted as the self-report questionnaire the adapted version of Eysenck Introversion-extroversion Scale made by Gong Yaolian for Chinese, which has been subjected to extensive testing and widely used in China, to investigate subjects' personality. However, in this research the result of the questionnaire is not the only decisive element for the understanding of students' personality. On the basis of the result of self-report questionnaire, the researcher also considered teachers' and fellow students' observation and subjects' own judgment of their personality type for the final judgment of the subjects' personality (introversion/extroversion).

The questionnaire consists of 21 questions requiring participants to answer "YES" or "NO". To determine what personality type the subject is, first of all, raw scores are counted based on his answers to the 21 questions. According to the assessment standard, the responses to the statements are assigned values "1" for "Yes", "0" for "No" (with reverse value for question number 7, 9, and 13). Then the raw scores are converted to T scores according to different criteria based on their sex and age. According to the test manual, personality types are clearly divided in the following standard: introvert ($T \leq 38.5$), Introvert-extrovert ($38.5 < T \leq 61.5$), and extrovert ($T > 61.5$). The higher the T score is, the more extroverted a person is.

In addition to the 21 Yes/No questions, a personal-information part is attached to the questionnaire, which contains 4 blank-filling items and 2 multiple-choice items. It reveals the subjects' name, sex and birth-date; their identification of their own personality types and their opinion on the influence of personality types on oral English learning.

2. Instrument for investigating learners' oral English ability

The test of oral communicative ability in English follows the format of CET (College English Test) Spoken English Test. The test is divided into three parts. Part I consists of an interaction between the candidates and the examiner, which lasts about 5 minutes. Part II consists of an interaction among three candidates in a group, time of which approximates 10 minutes. Part III involves further questions from the examiner to double check the candidates' oral ability, which is approximately 5 minutes. In the test, the candidate is required to take part in oral interactions as specified in the test paper.

The candidate's ability in spoken English is measured on the basis of his/her performance in the test. The candidates' performance is assessed by the examiners using the following assessment criteria: accuracy in the production of the

forms of the language (individual sounds, stress/intonation, grammatical and lexical features); range of vocabulary and grammatical structures which the candidate makes use of; size of contribution which the candidate makes; discourse management, that is, the ability to produce extended and coherent discourse; flexibility of the candidate in dealing with different situation and topics; appropriacy in the use of linguistic resources to convey meaning in specific contexts.

After completing data collection, the descriptive statistics analyses were carried out with the software Excel 2003 and SPSS 13 for windows. Spearman correlation coefficient was used to test the correlation between personality types and oral English ability.

D. Data Collection

The first step was to test the subjects' oral English ability. The test was administered by three English teachers, who all taught the subjects Comprehensive English Course. One of them (the researcher) is an examiner of CET Spoken English Test appointed by CET Spoken English Test Committee; the other two examiners were guided by the authorized examiner of CET Spoken English Test to ensure that they would be using similar criteria in evaluating the students' oral performance. Before the test the students were told that their performance in the oral English test would account for certain percentage of the total score for the course to ensure that enough importance was attached to it. For the constraints of time and personnel, the test was administered individually by single examiner. Time and personnel limitation did not allow paired-examiners interviewing with 117 students.

The second step was to investigate the subjects' personality. The investigation of questionnaire was administered during the class time of Comprehensive English Course with the presence and supervision of their teachers and the researcher of this study, to ensure clear understanding of the questionnaire and no communication and discussion between students when answering the questionnaire. All 117 students responded to the questionnaire and returned the questionnaire sheets, however, to ensure that the analysis would be as accurate as possible, students who omitted answers on the questionnaires were excluded. At last, only 112 students' questionnaires were considered valid.

III. ANALYSIS OF THE CORRELATION BETWEEN ORAL ENGLISH PERFORMANCE AND PERSONALITY TYPES

A. Identification of the Subjects' Personality

The personality questionnaire starts with a personal-information part, in which the participants identified themselves with introverts, extroverts, or introvert-extroverts, and state their opinion about the influence of their personality on oral English learning, in addition to revealing their name, age and sex.

TABLE 1
SUBJECTS' SELF-EVALUATION AND QUESTIONNAIRE'S IDENTIFICATION OF SUBJECTS' PERSONALITY TYPES

	Self-evaluation (population)	Questionnaire (population)
introverts	13	6
extroverts	12	36
Introvert-extroverts	87	70
Total number	112	112

As can be seen from the table above, there's difference between participants' self-evaluation of personality types and questionnaire's evaluation.

Therefore, in order to get a complete and correct picture of the participants' personality, the researcher (under the guidance of her friend, who specializes in education psychology), taking students' self-evaluation, questionnaire's result, teachers and fellow students' observation into consideration, determined the participants' personality types. Below is a table showing the participants' personality types and their view of the influence of personality on oral English learning:

TABLE 2
SUBJECTS' PERSONALITY TYPES AND THEIR VIEW OF THE INFLUENCE OF PERSONALITY TYPES ON ORAL ENGLISH LEARNING

Personality types \ Opinion	Facilitating	Inhibiting	Facilitating & Inhibiting	No effects	Number/ percentage of each personality type
Introverts	0	6 / 66.7%	3 / 33.3%	0	9 / 8%
Extroverts	9 / 31%	1 / 3.4%	16 / 55.2%	3 / 10.3%	29 / 28%
Introvert-extroverts	4 / 5.4%	28 / 37.8%	36 / 48.7%	6 / 8.1%	74 / 64%
Total number	13 / 11.6%	35 / 31.3%	55 / 49.1%	9 / 8%	112

This table shows that among the 112 subjects, 9 are introverts, 29 extroverts and 74 introvert-extroverts, which account for 8%, 28% and 64% respectively. From the table an interesting phenomenon can be seen: none of the 9 introverts consider their personality type as a facilitating factor for oral English learning, while only one of the 29 extroverts regard their personality type as an inhibiting factor for oral English learning. 31% of the extroverted participants thinks that their personality is advantageous to oral English learning, which is quite similar to the result obtain by Naiman (1978). This result is consistent with people's common understanding of the influence of personality on oral English learning: extroversion is advantageous to oral English learning, whereas introversion is the other way round. Interestingly, later when the results of oral English test came out, the researcher found the three introverts who

think of their personality type both facilitating and inhibiting their oral English learning were all good oral English learners. This indicates that a right realization of and attitude toward one's personality will contribute to his oral English learning.

B. Identification of the Subjects' Achievement in Oral English Test

The total score for Spoken English Test is 15 points. According to the rating scale of Spoken English Test, Candidates whose point is between 14.5 and 15 can get A+, 13.5—14.4 A; 12.5—13.4 B+, 11—12.4 B; 9.5—10.9 C+, 8—9.4 C; and D for under 7.9 points. We define candidates with points over 12.5 (in other words those with A+, A or B+) as good learners of oral English (in terms of their level). Candidates with A+, A or B+ are described in the syllabus of CET Spoken English Test as “being able to communicate in familiar topics with almost no or little difficulties”. Below is a table showing the total number of good oral English learners among 112 subjects and the number and percentage of good introverted learners and extroverted learners and introvert-extroverts.

TABLE 3
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF GOOD LEARNERS

	Total number	introverts	extroverts	Introvert-extroverts
All participants	112	9/8%	29/26%	74/66%
Good learners	47	4/9%	11/23%	32/68%

From the table it can be seen that the percentage of good learners of each personality type in good learners remains almost the same with the percentage of each personality type in all participants, especially the good introverted learners. It proves from one aspect that introverted learners have the same possibilities with extroverted learners to learn oral English well.

C. Correlation between Personality Types and Achievement in Oral English Test

To see how personality types are correlated with spoken English outcome, Spearman's rho, usually used for rank-order data, is employed to test the correlation. The subjects in this study are classified into three categories: introverts, extroverts and introvert-extroverts. The feature of the score of spoken English test and personality score meet the requirement for Spearman correlation coefficient. First, we change the score of spoken English test A+ into 1, A into 2, B+ into 3, B into 4, C+ into 5, C into 6; we use 1 to stand for extrovert, 2 for introvert-extrovert and 3 for introvert. Then, the data collected are entered into SPSS13 to find the Spearman correlation coefficient. The result is shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4
SPEARMAN CORRELATION COEFFICIENT OF ORAL ENGLISH TEST SCORE AND PERSONALITY TYPES

Spearman's rho	Test	Correlation Coefficient	Test	Personality
		Sig. (2-tailed)		
		N		
	Personality	Correlation Coefficient	-.002	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.986	.
		N	112	112

The table shows that Spearman's correlation coefficient between the score of spoken English and personality types is -0.002, close to 0, which means the score of spoken English and personality type are not correlated. Therefore, we can say personality types have no or little influence on the outcome of learners' spoken English. This finding is contrary to the common understanding that the extroverts can learn oral English better than the introverts. The possible explanation is that the subjects chosen for the study, who are all English majors, are strongly motivated to study oral English well. And motivation propels them to find appropriate ways to improve their oral English. This finding indicates that the influence of introversion/extroversion on oral English learning is not as big as it is assumed.

IV. DISCUSSION

It is generally hypothesized that “extroverted learners will do better in acquiring basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS)” (Ellis, 1994, p.521), for they are assumed to be more sociable to have more opportunities to practice, to access more input, thus more success in communication. Though substantial evidence has been found extroversion is linked to the acquisition of BICS (Ellis, 1994), the result of present study has proved that the oral English outcome of university English majors in an inland city of China for survey is not correlated with their personality types in terms of introversion/extroversion, which means both the introverts and the extroverts can equally achieve success in oral English learning. What result in this? The possible factors contributing to the result is discussed in the following.

A. Foreign Language Learning Setting

There is distinction between second-language acquisition and foreign-language learning. English can be learned either as a second language or a foreign language. In the situation where English is acquired as a second language, it is “spoken in the immediate environment of the learner” (Ringbom, 1980), whereas in the situation where English is

learned as a foreign language, English is “not spoken in the learner’s immediate environment” (Ringbom, 1980). This means in a second-language acquisition setting, learners have great opportunities to use English by partaking in the natural communication situations, while in a foreign-language learning setting, in addition to classroom learning (providing simulated language setting), learners have no or little opportunities to practice English in natural communication situations.

Learners of English in China learn English not as a second language but as a foreign language, a language different from the dominant language, Chinese, the overwhelming majority of people speak in China. Consequently, learners of English can hardly find any occasions outside classroom where they can use English. With the advance of technology, learners can read English and listen to or watch English online or elsewhere, but the mass media just provide opportunities for practicing receptive skills. Though China has been carrying out open-door policy, more and more speakers of English are living or traveling in China, for an inland city where the survey is conducted, natural English communication settings can still be hard to find, except English class or English Corner which is especially set up for learners of English to communicate and practice their spoken English. That extroversion is advantageous to oral English learning is based on the more opportunities for input and output practice. Therefore, despite the fact that extraverts, who tend to be more sociable, are more likely to join groups and inclined to engage in conversations outside the classroom (Swain, 1985), due to the shortage of foreign language learning settings in China, extraverts cannot be higher oral language input and output generators than introverts, as is claimed by many researchers (Krashen, 1985; Brown, 1987; Swain, 1993).

B. Language Intake and Output

As is mentioned above, extroverts are thought to be sociable to have more opportunities to interact with English speakers than introverts, thus have more language input and output. It is important that successful English learners have a large amount of input, exposure of English environment. However, input is far from enough ensuring success of language learning. What is entailed is “intake”, that is, the particular amount of an input that learners successfully process to build up internal understanding of the language, the limited amount of comprehensible part of the “input”. However, in oral communication, a large quantity of input are incomprehensible for English learners, those incomprehensible part can only be regarded as “noise” (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991, p.144).

The introverts of good learners, on account of their personality, are not sociable and talkative, but seem not to be influenced by the learning environment in China. Input cannot only be obtained through oral communicative interaction, it can also be obtained from reading (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991, p.142). Introverts are usually quiet, preferring to get input from reading. And the intrinsic characteristic of reading, like allowing readers to read repeatedly and absorb what’ve been read, helps introverts to intake what they’ve read from books or journals. This intake from reading can be source of oral communication.

Also as introverts are quiet and shy and afraid of making mistakes in front of others, they probably adopt methods that are appropriate for them to improve their English, like speaking to themselves. Therefore, in foreign language learning settings introverts may have their own way to get enough input, accordingly intake, and output. On the other hand, Extroverts, due to their personality, are talkative, tend to speak long, but this can’t guarantee the quality of their speaking, it might lead to speaking inaccurately and speaking with limited number of vocabulary and sentence pattern. In this study, the test of oral English test not only involves the length and coherence, but also involves language accuracy, width and language flexibility and appropriacy. These might be part of the reason that contributes to study result.

C. Learners’ English Learning Motivation

Out of different reasons people study a foreign language. Some students learn English because it’s an compulsory course, or they want to go to college, or to get a college diploma (Lots of colleges in China stipulate that students need to pass Band 4 College English Test to get diploma), while others study English because of their special liking for or interest at the language or its culture and people. In a word, people are motivated to learn English, though differently. Motivation has long been recognized as playing a very important role in language learning (Dewaele & Furnham 1999, p.525). The various language learning motivations are generally classified into two types: instrumental motivation and integration motivation.

The subjects chosen for the present study are all students majoring in English. They have both integrative and instrumental motivation. As for integrative motivation, they are interested in English language and are highly motivated to speak fluent, accurate and appropriate English, thus, they can communicate with native English speakers to get to know them and understand more of their culture. While in terms of instrumental motivation, they are English majors, they are supposed to graduate to pursue a career which involves using English. Intrinsic motivation, which is usually thought to be a strong impetus to successful language learning, together with instrumental motivation, help students majoring in English to strive for success in the English learning. In spite of the shortcomings of their personality, as people claim it to be, introverts with strong motivation to learn English well can go to great efforts to learn it well.

D. Cultural Influence

It's universally acknowledged that culture is associated with language. Also, culture has great influence on how people learn languages (Oxford, 1996). Culture influences people unconsciously and consciously, such as people's beliefs, perceptions, values and lifestyles, they all are manifestation of cultural influence. The less conscious cultural aspects like beliefs, perception and values plays a very important role in affecting how people learn languages, say, learning styles and learning strategies. No wonder "language learning is fully situated within a given cultural context" (Oxford, 1996)

Five thousand years of Chinese civilization has made great effect on ideology of Chinese people. Chinese people are accustomed to expressing or accepting an idea in an implicit way. Generally speaking, Chinese are inclined to be introverted, reserved and conservative, which does not allow people to express their ideas explicitly and publicly, especially when their opinions are different from others. Under this influence, Chinese students are encouraged to remain quiet and listen to the teachers attentively, which is also thought to be respectful to the teachers. In addition to that, under the pressure of National College Entrance Exam, the majority of English teachers in junior and senior high schools adopt grammar-translation teaching method, focusing on doing numerous papers preparing for coming exams. Thus, extroverts, in spite of the personality traits of being talkative and sociable, tend to be quiet in class in order to get high score and please their teachers. As a result, their personality advantage is not made good use of in classrooms, so in a way extroverts don't benefit more than introverts from classroom in terms of oral communication. When the survey is conducted, the subjects have only been in college for half an year, so even though their college English teachers have adopted communicative approach in their class teaching, trying to encourage students to speak as much as possible, it seems extroverts still do not benefit more than introverts, for students' long developed habit of keeping quiet from high schools cannot easily be got rid of.

V. CONCLUSION

The result of the study shows that learners of one personality type are not necessarily more successful at language learning than learners of the other, which is also supported by Ellis (1994). The paper has analyzed the possible factors leading to the study result from different aspects: foreign language setting, motivation, language intake and output, and culture.

As is known, in language classroom, extroverted learners are more likely to engage in oral participation than the introverts and students with quiet, reserved personalities are often treated as students with problem. Language teachers complain about students' inactivity in the classroom and endeavor to seek ways to change it and encourage extroversion. However, "high levels of classroom participation may not enhance language learning" (Ellis, 1994). Oral participation in the classroom can be encouraged but should never be driven too hard, if taking students' personality into consideration.

As the result of the study shows that personality types is not a decisive factor for the success of oral English learning, it can be suggested that students with different personality types may employ different kinds of strategies for learning, for "... personality traits make a difference in how people learn and what they learn" (Moody, 1988, p.389). Extroversion may be a factor facilitating learners to have more practice and input from oral communication. Nevertheless, there are varieties of ways that students can resort to to help improving oral English proficiency. Therefore, it's important for teachers to become aware that "some strategies may be more suited to some learners than to others" (Green & Oxford, 1995, p.33), though individuals would certainly differ from the overall group picture in the employment of certain individual items. In a word, the more the teacher knows about the factors, the more he can help students with their English learning. The next step for the research, which is more significant to learners of English, is to discover the specific learning strategies which appeal to the extraverts and introverts respectively, so that we can help a broader range of language learners.

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Yan Chen was born in Chongqing, China in 1970. She received her Master degree in linguistics from Southwest University, China in 2008. She is currently an associate professor in College of International Studies, Southwest University, Chongqing, China. Her research interests include English learning strategies and computer-assisted language learning.

Yuhong Jiang was born in Chongqing, China in 1967. She received her Ph.D. degree from Cambridge University, Britain in 2011. She is currently a professor and Ph. D. supervisor in College of International Studies, Southwest University, Chongqing, China. She specializes in researches on foreign language teacher education and their professional development.

Zengzhen Mu was born in Chongqing, China in 1980. She received her Master degree in linguistics from Southwest University, China in 2006. She is currently a lecturer in College of International Studies, Southwest University, Chongqing, China. Her main research interest is second language education.

Analysis of Official Letters Based on Applied Genre Analytical Model

Melika Hadavi

Tabaran Institutes of Higher Education, Iran

Behrooz Marzban

Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran

Mostafa Morady Moghaddam

Young Researchers and Elite Club, Mashhad Branch, Islamic Azad University, Mashhad, Iran

Abstract—Nowadays letters play a significant role in the realm of communication in general and in official or business occasions in particular. With the advent of emails, the function of letters is diminishing but in official contexts, letters have kept their value. The main concern of this paper is to show the interrelationship between different layers of official letters which are called *textual*, *contextual*, and *social* layers. Sixty authentic letters were analyzed according to the purpose of the authors. Through this investigation, five specific categories were found: Informative, Prescriptive, Appointment, Acknowledgment, and Invitation. Each category then was investigated according to Bhatia's model of *applied genre analysis* in three domains which were mentioned above. It was found that there is a direct and positive relationship between these three layers. The direction is from social domain towards textual one in that the characteristics and features of social context affect the contextual domain and the context influences textual domain in respect. This study is a multi-faceted one in that all the five types of official letters are studied in accordance to three layers and the relationship between them is explained. This exploration shows that in official situations, 'social identities' are of paramount importance which have a remarkable influence on both conventions of the genre and textual features. This study is also helpful for those EFL students and all who need to write English official letters to avoid undue mistakes and to represent their thoughts clearly and fluently.

Index Terms—official letters, genre analysis, social power, textual features, correspondence

I. INTRODUCTION

As the realm of human relationship has increased, communication among individuals has become much more sophisticated and the rules as well as the expectations governing official and business societies have become much stricter. Letters, as a means of communication, have often been, in a literate society, a useful and impressive instrument in order to connect oneself to the outer world and to reveal the thoughts. With the advent of internet, most of the transactions are done through e-mails and the era of letter writing is going to diminish gradually. However, in official societies, since there are hierarchical structures and many persons are responsible for a piece of work to be done and letters are to be *signed* or *sealed*, formal correspondences are still a thriving domain. Furthermore, to increase the validity of a letter and to show that what has been written is from a reliable source, letters rather than e-mails are used in official situations. The hierarchical structure of official societies makes it distinguishable from other types of contexts such as commercial or personal occasions, to name a few. For instance, the head of a faculty is going to dismiss or assign a person; because of the hierarchical structures, orders must be followed and one can vividly see the role of this power and obey in official letters in contrast to other types of letters.

Since the importance of official corresponding is apparently known to everyone, many authors have tried to write textbooks about how to write letters properly. However, the books which are available in the market for official letter writing is one dimensional in that they have just considered the textual structure of these letters. "What constitutes an appropriate text is determined not only by general standards of good writing, but by specific demands and constraints of the writer's disciplinary community" (Pecorari, 2006, p. 5). Swales (1990) presented that "Communicative effectiveness is far more important than stylistic appropriateness" (p. 3).

Writing official letters is most often a demanding job for individuals, for it is not just a matter of mechanics of writing and many facets should be kept in mind while writing official correspondence, namely, discourse community, conventions of the genre, and its audience expectations (Ding, 2007). Attention to audience and context has been the concern of many approaches and methods throughout history such as Whole Language. As Rigg (1991) mentioned, "both speakers and writers are urged to consider their audience, the person(s) they are addressing; both are reminded to consider the setting in which their messages will be received" (p. 525). It has been said that the purpose of a text helps to shape the text (Kinneavy, 1971) and, as a result, equal attention should be given to purpose and setting too. It does

not mean that one should forget knowledge of the text all together but a *multifaceted* analysis is necessary in order to take into account different aspects of a specific genre.

Throughout the academic writing history, many researchers have approached and scrutinized various genres (Abbasian & Tahririan, 2008; Badger, 2003; Ding, 2007; Dudley-Evans, 2000; Flowerdew & Wan, 2006; Samraj, 2005; Santos, 2002) but little is known about the generic and social features of official letters. As Dudley-Evans (2000) said, "every text which is used in particular specialist environments, has particular characteristics that distinguish it from other texts" (p. 4). Therefore, to find the relationship between different layers of official letters, it is necessary to examine official letters in order to pave the way for those who are not familiar enough with the discourse community and audience expectations of this specific genre. Writers should balance their concern about textual, contextual and social layers of official letters.

With the publication of '*Genre Analysis: English in academic and research setting*' by Swales (1990), so many researchers have applied CARS model in order to find regularities of different genres through establishing specific moves and steps (Flowerdew & Wan, 2006; Habibi, 2008; Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Martin, 2003; Ozturk, 2007). The purpose of these researchers is mostly to find the regularities that distinguish a particular genre or to define the rhetorical variation of different parts of academic articles. Recently, there has been a great deal of valuable studies on different genres of letters. In an exploratory study, Flowerdew and Wan (2006) investigated the tax computation letters of an international accounting firm and examined the lexico-grammatical realizations of their specific moves. In another study, Ding (2007) analyzed a corpus of 30 medical/dental school application letters and specified five recurrent moves. Santos (2002) studied "business letters of negotiation" in order to find the communicative purposes and rhetorical features underlying these letters. The result of a study conducted by Abbasian and Tahririan (2008) revealed the discrepancies in the strategies used by EFL teachers and biology professionals to realize the moves as well as the dynamic nature of e-mails.

After a glance at current researches written about genres of different contexts, one can recognize that the domain of official letters is underresearch. Every genre analysis must have a theory and a purpose behind it and this article has its own theory too. The theory stands on the point of understanding and accounting for the private intentions of the author, in addition to socially recognized communicative purposes and the effect of text-external factors on text-internal ones (Bhatia, 2002). As it is argued by Bhatia (2008), comprehensive analysis of professional genres requires the integration of text-internal factors into text-external aspects of language use. The main purpose of this article is to examine different official letters in order to find the communicative purposes underlying these correspondences in accordance to various needs and identities of the writer. The effect of context and convention on the lexical choices is also considered in this study. It is believed that social context and audience affect the use of lexico-grammatical structure of a text.

II. METHODOLOGY

Corpus and Procedure

In order to find the idiosyncrasies of official letters, sixty authentic (created for real purposes) letters were gathered from the English department of Ferdowsi University of Mashhad-Iran and they were checked thoroughly according to the purpose of the letter. Culture and first language were the same for all the correspondences since they were written by natives and all in Persian. Letters are mainly from faculty members who are within the structure of the aforementioned university or from universities related to other cities. Among the data, letters from other faculties and universities are also available. They are kept and analyzed in the study in order to increase the generalizability of the findings.

According to Brown (1988), systematic ordering in data collection is not acceptable. In order to consider this point in mind, letters were collected randomly from a large corpus of official correspondences. This also increases the generalizability of the research since the sample is more representative of the outside world. The Bhatia's *applied genre analysis model* (2002) is used as the main approach toward analyzing the data. This model has some merits over other models toward analyzing genres. In this model, three layers have been identified which were called *perspectives on discourse* (Bhatia, 2002). This model covers all aspects of a discourse and, according to Bhatia (2002), these aspects are three interacting views of discourse that affect each other. It is a structure which is more pattern-seeking rather than pattern-imposing which requires a multi-functional analysis (Habibi, 2008).

Therefore, for analyzing official letters, Bhatia's comprehensive model is used because it gives much more information than just finding moves and steps of a particular genre and it is more flexible and has an open-ended structure which covers the drawbacks of previous models toward genre analysis (Habibi, 2008). These three perspectives are:

- a) Textual perspective or discourse as text (text knowledge).
- b) Socio-cognitive perspective or discourse as genre (genre knowledge).
- c) Socio-critical perspective or discourse as social practice (social knowledge).

The first phase of this study was to analyze the sixty letters to make it clear whether there are varieties of purposes or just one particular purpose in relation to the writers. If there would be a unified text (one particular purpose), then it will be easier to apply the model. But if it contains varieties of purposes, the model should be applied separately for each category. In this part of the study the data were analyzed carefully and were divided into specific groups. In placing

letters to different categories, just the *purpose of the author* was considered because, as it will be mentioned later in the paper, the purpose of a text will affect the use of textual structure. Textual features were not accepted as a good criterion, for there is always some overlapping in different variations of a text. This does not mean that textual features should be totally neglected; they go hand in hand with social power. This relationship is explained somewhere else in the text. Most of the time, because it is a demanding job to find the latent purposes of a text, individuals may resort to surface structure investigations and it may cause some problems in the process of reaching a precise categorization of data since categories share some textual features that are misleading.

After assigning letters to specific groups, each letter was then analyzed according to three perspectives mentioned above (text, genre, and social) and the information was recorded. The aim of this analysis was to come across the microstructure of the letters and move toward larger scales of the text in order to discover the relationships that exist among the layers. In *textual domain*, the use of language and features of lexicogrammar were statistically or functionally analyzed. In other words, the use of linguistic elements was studied to find out whether individual letters, which are categorized in one group, share some commonalities or they are idiosyncratic in linguistic features. Since words or phrases have hidden messages, they should be examined carefully to find out whether they share any connotative meaning that can be used in a specific situation. In this stage, the use of words was investigated. Then, words that were repeated in the categories were grouped and, afterward, counted. It was revealed that each category used *specific words* in order to find its way toward a particular purpose. Word frequency and repetition of specific words are important in this stage. We called this the “*bottom-up approach*” toward analyzing data.

In *genre domain*, the intention of the writer is determined and the way the text is interpreted was specified. Letters are studied according to their underlying purpose so that the effect of purpose and the use of words can be examined. First, the whole data (official letters) were categorized according to their purpose. Moreover, it was evaluated how words in that context help to achieve each specific purpose. For instance, if there is a category which is called a “request category,” then there should be some words in order to show that request format. Words by themselves do not carry specific meanings; it is the art of the speaker or writer that arranges the words in a way to reveal his/her thoughts properly.

The *social domain* takes into account the social context and changing identities of the participants (Bhatia, 2002). The way we use words depends mostly on who is the addressee and the mutual constraints that exist between interlocutors. In this stage, the role relationship of the authors of the letters was studied to find out the subtle influences which exist between writers and receivers. According to the model, the analysis should enjoy some interrelationship between different layers of a genre which were mentioned above.

III. RESULTS

In order to find out whether there are varieties of purposes, the corpus was checked carefully and letters were assigned to specific groups according to their purpose and their effect on the audience. It is beneficial to find the variation between the letters because every communicative purpose is obtained through characteristic words and grammar. It should be mentioned that generalizing a common rule to all the data is not acceptable because individuals' styles and intentions differ in various situations. In assigning letters to groups, both contextual and textual factors are considered. The first layer of analysis showed that within the realm of official letters there are five specific purposes which are as follow:

TABLE I
DISTRIBUTION OF LETTERS IN CORPUS

Subheading or purpose	Number of letters
1. Invitation	3
2. Acknowledgement	3
3. Informative	25
4. Appointment	7
5. Prescriptive	22

Table I makes it clear that *informative* purpose is the category in which most of the letters are placed. Twenty-five out of sixty letters fall in this group. They constitute nearly forty-five percent (45%) of the whole corpus. The analysis showed that this category consists of two separate parts:

a) Letters that are just informative: Nothing is required to be done and mere informing is enough. Thirteen out of twenty-five letters are placed in this category. For example, some letters informed that specific courses will be assigned in next semester. They required that authorities should give enough information about the courses. These letters are usually observed in the places that students are able to notice them. For example, bulletins are a good place for this purpose.

b) Letters that are informative and to some extent imperative: A thing is to be done besides giving information. Twelve out of twenty-five letters belong to this category. These letters require the people in charge (authorities) to take action and usually they are not placed in front of the public eyes. For instance, a specific university informs the target university that “we do not accept any guests in summer semester so we want you not to send any student until we allow.”

The data showed that the informative category is the only one that includes letters from other universities. In none of the other categories one can see letters of organizations and writers from outside of the faculty domain. Other categories just include letters that are related to members of their own faculty not any exotic organization. Therefore, there are letters from inner circle and letters from outer circle.

The next category which comes after informative letters and occupies second place in accordance to number of cases is *prescriptive* letters. Twenty-two out of sixty letters belong to this category. These letters include delivery of the packages, cleansing the buildings, increasing the time of education, checking the roll-calls of students, solving the problems of students, asking for clarification, giving introduction letters, and the like. They are called prescriptive in that they are written by the authorities and they should be obeyed without questioning. This is how power is established in a hierarchical organization as was mentioned earlier.

The next category is *appointment* letters. Seven out of sixty letters are appointment letters. These are letters that assign people to different posts and positions. For example, an experienced lecturer may be assigned as the chief of the English department or may be appointed as the managing editor of a publication. *Invitation* and *acknowledgement* letters share equal numbers of letters, that is, three. Invitation letters are those letters that ask individuals to take part in conferences or meetings and acknowledgment letters address individuals' good-will and hardworking through mentioning their previous efforts for improving the goals of the organization.

After figuring out different layers of official letters according to their purpose, each category was investigated according to Bhatia's applied genre analytical model. The inquiry begins by categorizing each group according to textual characteristics of each layer. In this scrutiny, the role of context is ignored to see whether there is any feature in the text that would help us toward finding out the aim of the text. The textual analysis revealed the information in five groups which are mentioned in Table II. It should be mentioned that for each phrase or word, the frequency percentage is provided to reveal how frequent they are in comparison to a specific layer. By frequent it means that the specified theme is the main idea behind the text.

TABLE II
TEXTUAL DOMAINS OF THE MODEL APPLIED TO THE CORPUS

Layer	Textual characteristics
Informative	a) Using phrases like 'for giving information' (80%) [i.e., eighty percent of informative letters type 'a' used this phrase] or phrases like 'promulgating to students' (15%) are placed in this group. Moreover, words of choice like 'volunteers' (5%) are used frequently in this category. b) This group of informative letters shares some features with part (a) but enjoys some uniqueness; the use of <i>modal operators</i> such as 'it is necessary' (68%), 'it should be done' (32%), and other means of <i>verbal intrusion</i> (Millrood, 2004) are parts of this layer.
Prescriptive	Phrases such as 'taking action' (79%), 'delivery of information' (13%), and 'words of refrainment' (8%) are frequent in this layer.
Appointment	Using phrases such as 'wish you luck' (53%) and 'you are appointed as' (47%) are frequent in this category.
Acknowledgment	Phrases like 'invaluable serving' (56%) and 'honest endeavors' (44%) are frequent in this layer. Words of <i>appraisal</i> are placed in this category.
Invitation	Phrases like 'attending the meeting' (73%) and 'grateful presence' (27%) are placed in this category.

Table II gives us useful information but one cannot assert that it is all that should be done in order to reach the conclusion. Many texts are different in relation to choice of words but they are categorized in one group. Furthermore, the context and social practice narrow the use of words in a text. These two perspectives will be addressed respectively in the following paragraphs.

As we go to the next layer, which is discourse as genre, we account for the purpose of the text and the relationship between the text and context, that is, the purpose will surely affect the choice of words. Most of the studies which are done in genre analysis are placed in this domain. In this layer, we are dealing with the interpretation of the text. One of the specific features of official letters is their formal convention that forms the peculiarities of this genre. Familiarization with the convention of the genres helps individuals to find out different purposes of a specific genre and to match their choice of words with the specific goals they have in mind. In analyzing the data, five specific purposes were found and each of them followed the formalities of official letters but with changing the purpose of each category, the use of words changes too. Therefore, in writing letters, the convention of a specific group should be analyzed first and then, according to the convention, the use of linguistic elements is determined.

The next analysis is related to social practices of letters. As it was mentioned earlier, individuals change the way they react to environment according to the type of feedback they receive. This feedback is sometimes from other people surrounding, legislations, or the reflections of the writer. Ignoring these three factors may cause problems for the individuals. For instance, a person is at the *head* of a company. S/he has the right to appoint or to dismiss every person in the firm. Or s/he may address people in the way s/he likes because s/he is the owner of the company. Further imagine a *worker* in the same firm. Can s/he address every person in the firm in the same way the manager do? The answer is obvious and the mere thought of the idea makes it clear that social practice has an undeniable role in shaping linguistic categories. Social power is revealed through textual features. Therefore, the role relationship is considerably important.

When individuals are going to write a letter, they should consider the addressee because our goal is our audience as well as the way they react to the letter, not the way a letter is written. In other words, we are going to influence our

reader and it is this knowledge that brings change to the text. For example, if one is going to have a communication with working class people, one should be familiar with their thoughts and desires so that the writing will influence the target group in the best way. Keeping this in mind, analysis of data revealed that writers change their use of words when their addressees change. For instance, in prescriptive letters one cannot see any imperative words. Instead, the addressee is remained unknown to keep the esteem of the person in charge. Also, passive verbs are frequently used in these letters. The writer uses passive to avoid addressing a particular person since it may not be polite. The addressee is not called with the pronoun ‘you’ but with third person plural—‘they.’ Thus, second person plural is changed to third person plural because the context requires behaving in that way. In informative letters senders are categorized in three groups:

TABLE III
CHARACTERIZATION OF VARIOUS SOURCES OF SENDERS IN INFORMATIVE LETTERS

Senders	Features of the letters
1. Minister of Science	Usually there is no addressee in the letter and it is generally directed to the head of the faculty or the person who is responsible for the specified work to be done. These letters are usually given to the delivery system of the target university to be distributed to the person in charge. The addressee is the <i>macrostructure</i> of the faculty.
2. Other organizations	The addressee is determined most of the time. These letters are usually written for director generals or registrar.
3. Members of the faculty	These letters include the <i>microstructure</i> of the faculty, that is, lecturers and members.

Having said that, whenever a letter is to be written, the macrostructure as well as the microstructure of that community should be taken into account otherwise it will not have its own influence. This specification of macro and micro levels affects the choice of words and phrases.

In official letters, the feature mentioned in previous paragraph is of paramount importance. In all five variations of letters, one can vividly see that the writer has put emphasis on social domain of letters. The hierarchical structure of official contexts requires the writer to be aware of some stylistic devices that are not suitable or has face threatening effect. We called this process the “*top-down approach*” toward analysis of data. Data was carefully analyzed to find out the origin and the destination of letters. After doing so, the positions of these starts (writer) and ends (receiver) were investigated. Categories of acknowledgment and appointment letters were different in comparison to other categories in respect to the positions of senders and receivers in that in these two kinds of letters the origin and the destination are individuals. However, in other three categories the origin and the destination are not a specific person but the macrostructure of the organization (the whole organization).

IV. DISCUSSION

The data analysis showed that the top-down approach toward the discourse community has the role of modifying both the purpose of the text and the linguistic choice of words and phrases. The choice of words and the purpose of the author were the yardsticks which categorized the data into five different groups. The investigation revealed that the macrostructure of a text, which is the ‘social domain’ of any genre, has the effect of determining both the purpose and lexicogrammatical structure of a letter. The importance of these social constraints has been shown by some researchers. For example, Santos (2002) maintained that “mainstream commercial English textbooks, adopted by many language schools in Brazil, fail to give thorough descriptions of social and cultural aspects” (p. 167). Likewise, Bhatia (2008) argued for a multiperspective approach to genre analysis which emphasized the context and the disciplinary cultures. In their study, Abbasian and Tahririan (2008) analyzed the generic features of e-mails and found that the discourse communities and purposes had strong influences on e-mails.

Table III gives us valuable information by suggesting that senders themselves sometimes affect how a text is formed. Genres play an important role in shaping and manipulating individuals’ thoughts and it is argued that in order to find the influence of genres on people, individuals should be examined closely (Cheng, 2006). The results of this study showed that categories share some commonalities in respect to textual features and it is misleading if one considers just the linguistic style for assigning data to various groups. In this corpus, informative letters constitute the largest amount of data and this category was the only category that letters from other organizations or universities (outer circle) were used. This category was divided into two groups and each group had some differences with the other one. Acknowledgement letters were the category in which most of the respectful words were used. The two categories which shared the most commonalities were prescriptive and informative. Prescriptive letters are to some extent like informative letters which are *imperative* (something should be done).

What have distinguished official genres from other genres are the hierarchical structures in official situations and, as Table III reveals, the changing features of letters in accordance to various identifications of receivers. For example, when letters are submitted to members of the faculty, one can recognize that the use of respectful phrases and words increases. This is because in correspondences between the members of the faculty, the addressee is known to the writer and this knowledge allows the writer to express his/her feeling more informally toward the person who will receive the letter. In prescriptive letters, one can hardly identify a clear addressee and the message is generalized to include the whole discourse community. In contrast, in informative letters the addressee is usually identified. The analysis revealed that the addressee in informative letters is usually the microstructure of the society—students or lecturers mainly. The

only categories in which there is always a direct addressee are acknowledgement and appointment letters. Although they are to a large degree personal, they have a latent purpose: to inform the macrostructure of the organization.

This latent purpose is mostly assigned to appointment letters. Part of the purpose is to inform a person that s/he has been chosen for a new post but the latent knowledge is to inform the whole organization that some changes have occurred. The background knowledge is important in shaping the textual features of letters. If you know the person you are addressing, then the process of writing would be less formal and the use of respectful words increases to a considerable degree. In appointment and acknowledgement letters, since the sender and the receiver are familiar with each other, the textual features differ in comparison to situations in which the two ends of the correspondence are unknown to each other.

V. CONCLUSION

This study focused on the interrelationship between different layers of official letters. It was recognized that there are various factors that affect the textual organization of a specific discourse. Some of these factors are background knowledge, the relationship between sender and receiver, formalities or informalities of a community, and the latent as well as the surface purposes of the writer. Ignoring these elements may lead to misunderstanding on the part of the reader and sometimes it may be considered as being rude or impolite. Moreover, the three layers of a genre should be kept in mind while writing the letters. These three layers affect each other in a direct way; the direction is from social domain towards context and then to textual domain. For example, whenever the identities of the interpreter (addressee) change, the writer uses different phrases and words to establish a consistency between the text and discourse community. The Bhatia's applied genre analysis model (2002) is useful for finding the realities underlying a genre because it considers different aspects of a given discourse and does not restrict its user.

The main purpose of this paper was to analyze official letters in order to find peculiarities of this genre. Considering just the textual aspects of official letters undermines so many hidden and fundamental characteristics of this genre. The main feature of official letters, which is its formality, owes this to the convention of the genre not to the textual elements. This article emphasizes that there should be a balance between the layers (textual, contextual, and social). It is clear that the features and the variability of a determined genre cannot be limited to just one study. As Brown (2007) put it, "it is the elusiveness of a phenomenon that makes the quest for answers so exciting" (p. 4).

This study aimed to make contribution to the realm of letter writing by proposing features of official letters. It was revealed that in order to convey communicative meaning and purpose, social relationship as well as the purpose of the author should be kept in mind since these two factors establish a framework for selecting lexicogrammatical characteristics. Since there are different purposes, as the results of this study proved, one cannot utilize a specific style for writing all kinds of official letters. It should be highlighted that this multifaceted investigation is a "pattern seeking" study rather than a "pattern posing" one (Bhatia, 1993) and teachers should consider this pattern-seeking nature of teaching genre. As Santos (2002) mentioned, teaching contextualized linguistic and cultural and social differences are keys to success in foreign language communication. Therefore, when students are taught social norms and contextualized linguistic elements, as it was investigated in this study, communication will be much clearer. The findings of this study help EFL students avoid miscommunication by identifying social relationships as well as the effect of these social relationships on the conventions and choice of words and phrases. Moreover, this study is beneficial to raise students' consciousness towards the subtle features of official genres.

There have always been cross-cultural differences that limit the scope of a researcher's findings. Since first language and culture remained constant for all the letters in this study, the generalizability of the findings to other situations with different languages and cultures is under question. Therefore, there may be more variation considering the purpose of the letters. In this study five specific purposes were found but there may be other variations unknown to the researchers. For example, there may be *follow up* letters that enjoy their own styles and features. This study was done on Persian official letters. However, with other languages there may be some idiosyncrasies.

More studies are needed to find out the cross-cultural differences when people write official letters. There may be organizations that differ considerably in their use of formal letters; they may have their own conventions. Therefore, further investigation is required to fulfill the points which were unseen to the eyes of the researchers in this study. As far as we have *Wh questions*, one might encounter some problems standing on his/her viewpoint because applying each of these questions may be a threat to the validity of studies in the realm of *human science*.

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Melika Hadavi is an MA in Teaching English as a Foreign Language at Tabaran Institutes of Higher Education, Mashhad, Iran.

Behrooz Marzban is an MA student at Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran.



Mostafa Morady Moghaddam is a third-year PhD candidate of TEFL at University of Tabriz and a member of Young Researchers and Elite Club, Mashhad Branch, Islamic Azad University, Mashhad, Iran.

A Study on Ethnic Identity Status and Its Contextual Factors among College Students of Bai Nationality in Yunnan

Ying Kou

School of Foreign Languages and Literature, Yunnan Normal University, Kunming, China

Ying Huang

School of Foreign Languages & Literature of Yunnan Normal University, China

Abstract—This study investigated the status of Bai college students' ethnic identity and examined the contextual factors which influence the formation of this Bai ethnic identity. A questionnaire which consists of the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM) and Contextual Factors (CF) was administered to 260 college students of Bai nationality from five universities in Yunnan Province. A stepwise regression analysis reveals that four contextual factors influence the formation of this Bai ethnic identity: subjects' place of residence, family, language proficiency, subjects' opinions and attitudes towards Bai and Han people and Bai and Han culture. Findings show that both male and female Bai college students are in the status of ethnic identity commitment, which means subjects are in high identification with Bai nationality. Gender difference is not so significant in the formation of Bai college students' ethnic identity. This identification contributes to the maintenance and transmission of Bai ethnic culture without the help of a written system of Bai language.

Index Terms—Bai nationality, college students, ethnic identity, contextual factors

I. INTRODUCTION

Bai people live in the southwest of China. According to the fifth national census conducted in 2000, the population of Bai minorities in China has reached 1.86 million. Most of them inhabit Yunnan province, others scatter around Sichuan and Hunan provinces. Bai is the second largest ethnic group of Yunnan province. They inhabit in compact communities in Dali Bai Autonomous Prefecture which used to be a cultural, political and economic center in Yunnan. Since the Dali Kingdom (937-1253A.D.), all the Bais in different areas has become a nationality with similar languages, cultures and economic systems (Huang, 2010).

As the main communication device, the Bai language, which is a spoken language without a written system, belongs to the Tibetan-Burma language branch of Sino-Tibetan language family. The Bai people take the white color in high esteem. Though Bai people believe in Buddhism and Taoism, they also worship "Benzhu" which is a village god. Benzhu can be the God of Nature, national heroes, famous officers or even animals such as horses and dragon. The March Fair is the grandest traditional festival at which people sell goods, hold sporting contests and provide singing and dancing performances. Different characteristics in language, religious believes, customs and traditions distinguish Bai nationality from the other 55 ethnic groups in China. The Bai had previously been known by a number of names. They were called as "Minjia", literally means "civilians". In 1958, the Chinese government compiled a list of nationalities and the Bai nationality as an ethnic label was officially recognized by both the Bai people themselves and others.

Bai people play an active role in the development of Yunnan province. While keeping their cultures and traditions, they adopt new culture elements to enrich their culture. With the increasing communications between people of different ethnic backgrounds, those Bais who leave their villages for profession and education purposes get more chances to communicate with different people. College students are the majority of those Bai people who leave their hometown. While they are receiving further education, they will meet students of different ethnic backgrounds. If they could be successful communicators who appreciate both their own and other's culture, their identity as a Bai people would be achieved within the process of cross-cultural communication. This achievement of ethnic identity is of great advantage to both the enhancement of Bai ethnic college students' intercultural communication competence and the maintenance of traditional Bai culture in a world of multiculturalism. Successful intercultural communication competence and an achieved ethnic identity are mutually promoted. So how these college students identify with Bai ethnic identity is a key factor to know how well they can keep their connection to Bai community as well as to a larger social context. In order to know a central aspect of ethnic identity held by Bai undergraduates from Yunnan province, this study is conducted.

Based on the background of the study, this research tries to answer the following two questions: 1. What's the status of ethnic identity of college students of Bai nationality in Yunnan province? 2. Which contextual factors influence the formation of this ethnic identity?

II. REVIEW OF RELEVANT STUDIES

During the last three decades a substantial amount of literatures and empirical studies have been written and conducted on the status of ethnic identity development.

The subjects of studies on ethnic identity conducted by international researchers can be roughly divided into two groups. The first group focuses on White subjects. In these studies, White subjects are included as a contrast group to ethnic minority group such as Hispanic, African American or Asian. The second group primarily focuses on Black subjects. Most of these studies are done in the United States. Topics of White ethnic groups and Black Americans are more than that of Asian Americans, Hispanics or American Indians. The majority of these articles are written from the aspect of psychology, but there are also literatures from sociology, anthropology, social work, and education.

Domestic researches on ethnic identity can be grouped into two categories: introductions to theoretical literatures of ethnic identity and empirical studies. Chinese scholars use western models to measure individuals of ethnic minority. But necessary adjustments are made to make those models fit the unique characteristics of Chinese ethnic groups. Subjects of minority nationality in the empirical studies are ranged from Tibetan (Wang, 2002; Wan & Wang, 2004), Hui (La, 2003), Uygur (Yan, 2008; Sun, 2009), Yi (Gong, 2009) to Korean (Yu, 2008), and so on. They are either adolescents or undergraduates (Shi, 2007). In these studies, the relationship between ethnic identity, acculturation and psychological well-being are discussed in great details. Their findings confirm that examining ethnic identity development is of significance. It could contribute a lot to the school counselors (Li & Shi, 2008) and to strengthen ethnic minority students' national identity and maintenance of ethnic cultures (Wang & Wan, 2004).

David's (1996) study shows that though cultural distinction between Bai and Han is less clear-cut, ethnic identity becomes sharply demarcated. It provides support for the present study because Bai people is culturally similar to the Han people, and this ambiguity of cultural boundaries may assimilate the Bai culture into Han culture, thus Bai people's ethnic identity will be demarcated. Luo (2008) concluded both males and females from rural areas get their ethnic identity strengthened after their participation in activities organized by gender-based rural associations.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Research Subjects

Subjects for this study are from five universities in Yunnan Province: Yunnan University, Yunnan Normal University, Yunnan University for Nationalities, Yunnan Agricultural University and Kunming Science and Technology University. They are undergraduates of Bai nationality, which means subjects' ethnicity is known to the researcher. They are within the grade range of one to four. The participant pool (N=206) includes 114 females and 92 males. They are all from Jianchuan County, which is an administrative county of Dali Bai Nationality Autonomous Prefecture of Yunnan province. Jianchuan County has a population of 168,900 by the end of year 2003. With its 91.6% population of Bai nationality, it ranks the first county with the largest percentage of Bai nationality in China. People there use Bai language in daily communication, even in news broadcasts and school settings. Bai culture is dense and pervasive there.

B. Research Instrument

The research instrument is a questionnaire consisted of two parts: contextual factors concerned about students' background information (CF) and Phinney's Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM).

MEIM has a reliability of Cronbach alpha = .81 to .89, across ethnic groups (Phinney, 1992; Roberts and his colleagues, 1999). Phinney (1995) examined the construct validity of the MEIM with 5,423 students from diverse ethnic groups in sixth, seventh, and eighth grade. The validity of the measures was substantiated. The scale in this present study was translated into and written in Chinese from MEIM for the Bai language does not have a written language. Reliability of the MEIM-translated version was determined by the procedure Cronbach's alpha, rendering a score of .73. Participants responded to these statements on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The score ranges from 1 to 5, signifying low to high ethnic identity status respectively. The validity of the questionnaire was substantiated. KMO and Bartlett Test rendered a score of .791. By taking the first part (CF) as the independent variable, the MEIM scale as the dependent variable (ethnic identity exploration and commitment as two dependent variables), KMO and Bartlett Test showed a significant level of .000. The questionnaire was also evaluated by professors and they substantiated its validity.

C. Data Collection

Participants were drawn from an organization called "the fellow-villager knows". It is a student-organized community through which undergraduates who come from the same place and enroll the same university are contacted. Community members have a union at the beginning of every school year to welcome the freshmen. In the present study, subjects were from the countryman- community of Jianchuan County organized by the five universities respectively. Before circulating questionnaires, the researcher requested those who were of Bai nationality to fill in a form to make sure that there is no participation of non- Bai-nationality students. Subjects were recruited from groups whose ethnicity is known to the researcher. Participants were asked to respond to the contextual factor measurement sheet and the MEIM measurement instrument (the two measurements were in Chinese). Each participant received a questionnaire

after they consented. They were informed that involvement in the study was completely voluntary and they would withdraw at any time without any negative consequences. Each participant was asked to first respond to the contextual factor measurement sheet, then to the measurement instrument sheet. The Bai language is transmitted orally without a written system. During the process of data collection, oral Bai language served as the communication device, while the questionnaires were written in Chinese characters.

D. Data Analysis

Those questionnaires with missing choices were deleted as invalid ones. The remaining ones were numbered and input into SPSS 17.0 for Windows. The first part (CF) was the independent variable; the second part (MEIM scale) was divided into two dependent variables (ethnic identity exploration and ethnic identity commitment as two dependent variables) according to Phinney (1992)'s research suggestions. The data were analyzed by using Means, Pairwise Multiple Comparisons and Stepwise Linear Regress.

IV. RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Bai college students' ethnic identity status

Ethnic identity exploration and ethnic identity commitment are taken as two variables in the present study and a Paired-Samples T Test was employed to examine the status of Bai ethnic identity. As shown in Figure 4.1, the mean score of ethnic identity commitment was higher than those of ethnic identity exploration. This suggests subjects are in the higher status of ethnic identity. In addition, correlation coefficient is 0.554 and the mean difference is significant ($p < 0.001$). The two factors were closely correlated ($t = -9.378$) as the previous studies have proved (French & Seidman, 2006).

FIGURE 4.1:
BAI ETHNIC IDENTITY STATUS

	N	Mean	S.D.	Correlation	Sig.	T
EIE mean	206	3.5922	0.54882	0.554**	0.000	-9.378
EIC mean	206	3.9105	0.47246			

Note: in Figure 4.1, EIE: ethnic identity exploration; EIC: ethnic identity commitment; N: number of the subjects.

Prerequisite of all the findings is that all the subjects self-identify themselves as a member of Bai nationality. The result of higher mean score of ethnic identity commitment than that of ethnic identity exploration is consistent with Phinney's assumption (Phinney, 1992). Higher mean scores of ethnic identity commitment means minority members have a strong sense of affirmation, belong or commitment to their ethnic identity and are in a higher status of ethnic identity. This is also consistent with Erikson's (1968) theory of identity development which posits that identity formation takes place through a process of exploration and commitment that typically occurs during adolescence. Subjects have a strong identification with their own culture at this status of ethnic identity. Phinney's developmental model assumes that with increasing age, subjects are more likely to be ethnic identity achieved. College students are in young adulthood and need to form intimate, loving relationships with other people. Success of this leads to strong relationships but failure of this result in loneliness and isolation.

Figure 4.1 shows that ethnic identity exploration and commitment are distinct factors but significantly correlated. However, the two levels of ethnic identity exploration and commitment should not be taken as separate dimensions. Since the formation of ethnic identity is developmental, the status of commitment is based on the process of exploration. Levels of identity would be sometimes mixed and sometimes overlapping because certain communications may cross and connects the various levels of identity.

Contextual factors that influence Bai ethnic identity formation

As Figure 4.2 shows, males and females are significantly different neither at ethnic identity exploration status nor at ethnic identity commitment status. Yet males scored a little bit higher than females at the means of both factors. This result is opposite to that of Ting-Toomey's which assumed that women are the carriers of ethnic tradition and tend to be in higher status of ethnic identity compared with males (Ting-Toomey, 1999). A number of researches also agreed about the greater involvement in ethnicity by females than males. The unique traits of Bai culture can be an explanation to this phenomenon.

FIGURE 4.2:
GENDER DIFFERENCE IN BAI ETHNIC IDENTITY

	Gender	N	Mean	S.D.	F	Sig.
EIE Mean	Male	92	3.6022	0.52581	0.882	0.349
	Female	114	3.5842	0.56890		
EIC Mean	Male	92	3.9394	0.49088	0.388	0.534
	female	114	3.8872	0.45790		

Note: in Figure 4.2, EIE: ethnic identity exploration; EIC: ethnic identity commitment; N: number of the subjects.

Historically, Bai culture is deeply influenced by Confucianism, the ethical values of which emphasizes patriarchal

dominance at domestic disciplines, rules and regulations of the clan. Values that are favor of males such as "boys are better than girls" and "males are superior to females" also widely spread in Bai ethnic group. Due to the demands of social development, however, Bai females rank a comparatively high status in family and in social production. Customs of a matriarchal society coexist with that of a patriarchal society in communities of Bai nationality. Religious ceremonies are accessible to women. Family ethics and social morals value women's contributions. Research pointed out that this special existence of woman functions as complement and adjustment to patriarchal culture through educating young generations the importance of matriarchal ethics. Gradually, a dual structure of ethical education "patriarchal—matriarchal" is formed in Bai nationality area (He, 2008). This explains why Bai ethnic female students score almost the same as male students. Another explanation is that male and female subjects are from areas where Bai people live concentratedly. They are exposed to similar cultural atmosphere in which they are raised and cultivated. They tend to be consistent in viewing and feeling the outside world. Conclusively, Bai college students are in high identification with Bai ethnic identity and a Bai ethnic identity formation is regardless of gender difference.

Contextual factors influence Bai ethnic identity exploration

A Pairwise Multiple Comparisons could only determine which contextual factors are correlated to the Bai ethnic identity exploration; it still can't explain the causality between these contextual factors and Bai ethnic identity exploration. Thus, a stepwise regression analysis was employed. The results are shown in Figure 4.4.

FIGURE 4.4:
STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF BAI ETHNIC IDENTITY EXPLORATION

Contextual Factors	Beta	t	Sig.	R ²	F
Degree of difference between Bai and Han culture	-.207	-3.249	.001	.067 ^a	14.616 ^a
Bai language proficiency	-.196	-2.931	.004	.116 ^b	13.291 ^b
Han language proficiency	-.243	-3.792	.000	.163 ^c	13.086 ^c
Annual family income	-.145	-2.043	.042	.194 ^d	12.092 ^d
Father's educational level	-.134	-2.006	.046	.210 ^e	10.623 ^e

Note: Data in Figure 4.4 with letter "a" at top right corner signifies the R² value and F value when the first prediction variable enters regression equation. A letter "b" at top right means the R² value and F value when two prediction variables enter regression equation. So does letter "c", "d" and "e". (The same in Figure 4.6)

Figure 4.4 shows five factors negatively influence the formation of Bai ethnic identity exploration: degree of difference between Bai and Han culture; Bai language proficiency; Han language proficiency; annual family income and father's educational level. They could together explain the 21% variation of Bai ethnic identity exploration.

Contextual factors influence Bai ethnic identity commitment

A Pairwise Multiple Comparisons could only determine which contextual factors are correlated to the Bai ethnic identity commitment. It still can't explain the causality between these contextual factors and Bai ethnic identity commitment. A stepwise regression analysis is employed. The results are shown in Figure 4.6.

FIGURE 4.6:
STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF BAI ETHNIC IDENTITY COMMITMENT

Contextual Factors	Beta	t	Sig.	R ²	F
The necessity to maintain Bai traditional culture in modern society	-.202	-3.057	.003	.069 ^a	15.199 ^a
Bai language proficiency	-.231	-3.470	.001	.104 ^b	11.816 ^b
Han language proficiency	-.197	-3.045	.003	.143 ^c	11.252 ^c
Degree of difference between Bai and Han culture	-.166	-2.505	.013	.164 ^d	9.830 ^d
Nationality of teachers who have taught you	.143	2.182	.030	.183 ^e	8.964 ^e

Figure 4.6 shows the first four factors negatively influence the formation of Bai ethnic identity commitment: the necessity to maintain Bai traditional culture in modern society; Bai language proficiency; Han language proficiency; and degree of difference between Bai and Han culture. They could together explain the 16.4 % variation of Bai ethnic identity exploration. One factor positively influences the formation of Bai ethnic identity commitment: nationality of teachers who have taught the subjects. They could together explain the 18.3% variation of Bai ethnic identity commitment.

Discussions

Context plays an important role in ethnic identity development. No one can get an identity all by him/herself. Even in adolescence, identity could never be an individual achievement, but rather an outgrowth of mutual recognition; and just as for the infant, identity grows by being acknowledged and appreciated by others (Erikson, 1968). The influence of context depends on prior experience, the intergroup situation, and the current level of ethnic commitment. Research maintains that "commitment to the group is a crucial moderating factor that determines responses to the context"

(Ellemers et al., 1999:381). It is therefore important to consider the interaction of the person and the context. Ethnic identity formation is a complex, dynamic process involving both exploration and commitment.

The first factor is place of residence. Countryside background of subjects is accounted as a factor that influences Bai ethnic identity exploration. Ethnic identity has been found to be positively related to the ethnic density of the neighborhood (Garcia & Lega, 1979). In this study, countryside refers to the rural areas in Jianchan County, where Bai people live concentratedly. People there use Bai language to communicate, observe the traditional Bai customs and celebrate Bai holidays. Furthermore, teachers who had taught the subjects and their schoolmates are of Bai nationality. School environment still provide them with a dense Bai culture environment. These two levels are to their advantages in Bai ethnic identity exploration and commitment.

The second factor is family. A major influence on the development of ethnic identity in adolescence is the family. Families functions as teaching younger generation important traditions and social skills. They give individual knowledge about his or her historical backgrounds; provide information regarding the permanent essence of his or her culture. Subjects gradually and unconsciously acquire specific behaviors, customs, traditions, and language associated with their ethnic or cultural groups.

Findings indicate that parents' educational level is negatively correlated to Bai ethnic identity exploration. The educations parents received are the mainstream culture education (here it refers to the Han culture). The higher education parents received, the bigger the Han culture influences are on them. This leads to a stronger sense of independence, which is an embodiment of modern high-educated people's self-esteem and self-value. While transmitting Bai and Han knowledge and cultures to their youngsters, these well-educated Bai parents might make their own critical judgments. They might pay more attentions to the modernity and the development of Bai culture. Therefore, a negative influence on Bai ethnic identity formation from highly educated parents may lies in this. Furthermore, as the result shows, father's educational level influences Bai ethnic identity exploration. This can be explained by the dual structure of ethical education "patriarchal—matriarchal" in Bai nationality area. Since males scored a little bit higher than females both in Bai ethnic identity exploration and commitment, it is reasonable that father's educational level exerted larger influences on subjects' ethnic identity exploration. Family annual income also can be a predictor variable to Bai ethnic identity exploration. This is supported by Street's study which showed that annual family income was positively correlated with higher ethnic identity and adolescents of higher socioeconomic status reported more positive feelings of being members of their group (Street, 2009).

The third factor is language proficiency. Knowledge and usage of an ethnic language have been considered by some researcher to be key aspects of ethnic identity. As the results shown in Figure 4.4 and Figure 4.6, both the proficiency of Bai language and Han language can predict Bai ethnic identity exploration and commitment. This is supported by Giles and Coupland who argued that sometimes people use their in-group language to reinforce their in-group status and establish distance from the out-group. They may use the language of the out-group at other times in order to adapt to and align with the out-group (Giles, Coupland & Coupland, 1991). Bai ethnic students may speak Bai language when in neighborhood communities in order to preserve their history and roots and to reinforce their identification and bond as a people. The same students may speak Chinese at school because the teachers demand it.

Before discussing the influence of language, the usage of Bai and Han language in Jianchuan County is introduced first. Jianchuan County locates at the juncture where Nujiang, Diqing, Lijiang and Dali Prefectures meet. It is mainly inhabited by Bai people whose oral Bai language is the medium in their daily communication. For most of the local students (also subjects concerned in present study), Bai language is their mother tongue. When it is time for them to go to kindergarten or primary school, they begin to learn Chinese in school setting. Because Bai language does not have a written system, a new form of Bai language written character is created after the foundation of People's Republic of China, which is called *Pinying* Bai language character, a phonetic system for transcribing Bai language characters. This newly created form is mainly used in illiteracy eradication program, bilingual teaching experiments and publication of books. But it has not been popularized yet. While communicating in Bai language in daily life, the subjects are immersed in Han language which is transmitted through devices of modern technology like TV, radio, computer, and so on. Nevertheless, both Bai language and Han language (Mandarin) are acquired by local students (and the subjects as well) unconsciously, naturally and rapidly in the daily surroundings.

Language performances the significant function of helping individuals constructs and maintains their ethnic identity. A person's native language, thus, has deep significance because it is like the seed of identity that blossoms as children grow. Language helps individuals construct an identity that ties them to their in-group and at the same time sets them apart from other possible reference groups. Culture contributes to the construction of an individual's many identities. As the carrier of culture, language contributes to the construction of one's culturally based individual and group identities. Through language communication, an individual's multi- identities are enacted and enforced. Language presents not only information about one's identity, it also helps one expresses and maintains his/her identity.

Bai language is of great significance to Bai people. Through it, Bai culture is carried out and transmitted from generation to generation. As the means of communication in their daily life, Bai language also functions as a symbol of Bai people's ethnic identity, which will enhance their sense of belonging. However, a dichotomized perspective should be held on the usage of Bai language. It will enhance Bai people's ethnic identity in their in-group communication surroundings. But it will weaken their out-group communication competence if they still use Bai language to

communicate with out-group people.

The fourth factor is subjects' opinions and attitudes towards the differences between Bai and Han people and Bai and Han culture. Findings show that subjects think there is a great difference between Bai and Han people and Bai and Han culture at ethnic identity exploration period. An explanation is that at ethnic identity exploration period, subjects can only identify with their own group. At this status of ethnic identity formation, subjects may only explore whatever belongs to their own group. This result is different from those who posit that "there is no difference between Bai and Han people, Bai people are Han-characterizing". Their argument found its evidence in Gans (1996) who pointed out that in measuring ethnic identity, attitude studies tend to overemphasize the importance ascribed to it; ethnic groups may have more in common with one another than distinct differences, but that small difference is exaggerated because of the emotional importance placed on it by researchers and their participants. Thus, there arouses an argument that subjects of Bai nationality think the Bai culture differs from the Han culture while Han people think Bai people are becoming Han-characterized and cultural differences between Bai and Han nationalities no longer existed. It is, to some degree, because ethnic identity is a construct of avowal and ascription. Ethnic identity is avowed by in-group members and ascribed to in-group members by out-group members. From subjects' in-group perspective, the distinction between two cultures still exists during the process of exploring their ethnic identity.

The fifth factor is subjects' opinions and attitudes towards the importance of learning Bai culture and Han culture. As findings show, at ethnic identity exploration status, the significant level of "learning Bai culture is more important" is correlated with "learning Han culture is more important". However, at ethnic identity commitment status, the significant level of "learning Bai culture is more important" is correlated with "learning both of the cultures". Subjects show a change in attitudes towards the importance of learning Bai culture and learning Han culture. The explanation to this change is that a strong ethnic identity does not necessarily imply a weak relationship to the dominant culture. Contrarily, a strong agreement with the dominant culture can even prove subjects' improvement in cross-communication competence. In the status of ethnic identity commitment, while identifying with Bai culture, subjects can also approve of Han culture which shows subjects' intercultural awareness. This is supported by Triandis (1986) who argues that intercultural awareness is the cognitive perspective of intercultural communication. It emphasizes the changing of personal thinking about the environment through the understanding of the distinct characteristics of one's own and the other's cultures. Thus, subjects' acceptance of both Bai and Han cultures indicates they are aware of the intercultural difference. This awareness requires individuals to further find out the distinct characteristics of other cultures in order to effectively interpret the behavior of others in intercultural interactions.

V. CONCLUSION

Findings of the study confirms the reliability of Phinney's MEIM scale, which posits ethnic identity can be examined as ethnic identity exploration (the search status) and ethnic identity commitment (affirmation status, belonging stage and achievement status).

Bai college students involved in this study are in ethnic identity commitment status. They identify highly with Bai nationality. However, ethnic identity commitment is the wrap-up of ethnic identity affirmation, belonging and achievement, this study cannot tell precisely which status subjects are in, whether in ethnic identity affirmation status, belonging stage or in achievement status. Future studies are necessary to figure it out. Secondly, four contextual factors influence the formation of Bai ethnic identity: place of residence, family, language proficiency, opinions and attitudes towards Bai and Han people and Bai and Han culture. The result indicates that the impact of college students' gender difference on ethnic identity formation is contrary to previous related studies.

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Ying Kou was born in Dali, China in 1985. She received her MA. degree in literature from Yunnan Normal University, China in 2011.

She is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages and Literature, Yunnan Normal University, Kunming, China. Her research interests include language teaching and intercultural communication.

Ying Huang obtained her PhD from La Trobe University in Australia in 2005, with a dissertation focusing on intercultural communication and tour guides. She is currently a professor and holding the position as Chair of School Committee in School of Foreign Languages & Literature of Yunnan Normal University in China. Her research interest is intercultural communication and EFL.

English Language Policy and Teacher Effectiveness at Grade Three Senior High Schools

Ebrahim Khodadady
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran

Leila Aryanjam
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, International Branch, Mashhad, Iran

Mohammad Ghazanfari
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran

Abstract—This study aimed to explore the relationship between English language education policy (ELEP) and teacher effectiveness (TE) at grade three senior high schools (G3SHS) in Mashhad, Iran. To this end, the English Language Policy Inventory (ELPI) designed and validated by Khodadady, Arian, and Hosseinabadi (2013) and English Language Teachers' Attribute Scale (ELTAS) developed and validated by Khodadady, Fakhrabadi and Azar (2012) were administered to 48 teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) and their 1072 EFL learners. The correlational analysis of results showed that the two ELEP and TE domains correlated significantly with each other. The same analysis revealed significant relationships between Harmonic Curriculum, International Interaction, Internationalizing Native Culture, Methodological Development, International Understanding, All-Compassing Improvement and Functional Organization genera of the ELPI and Qualified, Social, Stimulating, Organized, Proficient, Humanistic and Self-Confident genera of the ELTAS. The findings are discussed from both theoretical and empirical perspectives and suggestions are made for future research.

Index Terms—learning, policy, education, schema theory

I. INTRODUCTION

In order to define “language” as the main single concept forming a part of his textbook *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*, Brown (2007) reviewed the literature and concluded that no single definition will fulfill the objective. He, therefore, opted for a composite definition consisting of eight statements which he believed ‘provide a reasonably concise “25-word-or-less” definition of language’ (p. 6). Similarly, in order to supply his readers of the textbook *Research Principles, Methods and Statistics in Applied Linguistics* with a distinct definition of “research”, Khodadady (2013) followed Brown because “a composite definition captures the nature of research and sheds light on some research features which are usually overlooked in single definitions” (p. 2).

The present researchers believe single and composite definitions of words such as “language” and “research” derive their rationale from two approaches of schema theory, i.e., macrostructural and microstructural, employed to describe reading comprehension ability in the literature (Khodadady, 1997; Khodadady & Herriman, 2000). Single definitions are macrostructural in that they are approached as universally accepted knowledge expressed and endorsed by authorities in the field helping readers understand what they read because they are “guided by the principle that every input is mapped against existing schema and that all aspects of that schema must be compatible with the input information” (Carrell, 1983).

The writers who offer composite definitions are, however, followers of microstructural approach because they provide their readers with as many relevant concepts as they deem necessary in order to help their readers relate to the concept under comprehension as they themselves do. The approach is based on the assumption that there is no single definition or macro concept shared by both writers and readers but a series and combination of concepts represented by the writers’ words or “schemata” (Khodaady, 2013) which help readers understand what the writers say and agree or disagree with them as an objective criteria of their understanding. The present study is based on a microstructural approach in which the relationship between English language education policy (ELEP) and teacher effectiveness (TE) is explored.

2004

Dixon (2009), for example, adopted a macrostructural approach towards the ELEP when he related it to a “wide range of educational practices with obvious social, cultural, and even political implications” (cited in Kiany, Mirhosseini & Navidinia, 2011, p. 50) as a single definition. Similarly, Karyolemou () defined the ELEP macrostructurally as decisions

made on ideological issues dealing with nationhood, citizenship and identity. Microstructural approach, however, starts with specifying each and all the sentences and their constituting schemata stating the reasons for which English language is taught and then builds the ELEP on these statements made under specific conditions in given places and at a given period of time.

Khodadady, Arian, and Hosseinabadi (2013) [henceforth KA&H], for example, reviewed the literature and identified 64 statements unofficially elaborating the ELEP in Iran and developed their English Language Policy Inventory (ELPI) to explore the domain. By drawing on Khodadady and Hesarzadeh's (2014) treatment of each word used in texts such as the ELPI as schemata, Khodadady and Aryanjam (2014) parsed and codified all the schemata comprising the ELPI statements to study them linguistically and cognitively as Khodadady and Dastgahian (2015) did with the 102 statements comprising the English Language Teachers' Attribute Scale (ELTAS) developed and validated by Khodadady, Fakhrabadi and Azar (2012) [henceforth KF&A].

The linguistic analysis of 250 schema types comprising the ELPI, for example, shows that they belong to 14 genera, i.e., 55 adjectives (22.0%), 3 adverbs (1.2%), 101 nouns (40.4%), 60 verbs (24.0%), 3 conjunctions (1.2%), 6 determiners (2.4%), 12 prepositions (4.8%), 1 pronoun (.4%), 1 syntactic verb (.4%), 4 names (1.6%), 2 para-adverbs (.8%), and 2 particles (.8%). These genera in turn establish the superordinate categories of semantic ($n = 219$, 87.6%), syntactic ($n=23$, 9.2%) and parasyntactic ($n=8$, 3.2%) domains, indicating that the ELEP which is unofficially followed in Iran is defined in a language which has its own specific schema types, genera and domain having hierarchical relationships with each other.

While for a word such as 'globalize' the EEL teachers cannot, for example, find any entry in *the Shorter Oxford English Dictionary* (Onions, 1973) because of historical reasons, they should relate it to the schema "Iran" in the first statement of the ELPI, "one of the ELEPs is globalizing Iran", in order to decide whether they teach the EL in their classes in order to make their country globally known and accepted. Hence, the schema of "globalization" is understood and interpreted in reference to the other schemata constituting the statement. To differentiate the cognitive analysis of a statement from its linguistic analysis, Khodadady and Dastgahian (2016) employed the term "species" expressing a concept which is broader than its constituting schemata when they are understood individually, i.e., "one", "of", "the", "English", "language", "teaching", "policy", "is", "globalizing", and "Iran".

As agentive, comparative, dative and superlative species form the *linguistic* genus of adjectives contributing to the language of the ELPI, out of 64 statements comprising the inventory, species 2, 9, 16, 17, 26, 30, 31, 40 bring up concepts which are closely related to the globalization of Iran as stated in species 1 and thus form a *cognitive* genus called *Internationalizing Native Culture* by KA&H. While no researcher has established any *logical* genera for the ELEP anywhere in the world so far, KA&H did extract the genus of *Internationalizing Native Culture* along with *Harmonic Curriculum*, *International Interaction*, *Methodological Development*, *International Understanding*, *All-Compassing Improvement*, and *Functional Organization* genera from the responses of 619 English language teachers who took the ELPI in 2013. They were offering general English and English for specific purposes in secondary and tertiary education center in Mashhad, Iran.

According to Khodadady and Aryanjam (2014), the schemata, species and genera of the ELPI constitute the *domain* of ELEP within a hierarchical system in which the relationship of the ELPI with other variables of concern can be explored. The present researchers have, therefore, adopted the microstructural approach of schema theory to find out whether there is any significant relationship between the ELEP and TE domains as measured by the ELPI and ELTAS, respectively. The study also explores whether the seven genera of the ELPI relate significantly to Qualified, Social, Stimulating, Organized, Proficient, Humanistic, Self-Confident, and Lenient genera of the ELTAS.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Two groups of participants took part in the present study voluntarily: grade three senior high school (G3SHS) students and their EFL teachers.

1. English Language Learners

One thousand seventy four G3SHS students took part in the study. Two of them were, however, removed from the study because they had not answered most of the items on the ELTAS. The age of 1072 participants ranged between 13 and 19 (mean = 16.80, SD = .79). In terms of gender, 891 (83.1%) and 181 (16.9%) were female and male, respectively. They specified Persian ($n = 1028$, 95.9%), English ($n = 23$, 2.1%), Kurdish ($n = 10$, .9%), Lori ($n = 1$, .1%), and Turkish ($n = 8$, .7%) as their mother language. They were studying at 30 senior high schools as shown Table 1. As can be seen, the highest number of participants were studying at Saadi ($n = 69$, 6.4%), Imam Reza ($n = 65$, 6.1%), and Sayadeh Shirazi ($n = 56$, 5.2%) senior high schools.

TABLE 1
NUMBER (F) AND PERCENTAGE (P) OF G3SHS STUDENTS ENROLLED IN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

No	School name	N	P	No	School name	N	P
1	Alameh Amini	41	3.8	16	Maryam	46	4.3
2	Allameh Tabatabaai	25	2.3	17	Mosallanejad	30	2.8
3	Almizan	9	.8	18	Narjes	51	4.8
4	Azadegan	50	4.7	19	Nurbakhsh	23	2.1
5	Bentolhoda	46	4.3	20	Parvin	52	4.9
6	Dr Hesabi	9	.8	21	Rangraz	28	2.6
7	Faezeh	8	.7	22	Saadi	69	6.4
8	Fazilat	40	3.7	23	Sadeghi	37	3.5
9	Hafez	23	2.1	24	Sama	21	2.0
10	Hasheminejad	18	1.7	25	Sayadeh Shirazi	56	5.2
11	Hekmat	18	1.7	26	Shafagh	30	2.8
12	Imam Ali	55	5.1	27	Taghvapishegan	54	5.0
13	Imam Reza	65	6.1	28	Torabizadeh	51	4.8
14	Kosar	25	2.3	29	Vahid	28	2.6
15	Malek Ashtar	24	2.2	30	Zeinabyieh	40	3.7

2. Teachers of English as a Foreign Language

Seventy five EFL teachers took part in this study. It was, however, realized that twenty seven of them had administered the ELTAS to their G4SHS students. These teachers were excluded from the study because Khodadady and Dastgahian's (2014) findings show that the genera underlying the ELTAS differ from G3SHS to G4SHS students. Forty one and seven of the remaining forty eight grade three teachers were female and male in gender, respectively. They were holding associate diploma (n=1, 2.1%), BA/BSc (n=30, 62.5%), MA/MSc (n=16, 33.3%) degrees in Chemistry (n=1, 2.1%) English Language and Literature (n=2, 4.2%), English Literature (n=3, 6.3%), English Translation (n= 3, 6.3%), Linguistics (n=2, 4.2%), and Teaching English as a Foreign Language (n=37, 77.1%). They had been teaching English from three to 29 years (Mean=17.18, SD=7.17) in senior high schools. They all spoke Persian as their mother language.

B. Instruments

Three instruments were employed in this study: a Demographic Scale, English Language Teachers' Attribute Scale and English Language Policy Inventory.

1. Demographic Scale

For gathering the data related to EFL teachers a Demographic Scale (DS) containing 13 questions was designed to be used with the ELPI. They dealt with the teachers' age, place of teaching, level and years of teaching EFL, gender, marital status, field and degree of study and the language they spoke at home. Also a DS was developed to be used with the ELTAS to collect the demographic information related to G3SHS students' age, gender, overall English achievement score in 2013, and the language they spoke at home. Questions in both DSs require giving short answers in writing and selecting a certain alternative from among few choices.

2. English Language Teachers' Attribute Scale

The English Language Teachers' Attribute Scale (ELTAS) developed and validated by KF&A was used in this study. They scrutinized teacher evaluation questionnaires employed at Azad University, Brock University, Danesh Primary School in Torbat, Khayyam University, Mottahari High School, Nassrabad High School in Torbat, Samand Guidance School, and Tabaran Higher Education Institute and listed all teacher attributes found on these forms. Then they matched them with the attributes brought up by Brosh, (1996), Elizabeth, May and Chee (2008), Park and Lee (2006) Moafiyan and Pishghadam (1998) and Suwandee (1995) to complete the list and finally added some based on their own personal teaching experiences. KF&A submitted the finalized list to the committee responsible for English language teaching in Education Bureau in Mashhad and developed their 102-item ELTAS.

The incomplete statement "my present English teacher ..." on the ELTAS directed the respondents to focus on the teachers who offered English to them at the time the project was conducted. They were asked to evaluate each of the 102 species describing their teachers by choosing one of the five alternatives provided. Species one, for example, required them to completely agree, agree, express no idea, disagree or completely disagree with the statement that their present English teacher "grades tests and assignments fairly and based on some rules." KF&A administered the scale to 1328 female G3SHS students and extracted eight genera from 94 species by subjecting their students' responses to Principal Axis Factoring and rotating the factors via Varimax with Kaiser Normalization, i.e., Qualified, Social, Stimulating, Organized, Proficient, Humanistic, Self-Confident, and Lenient. They reported the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients of .95, .94, .90, .89, .89, .89, .44 and .47, for the eight genera, respectively.

3. English Language Policy Inventory

In addition to the ELTAS, the English Language Policy Inventory (ELPI) developed by KA&H was employed in this study. They reviewed the literature and identified 64 statements representing the most pertinent species of ELEP domain followed unofficially in Iran (Kiany, Navidinia, & Momenian, 2010; Kiany, Mirhosseini & Navidinia, 2011; Kiany, Mahdavy & Ghafar Samar, 2011). Each statement on the ELPI is introduced by the incomplete statement "one

of the English language teaching policies ...". It is followed by the verb schema "is" to provide the EFL teachers with a common theme to decide the relevance of each species of ELEP to their own teaching.

The first species, for example, required the 619 EFL teachers participating in KA&H's study to completely disagree, disagree, disagree to some extent, express no idea, agree to some extent, agree and completely agree with "globalizing Iran" as a species of ELEP. The application of PAF and VKN to their responses showed that the 64 species loaded acceptably on seven genera, i.e., i.e., Harmonic Curriculum, International Interaction, Internationalizing Native Culture, Methodological Development, International Understanding, All-Compassing Improvement and Functional Organization. Further statistical analyses showed that the ELPI and its seven genera had the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients of .97, .96, .88, .85, .87, .88, .82, .75, respectively.

C. Procedures

After coordinating with the authorities of various senior high schools and EFL teachers the measures were distributed among G3SHS students by the second researcher in person. The teachers had told the students that they would consider taking the ELTAS as part of their class activity and give them some credit for their participation. While they were taking the scale, the teachers themselves completed the ELPI. As the students were completing the ELTAS, the second researcher walked along the aisles and ensured that the students answered all the questions as she interacted with them in their mother language. During the interaction no particular question dealing with the species of scales were raised. Some occasional comments were, however, made by teachers regarding the ELPI and its development process. Upon having the ELTAS and ELPI completed within approximately 20 and 30 minutes, respectively, the researcher expressed her appreciation, wrote her contact number on the board and announced that interested participants could get in touch with her if they wanted to know the results.

D. Data Analysis

The descriptive statistics of the ELTAS and ELPI was estimated to determine the functioning of the measures. Cronbach's alpha was employed to establish the internal consistency of the measures and their underlying genera. Since correlational studies are designed to investigate the nature and strength of functional relationships among the variables of interest (Brown, 1988), the statistics of covariance belonging to the two measures were also estimated by utilizing Pearson correlations. All statistical analyses were performed by using IBM SPSS statistics 20 to test the hypotheses below.

H1. There will be no significant relationship between English language policy and teacher effectiveness.

H2. The **domain** of English language policy will not correlate significantly with the genera of teacher effectiveness.

H3. The **genera** of English language policy will not correlate significantly with the genera of teacher effectiveness.

III. RESULTS

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics of the ELPI and its seven underlying factors. As can be seen, the inventory is a highly reliable psychological measure of ELEP as determined by G3SHS English teachers ($\alpha = .99$). Its reliability level is even higher than the alpha reported by KF&A ($\alpha = .97$) with 619 secondary and higher education (SHE) teachers. Similar to the domain, the genera constituting the ELEP of G3SHS teachers are more reliable than those of SHE teachers. *Functional Organization* genus, for example, has the coefficient of 0.88 and 0.75 for the two groups, respectively. These results show that the ELPI provides a more reliable measure of ELEP when it is administered to teachers offering English to a specific grade.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE ELPI AND ITS GENERA (N = 48)

Genera and Domain	# of Ss	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	This study	KA&H
Harmonic Curriculum	23	103.10	33.159	-.511	-.666	0.97	0.96
International Interaction	8	37.79	12.760	-.738	-.225	0.95	0.88
Internationalizing Native Culture	9	42.06	12.010	-.416	-.384	0.89	0.85
Methodological Development	8	35.50	11.257	-.425	-.063	0.91	0.87
International Understanding	8	33.88	12.112	-.392	-.669	0.91	0.88
All-Compassing Improvement	5	21.48	7.122	-.363	-.384	0.87	0.82
Functional Organization	3	12.60	5.123	-.235	-.950	0.88	0.75
ELPI	64	311.23	84.242	-.511	-.274	0.99	0.97

Table 3 presents the descriptive statistics of the ELTAS and its genera. As can be seen, the alpha reliability coefficient (RC) of the scale is as high as the RC obtained by KF&A (.97). Among the seven factors, the Qualified and Social genera have the highest RCs, i.e., .94 and .92, respectively. Stimulating, Organized, Proficient, and Humanistic factors enjoy acceptable levels of reliability as well, i.e., .87, .84, .85, and .83, respectively. Self-Confident factor, however, has an RC of .50 which is the second lowest. It was expected because it consists of only two species. The Lenient genus, nonetheless, is the lowest in reliability, i.e., $\alpha = .34$, in spite of consisting of three species. Its RC is even lower than the coefficient reported by KF&A ($\alpha = .47$). In sharp contrast, the Self-Confident genus is, however, the only

factor whose RC in this study (.50) is higher than that of KF&A's (.44), indicating that the more self-confident the G3SHS teachers are, the less reliable they become in their leniency.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE ELTAS AND ITS UNDERLYING FACTORS (N = 1072)

Genera	# of Ss	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Alpha This study	KF&A
Qualified	28	102.09	21.699	-.820	1.823	0.94	0.95
Social	13	48.71	11.351	-.611	-.006	0.92	0.94
Stimulating	16	52.15	11.946	-.210	-.139	0.87	0.90
Organized	12	45.79	8.390	-.583	.095	0.84	0.89
Proficient	11	43.20	7.953	-.715	.258	0.85	0.89
Humanistic	9	32.87	7.173	-.371	-.273	0.83	0.89
Self-Confident	2	8.23	1.693	-1.007	.863	0.50	0.44
Lenient	3	8.08	2.573	.173	-.351	0.34	0.47
ELTAS	94	341.12	62.127	-.419	.018	0.97	0.97

Correlational analysis of the ELPI and ELTAS showed that they were significantly related ($r = .091$, $p < .01$) and thus *rejected* the first hypothesis that *there will be no significant relationship between English language policy and teacher effectiveness*. The correlation coefficients (CCs) presented in Table 4 also *rejected* the second hypothesis to a large extent as well. As can be seen, as a measure of ELEP domain, the ELPI correlates significantly with the Qualified ($r = .107$, $p < .01$), Proficient ($r = .087$, $p < .01$), Social ($r = .069$, $p < .05$) and Humanistic ($r = .068$, $p < .05$) genera of teacher effectiveness domain.

TABLE 4
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE ELPI AND THE FACTORS UNDERLYING THE ELTAS (N = 1072)

ELPI and Its Genera	ELTAS Genera							
	Qualified	Social	Stimulating	Organized	Proficient	Humanistic	Self-Confident	Lenient
ELPI	.107**	.069*	.057	.070*	.087**	.068*	.047	.016
Harmonic Curriculum	.100**	.048	.054	.063*	.085**	.051	.038	.014
International Interaction	.072*	.052	.013	.052	.052	.049	.023	-.011
Internationalizing Native Culture	.065*	.034	.039	.035	.037	.043	.012	.047
Methodological Development	.113**	.096**	.066*	.070*	.102**	.087**	.075*	.006
International Understanding	.133**	.101**	.080**	.094**	.114**	.089**	.073*	.022
All-Compassing Improvement	.133**	.110**	.081**	.107**	.102**	.102**	.060*	.022
Functional Organization	.094**	.060*	.061*	.058	.073*	.062*	.045	.012

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

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

The results presented in Table 4 above *reject* the third hypothesis to a large extent as well, i.e., *the genera of English language policy will not correlate significantly with the genera of teacher effectiveness*. As can be seen, the Qualified genus of teacher effectiveness, for example, correlates significantly with all the genera constituting ELEP, i.e., International Understanding ($r = .133$, $p < .01$), All-Compassing Improvement ($r = .133$, $p < .01$), Methodological Development ($r = .113$, $p < .01$), Harmonic Curriculum ($r = .100$, $p < .01$), Functional Organization ($r = .094$, $p < .01$), International Interaction ($r = .072$, $p < .05$), and Internationalizing Native Culture ($r = .065$, $p < .05$), indicating that policy designers have to rely on Qualified G3SHS teachers in order to enforce their policies.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

The microstructural approach of schema theory provided the present researchers with a sound rationale to study the domains of English language education policy (ELEP) and teacher effectiveness (TE). The results showed a significant relationship between the two domains which can be justified by focusing on the linguistic and cognitive structures of the ELPI and ELTAS through which the domains have been explored. Four hundred eighty five schema types comprise the two domains among which only 56 are common to both, i.e., a, achievements, activities, all, and, approach, appropriate, at, attention, based, both, by, content, culture, different, English, evaluation, for, foreign, high, hours, ideas, in, information, is, knowledge, language, learners, learning, lesson, life, materials, methods, necessary, needs, not, objectives, of, on, programs, qualitatively, quantitatively, skills, social, students, such as, teaching, the, their, through, time, to, use, values, way, and with.

The comparative analysis of schemata comprising the two domains is based on Khodadady and Lagzian's (2013) study in which they parsed and categorized 70 pages of the English textbook entitled "Radiology: Principles and Interpretation" (White & Pharoah, 2004) and compared them with their Persian translation, RADIOLOGY DAHAN: OSOOL WA TAFSIR (Valizadeh, trans. 1384). Their results showed that "the two texts differed significantly from each

other at the domain, genus and species level" (p. 81) when they were analyzed linguistically. While two texts dealing specifically with the same cognitive domain expressed in two languages, i.e., radiology, differ from each other linguistically, finding a significant relationship between the two distinct domains of English language policy and teacher effectiveness assumes great educational importance.

In spite of having 56 common schemata, the ELPI differs significantly from the ELTAS in having 190 schemata which are distinct as regards the 239 schemata comprising the ELTAS. The Chi-Square analysis shows that the number of common and distinct cognitive schemata comprising the ELPI and ELTAS is significantly different from each other ($\chi^2 = 111.023$, $df = 2$, $p < .001$). The difference shows itself best in the semantic relationship the cognitive schemata enter into with each other in the two scales. "Achievement" as a common cognitive schema, for example, relates to species 56 of ELPI, "understanding and transferring human cultural heritage and scientific achievements" whereas its contribution to the ELTAS occurs in the context of species 47, i.e., "Encourages achievements and discourages unacceptable behaviours".

The statistical and schema-based findings of this study thus show that teacher training, learner education and policy development must be interwoven and supported locally and nationally at all levels of education because they are significantly related to each other. The cognitive schema "achieve" in species 15, for example, represents the policy of "achieving the superior position in science, economy and technology in the area", however, no concrete steps are ever taken either by the ministry of education or by any other ministry to hold local and national English tests to identify the teachers and students who excel in their English achievement. There is no doubt that identifying and rewarding teachers and students who have reached "superior position in English" will provide external motivation for others to follow the suit.

As a cognitive domain, the ELEP relates significantly to the Qualified ($r = .107$, $p < .01$), Proficient ($r = .087$, $p < .01$), Organized ($r = .070$, $p < .05$), Social ($r = .069$, $p < .05$) and Humanistic ($r = .068$, $p < .05$) genera of TE domain. These findings show that EFL teachers' qualification, proficiency, being organized and sociable need to be emphasized in pursuing ELEPs at G3SHSs. Teachers scoring high on these genera should be encouraged and supported by awards or various types of recognition such as being named as the best or most accomplished teacher of year. The *Lenient* genus, however, must be discouraged by taking appropriate actions such as holding and administering objective tests. This is because it relates significantly neither to the ELEP nor to its underlying genera.

As the first factor underlying the ELPI, *Harmonic Curriculum* genus is the most complex in terms of its constituting 23 species and 203 schema token and 116 schema types. It requires harmonizing and choosing appropriate educational content and materials, reforming, supervising and reviewing educational objectives and curriculum by determining the time and effort required, offering comprehensive and high quality services, attending to policies, objectives, teaching materials and methods, training teachers, establishing stable educational programs, harmonizing curriculum with the educational conditions and facilities, developing economy via tourism, trade and technology, emphasizing speaking and listening skills, promoting interpersonal and intercultural relationships, getting language policy designers and enforcers work together, determining, directing and designing educational activities, choosing the content of materials taught to lower ages in the framework of amusement and entertainment, teaching foreign languages to all, attending to local areas, organizing the educational content of upper levels in harmony with the content of other areas of learning in order to deepen their quality, expanding social relationship, employing the experiences of other countries in revising and modifying curriculum, decreasing language learning age and educational grade, choosing content by focusing on improving qualification and combining it with the ethical thought, criticism and evaluation as well as Islamic-Iranian identity, designing educational programs in a professional manner and organizing teaching content based on learners' needs.

The *Harmonic Curriculum* Genus of ELPI relates significantly to three genera of teacher effectiveness, i.e., Qualified ($r = .100$, $p < .01$), Proficient ($r = .085$, $p < .01$), and Organized ($r = .063$, $p < .05$), emphasizing its irrelevance to five genera underlying the ELTAS, i.e., Social, Stimulating, Humanistic, Self-Confident and Lenient factors. According to an officially employed teacher of ministry of education, the EFL teachers have to give a passing score to those students who fail the English course otherwise they will use a regulation which allows them to move to a higher grade if they fail one course only. In other words, they are forced by regulations to be lenient officially. The finding of this study do show that no *Harmonic Curriculum* could be enforced by EFL teachers in their classes if they adopt a social, stimulating, humanistic and lenient approach in their G3SHS classes.

As the second factor underlying the ELPI, the *International Interaction* genus consists of eight species, 47 schema tokens and 43 schema types. It highlights the role of English language in catching up with scientific progresses made in the west, increasing the possibility of talking to other nations, benefiting from cumulative information networks, providing the opportunity for finding better jobs, creating effective relationships with the international society, entering universal interactions, training global citizens and translating and writing books dealing with various scientific fields. Not surprisingly, the *International Interaction* genus relates significantly only to the Qualified factor underlying the ELTAS ($r = .07$, $p < .05$). According to Khodadady, Fakhraabadi and Azar (2012), Qualified EFL teachers

evaluate their learners regularly and monitor their progress, explain the content so well that everyone understands, evaluate both qualitatively and quantitatively, identify and solve learning problems, integrate course topics, answer questions carefully and convincingly, involve all students in learning and teaching processes, handle discipline through

prevention, teach materials which are closely related to the stated objectives, emphasize important points and materials, identify and pay attention to individual needs and differences, provide equal opportunities for participation, discussion and asking questions, return tests/assignments in time for subsequent work, are demographic, have high expectations of both students and themselves, help learners in and out of the class, check and mark assignments regularly, create confidence in their knowledge of course content, take learners attitudes towards learning into account even if they are negative, are available to answer questions, specify methods of evaluation clearly, maintain a welcoming environment for all students, write English well, exercise authority to control the class whenever necessary, put on clean and tidy clothes, are prompt in returning test results, tailor teaching to student needs and teach English tailored to students' ability levels (p. 120)

Nine species, 60 and 40 schema tokens and types, respectively, represent the cognitive genus of *Internationalizing Native Culture* (INC). It entails popularizing Islamic-Iranian culture, advertising Islam in the world, confronting cultural invasion and changing its direction to transferring native culture, teaching English based on Islamic principles, values and objectives, paving the way for globalizing the Persian language, teaching the language based on national and native culture, transferring native culture and identity to the global society, globalizing Iran and decentralizing teaching and learning decisions.

In spite of having national and religious objectives, the INC genus shows significant relationship only with the Qualified genus of teacher effectiveness ($r = .065, p < .05$). The schema "culture" plays a key role in forming the INC genus because it has a token of four and enjoys the distinct semantic features of "Islamic-Iranian", "native", and "national" within the genus. Unfortunately, however, to the best knowledge of the present researchers, no clear and operationalized definition of "culture" has been offered so far to be captured and measured with a psychological measure such as the ELPI dealing specifically with Iranian culture.

Lantolf and Thorne (2006), for example, defined culture as "an objective force that infuses social relationships and the historically developed uses of artifacts in concrete activity" (p. 1). They elaborated it further by claiming that "culture is (1) supra-individual and independent of any single person, and (2) rooted in the historical production of value and significance as realized in shared social practice" (p. 1). Lantolf and Thorne offer language as the truest example of "symbolic artifacts" (p. 62). If these scholars' argument holds true, the culture-dependent genus of the ELPI must relate to the genera of ELTAS because of their common language i.e., Persian.

The findings of this study, however, support the argument very weakly as they establish a significant relationship between the INC and Qualified genera as two culturally related factors. They do, nonetheless, reject Lantolf and Thorne's (2006) view as regards the relationship between the INC and the remaining seven genera of teacher effectiveness domain, i.e., Social, Stimulating, Organized, Proficient, Humanistic, Self-Confident, and Lenient. Other research projects are though needed to be conducted to specify what "Islamic-Iranian", "native", and "national" cultures are and how they differ from Western culture as represented in the Persian language as a symbolic artifact through which effectiveness of teachers in teaching another language is evaluated.

The results of this study support Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's (1997) definition of culture as "a shared system of meanings." (p. 13) as reflected in the language spoken in a community. Microstructural view of schema theory, however, not only highlights Hofstede's (1997) view that culture is a structure of collectively held values and collective mental programming which separate or distinguish various groups of people from others but also adds the element of individuality to the collectively acquired system of meanings. Contrary to Lantolf and Thorne (2006), Khodadady (2013) believed that the acquisition of "culture" as a schema happens as the acquisition of other schemata does. As a shared system of meanings it must first be acquired intra-individually and thus its collective nature depends on individuals first and foremost. His belief stems from his emphasis on individual differences in the formation of concepts such as "culture". In other words, he questions the existence of a macro schema called "culture" which dictates its semantic features to Iranians. These are the individual Iranians who establish their own culture.

As the fourth factor underlying the ELPI, *Methodological Development* genus consists of eight species, 77 and 50 schema tokens and types, respectively. It calls for employing various language teaching methods in classrooms, attending to students' styles and interests, employing novel teaching materials and original content to approach objectives pursued in life, changing language teaching objectives from written to all skills involved in language learning, designing teaching material and supplementary syllabi by employing technological developments such as compact discs and internet, changing evaluation methods and employing new testing approaches continuously by providing direct and indirect feedbacks to students, educating language teachers and increasing teaching hours.

The *Methodological Development* genus relates significantly to Qualified ($r = .113, p < .01$), Social ($r = .096, p < .01$), Stimulating ($r = .066, p < .05$), Organized ($r = .070, p < .05$), Proficient ($r = .102, p < .01$), Humanistic ($r = .087, p < .01$), and Self-Confident ($r = .075, p < .05$) genera of teacher effectiveness domain. These findings thus emphasize the fact that following certain genera of ELEPs by EFL teachers relates significantly to their effectiveness. Among the six genera of TE domain, for example, Qualified and Social genera occupy the most important position due to their fairly stronger relationships with the *Methodological Development*. It also enters into a significant relationship with Social, Stimulating, Organized, Proficient and Humanistic genera of teacher effectiveness as well because it basically deals with the schema "teaching" having a token of five. It involves "teaching methods", "teaching materials", "teaching objectives", "teaching ... supplementary syllabi" and "increasing teaching hours". Even the Self-Confident genus of TE

domain which deals with teacher's personal attributes relates significantly to the *Methodological Development*, showing that the more "novel teaching materials and original content" the EFL teachers employ as their policy "to approach objectives pursued in life", the more Self-Confident they are judged to be in their career.

The fifth factor of the ELPI represents the genus of *International Understanding* consisting of eight species, 50 schema tokens and 44 schema types. It views English as a means of expressing ideas, understanding and transferring human cultural heritage and scientific achievements, getting familiar with western culture, harmonizing teaching content with acceptable universal literature, using international capacities appropriately, transferring services and knowledge at universal level, reinforcing the role of language in national curriculum, and expanding political relationships.

Two schemata play a key role in the *International Understanding* genus of ELEP: transferring" and "universal". They involve "transferring human cultural heritage and scientific achievements", "transferring services and knowledge at universal level" and "harmonizing teaching content with acceptable *universal* literature". The very emphasis on "universal" role of language in "transferring human cultural heritage and scientific achievements" and "using international capacities appropriately" has helped EFL teachers become more effective in their teaching because the *International Understanding* genus relates significantly to Qualified ($r = .133, p < .01$), Social ($r = .101, p < .01$), Stimulating ($r = .080, p < .05$), Organized ($r = .094, p < .05$), Proficient ($r = .114, p < .01$), Humanistic ($r = .089, p < .01$), and Self-Confident ($r = .073, p < .05$) genera of teacher effectiveness domain. These findings help realize how questionable the views of those scholars who view "culture" as "(1) supra-individual and independent of any single person, and (2) rooted in the historical production of value and significance as realized in shared social practice" (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 1) are.

The majority of G3SHS students, if not all, have had no opportunity to visit any Western society so that they could be classified as its members sharing the Westerners' social practice. They have, however, employed their own personal experiences with their EFL teachers in their classes to evaluate them, providing the data upon which the findings of the present study are based. For example, they believe that their EFL teachers are Proficient if they "know English grammar and *culture* well". In other words they resort to their own background knowledge dealing with *culture* in order to reach *International Understanding* rather than acquire this particular genus of language policy through interaction with international community. This is even the case with the members of communities which come from two countries located in the same continent such as Asia.

Van Dyne, Ang and Koh (2008) [VA&K], for example, developed Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) and validated it with members of diverse communities such as Americans and Singaporeans. Khodadady and Ghahari (2011) [K&G] translated the CQS into Persian and validated it with 854 Iranian undergraduate and graduate students. As the results presented in Table 5 show, different degrees of significant relationships exist between the four genera constituting the cultural intelligence of Iranians and Singaporeans. While the cognitive and motivational genera correlate the highest with each other for Iranians ($r = .41, p < .01$), they correlate the lowest for Singaporeans ($r = .25, p < .01$). When the members of two countries located in the same continent differ in establishing such relationships, how can they understand the communities of other cultures internationally if they have not lived among them? In other words, cultural intelligence is a schema domain which is as much individually acquired as it is employed collectively within specific society to solve everyday problems.

TABLE 5
CORRELATIONS AMONG THE FACTORS UNDERLYING THE CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE (KHODADADY & GHAHARI, 2011, P.72)

Factors	K&G (N = 854)			VA&K (N = 447)			
	CQS	1	2	3	1	2	3
1. Cognitive	.75*						
2. Motivational	.77*	.41*			.25*		
3. Behavioral	.65*	.23*	.37*		.34*	.31*	
4. Meta-cognitive	.69*	.39*	.40*	.33**	.23*	.32*	.37*

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

The *All-Compassing Improvement* genus is the sixth factor underlying the ELPI which consists of five species, 47, and 35 schema tokens and types, respectively. It involves improving educational centers both qualitatively and quantitatively, increasing student's physical and psychological health, improving the quality of education based on country's needs and priorities, achieving the superior position in science, economy and technology in the area and equalizing education on the basis of language teaching and learning standards.

Although Qualified genus of TE domain shows the same degree of relationship with *All-Compassing Improvement* as it does with *International Understanding*, i.e., $r = .133, p < .01$, the former plays a more important role in TE domain because it correlates the highest with its Social ($r = .110, p < .01$), Organized ($r = .107, p < .05$), and Humanistic ($r = .102, p < .01$) genera. These results show that both teachers and other authorities involved in teaching English in Iran need to lay a greater emphasis on achieving the objectives specified in the *All-Compassing Improvement* genus if they wish to render teaching English as effective as possible at G3SHSs. It becomes all the more important when it is realized that this particular genus of ELEP correlates significantly with the Stimulating ($r = .081, p < .01$), Proficient ($r = .102, p < .05$), and Self-Confident ($r = .062, p < .01$) genera of TE domain.

As the last factor of the ELPI, *Functional Organization* genus consists of three species, 42 token and 33 types of schemata. It deals with the policies of organizing English course content through cultural, scientific, economic and political functions, making the principles of language education relevant to ideological, political and social necessities on a macro level and attending to the teachers, schools, cultures and students' local languages in different areas of the country. Similar to the *Harmonic Curriculum*, *International Interaction*, *Internationalizing Native Culture*, *Methodological Development*, *International Understanding*, and *All-Compassing Improvement* genera of ELEP domain, the *Functional Organization* correlates the highest with the Qualified genus of teacher effectiveness ($r = .094, p < .01$). This finding highlights the EFL teachers' qualification as the main genus through which policies pursued through English language teaching at G3SHSs can be enforced.

Due to its decisive role, the Qualified genus of TE domain shows stronger relationship with seven genera of the ELEP domain than its Social, Stimulating, Organized, Proficient, Humanistic, and Self-Confident genera do. However, among the seven factors underlying the ELPI, the significant relationship the Qualified genus holds with the *Functional Organization* ($r = .094, p < .01$) is stronger than those of *Internationalizing Native Culture* ($r = .065, p < .05$) and *International Interaction* ($r = .072, p < .05$). These findings provide empirical evidence for the Qualified EFL teachers to focus more on their students' cultural, scientific, economic and political needs as well as local languages than on *International Interaction* and *Internationalizing Native Culture*. These teachers do, nonetheless, need to focus the most on *International Understanding* and *All-Compassing Improvement* genera because they reveal the strongest relationship with their qualification ($r = .133, p < .01$).

The *Functional Organization* also correlates significantly with Social ($r = .060, p < .05$), Stimulating ($r = .061, p < .05$), Proficient ($r = .073, p < .05$), and Humanistic ($r = .062, p < .05$) genera of TE domain. Since the Proficient genus holds a fairly stronger relationship with the *Functional Organization* than Social, Stimulating and Humanistic genera do, it provides policy designers and enforcers with empirical evidence to emphasize the proficiency of EFL teachers when they recruit new teaching staff or offer in-service educational programs. Had these findings been available to Mr. Ahmadinejad, the former president of Iran, he might have stopped recruiting unqualified teachers as academic members of Iranian universities.

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Ebrahim Khodadady obtained his PhD in Applied Linguistics from the University of Western Australia in 1998. He holds TESL Ontario and Canadian Language Benchmarks Placement Test (CLPBPT) certificates and has taught English as a first, second and foreign language to high school and university students in Australia, Canada and Iran.

He is currently an academic member of Ferdowsi University of Mashhad. He served as the Associate Director of Assessment Center at George Brown College in Toronto for almost a year. His published books are *Multiple-Choice Items in Testing: Practice and Theory* (Tehran, Rahnama, 1999), *Reading Media Texts: Iran-America Relations* (Sanandaj, Kurdistan University, 1999), *English Language Proficiency Course: First Steps* (Sanandaj, Kurdistan University, 2001) and *Research Principles and Methods and Statistics in Applied*

Linguistics (Mashhad, Hamsayeh Aftab, 2013). His main research interests are applied, socio and psycho linguistics.



Leila Aryanjam was born in Iran in 1975. She is currently a graduate student of Applied Linguistics in Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, International Branch, Mashhad, Iran.



Mohammad Ghazanfari, a member of Asia TEFL, is associate professor of applied linguistics at Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran. He has published articles in the field of applied linguistics (TEFL, translation studies, and discourse analysis) in both Persian and English. He has also published a couple of Persian translations from English: *The Seven Wonders of the World* (1997), Astan Ghods Publications, Mashhad, Iran; and *Literature and Language Teaching* (2001), SAMT Publications, Tehran, and has been co-author to an English book on ESP: *English for Students of Philosophy* (2004), SAMT Publications, Tehran.

Application of Learner's Autonomy to College English Learning

Fangpeng Gai

School of Foreign Language Studies, Shandong Jiaotong University, China

Abstract—During the process of college English teaching and learning, the enthusiasm and initiative of the students should be fully mobilized in order to maximize the teaching and learning effects. After introducing the relative theory, an article suggests the roles and necessary steps to cultivate one's autonomous learning ability in order to improve the language proficiency to meet the demands of the changing world of internationalization.

Index Terms—learner's autonomy, College English learning, language proficiency

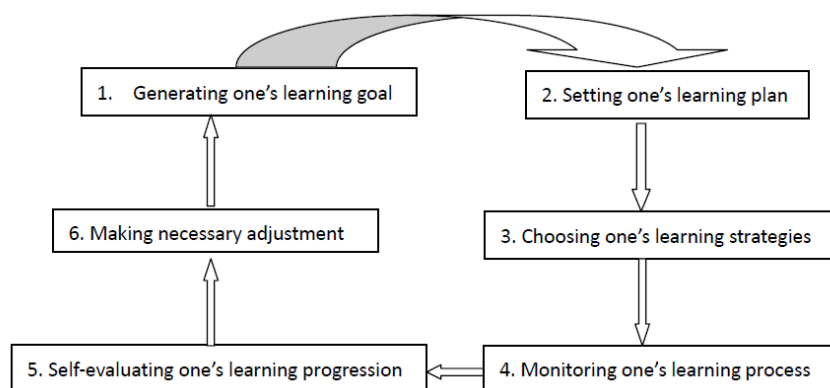
During the teaching and learning process of any language, the learners' involvement is the most critical factor to maximize the teaching and learning effect. But in our college English class, the teacher has been a dominator rather than a coordinator or counselor in the classroom from the first day they took English, taking care of all the issues regarding both the teaching and the learning, which leaves less room for the students to develop their autonomy in learning. In fact, the same situation happens to almost all other subjects. The subsequent result is that most of the students are passive learners who only learn the language as what, where and when they are required to. What is more worse is that after several years — probably 10 years — of learning, a big portion of our students may have gained a high volume of vocabulary, or they may have mastered pretty good reading competence but cannot or even are afraid to communicate in English with native speakers of English, let alone not native speakers, which are described by some scholars as “deaf English” or “dumb English”. This situation is far from satisfaction compared to what has been stated in *Outline of National Medium and Long Term Program for Education Reform and Development (2010--2020)* as we should cultivate a great number of high quality talents with international visions, familiar with international rules and competent in international affairs and competition. In order to serve that goal, something must be done to change our existing teaching and learning mode from a teacher-oriented one to a student-centered one to let the teacher do what they should do and to encourage the students to get more involved in the teaching and learning to give full play to the students' potentials.

I. LEARNER'S AUTONOMY

Learner's autonomy has been receiving dramatically increased attraction in both the theoretical and practical fields in language education in the past decades, because we all agree that helping the student to develop the competence for self directed learning is a crucial task in our education to lay a solid foundation for the students to gain knowledge or to collect necessary information in the coming years, after graduation or even for the whole life, and by this he/she can build a stronger sense of responsibility over his/her learning, so that he/she can be fully motivated to achieve more and more, and finally become an autonomous learner. An autonomous learner is one who takes full responsibilities for his/her own learning. And according to Holec (1981), taking full responsibilities means one can manage his/her own learning from the following five aspects: (1) determining objectives, (2) defining content and progressions, (3) selecting methods and techniques to be used, (4) monitoring procedure of acquisition, and (5) evaluating what has happened. So, only those who can completely take control over their own learning or accomplish the above learning circle can be regarded as autonomous learners. So learner's autonomy focuses on how the learning is conducted and this is the ultimate difference between autonomous learning and other ways of learning such as e-learning.

II. SUGGESTIONS TO THE CULTIVATION OF AUTONOMOUS LEARNING IN COLLEGE ENGLISH LEARNING

GAI Fangpeng (2014) argues that when we apply this theory to our college English learning, most of or all the following steps should be considered: (1) generating one's own learning goal, (2) setting one's own learning plan, (3) choosing one's own learning strategies, (4) monitoring one's own learning process, (5) self-evaluating one's own learning progression and (6) making necessary adjustment to the existing goal, plan or learning strategies according to the evaluation. And the following diagram can better illustrate the circle.



A. *Generating One's Own Learning Goal*

To generate one's own learning goal is not an easy job. Right now, under the existing teaching and learning model, most students do not or need not pay attention to the teaching goal of each course which will be automatically taken care of by the teacher, and what they need to do is just to sit in the classroom and listen to the teacher passively, and some students may even not preview what is going to be taught in advance. But to an autonomous learner, the first step to cultivate his/her autonomy is to generate his/her own learning goal, which is the starting point and foundation of autonomous learning.

1. Being aware of the teaching goal of each course

The teaching goal of each course can be easily found in the syllabus. But there are two points the students should bear in mind when they get to understand it. The first one is that some of the requirements in the syllabus may just be descriptive statements, for example, the teaching goal of college English is to foster the students' comprehensive application abilities, especially their oral and listening competence to lay a sound foundation for their future communication in learning, work and social activities. This is an example of descriptive requirements which are only general guideline for reference and are hard to be precisely measured. The second one is that even those concrete and specified requirements are set for an average level, which should not be necessarily treated identically to all the students. Let's also take the above mentioned document as an example, which states that for those medium level learners their vocabulary should count up to 6395 and 1200 phrases as well. Although these are concrete numbers, they are set for medium level students, which means the better students may have a larger vocabulary while others may have a smaller one.

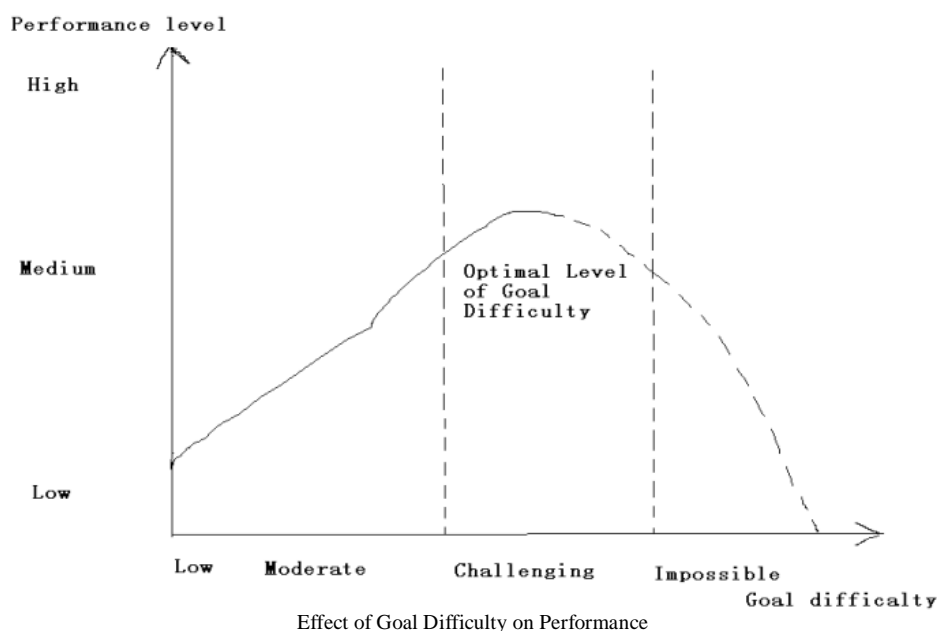
2. Being conscious of one's own situation

After a full and complete understanding of the teaching goal of a course, the second step is to come to know one's own situation or level. Students can take several ways to accomplish that. For instance, they can turn to the teacher. After a certain period of time of teaching, the teacher may have a general idea about which group one student is in, the higher, the medium or the lower in a class. To get a precise conclusion, they can have a self-test to get an accurate understanding of his/her level in listening, writing, translation and other fields, and these kinds of tests or exercises can be easily found online and some universities have established autonomous learning centers which can be used for that.

After a comparison between his/her own level and the teaching goal of the course, the gap---the goal for a certain period of time will turn out to be very clear and easily understandable to the student. Of course, to be exact, the goals can be divided into two kinds: long-term goals and short-term goals. Short-term goals are those can be reached within a short time such as in a period, a week, a month or even a semester. Otherwise, they can be regarded as long-term goals, and usually it takes more efforts to accomplish those long-term goals in a comparatively longer time.

3. Setting applicable learning goal

Both the long-term goals and the short-term goals should be applicable to the student himself/herself, which means the goals should be neither too easy nor too difficult, but moderate or challenging. If the goals are too easy to accomplish, the driving force will not last for a long time or the driving force will expire in a very short time; on the contrary, if the goals are too difficult, the driving force will not last for a long time either, because it seems that the goals are impossible for him/her to accomplish in this fixed period regardless how hard he/she works. So both the long-term goals and the short-term goals should be challenging. Only this challenging goals can help the learner to generate continuous enthusiasm, and only this challenging goals can let the learner find his/her effort rewarding when parts of the goals are turned into reality in the past certain period of time, thus induce him/her to a higher level of learning in the future. And according to McShane (2003) the correlation between them can be better shown in the following figure.



B. *Setting One's Own Learning Plan*

Learning plan is a very individual and personalized document to help one set and meet one's academic development goals for a period of time, which can tell one now where he/she is and where he/she should head. And at the same time, it can help one to stay on track towards the skills or qualifications one wants. After having a clear, accurate and objective understanding of one's level, the next step is to set one's own learning plan for the approaching month, semester, year or even longer time according to his/her short-term goals or long-term goals. Of course, the student can develop his/her learning plan by himself/herself or in collaboration with the teacher, his/her classmates or even with his/her parents. Apart from assessing one's learning needs, usually any or all the following components should be covered when setting one's learning plan.

1. Maintaining necessary learning resource

Learning resource is anything that one can learn from such as text books, videos, academic papers, lectures, radios and etc. Obviously, text books are the most important resource to the students to learn a foreign language which can provide authoritative information from pronunciation, spelling to grammar and even cultural knowledge to meet the need of acquiring a standard foreign language. So the students should firstly make full use of the text books at hand to gain the basic facts about a foreign language. But to learn the text books well does not necessarily mean one has mastered the language, for the ultimate goal of learning a foreign language is to communicate, so in fact practice also plays a more important role in building one's language proficiency. And that is to say, any form of practice, for instance, internship and travelling abroad can serve as learning resource to a foreign language learner.

2. Deciding one's learning priorities

The learning plan can be set for a week, a month or even a year in which one should analyze what he/she has academically achieved and what he/she has been struggling with in the past period so as to be aware of his/her traits and weaknesses as well. Especially for those weaknesses, he/she should always bear in mind and do a thorough and careful analysis in the learning plan which will become the priorities to pay special attention to in the coming days.

Often course, those listed as key points in the syllabus which will be taught by the teacher in the coming days automatically fall into this category, coupled with anything that he/she assumes important to himself/herself according to his/her own situation.

3. Adhering to one's learning plan faithfully

To some extent, the learning plan reminds the learner of the learning gap, indicating what he/she have got, what he/she hopes for in the future and how he/she plans to get there. Based on this, once a learning plan is set, one should adhere to it faithfully until most or all of the goals have been satisfied. While adhering to the learning plan, one should not treat the learning plan as a dead, fixed and unchangeable document, which should be reviewed regularly to be updated. Because some goals listed in the plan can be easily achieved and sometimes there will be new goals which should be covered by it.

III. CHOOSING ONE'S OWN LEARNING STRATEGIES

From 1970s, the scholars began to pay more attention to the learner's roles rather than the teacher's roles in the research of language teaching and learning, thus from then on, learning strategies have become a heated topic. But what

are learning strategies in the field of language learning? What are the key factors and what kind of roles learning strategies play in the course of language learning? Different scholars hold different understandings to these questions. Although we have not reached fixed and universal accepted answers, some shared ideas can be concluded. For example, Oxford (1990) defined learning strategies as the specific actions taken by the learner to make the learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferrable to new situations. And according to Stern (1983), there are three sorts of learning strategies: form-focused strategy, function-focused strategy and using-mother-tongue strategy.

For form-focused strategy, a learner usually consciously learns words, phrases and grammar, putting much emphasis on the accuracy of the above mentioned issues, and the learning patterns will be like he/she tries to understand each new word, phrase, or proverb that appears in the textbook; he/she tries to learn the text by heart; he/she tries to make clear every word that the teacher uses in class; or he/she tries to learn all the meanings of a word when looking it up in a dictionary.

For function-focused strategy, a learner usually wants to obtain necessary information when he/she learns. For example, he/she will volunteer to take notes in English in class; he/she will watch movies or videos to learn the cultural knowledge and customs about English-speaking countries; he/she will read English newspapers or magazines to be updated with the current situation outside; or he/she will listen to radios to practice listening comprehension.

For using-mother-tongue strategy, a learner will make use of his/her mother language when learning a foreign language. For example, in order to have a better understanding of a text, he/she tries to translate it into his/her mother language; or when communicating with foreigners, before opening his/her mouth, he/she expresses his/her ideas in the first language in heart first.

The above mentioned three learning strategies do not exist separately. They function as a combination during one's learning process, but at different stage, there are developmental changes in the learning strategies, and according to WEN Qiufang (1996), who did a research on the usage of learning strategies among 62 majors of English in Nanjing University in 1993, the changes were significant in the first year.

At the same time, we should realize that the consciousness of foreign language learning strategies can be trained, which means no one is born skilled at adopting one or all the strategies. A student or a learner can only become skilled at using the language learning strategies. But which strategy is most effective for a particular person can only be decided by the factors such as age, gender, personality, learning basis, learning content and etc. And that is to say it is impossible for us to work out a universal learning strategy that can benefit each language learner.

IV. MONITORING ONE'S LEARNING PROCESS

Generally speaking, the monitor process can be divided into external monitor and internal monitor. Monitor from others, for instance, from the family, the teacher or the school falls into the external one. Internal monitor, which also can be called self-monitor, is the process that a learner plans, implements, reflects and modifies his/her learning plan by himself/herself. To an autonomous learner, after he/she has set his/her learning plan and has implemented certain learning strategies, the next important step is to monitor his/her learning process by himself/herself. Whether one can accomplish the monitor process independently or not is a decisive factor in deciding whether a learner can be called autonomous learner, because the course of monitor can provide constant reminding of what has been done, what has not been done and how it should be done, which means only by self-monitor can one turn the dead document of learning plan into vivid practice, and only by this monitor can one be aware of how the plan is implemented.

But there is one thing we should discuss that is what can be the behind incentive that pushes a learner to constantly move forward to do all the above mentioned and upcoming procedures. That is motivation, the motivation of learning English. Motivation is the internal and external factors which initiate, guide and maintain goal-oriented behaviors, or the interaction of both conscious and unconscious factors which cause us to be continually interested in and devoted to a job, a task or anything else. Now, we have four different kinds of motivation: extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, social motivation and achievement motivation. The four kinds of motivation explain why we do something from different perspectives, for example, extrinsic motivation tells us the reason a student to learn English is to get a reward, degree or just to avoid the punishment of not learning it; intrinsic motivation tells us the reason a student to learn English is that he/she is interested in it and the process of learning makes him/her happy; social motivation tells us the reason is to please those people who are important to him, for example, his family or friends; achievement motivation tells us the reason is to compete against others. So the teacher should educate the learner or the learner should self-educate him/herself to maintain strong motivation, regardless out of which kind, during the learning process of a foreign language, especially when the freshness or curiosity of learning a new language gradually fades away, because it is not difficult for us to imagine that there will be various kinds of subjective and objective obstacles happening. Whether the motivation is strong or not can be decided by the intensity of desire or need, value of the goal and expectations of the individual. So after he/she understands the critical importance of mastering English in such a rapid developing internationalization world, to maintain strong motivation is expectable, especially to an autonomous learner.

V. SELF-EVALUATING ONE'S LEARNING PROGRESSION

The aim of monitor is to find out whether the learning plan is faithfully implemented as stated but the effect of learning is not included. The function of self-evaluation is to test what kind of outcome one can get after the implementation of the learning plan and certain kinds of learning strategies and whether the learning plan and the strategies are applicable. So the result of this evaluation provides pretty essential information not only for the adjustment of the existing learning plan and strategies but also for the next stage of learning.

Self-evaluation is a kind of meta-cognitive strategy, which is carried out by the learner by applying relative techniques, tools and criteria to evaluate the learning process and outcome. Any autonomous learner should be trained to learn how to do this evaluation because of the following significance. Firstly, it can arouse the learner's intrinsic motivation, confidence and enthusiasm to learn English more actively; secondly, it can improve the learner's ability of reflection and adjustment of learning strategies; thirdly, it can enable the learner to have an objective understanding of his own level.

Then, what are the effective or suggested ways to do self-evaluation? Learner profile is the most popular and widely used way. According to Gardner and Miller (2002), learner profile refers to all the information that can be collected about the learner during the learning. And the information include the learner's need, learning goal, learning plan, learning style, learning strategy, evaluation records of language knowledge, scores of formal and informal tests and etc. All the collected information can help the learner to do an overall and integrated evaluation in order to easily find out the problems existing in the current learning plan or strategies, thus to lay a sound foundation for the next step of adjustment.

And another recommended way is learner's diary. The learner can evaluate the implementation of the learning plan by recording his/her learning experience. By writing the diary, the learner can concentrate more on his/her learning and build up his/her responsibility. At the same time, as a form of output, writing the diary is also a tool of learning.

Of course, the learner can take use of any quiz, test, internship and even travelling abroad to evaluate his/her learning.

And there is one point we should make clear that is self-evaluation does not literally mean the evaluation can only be done by the learner himself/herself. Peer-evaluation is also an option for the learner, which means the evaluation can be done with the assistance of someone from his/her dormitory, studying group or class. This kind of peer evaluation provides both parties with a platform to know each other's situation.

VI. MAKING NECESSARY ADJUSTMENT

To an autonomous learner, the significance of evaluation and self-evaluation lies in providing information not only to make necessary adjustment to the current learning plan and the adopted strategies but also to the improvement in each or most steps in next circle of learning. If the goals listed in the learning goal are not achieved, then he/she should work out what the reasons are. Are the goals too difficult to accomplish in a short time? Are the goals appropriate? Is the learning plan strictly implemented? Are the learning strategies suitable for me? Are the evaluation tools and the result reliable? All the mentioned questions can contribute to the failure of his/her goals. After a thorough consideration of the learning from the very beginning to the end, one may find out the reasons, which need to be paid more, special or constant attention to in the next circle of learning.

Learning a foreign language well is by no means an easy task, especially when one cannot get access to an immersive environment, which means his/her learning driving force can only rely on kinds of motivations. No one is born skilled at autonomous learning and the ability of autonomous learning can only be the result of constant training and practice. The above mentioned suggestions only serve as an example or general guidance, which means how to train, cultivate and improve one's autonomous learning ability is rather a complex question, that may vary greatly from individual to individual. Anyway, autonomous learning not only is a critical and effective way for college students to improve their English competence, but also can be applied to the learning of other subjects. The more important significance of taking more even complete control over one's learning lies in laying a solid foundation for the way of acquisition of knowledge and information after graduation.

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Fangpeng Gai was born in Laiyang, China in 1979. He is currently lecturer in the School of Foreign Language Studies, Shandong Jiaotong University, Jinan, China. His research interests include English teaching and cross culture studies and this article is among his research outcomes when he was a visiting scholar at the University of Memphis, Memphis, USA from July 20th, 2013 to January 7th, 2014.

Gender Differences in Emotional Content of EFL Written Narratives

Shima Ahmadi-Azad

Islamic Azad University, Gowgan-Branch, Gowgan, Eastern Azerbaijan, Iran

Abstract—Gender's trace in the use of language, although not evidently, is commonly present in all classroom situations. It is commonly believed that women are expressive and emotional, while men are self-asserting and power-oriented in the use of language. The present study, in adopting an empirically-supported approach to the negative and positive emotional content of the narrative autobiographical reports, concentrated on 103 female and 82 male graduate EFL students' writing. The collected written data were then analyzed by on-line language processing programs for emotional linguistic content. Although statistical analysis did not offer significant differences across genders, the data do show a slight tendency on the females' part to use a higher rate of emotional words. The results, while not very revealing in statistical terms, can point to a growing trend of equality, especially among the academically educated population in contexts like Iran as a Middle Eastern country. Implications of the study are discussed in the light of the literature, and theoretical background.

Index Terms—gender, autobiographical narrative, emotional content

I. INTRODUCTION

Over the last four decades, researchers have provided evidence to suggest that the ways that individuals talk and write provide windows into their emotional and cognitive worlds (Gottschalk & Glaser, 1969, Rosenberg & Tucker, 1978, Stiles, 1992, as cited in Lee & Peterson, 1997, Pennebaker, et al., 2003, & Augustine, et al., 2011). Also, the way people express their emotions reflects some parameters like their gender, personality, the state of their mental health, education, upbringing, and professional affiliation along with cultural norms and values. Among these variables gender, as one of the most influential ones, has attracted the attention of many researchers in psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics, and affects many aspects of human behaviour and self-concept (Wolfson, 2005, Schwartz, et al., 2013). Theorists like Brody and Hall (2000) argue that males and females are socialized to adopt different cultural gender roles for emotion.

A. Language and Emotion

Fundamental to being human is the ability to use language and the ability to experience emotion. Then, it is not surprising that questions about the relationship between language and emotion, as well as about possible differences in emotional expression across languages, have interested social scientists for years (Marian & Kaushanskaya, 2008)

In a research about emotion development, González, et al. (1998) stated that cognitive processes play a very important role in the elaboration of emotions which occurs during the development of the brain cortex and the evolution of the neurological system. So, in the human species the cognitive processes by means of the neocortex determine in great measure our emotions. But the fact that the cortex and neocortex participate in the elaboration of the emotions doesn't mean that they do it in a rational way. The elaboration of the emotions is an involuntary process, of which you can only be partially conscious.

As González, et al. (1998) reported, emotions are very complex experiences and, to express them, we use a great variety of terms, besides gestures and attitudes. In fact, as good poets show us, we could use all the words of a dictionary to express different emotions. Hence, due to the infinite extension of emotional phenomena, it is impossible to make a full description of all the emotions that we can experience. However, the usual vocabulary to describe emotions is quite reduced and so, it allows people with the same cultural background, to share them. In the following (table 1) are shown some examples of two main classes of emotions (positive and negative).

TABLE 1.
SOME EXAMPLES OF POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE EMOTIONS

Positive Emotions	Negative Emotions
love	hate
well	uncomfortable
happy	unfortunate
healthy	sick
strong	sad
enjoy	weak
accompanied	lonely

Furthermore, emotion words are chosen according to the situation in which emotion is aroused. They differ from other abstract words in a number of parameters and characteristics and should be treated as a separate group of words, distinct from both concrete and abstract words (Altarriba, Bauer, & Benvenuto, 1999). Psycholinguistic researchers suggest that the difference between emotion words and other words may stem, at least in part, from the fact that the affective valence of an emotion word is encoded in its semantic representation, and impacts its processing (e.g. Fazio, Sanbonmatsu, Powell, & Kares, 1986, Watson & Clark, 1992, Hermans, De Houwer, & Eelen, 1994, Cacioppo & Gardner, 1999, as cited in Marian & Kaushanskaya, 2008). So, not only do emotion words differ from other words in the lexicon, it appears that different types of emotion words are also processed differently. For instance, emotion words can carry positive valence (e.g. happy) or negative valence (e.g. sad), and the two types of valence can cause distinct styles of cognitive processing. Specifically, negative emotional experiences are associated with a more elaborate and detailed style of cognitive processing, whereas positive experiences are associated with a more general, script-based, less-specific style of cognitive processing (Schwartz, 1990, Schwartz & Bless, 1991, Schrauf Sanchez, 2004, as cited in Marian & Kaushanskaya, 2008).

In the English language, emotion vocabulary consists of abstract nouns denoting concepts (*anger*), some verbs (*enjoy*), some adverbs (*beautifully*), adjectives (*beautiful*), interjections (*Oh*), and adjectival participles denoting emotional states (*stressed*, *satisfying*) (Wolfson, 2005). In addition, according to Pennebaker and King (1999), positive emotion words include the broadest level of positive feeling dimensions (e.g. happy and love), positively valenced words (e.g. beautiful and nice), as well as words from the optimism-energy category (e.g. exciting and win). The negative emotion category includes a variety of negatively valenced terms (e.g. ugly and hurt), as well as words from the more specific categories of anxiety- fear, anger, and sadness- depression.

B. Gendered Differences in Emotional Expression

Linguistic sex varieties arise because language is closely related to social attitudes. Men and women are socially different in that society lays down different social roles for them and expects different behavior patterns from them. Language simply reflects this social fact. (Trudgill, 1990, p. 27, as cited in Caplan, et al., 1997, p. 9)

Men and women use different cognitive strategies when coping with emotional situations. Culture impacts gender differences in the expression of emotions. It is well documented in research and history that women and men process emotions differently. Women are more emotional than men (Cameron, 2005).

Women are expected to be more relationship oriented than men, and men are expected to be assertive and even overtly aggressive if needed. Overall, women claim to be more emotionally expressive, more emotionally responsive and more empathetic. They express their feelings without constraint, except for the emotion of anger. Women express more love, fear, and sadness. Men are overwhelmed by women's expressions of emotion and express more anger. Men control their feelings and restrain from expressing their feelings (Gilligan, 1982, Jordan, Surrey, & Kaplan, 1991, Zahn-Waxler, Cole, & Barrett, 1991, Fivush & Buckner, 2000, as cited in Chaplin, et al., 2005, Brody & Hall, 2000).

According to Brody (2000) socialization of gender differences in emotional expression is a complex process, and orients girls and boys toward different roles in life. Even when parents socialize their sons and daughters in the same ways, such as with equal level of nurturance, their sons and daughters may respond with different patterns of emotional expression. Also, Chaplin, et al. (2005) stated that these socialization pressures may not always be obvious or overt (e.g., "big boys do not cry") but may be subtle, conveyed in the form of differential attention to boys' and girls' expressions during emotional events, attention that may subtly encourage the expression of certain emotions and discourage others. Moreover, according to Fivush (1998) men are usually, educated to be brave without showing their weakness and they get used to not expressing some negative emotions such as fear and depression. Women are more emotional than men so they have better conceptual knowledge in emotional terms. Males in individualistic cultures are especially likely to minimize emotional expressions, because expressing emotions might threaten the control that is critical to their status.

Brody (2000) believed that parental socialization influences may be partially driven by different characteristics of the infant boys and girls themselves, as well as by cultural values and social norms that dictate the acceptability of those characteristics by each sex. He pointed to some evidence that parents, particularly fathers, may show differential attention to boys and girls in ways that reinforce gender role-consistent emotions. In some other research, we can find the parents' effects on the emotional development of children of different genders, although their differential treatment of daughters and sons often may be outside of awareness and subtle in appearance (Fivush, 1998, Aldrich & Tenenbaum, 2006). Vainik (2006, p. 183) states, "in bringing up girls, mothers always use more positive emotion words, turning a lot of detailed attention to their emotional states, whereas with boys the focus tends to be on causes and consequences". According to the reporting of Holm (2001), with the exception of anger, girls are encouraged to learn to express their feelings through words and facial expressions, while boys are discouraged from doing so. That is, boys learn to act on their feelings rather than to talk about them. Other empirical evidence shows that parents are more responsive to boys' disharmonious emotions and to girls' submissive emotions. Parents, implicitly, use more anger-related words with boys than with girls and refer more to sadness and happiness (although the type of happiness was not specified) with girls than with boys (Adams, Kuebli, Boyle, & Fivush, 1995, Fivush, Brotman, Buckner, & Goodman, 2000, as cited in Chaplin, et al., 2005, Fivush, 1998).

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A growing body of research suggests that we can learn a great deal about people's underlying thoughts, emotions, motives, and other variables by counting and categorizing the words they use to communicate (Pennebaker, et al. 2003, Augustine, et al., 2011).

The link between word use and gender, as one of the most important demographic variables, has been extensively studied. Differences in women's and men's language have received widespread attention within the scientific community as well as in the popular media. For example, in 2007, Newman, Groom, Handelman, and Pennebaker examined gender differences in language use. By performing a MANOVA on all of the LIWC categories it was found that females' language was more likely than men's to include pronouns and social words, a wide variety of other psychological process references, and verbs. Also, in a research on students' use of French language, Herring and Paolillo (2006) showed that women's speech appears markedly less formal, i.e. more context-dependent, than men's speech. This seems to confirm general sociolinguistic observations, according to which women pay more attention to feelings and to personal relationships, whereas men focus more on external, objective problems. Other researches (eg. Heylighen & Dewaele, 2002, Colley & Todd, 2002) supported these findings.

Lakoff (1990, as cited in Cameron, 2005) claimed that women's lack of power in society results in their using a less assertive speech that manifests itself in a higher degree of politeness, less swearing, more frequent tag questions (e.g., "It is cold, isn't it?"), more intensifiers (e.g., really, so), and more hedges (e.g., perhaps, maybe).

A large number of recent studies have shown that having individuals write or talk about deeply emotional experiences can improve their mental and physical health (e.g., Fratteroli, 2007, Lepore & Smyth, 2002, Pennebaker, 1997, as cited in Pennebaker & Graybeal, 2001).

Bamman et al. (2013) examining 14,464 Twitter users found that in most cases, it's possible to predict a user's gender based on the language he/she includes in public tweets. Specifically, women are more likely to use words that describe emotion (love, sad, annoyed), family terms (mom, sis, hubby), emoticons, and expressive lengthening (riiiight?). Men, on the other hand, are more inclined to use swear words (we don't have to give you examples), as well as words associated with technology and sports.

With regard to intensity and kinds of emotions, Wolfson (2005) in his study reported that women used greater intensity of both positive and negative emotions than men. They reported a more intense and more frequent experience of affect, joy, love, embarrassment, guilt, shame, sadness, anger, fear, distress, as well. Also, Gross and John (1998, as cited in Brody & Hall, 2000) factor-analyzed six frequently used self-report measures of emotional expression and identified five factors: positive expressivity, negative expressivity, the intensity of emotional expression, expressive confidence (such as enjoying acting), and masking or emotional regulation (such as suppressing anger). Women rated themselves significantly higher on the first three of these factors.

Accordingly, Vainik (2006) reports that women have better competence in emotion with higher productivity in emotion words. Bauer, Stennes, and Haight (2003), also, state that women tend to provide narratives that are longer, more detailed and vivid. They tend to include more emotional content in their autobiographical memories. Women also recall more emotional memories and need less time to report their memories than men. Accordingly, Chentsova-Dutton and Tsai (2007) and Schwartz, et al. (2013) say that examining the emotional behaviour and self-reports of emotion of women, it is clear that they are more emotional than men, even for emotions like anger, for which men are suggested to be more emotional than women. O'Kearney and Dadds (2004) and Chraif and Anitei (2013) suggest that females more frequently report or express emotion terms and also more intense positive and negative feelings. Also, in a Study by Seidlitz and Diener (1998), women recalled more positive ($p < 0.1$) and more negative ($p < 0.5$) life events than men. While in 2007, Wang and Hsieh showed that boys expressed more sadness and anger than girls who were more concerned with harmonious relationships.

However, Fischer (1995, as cited in Wang & Hsieh, 2007) and Cuming (2013) stated that although the female's emotion words are more active, no significant differences were found between male and female participants' use of positive and negative emotional words. Accordingly, in a recent study led by Chaplin and Aldao (2012) it was revealed that boys and girls have very different emotional tendencies, but these fluctuate depending on age and context. They suggest that there are small but significant gender differences in emotion expressions, with larger gender differences emerging at certain ages and in certain contexts.

Consequently, according to the previous related literature females are generally more emotionally expressive than men, are also men use more negative emotional words than women. The present study addressed the following questions:

1. Is there any significant difference in the autobiographical narratives written by Iranian females and males EFL learners in terms of negative emotional content?
 2. Is there any significant difference in the autobiographical narratives written by Iranian females and males EFL learners in terms of positive emotional content ?
 3. Is there any significant difference in the autobiographical narratives written by Iranian females and males EFL learners in terms of overall emotional content?
- hypothesizing that: 1. males use more negative emotional words, 2. Females use more positive emotional words, and 3. females are more emotionally expressive.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

A total of 103 females and 82 males, with a mean age of 24 majoring in English Teaching from and Tabriz University and Tabriz Azad University participated in this study. They were chosen according to their field of study and their proficiency to write in English.

B. Instruments

All participants were asked to provide three hand-written letters, each in one week interval, with the following topics (modelled by Oberlander and Gill, 2006):

"Imagine you haven't seen a good friend for quite some time, and in order to keep him/her up to date with your news you decide to write her/him a letter. In the message you should write about *what has happened to you, or what you have done in the past week*, trying to remember and write down as much as possible, as quickly as possible."

The second and third tasks were similar: participants were instructed to write *about their plans for the week ahead and what happened to them during the past year*, respectively.

C. Design

The independent variable of this study is gender (female/male), and the dependent variables are the degree of positive emotional words, and negative emotional words, and also, the overall degree of emotionality.

To determine whether there is a significance relationship between gender and using positive emotional words, negative emotional words, and also overall level of emotionality, a T-test method was conducted by using SPSS program. This approach is well-established in various sociolinguistic analyses of spoken and written language and is so flexible and powerful technique that can be applied to much more complex research issues.

D. Procedures

The participants, at the end of their classes, were asked to write a letter to a friend on the given sheets with the following instructions (modelled by Oberlander & Gill, 2006):

"Your message should be written in normal English prose (that is, standard sentences, but don't worry if your grammar is not perfect). Once you have started writing a sentence, you should complete it and not go back to alter or edit it. Also, don't worry too much about spelling, and don't bother addressing it to anyone or signing it. Just write down the main body of the text. You should spend 10 minutes on this task."

They were asked to write either their names or whatever name they liked by determining their gender. Also, they were asked to remember the written name to maintain their identities in the next papers.

E. Data Analysis

In this paper we investigate the relationship between gender (males vs. females) and emotional words (positive vs. negative).

The number of the texts written by the two groups was 392 ones. Sixty two of the participants refused to take part in the second writing task (writing about the next week), and one hundred and one of them did not take part in the third one (writing about the past year). The texts written by the participants, after being transcribed into two computer text files were classified into two groups and analyzed separately. Some samples are shown in Appendix 1.

The frequency of positive and negative emotional words was determined by on-line processing of Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count Program (Pennebaker, et al., 2001, <http://www.liwc.net/liwcresearch07.php>). So, by connecting to internet, each text was copied to a designed box in LIWC program and was analysed in terms of content. LIWC for each text gave a chart (e.g. table 2). In this research only the scores related to the positive and negative emotions were needed.

TABLE 2.
AN EXAMPLE RESULT OF LIWC ANALYSIS

LIWC dimension	Your data	Personal texts	Formal texts
Self-references (I, me, my)	13.82	11.4	4.2
Social words	8.15	9.5	8.0
Positive emotions	3.47	2.7	2.6
Negative emotions	1.50	2.6	1.6
Overall cognitive words	7.05	2.6	5.4
Articles (a, an, the)	5.04	5.0	7.2
Big words (> 6 letters)	13.19	13.1	19.6
The text you submitted had 76 words in total.			

Accordingly, for each text two numbers (e.g. Positive emotions: 3.47 and Negative emotions: 1.50) are given. The overall emotional words were calculated by adding positive emotional words and negative emotional words (e.g. 3.47 + 1.50 = 4.97). All the texts written by males and females were separated from each other and analyzed in this way.

IV. RESULTS

The results showed that for females' use of negative emotional words $M = 1.07$, and positive emotional words $M = 3.75$, whereas for males' use of negative emotional words $M = 1.14$, and positive emotional words $M = 3.21$. In addition, for females' use of overall emotional words $M = 4.82$, and the same score by males is $M = 4.35$ (Table 3).

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE EFFECT OF GENDER ON USING EMOTIONAL WORDS (NEGATIVE AND POSITIVE)

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Negative emotional words	female	103	1.0720	1.83385
	male	82	1.1399	1.37591
Positive emotional words	female	103	3.7550	2.69712
	male	82	3.2135	1.65653
Overall emotionality	female	103	4.8270	3.05148
	male	82	4.3534	1.97032

Comparing the mean scores of negative emotion words, positive emotion words, and overall level of emotionality for females and males shows that there are very partial differences between two groups. The percentage of negative emotional words used by males is more than females ($1.13 > 1.07$), and the percentage of positive emotional words used by females is more than males ($3.75 > 3.21$), and overall, females use more emotional word than males ($4.82 > 4.35$).

To, precisely, explore the effect of gender on the use of emotional words (positive and negative) in writing, a T-test method was conducted. The results are shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4.
T-TEST RESULTS OF THE EFFECT OF GENDER ON USING EMOTIONAL WORDS (NEGATIVE AND POSITIVE)

	Sig.	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Negative emotional words	.781	-.06785	.24375
Positive emotional words	.113	.54141	.33973
Overall level of emotionality	.225	.47358	.38900

The result of the research on the effect of gender on Iranian's EFL learners' expression of emotional words in their writings is not as expected.

T-test results shows that for negative emotional words $P = 0.781$. So, it is not significant ($P > 0.05$). Also, for positive emotional words $P = 0.113$ and again it is not significant ($P > 0.05$). Moreover, in the case of overall level of emotionality, $P = 0.225$, and it is not significant as well ($P > 0.05$).

V. DISCUSSION

It is clear, according to figure 1, that in contrary to what was predicted, the difference between mean scores of negative emotion words (1.07, 1.14), positive emotion words (3.75, 3.21), and also overall emotional words (4.83, 4.35) used by females and males is not high or, statistically, significant.

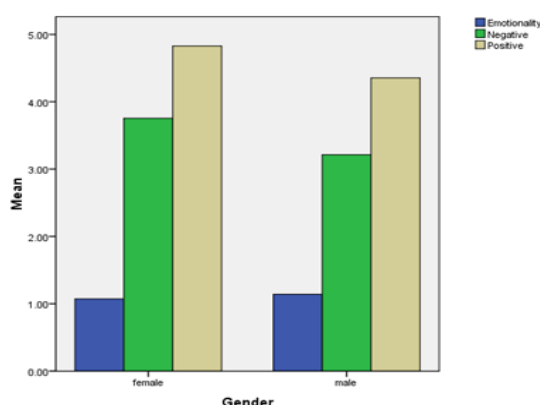


Figure 1. Difference between Females' and Males' Mean Scores of Overall Emotionality, Negative and Positive Emotional Words

Regarding hypothesis 1, the results of this research showed that, in agreement with the results provided by Wang and Hsieh (2007) and Chaplin, et al. (2005), males, at an insignificant level, use more negative emotional words than females (by overall difference of 0.7 points). Moreover, concerning hypothesis 2, the results of this study showed that in agreement with the results provided by Gross and John (1998, as cited in Brody & Hall, 2000) and Wolfson (2005), females use more positive emotional words than men (by overall difference of 0.54 points). And ultimately, regarding hypothesis 3, the results of this study showed that in agreement with the results provided by Buck, Miller, & Caul

(1974), Brody & Hall, 2000, Bauer, et al. (2003), O’Kearney and Dadds (2004), Wolfson (2005), Cameron (2005), Vainik (2006), Chentsova-Dutton and Tsai (2007), Bamman et al. (2013), Schwartz, et al. (2013), Chraif and Anitei (2013), and many others, although partially, women are more emotionally expressive than men (by overall difference of 0.48 points). It must be noted that although all these findings are statistically insignificant, they are in accordance with the study done by Fischer (1995, as cited in Wang & Hsieh, 2007).

To discuss about the results it must be confessed that some other factors like age and culture, which were not considered in this study and according to some researchers like Nisbett & Masuda, 2003, Masuda et al., 2008, Ko, et al., 2012, & Chaplin and Aldao (2012) are two other important factors in interpretation and expression of emotion, might have overshadowed gender influences on emotional expressions. For example about age factor, Gross, et al. (1997) investigated age differences in emotional expression and found a consistent pattern. Compared with younger participants, older ones reported fewer negative emotional expressions and greater emotional control. Furthermore about culture influence, Mesquita and Frijda (1992) and Wilkins and Gareis (2006) in their study reported the significant effects of cultural variations in emotion expressions. At the present study, the age of the participants and also their culture, were supposed to be at an approximate range without any sharp difference.

Another issue which was ignored in this study and might have influenced emotional expression is gender of the addressee. In 2013 Mohammad and Yang found that although women use and receive a relatively larger number of joy and sadness words, and men use and receive a relatively larger number of negative and non-emotional words, there is a markedly higher difference in cross-gender communication (men to women and women to men) than in same-sex communication. They claimed that negative and positive emotional words are used differently according to the addressee’s gender. When writing to women, both men and women use more positive words than when writing to men. On the other hand, women tend to share their worries and negative emotions with other women more often than men with other men, men with women, and women with men.

Several other factors can affect emotional development and expression in childhood including family support, education and play, family income level, and genetic abnormalities or other illnesses, but the last issue pointed out here is the fact that along with other changes in society, women roles do so. Today’s women are taking part in the military, in mechanics, and all other fields that were limited only to men. And men are too enjoying cooking and baking. So, Women are able to overcome gender barriers. They are able to achieve this through the education. For example, with education women over the world are able to work and enjoy the things that men are able to do. Therefore, there needs to be a further emphasis on educated young women and men about the issues associated with gender equality, and the use of language is certainly one of those issues, due to the fact that language reflects society. So, because of the women’s although partially reformed portrayal in the developed world, discrimination between genders has been to some extent weakened and this clouded on their using emotion in writing. Since this research was done among a number of educated members of society of Iran, the insignificant results of the study can, to some extent, be justified.

VI. CONCLUSION

The study began with the hypothesis that gender affect Iranian EF learners’ writing style in terms of emotional words (positive and negative). The narrative autobiographical reports written by females and males were analyzed in terms of emotional content (positive, negative, and overall emotional words), by using LIWC program. Although the results are not significant, they, partially support the previous findings. Males use more negative emotional words than females, females use more positive emotional words and also, they are more emotionally expressive than men. The results shows that some other factors like age, culture, and other ideological factors like equality of females and males in terms of power and human rights among the academically educated population, might be more effective.

APPENDIX 1. EXTRACTS FROM THE TEXTS WRITTEN BY FEMALES AND MALES

Female	Male
<p>1. Next week I should try to get ready for the final exams. I should ask one of my friends to help me for the French language exam. Then I should try to be as much hard working as I can. I should try to avoid doing anything except studying lessons.</p> <p>You know how I like my French class. I had gone to the class and although every time we had exam, it was very interesting for me. I had to prepare for my lecture but I have not spent any time for that. My sister's friends had come to our house.</p> <p>2. I haven't seen you for a week and many things happen to me. I have lecture last week and I'm busy worked on it. And I have exam in literary prose and I didn't do it well and my professor said to me it is incomplete. And I give my lecture and it didn't last 2 minute because we didn't have so much time. I went camping on Friday and play volleyball and have much fun.</p> <p>3. Next week I am going to Tehran with my parent to see my uncle who is ill. After that, we will go Gom and Jamkaran and at the end, we will come back here. In coming back we will go Astara. When I rest for a days, I will go to one of my friend's marriage ceremony. I think you know her. Her name is sara and I hope you to come there and we see each other there. At the end of the week, we have a party at home and I invite you to come and be with us. It will be a good time and you will get familiar with new friends.</p> <p>4. I want to let you know what I have done in the past week. I have done a lot of things. Because I have research exam I have don a lot studies in this case. Another works that I did last week were I went to picnic on Friday with my friends.</p> <p>5. If you wonder about the party I should say that you were really lucky not to attend the party since it was really boring. Every one asked about you and I had to explain each. By the way, Raha invites us to her birthday party on Friday. Please tell me about your plan.</p>	<p>1. I had a wonderful week. Last week at last I began writing my research and that was a relief for me because starting was difficult for me. I also finished my classes in the institute. The results were good but I feel a little bit sorrowful because I failed only one of my students. I don't like dong it but it was his own fault. He was very naughty. We are getting closed to the end of the course.</p> <p>2. Watching the TV in my store last week, someone called me and asked me whether I remember him or not? I thought for a while and I said I am sorry. He told me that he was my classmate in the school 17 years ago and said that we sat on the same bench those years. Getting some clue, I remembered him finally. I was very happy. He has changed so much that I could hardly know him. He was now an oft student and also a barber.</p> <p>3. Last week wasn't much different than the other past week for me. The only thing to mention is that I bought a book and a lovely doll as the birthday gift for my girlfriend. I posted it to her today. Nothing special I can remember as outstanding.</p> <p>4. For the next week I want to prepare myself for the term's exam and especially to write my research and find some article and criticize them. Also for the next week I plan for going to Tehran to have a visit with my friend.</p> <p>5. I really miss you. I dreamt about you, our sweet memories. I have been working on a bird but unfortunately got nowhere. She was very conservative. She was thinking of herself as intellectual but we managed to convince her that she was just a guy. Here, I have some plans to do. Frankly, I need your resourcefulness sense of humor and emeriti. By the way, I met with another decline in my attempted proposal. Nobody likes me. Dear Hadi, I have decided to end my life. Come on boy. Pay a visit to me. We have a lot to do. We have a long to go.</p>

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Shima Ahmadi-Azad has got her B.A in English Literature from Tabriz University and her M.A. in English Teaching from Tabriz Azad University.

Her main research area is psycholinguistics and discourse analysis.

Ms. Ahmadi-Azad is a full-time member in Gowgan Azad University and has a 7-year experience in teaching English to Iranian EFL learners.

A Corpus-based Contrastive Study of Online News Reports on Economic Crisis — A Critical Discourse Analysis Perspective*

Haiyan Wang

Department of Foreign Languages, Xinxiang Medical University, Xinxiang, China

Abstract—This paper qualitatively and quantitatively analyzes the English coverage of economic crisis in China Daily and The New York Times from the perspective of critical discourse analysis based on corpus linguistics. A detailed contrastive analysis between China Daily corpus (CDC) and New York Times corpus (NTC) is conducted from various aspects, including concordance analysis and lexical comparison. We arrive at two conclusions: (1) Chinese reports convey the general information about the global economic crisis, whereas American reports seem to be more concerned with the details. (2) Chinese journalists use more neutral expressions to report the causes of the crisis, the impacts of the crisis on China and the attitudes to China's Stimulus Plan, while American media employ more emotional and evaluation-laden words and expressions to convey the information.

Index Terms—critical discourse analysis, coverage of economic crisis, contrastive study

I. INTRODUCTION

We are experiencing a financial crisis more severe and unpredictable than any in our lifetime since the September of 2008. And almost all the main news agencies home and abroad reported this crisis. Fairclough (1995) holds that “newspapers tend to offer sometimes contending (thought often harmonizing) version of the truth...This myth underpins the ideological work of the media: offering images of and the categories for reality, positioning and shaping social control and reproduction.” Therefore, the present study will make an effort to apply the framework of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) to the contrastive analysis of the news discourse about economic crisis in China Daily and The New York Times. This research adopts the corpus-based approach. Two mini-corpora are involved: China Daily corpus (CDC) and The New York Times corpus (NTC). All the relevant news reports are retrieved from the archives of the two websites: <http://www.Chinadaily.com.cn> and <http://www.nytimes.com>. The time span is supposed to be set from September 2008 to September 2009.

The research questions are as follows: (1) Do the news reports on economic crisis in China Daily and The New York Times show the same concern? If not, what are their distinct concerns? (2) Are the news reports on economic crisis in China Daily and The New York Times value-free? If not, how are they ideologically invested?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section will give a brief survey of previous studies of news discourse with the emphasis on the critical approach and review the literature of CDA by discussing the development of CDA on news discourse and its relationship to the ideology.

Critical linguistics is known as critical language study or critical discourse analysis, which was first proposed by Roger Fowler in the book of language and control published in 1979. CDA research dated back to the 1970s and originated from critical linguistics started from the UK and Australia. Researchers of critical linguistics see the world as a social structure with ideology. Critical linguists attempts to uncover the unperceived relation between language and ideology, and to reveal how the power bloc controls people's ideology with language in order to protect their own interests and the current social structure. Fairclough (1989) sets out the social theories underpinning CDA and, as in other early critical linguistic work, a variety of textual examples are analyzed to illustrate the field, its aims and methods of analysis. Critical discourse analysis aims to reveal the relationship between ideology and power which is hidden in public discourse and to uncover the counteraction of public discourse on forming people's ideology.

The critical trend of media studies can be traced back to the early 1970s, when scholars asked questions about media and power, and explored the relationship between news discourses and cultural context. Then with the development of the critical discourse analysis, more scholars and researchers paid attention to news discourse. Among them, Norman

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Fairclough, Teun van Dijk, Roger Fowler and Allan Bell are the most notable. Adopting CDA to do media discourse analysis has been very popular abroad since 1980s. However critical analysis of news discourse began to draw academic attention in China since the 1990s, and most of work are introduction rather than real research.

Corpus linguistics is playing a more and more important role in linguistic research. Hunston (2003) holds that it is no exaggeration to say that corpora and the study of corpora have revolutionized the study of language, and of the applications of language over the last few decades, and that the improved accessibility of computers has changed corpus study from a subject for specialists to something that is open to all. According to Biber et al. (1998), the essential characteristics that capture the corpus-based approach are the followings: (1) it is empirical, analyzing the actual patterns of use in natural texts; (2) it utilizes a large and principled collection of natural texts, known as a 'corpus', as the basis for analysis; (3) it makes extensive use of computers for analysis, using both automatic and interactive techniques; (4) it depends on both quantitative and qualitative analytical techniques.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

In this research, two mini-corpora are involved: China Daily corpus (CDC) and New York Times corpus (NTC). The CDC consists of 196 sample texts with a number of 117,565 tokens; while the NTC consists of 108 sample texts with a number of 117,847 tokens. All the sample texts, sentences or words employed in this research come from the above two corpora.

A quantitative study is carried out firstly in news reports in order to find out the linguistic features. After that, a qualitative study is conducted. Based on the qualitative and quantitative analysis, the conclusions will be achieved and summarized.

The research procedure is as follows: (1) Two corpora, which are labeled as CDC and NTC, are constructed to make qualitative and quantitative analysis of English news reports on the economic crisis. (2) Wordsmith is employed to generate the wordlists and keyword lists of the two corpora and necessary data like type, token, corpus size, TTR, standardised TTR, mean word length(in characters), number of sentences, mean sentence length (tokens) and mean text length will be extracted. (3) For those data can't be directly provided by software such as lexical choices, random sampling and manual work are adopted. And 8 sample texts are selected from the two corpora respectively to make analysis and comparisons in the thesis. (4) After collecting the necessary data for the research, the interpretation and comparison on the thematic, lexical levels will be presented.

IV. ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

A. *Thematic Analysis of the CDC and the NTC*

The Brown Corpus is employed as the reference corpus. Based on the keyword list and key key word database, the observation is made for thematic analysis first.

The general comparison of two corpora

CDC is a corpus including 196 articles and 117,565 tokens. NTC is a corpus including 108 articles and 117, 847 tokens. The length of the articles in CDC is comparatively shorter than those in NTC. According to standardized TTR, it (45.77) is a bit higher in NTC than that in CDC (42.96). Therefore, it implies that the news texts in NTC are more heterogeneous in lexical choices in terms of the issues covered than those in CDC. The reason is that English proficiency of natives is better than Chinese reporters. It can also be proved by the 1-letter words to 5-letter words distribution in the two corpora.

The top 50 keywords comparison between CDC and NTC

By using the software wordsmith (version 4.0), the key words of CDC and NTC can be extracted. There is the frequency, the text number and the percentage of the reoccurrence of the key words in two key word lists. Comparing the two lists we can see clearly that there are many words in common in the two corpora, such as financial, economic, crisis, government, percent, president, leaders, countries, market, bank, credit, world, investment, growth, recession, global, China, international, companies, capital, said. These words shared by news reporters home and abroad depict a distinct map concerning this global economic crisis. Among them some words indicating news' foci like financial, economic and crisis, which give us the first impression of what the news is about. Government, president, leaders play the most influential and representative roles and should take active measures to deal with the difficulties of the economic crisis. Words like percent, capital, companies, bank, credit, investment indicate the range affected by the economic crisis. Recession and growth are two words with strong comparison effects, which suggest the big change of the economy. Two adjectives international and global show the worldwide scale of this economic crisis. Said, the only neutral reporting verb in the top 50 key word list is very conspicuous, which indicates the great objectivity and credibility of the reporting at the first sight. In a word, these key words show the readers the map of the event: What had happened? What was involved? How did China and America leaders and government deal with the crisis?...

The top 30 key key words comparison between CDC and NTC

Then Brown is employed as the reference corpus. And the key key words in the two corpora can be extracted. After observing the two lists, we can find that some of the key key words are preferred by Chinese reporters and others by American ones. Such as growth, international, world, cooperation, Yuan, summit, development, recovery, trade,

stimulus, reform, domestic, Wen, consumption and monetary are more frequently employed by Chinese reporters. These words are used to convey the information about the global economic crisis, and the responses and measures of our government. However, in the coverage of American reporters, the words like Obama, president, leaders, European, credit, loans, securities, bailout, mortgage, reserve, administration, treasury, prices, debt, companies and Lehman are quite distinctive. It seems that they are more concerned with the details of the economic crisis.

As for the measures to cope with the economic crisis, reform in Chinese texts constitutes a large proportion, occurring 117 concordances, such as move forward the reform of the current international financial and economic system, advance reform of the international financial system, urges reform of global financial system, speed up reform. The words that co-occur with reform here are positive ones: urge, speed up, promote, push for, deepen, persist in, implement. The similar words employed by Chinese reporters are stimulus and consumption.

However in American news reports bailout is more frequently used to represent the corresponding measures to deal with the economic crisis. The sample concordances are selected below: European leaders came up with a financial bailout plan; With the Long-Term Capital bailout as a precedent, creditors came to believe that; The United States Congress approved a \$700 billion bailout package; The bailout plan released yesterday is a lot better.

In addition, Lehman is another key word appearing in American news reports. As we all know, Lehman Brothers is the name of a famous company in the USA. Lehman Brothers Holdings Inc. was a global financial-services firm which participated in business in investment banking, equity and fixed-income sales, research and trading, investment management, private equity, and private banking. It was a primary dealer in the U.S. Treasury securities market. However in 2008 because of the secondary mortgage market crisis, the fourth-largest U.S. investment bank Lehman Brothers announced the bankruptcy protection. The bankruptcy of Lehman Brothers had a disastrous impact on the U.S. economy. So American media shows particular concerns on it.

B. Lexical Comparison

This part will be conducted from two aspects. One is concordance analysis of three key words, and the other is about the differences of lexical choices between the two corpora.

Concordance analysis: China

In CDC, 968 concordances containing China as the search word are extracted. The words that co-occur with China here can be classified into 3 types: the adjectives indicating the role of China confronting the difficulties of the economic crisis (crucial, significant, important, leading, increasing); the collocations indicating the measures taken by China as a state during the crisis (making efforts to spur domestic demand, taken robust measures, enhance the flexibility and sustainability); the collocations in which China serves as the noun modifier (China's banking, China's economic and ratings outlook, China's goal). Some sample concordances are selected below: China's role in the recovery will be crucial; Additional cooperation with China is particularly significant; China takes its global responsibilities; China would make its macroeconomic regulation measures; some developing countries, including China, are making efforts to spur domestic demand; since the beginning of this year, China had taken robust measures to; China urges efficient measures against financial crisis; China's contribution to boosting the world economy. These words and expressions can produce a prosody of "goodness" and convey the information to the readers that China not only has the ability to handle a variety of domestic economic issues but also is competent in promoting the sound development of the international economy.

In NTC, 101 concordances containing China as the search word are extracted. The number of the concordances is a little bit fewer than that in CDC. After observing all the concordances carefully, we can easily find that China is usually found in negative environments. Typical collocates are weaken, worries, decrease, sufferings. These words not only create a prosody of "badness", but also link China to the image of incompetence in dealing with the economic crisis. Some sample concordances are selected below: China's economy is beginning to weaken; China's package is not comparable to fiscal stimulus; because of worries about China's suffering with the global economy; China's position on regulations is a mystery; U.S. or Europe or major emerging economies like China slow down; policy makers in China mistakenly abandon their pursuit of financial; a decrease in China's current account surplus.

After the further contrastive analysis, a fact can be seen that American media employ more impartial and biased words and expressions to depict the unreal image of China. That reveals the unfriendly attitude of the American media toward China.

Concordance analysis: Growth

In CDC, 511 concordances containing growth as the search word are extracted. From the amount of the concordance lines occurring in CDC, we can know that growth is one of the most frequent words employed by Chinese reporters. After the careful observation and further analysis, the collocates co-occurring with the node word growth can be classified into two groups: one group indicating a positive prosody of "development", such as achieve, promote, stimulate, sustain, maintain, boost, ensure, guarantee, improve, spur; the other group suggesting a negative prosody of "obstacle", such as reduce, slow, gloomy, drag, curb, affect. However, the frequency of the occurrences of the positive prosody is relatively higher than that of the negative prosody. The usage of the node word growth reflects the optimistic attitude of Chinese reporters toward the current global economy. Probably they believe that China is sure to surmount the difficulties caused by the economic crisis and the global economy will be better and better, which can be shown in the following: This will promote economic growth and mitigate the effects of the global financial crisis; supports

inclusive and sustainable growth; promote global economic growth; China's sound economic growth is in itself a major contribution to global financial stability and economic growth; efforts to revitalize the growth of their national economies; promote sustainable economic growth in the region in energy conservation; social development to boost economic growth.

In NTC, 93 concordances containing growth as the search word are extracted. In terms of the number of the concordance lines, it is almost one fifth of that in CDC. In NTC, growth clearly has a negative prosody, collocating with words indicating "impediment", such as slow, weaken, drag down, hamper, lower, hurt; as well as with words indicating "burden", such as drag, laggard, threat. The implicit message transmitted by American reporters is that economic development has become sluggish during the economic crisis and the growth of economy seems to be unlikely and impossible. Here are some selected examples illustrating the use of the word growth: therefore suffering from weak growth and Euro-sclerosis; Europe has been a laggard in terms of growth over the last few years; economic crisis, which has dragged down Russia's growth rates and drastically reduced its revenue; struggling to cope with rapidly slowing economic growth; because of slowing export and investment growth; Debt can also act as a drag on economic growth; the cost will become a bigger burden as growth returns and interest rates rise; the crisis has already hurt job growth.

Concordance analysis: Confidence

The confidence of the public should be strengthened and enhanced immediately during the economic crisis. How this work has been done is one of the major concerns of government and the public. A fact can be seen that Chinese and American media spent lengthy coverage on the restoring confidence works conducted by the government and leaders. In CDC, 101 concordances containing confidence as the search word are extracted. In NTC, 42 concordances containing confidence as the search word are extracted. Through comparable observation and analysis of the concordances in the two corpora, we can see that confidence as the node word always occurs in the positive environment in CDC, while in the negative environment in NTC. That is, in CDC the collocates which co-occur with confidence create a prosody of "achievement", such as promote, stimulate, sustain, maintain, strengthen, boost, beef up, have, restore, regain; in NTC a prosody of "loss", such as a sharp drop in confidence, confidence in such short supply, go into a tailspin, drop, dip, fall, falter, wane, crash, lose, release.

After a thorough analysis, it is not difficult to understand why the confidence works had been reported intensely in China. Government plays an extremely leading and crucial role in the coping with crisis as the most advanced form of social organization. As the policy-maker, it acts as the leader, coordinator, and supervisor in the battle against crisis. Once the crisis has been handled properly and effectively, the harmony of the nation can be improved, and harmonious social order maintained; once the crisis has not been coped with properly and effectively, the consequence of the crisis can be magnified, even the former social order can be collapsed. Whether to handle the crisis effectively and efficiently is a means to demonstrate the ability of the governmental administration, therefore to strengthen its governing.

In summary, Chinese government and people have more confidence in tackling a variety of problems and difficulties in the process of economic crisis, as is conveyed by Chinese media. Maybe one reason can explain this phenomenon. The news pattern of Chinese media is mainly positive as mentioned above. This positive pattern is reflected in three aspects: to report positive events, to employ positive words and expressions, to adjust the proper time of the coverage. The benefits of the positive news pattern can be summarized into three: firstly, government can benefit from it because it is conducive to establish the positive image of the government home and abroad; secondly, it can strengthen the confidence of the people when crisis occurs so that the cohesion of the nation can be guaranteed; thirdly, it is helpful to maintain the sustainable and harmonious social order.

Lexical Classification

This part will make a detailed comparative analysis on the lexical choices of news reports on the economic crisis from a critical perspective. For those data and information can't be directly provided by software, random sampling and manual work are adopted. And 8 sample texts are extracted from the CDC and the NTC respectively to make analysis and comparisons of the qualitative research in the thesis.

Words fall into three categories according to their affective coloring: commendatory, derogatory and neutral. Commendatory words are those with positive evaluations that show favorable attitudes. Derogatory words are those with negative evaluations that denote negative attitudes. Neutral words are those with zero evaluations, that is, no positive or negative comments or attitudes embedded in the descriptions. Since commendatory and derogatory words are evaluation-laden, reporters always consciously take advantage of them and employ them to show their ideology.

Media coverage concerning the causes of the crisis

The different lexical choices in analyzing the roots of the global economic crisis include important information about the attitudes and positions of news reporters on this issue and therefore influence the opinions of readers on the matter. Chinese reporters focus on the excessive consumption and financial leverage in the US and the imbalance of the global economy. China indicates that the crisis is unprecedented because the epicenter is the richest and strongest country in financial terms and this evidences the weakness of the current international financial architecture to prevent crisis of these sorts. China also notes that the crisis cannot be dealt with effectively within the current institutional framework—there is a gap that needs to be filled through comprehensive review and reform of a systemic nature.

In contrast, on American side, a completely different picture emerges. The U.S. media generally agree that the root of the economic crisis exists in China and China should be responsible for the occurrence and spread of the economic crisis. Why do the US media have such views and comments? One reason can explain this phenomenon. In America it has also been debated that the root cause of the crisis is overproduction of goods caused by globalization and especially vast investments in countries such as China and India by western multinational companies over the past 15–20 years, which greatly increased global industrial output at a reduced cost.

Meanwhile American reporters also recognize that the explosion of debt over the previous quarter-century and irrational exuberance make the U.S. economy vulnerable and result in the rising of unemployment and bankruptcies of financial institutions. In America an empirical study by John B. Taylor concludes that the crisis is: (1) caused by excess monetary expansion; (2) prolonged by an inability to evaluate counter-party risk due to opaque financial statements; and (3) worsened by the unpredictable nature of government's response to the crisis. The root cause of this economic crisis is due to the abuse of the American financial system and the inability of the US government. The US media have to avoid the government-related matters. Thus the American reporters center on external factors, such as too much savings, sluggish domestic demand and excessive investment and export in China. It is evident that the American reporters employ more emotional words and expressions to express their attitudes toward the current economic crisis: America is also the victim of the crisis as well as other countries in the world and China and other developing countries should be responsible for the crisis.

Media coverage concerning the impacts of the crisis on China

The ideological conflicts also can be perceived through different lexical choices for describing the impacts of the crisis on China. The late-2000s recession is shaping up to be the worst post-war contraction on record. In China Daily and New York Times there are many comments on the ill effects of the crisis. As other countries in the world, China is also affected by the current financial recession. China media admits that the Chinese are feeling the ill effects of the economic downturn. Including notably shrinking external demand, overcapacity in some sectors, difficult business conditions for enterprises, rising unemployment in urban areas and greater downward pressure on economic growth, the Chinese are facing severe challenges.

But after a further analysis a fact can be gained that these two news media also show striking differences in addressing the impacts of the crisis on China. American media pay more attention to the social instability of China. Moreover, American reporters are more inclined to describe the negative image of the Chinese Government. The comments on the ill effects of the crisis occurring in New York Times can be divided into two categories: the economic level and the political level. As for the economic level, the rising rate of unemployment and layoff, slowing export and investment growth, declining consumption and severely depressed stock and property markets are stated to describe the weakening economy of China affected by the crisis. Even on the economic level, many emotional words are preferred by US media. Two examples may illustrate it.

1. *The Chinese economy has hit a wall.*
2. *Beijing is struggling to cope with a rapidly slowing economy.*

Here “hit a wall” and “rapidly” are used to show the readers that China’s economy has been badly hit by the crisis and seems to be on the edge of collapse. The word “struggling” depicts a picture of inability and incompetence of Chinese government in handling the economic decrease and other difficulties caused by the crisis. On the political level, many comments on the stability and unity of the domestic environment of China can be seen in the coverage of US media. Most of the comments are negative. The argument can be reinforced with the following evidences.

3. *Factory closings in southern China have led to mass layoffs and even sporadic protests by workers who complained that owners disappeared without paying them their wages.*
4. *threatening the expansion to which the communist party has linked the credibility of its one-party rule*
5. *One of China’s more outspoken periodicals has also warned that the country may face social unrest in 2009 as unemployment rises because of the global financial crisis.*
6. *In 2009, Chinese society may face more conflicts and clashes that will test even more the governing capabilities of all levels of the Party and the government.*

“Unrest” and “protest” indicate a state of trouble, confusion and turbulence, especially in a political context. They contain the connotation of “riot” and “violence”, which give us the impression that Chinese government is incompetent in dealing with the conflicts and challenges such as unemployment and layoff and the Chinese are very dissatisfied with their government.

Compared with the words and expressions chosen by the two presses, Chinese media employ more neutral expressions which are consistent with the reality. However, American media use more biased and emotional expressions to show concern on the negative image of China which is not accordance with Chinese actualities and does harm to the harmony and stability of China. Thus the coverage of American media is not as objective and unbiased as they boast.

Coverage concerning China's stimulus plan

These two presses also show striking differences in addressing China's Stimulus Plan. The 2008-2009 Chinese economic stimulus plan is a RMB¥4 trillion (US\$ 586 billion) stimulus package announced by the central government of the People's Republic of China on 9 November 2008 in its biggest move to stop the global financial crisis from

hitting the world's third largest economy. Concerning the economic stimulus plan of China, many comments and reports are found in China Daily and New York Times. However, there are many significant differences among them.

Chinese reporters make objective and unbiased analysis of the contribution of the stimulus plan. The positive impacts can be summarized into the following: shore up economic growth, promote social harmony, improve people's life, contribute to the stock jump, help store up some investors' confidence in world economy, a great contribution to world, play that vital role in world's economic recovery. These words and expressions are all commendatory. In all, the information conveyed by Chinese reporters is that the economic stimulus plan is the most active, direct and efficient way to expand domestic demand and helps to cushion the blows of world economic downturn.

In contrast, American media show different attitudes towards the economic stimulus plan of China. Their concerns can be categorized into two aspects: one is the negative effects and the other the positive ones. It seems that more attention is paid to the negative ones, such as corruption, leading to more shoddy works, raising the stakes, a big fiscal burden. By choosing these derogatory and evaluation-laden words, the journalists of American press show pessimistic attitudes to the stimulus plan of China. Besides, the positive aspects of the stimulus diagram are also mentioned by American media, such as contributing to China's productivity growth and improve its long-term competitiveness. However, it is not the voice of the mainstream and US media are intended to downplay the positive impacts of the plan. They cast doubt on some of the sunny pronouncements about China's economy. With regard to the negative sides, US media employ lengthy reports to elaborate and to a certain extent they exaggerate the negative impacts which are inconsistent with the status quo in China. These reports are not conducive to establish the good image of China in the international arena.

To sum up, the contrastive analysis of lexical classification reveals that there are many differences on the part of news reporters on the crisis, including the causes of the crisis, the impacts of the crisis on China and the attitudes to China's Stimulus Plan. American media employ more emotional and evaluation-laden words and expressions to convey the information which is inconsistent with the reality while Chinese journalists use more neutral expressions to conduct objective and unbiased reporting.

V. SUMMARY

In summary, we arrive at two conclusions. The first one is that Chinese reports in China Daily convey the brief information about the global economic crisis, and the responses and measures of our government. American reports in The New York Times seem to reveal that they are more concerned with the details of the economic crisis. The second one is that American media employ more emotional and evaluation-laden words and expressions to convey the information which is inconsistent with the reality while Chinese journalists use more neutral expressions to conduct objective and unbiased reporting in the coverage about the causes of the crisis, the impacts of the crisis on China and the attitudes to China's Stimulus Plan.

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Haiyan Wang was born in Puyang City of Henan, China. She received the Master's degree in Corpus linguistics in 2010. She is now a lecturer at the Department of Foreign Languages, Xinxiang Medical University. In recent years, she published more than 6 academic papers in the key journals. She has also finished 2 research projects. Her academic interests include Corpus linguistics and language acquisition.

The Use of L1 as a Consciousness-raising Tool in Teaching Grammar to Beginner and Upper-intermediate EFL Students

Zoobinshid Arshad

Department of Foreign Languages, Azad University, Shiraz, Iran

Mohammadreza Abdolrahimpour

Département de Langues, Linguistique et Traduction, Université Laval, Québec, Canada

Mohammad Reza Najafi

Department of Foreign Languages, Bafq State University, Kerman, Iran

Abstract—The notion of consciousness-raising came to vogue in second language teaching with the advent of Noticing Hypothesis proposed by Schmidt (1990) who strongly believed that learning does not occur unless the learner's consciousness is raised about what is intended to be learnt. With so many advocates (Atkinson, 1987; Cook, 2001; Weschler, 1997; Phillipson, 1992; Burden, 2000; Canagarajah, 1999; Schweers, 1999), L1 has been proved to be a facilitative tool at the teacher's disposal to be used for different pedagogical purposes. Adopting "principle grammar teaching" model by Batstone and Ellis (2009), the present study aimed to examine the effect of utilizing L1 in an EFL context as a consciousness-raising tool on teaching grammar to the students at beginner and upper-intermediate levels. For each proficiency level, fifty participants were selected based on Oxford Placement. Twenty five participants in each proficiency level (the experimental group) received L1 treatment in teaching grammar, whereas in the control groups L1 was not used. The analysis of the data obtained from the post-test yielded contradictory results in different proficiency levels. The findings showed a marked improvement on the students' command of grammar at the beginner level; however, for the upper-intermediate level, no statistically significant difference was observed. In line with the literature, the results of this study revealed that the use of L1 as a consciousness-raising tool can be a facilitator in teaching grammar to beginner L2 learners. Conversely, students of upper-intermediate level did not benefit equally from L1 implementation in teaching grammar.

Index Terms—first language, consciousness-raising, teaching grammar

I. INTRODUCTION

A review of what literature has to offer on the role and significance of teaching grammar indicates how the view on grammar instruction has undergone dramatic changes with a thorough teaching of grammar on one side of a spectrum, and no teaching of grammar on the other side. Grammar translation method is considered as one of the first advocates of teaching grammar explicitly along with certain translation activities geared to the students' needs of attaining the presented structures (Thornbury, 1999; Larsen-Freeman, 2000). On the other hand, the advent of natural approach could be seen as a turning point in the teaching of grammar as it proposed a zero grammar approach, prioritizing a meaning-based strategy (Krashen, 1983). Accordingly, Krashen (1993) contends that grammar teaching has to be limited to certain simple and portable rules, such as 3rd person-s, that can be utilized to monitor the produced output. He grounds his arguments on the basis that most language learners only recognize and learn simple rules. Moreover, the learning of high level rules and applying them through monitoring are beyond the students' capability (Rod Ellis, 2006). However, there is a bulk of research concerning the students' ability to learn complex rules (Green and Hecht, 1992; Macrory and Stone, 2000; Hu, 2002). Unlike Krashen's proposition that explicit and implicit grammar knowledge is completely unconnected and inconvertible, Ellis (1993) claims that the conversion of explicit knowledge into implicit knowledge is possible if the language learner is ready for the acquisition of the targeted structure, and at the same time this conversion happens by priming some key acquisitional processes.

Conceding that SLA is mainly driven by what learners notice in the target language input and what they understand of the gravity of the noticed input to be, Schmidt (1990) introduced two pronounced processes, namely *noticing the gap* which refers to a conscious comparison learners make between the features they have observed in the input and the language they normally produce, and *noticing the hole* which is the students' awareness of the fact that the language they have at their disposal is insufficient to express the meaning they intend to share. As it is argued by Schmidt (1990) and Ellis (1993), noticing is a key acquisitional process which facilitates the students' processing of the meaning of a given structure through paying conscious attention to the input, which in turn increases input comprehensibility. To that end, many different strategies are devised by the teachers to ensure the students' comprehension of language

components. Many researchers, substantiating the pivotal role of L1 in the students' comprehension, argue in favor of L1 use in the second or foreign language classroom as a strong strategy to facilitate the process of learning and teaching (Patcher & Field, 2001; Cook, 2001; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Burden, 2000; Canagarajah, 1999; Schweers, 1999; Weschler, 1997; Auerbach, 1993; Phillipson, 1992; Harbord, 1992; Atkinson, 1987). Following the line of research investigating the contributing role of the students' L1, this study sets out to examine the effect of L1 use on the students' noticing the grammar input at two different proficiency levels, namely beginner and upper intermediate. To effectuate the intentions of the present study, the following research questions were found worthy of investigation.

1. Does using L1 have any effect on students' noticing of the new grammar input at beginner levels?
2. Does using L1 have any effect on students' noticing of the new grammar at upper-intermediate levels?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *The History of L1*

A methodical study over the history of language learning and teaching presents an issue which is long-standing and of paramount importance to second and foreign language teachers in a variety of contexts, i.e. the teacher's use of first language (L1) in the second language (L2) classroom. The use of the students' mother tongue in the classroom has been differently looked upon since the dawn of the first teaching approaches. The Grammar-Translation Method should be considered as the strongest supporter of L1 use in the classroom, as the teacher did not need to be able to speak the target language; instruction was given in the students' native language, and translation was widely used as an exercise (Celce-Murcia, 2001). GTM was not met with universal acclaim and several objections were raised regarding the efficacy of such a method to fulfill the needs of a language classroom. Direct method as the pioneer of such an objection rejected any application for L1, and the students were not allowed to resort to their native language in the class. Likewise, Audio-Lingual method, pivoting on the principles of behavioral psychology, advocated that the way to acquire the language was through good habit formation, and that was the reason for the elimination of L1 use by the teacher (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

However, in the time of alternative approaches, a more moderate stance was taken towards L1 use and its integration in a systematic way as part of the teaching and learning process. For instance, as stated by Larsen-Freeman (2000), in the silent way, the students' native language can be used to give instructions when necessary. In addition, the native language is also used during the feedback sessions. She also mentions that as Community Language Learning gained dominance, the students' native language was used for meaning clarification and building a bridge from the known to the unknown in order to give the students a sense of security with regard to comprehension. With the introduction of Communicative Language Teaching, judicious use of L1 was accepted in order to ensure the students' comprehension (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

B. *On the Judicious Use of L1*

Regarding the judicious use of L1, literature is enriched with a great number of studies. Swain and Lapkin (2000), in search for the role of the first language in the task-based interactions in a French immersion context conducted a study on 22 pairs of grade 8 students who were assigned two different tasks, namely a dictogloss and a jigsaw. They found that despite the fact that approximately in about one quarter of the turns the students made use of some English, only about 12 percent of the L1 turns were off-task. As a result, they concluded that the use of L1 should neither be precluded in immersion classrooms, nor should it be actively encouraged since it may hinder second language learning. They also argued that "without students' L1 use, the assigned task may not have been done as effectively or perhaps it might not have been fulfilled at all" (p.268).

In agreement with findings of Swain and Lapkin (2000), a comparative study of students', teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions regarding the adequacy of cross-linguistic grammatical comparisons in the monolingual classroom was carried out by Ferrer (n.d). The findings suggested that judicious and systematic use of cross-linguistic referencing may present the teacher with opportunities for equipping the learners with explicit knowledge of the target language systems. This in turn may help students to notice the gap between the state of their inner grammar knowledge and the target language and ultimately aid acquisition.

C. *L1 as a Cognitive Tool*

By considering the studies conducted on the role of L1 in language classrooms, it is evident that the focus of research studies has shifted from substantiating the positive effect of L1 use to discovering the domains in which L1 can be incorporated. Scott and De la Fuente (2008) in a study on the use of L1 during consciousness-raising and form-focused tasks, reported that the exclusive incorporation of L2 during those types of tasks might impede cognitive requirements to accomplish the tasks which demand cognitive sources on the part of the students. Moreover, it hinders collaborative interactions and obstructs the use of meta-talk and learning strategies. Therefore, as they reported, it seems pointless to preclude the use of L1 by the students when L1 use is a natural and cognitive strategy.

Alegría de la Colina and García Mayo (2009) carried out an experimental study with the purpose of exploring the functions of the L1 in the oral interaction of Spanish EFL learners with low proficiency in the target language while engaged in three collaborative tasks. In the study, 24 (12 females, 12 males) undergraduate first year students were

selected. The participants were divided into three groups of four pairs. On the whole, there were 12 self-selected pairs to perform 3 different tasks, namely jigsaw, text reconstruction, and dictogloss. Finally, the discourse taken place among the pairs was transcribed for further analysis. The results showed that 1) EFL learners of low proficiency used L1 to manage the task and to discuss grammar and vocabulary and 2) the use of L1 brought forth the needed cognitive support for promoting attention and meaning comprehension. Moreover, by means of L1 the students could think and self-regulate faster and consequently transfer their cognitive, metacognitive, and social skills to the L2 more effortlessly. Taking into account the obtained findings from the above-mentioned research and several others (Cook, 2001; Burden, 2000; Canagarajah, 1999; Schweers, 1999; Weschler, 1997; Phillipson, 1992; Atkinson, 1987) the benefits of utilizing L1 and its facilitating role in learning L2 are evident.

D. Views on Grammar Teaching

In the same vein, the teaching of grammar has undergone fundamental changes due to the fact that the concept of grammar comprises numerous meanings and references. Moreover, this variety has caused the generation of a multitude of interpretations (Swan, 2005). Structuralists, considering language as a system consisting of structurally related elements (phonemes, morphemes, words, etc.), believed in the hierarchical structure of language where lower level elements constitute the building blocks of higher rank levels. On the other hand, for most Universal Grammarians, grammar is realized as the subconscious internal system that proficient language users are endowed with and language learners develop (Chomsky, 1965). In functional approaches, the notion of context played a critical role and grammar was regarded as a source for making meaning (Mystkowska & Pawlak, 2012). These two determining factors distinguished functional approach from the afore-mentioned theories. Similarly, Ellis (2009) asserted that a key aspect of acquisition of grammar for second language learners involves learning how to make appropriate connections between grammatical forms and meanings. Therefore, in retrospect, it is discernable that the views on grammar have led their way from sheer componential to a more holistic and meaning based concept.

E. Theoretical Framework

Batstone and Ellis (2009) argue that different theories of grammar generate various models of grammar teaching. Therefore, it is pointless to substantiate the superiority of one model due to having greater advantages over another one. As Batstone and Ellis rightly mention, “effective grammar must complement the process of L2 acquisition” (p.195). Therefore, the goal of a model of grammar teaching should be devising theoretical principles which enhance the possibility of recognizing and internalizing the presented grammatical points on the part of the students, and enable them to further their interlanguage. With this aim in mind, Batstone and Ellis (2009) devised the “principled grammar teaching” model, which concentrates on enabling the students to acquire new form-meaning mappings and to incorporate them with their form-meaning system. In this model, there are three interrelated principles, 1) *Given-to-New*, referring to the notion that “the process of making new form/function connections involves the exploitation of what the learners already know about the world – as part of their ‘given’ schematic knowledge” (p. 195), 2) *Awareness* which refers to “making learners aware of how a particular meaning is encoded by a particular grammatical form” (p. 197), and 3) the *real-operating conditions* principle which indicates that “learners need the opportunity to practice language in the same conditions that apply in real-life situations – in communication, where their primary focus is on message conveyance rather than on linguistic accuracy” (p.199). This model has been adopted as the theoretical framework of this study.

Based on this model, effective grammar teaching activities are characterized by two features. Firstly, they are required to be consciousness-raising in nature by retrieving the students’ relevant schematic knowledge about the grammatical structure to be learnt, and also facilitating by easing the process of incorporating the meanings the grammatical structures represent into the learners’ form/function system. Secondly, these activities need to provide the learners with real-life tasks to enable them to utilize grammatical structures for the purpose of communicating their intentions in real-life situations.

To our knowledge, thus far, almost all studies conducted in this area of enquiry are targeted to investigate the role of L1 as a cognitive tool on the part of the students. However, far too little attention has been paid to how EFL teachers can take advantage of L1 in teaching grammatical structures and whether students of different proficiency levels can equally benefit from L1 use in grammar instruction. More specifically, the present study seeks to investigate the potential role of student’s mother tongue in teaching grammar with regard to the first two principles of principled grammar teaching model, namely *Given-to-New* and *Awareness* in the beginner and intermediate levels.

III. SAMPLING

The participants in this study were one hundred EFL students studying at Navid English Language Center in Iran. The participants, both male and female (60 male, 40 female) ranged in age from 18 to 30 and all shared Farsi as their first language. Through the administration of Oxford Placement Test, 50 beginner level and 50 upper-intermediate level students were selected. For the purpose of the study, the participants in each level were put into two classes (control group n=25, experiment group=25).

IV. MATERIALS

A. Oxford Placement Test

To select homogeneous groups of students, the researchers administered Oxford Placement Test. The students' scores at the beginning of the instruction could assure the researchers that each group of the students in each level of language learning shared a similar command of English.

B. Touchstone Conversation Book Series

The classroom materials in this study were the Touchstone series published by the Cambridge University Press. Based on the students' proficiency, one of the course books was selected as the means of instruction for each level. For the students in the beginner level, Touchstone 1A and for the students in the upper-intermediate level, 4B were chosen. Touchstone series consist of different parts, namely conversations, vocabulary sections, grammar, etc. As for the scope of this study, the grammar sections were the focus of concentration.

C. Cambridge Test Booklet

To ensure the reliability and validity of the post-test, a 30-item grammar test from the Cambridge test booklet, developed and published by the Cambridge University Press (the publisher of the Touchstone conversation series) was selected in order to measure the participants' level of grammar intake after the administration of the treatment.

V. PROCEDURE

After selecting the participants and determining their proficiency levels through the administration of Oxford Placement Test, the instructor of the classes was briefed to teach the grammar sections of the books following the steps of the principled grammar model (Batstone & Ellis, 2009) to the students in both the experimental and control groups. It is well worth mentioning that the students in all of the classes were taught by the same instructor to avoid the probability of different methods of teaching which could have affected the results of the study. The classes were held twice a week for a 60 hour course. For the purpose of the study, only the students in the experimental groups were instructed using L1. In doing so, students' mother tongue was used for the schematic activation in the *Given-to-New* phase to explain how a given concept or function already known to the learners could be conveyed by a specific grammatical structure. Also, in the *Awareness* phase, the instructor fully explained to the learners how a given meaning could be encoded by a grammatical structure. However, during this time the control groups were only instructed in English. At the end of the course, the control group and the experimental group in each level were given a post-test to see how effective the use of L1 was on the students' command of new grammatical structures.

VI. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULT

The collected data through the post-test were utilized to answer the research questions. In doing so, two independent sample *t*-tests were run on the students' scores obtained from the post-tests in each level to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups, the result of which is presented in the following Tables.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND *T*-TEST RESULT OF THE GRAMMAR SCORES OF THE BEGINNER LEVEL

Groups	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>	Df	sig
Control group	25	23.16	3.99	-2.65	48	.011
Experimental group	25	25.80	2.95			

Considering the data presented in Table 1, the difference between the means of the scores of the two groups is evident. According to the analysis of the significance of the difference between the mean scores by an independent sample *t*-test, there is a significant effect for the use of L1, $t(48) = 2.65$, $p < .05$, with the experimental group receiving higher scores than the control group.

The result of the second sample *t*-test on the scores of upper-intermediate students is presented in the following Table.

TABLE 2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND *T*-TEST RESULT OF THE GRAMMAR SCORES OF THE UPPER-INTERMEDIATE LEVEL

Groups	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>	df	sig
Control group	25	19.96	4.41	-1.85	48	.07
Experimental group	25	22.08	3.65			

According to the data presented in Table 2, although there is a difference between the two groups, the statistical analysis of the data does not show a significant effect for the use of L1, $t(48) = 1.85$, $p > .07$.

VII. DISCUSSION

This study investigated the potential role of L1 in teaching grammar at two different proficiency levels. To effectuate the intentions of the present study, the following questions were raised.

1. Does using L1 have any effect on students' command of grammar at beginner levels?
2. Does using L1 have any effect on students' command of grammar at upper-intermediate levels?

Regarding the first research question, according to Table 1 showing the result of the *t*-test on the grammar scores for the beginners, it can be concluded that L1 use as the medium of instruction for teaching grammar was quite effective. This finding is in line with that of other researchers (Scott & De la Fuente, 2008; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Ferrer, (n.d)) who investigated the role of L1 in teaching a second or foreign language. Moreover, the finding is supported by the same assumptions that the Skill-Acquisition Theory is based on. According to this theory, students should get involved in awareness-raising activities targeted at the aimed grammatical features (Batstone & Ellis, 2009). By the same token, Vygotskian socio-cultural theory requires the urge for forming an explicit understanding of a grammatical feature prior to use (Batstone & Ellis, 2009). In addition, according to the concept based instruction proposed by Lantolf and Johnson (2007), the instruction has to initially establish a conceptual understanding of a form-function mapping and then provide the students with a real operating condition. The present study finds the use of L1 to be effective as a tool to set the stage for the teaching of grammatical structure to help the low proficiency students' processing of form-meaning mapping. However, the same cannot be held true for the students with a higher level of proficiency. As Table 2 shows, although the mean score for the experimental group is higher than that of the control group, there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups. It can therefore be concluded that although the use of the students' mother tongue as a consciousness-raising tool for the instruction of grammar was effective for the beginners, the upper-intermediate learners did not benefit equally from the same method of teaching.

VIII. CONCLUSIONS

To date, research into the incorporation of L1 use in the teaching grammar has had a wealth of publications and findings to offer (Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Ferrer, (n.d); Scott & De la Fuente, 2008). In fact, in recent years there has been an increasing interest into discovering the facilitative roles that students' mother tongue could play in the instruction of language structures. In line with the previous research, the results of this study reached the conclusion that the use of L1 as a consciousness-raising tool can be a facilitator in second language classrooms. This is mostly prominent in lower levels, since students' command of language is at its early stage and full comprehension of the material can significantly assist their grammar acquisition. If students have little or no knowledge of the target language, L1 can play a major role as a consciousness-raising tool to introduce new grammatical structures and the major differences between L1 and L2 grammatical characteristics. As many would agree (Cook, 2001; Weschler, 1997; Phillipson, 1992; Burden, 2000; Canagarajah, 1999; Schweers, 1999; Atkinson, 1987; Auerbach, 1993; Patcher & Field, 2001; Harbord, 1992; Swain & Lapkin, 2000), judicious use of L1 in upper levels can also be a motivating and facilitating factor in the process of teaching and learning. Following Thornbury (1999), teaching grammar should be efficient (in terms of time and energy, among other things). In the same line, the findings of this study suggest that L1 use contributes to the efficiency of teaching grammar in lower levels.

Among many pedagogical implications suggested in previous studies (Atkinson, 1987; Phillipson, 1992; Cook, 2001; Schweers, 1999) the findings of this study can indeed be helpful for teachers, as some would still show hesitations when asked about the use of L1 in the classroom. Moreover, the findings have implications for teacher trainers as they can raise teachers' awareness about the applicability of the students' mother tongue in beginner levels, so as to efficiently and economically (Thornbury, 1999) facilitate the process of grammar instruction on the part of the teacher and grammar acquisition of the part of the student. In other words, teacher trainers can instruct the teachers on the judicious use of L1 with respect to the appropriate pedagogical activity (i.e. grammar instruction) and the appropriate proficiency level (beginner level).

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Zoobinshid Arshad holds an MA in TEFL from Shiraz Azad University. He is a teacher and teacher trainer in Navid English Language Center in Iran. His areas of interests are material development, teacher training and language learning strategies.

Mohammadreza Abdolrahimpour is a PhD student of language teaching at Laval University. He received his MA in TEFL from Shiraz University. He has been a teacher educator, test developer and EFL instructor for over a decade. His current areas of interest are teacher education and program evaluation.

Mohammad Reza Najafi holds an MA in TEFL from Bamonar State University, and also a B.A in TEFL from Shiraz Azad University. He is a teacher and a test developer in Navid Language Center, Iran. He is also an instructor in Dibagaran Language Center. His research interests include corrective feedback, error correction and Second language development.

Interlanguage-based Error Analysis in Higher Vocational and Technological College EFL Education in China

Xiongyong Cheng

School of Foreign Languages, Henan University of Technology, 450001 Lianhua Avenue, Zhengzhou High & New-tech Industries Development Zone, China

Abstract—The previous traditional second language (L2) acquisition research was lacking of systematic theoretical guidance as regards error analysis and research. Interlanguage firstly provides a reliable theoretical basis, which refers to the entirety of L2 output as a reference context to analyze language learners' errors, significantly reducing the blindness of research practice in error analysis. Error analysis of learners' L2 output contributes to accurately identifying what learners have understood, what they have not yet, what they have misunderstood, what they have mastered, or what they have not yet and so on. This would be of greatly theoretical and practical value to the actual situation of English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching for the steady enhancement of EFL instructional reform in higher vocational and technological colleges. Implications are seemingly highlighted respecting interlanguage-based error analysis in higher vocational and technological EFL instruction.

Index Terms—interlanguage, error analysis, vocational, technological, EFL

I. INTRODUCTION

Error analysis is an important topic in second language (L2) acquisition and a hot research issue in recent years (Wedell & Liu, 2012). It is generally agreed that the development period of the error analysis is not long, but its growth rate is fast with increasing research teams and tools constantly being updated, so the outcomes of error analysis have begun to mushroom and sprout in various fields (Widdowson, 2013). L2 acquisition is the process of improving learners' L2 or foreign language proficiency, which is different from first language acquisition (Hu, 1998). Language acquisition is a psychological, cognitive, and linguistic skill development process (Lightbown, 1983). It should be said that the study of L2 acquisition process is aimed at expecting to obtain something beneficial to language teaching and acquisition in order to enhance the effectiveness of L2 acquisition (Ellis, 2012). As such, most L2 acquisition researchers tend to view error analysis as an entry point and a breakthrough in the study of L2 acquisition (Ellis, 2012).

Interlanguage-based error analysis is an effective tool for L2 acquisition research (Selinker, 1972). Cognition of the underlying causes of errors, analysis of errors, and timely adjustment of teaching contents and methods are accurate guidance of L2 acquisition (Tarone, 2012). Studies in L2 acquisition are no longer the induction of sole experience or qualitative analysis description only but should be empirical research via quantitative analysis (Richards & Rodgers, 2013). Through this, a comprehensive, systematic research of description can be made in the case of L2 learners' language performance on top of the investigation and analysis of conditions of language acquisition, and a scientific L2 acquisition module which can render learners' language input and output in a linear relationship model of L2 acquisition can be further established as well (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996).

II. ERROR VS. MISTAKE

It seems necessary to distinguish the two linguistic terms “mistake” and “error” before we delve in. Under normal circumstances, these two words are known as “wrong”. Some authors have tried to use the different terms “lapse” or a “fault” to distinguish, but cannot address the problem by its nature (e.g., Selinker, 1974; Tarone, 1979; Tarone, 2011). In fact, from the perspective of L2 acquisition, these two concepts are different (Ellis, 2012). “Mistake” usually refers to fault in performance, which could either be made accidentally due to the speaker's slip of the tongue, or fatigue, or even declination in attention to cause the speaker's performance capacity to reduce (Ellis, 2012). As such, learners have not applied their previous knowledge correctly and thus made mistakes while they should not have since they are fully competent. From this point of view, any person may possibly make such mistakes regardless of speaking the mother tongue or foreign language (Tarone, Bigelow, & Hansen, 2013). In other words, such discourse hesitation, slips of the tongue, occasional violations of grammar rules are not caused by the lack of knowledge but transient imperfections like negligence in the course of language production (Tarone & Liu, 1995). Such faults are known as mistakes. In contrast with this, in the L2 acquisition process, learners tend to deviate from or run counter to the rules of the target language system, and this deviation or contravention is often due to the poverty of the competence of correct expression (Ellis,

2012). Even though such errors are pointed out, it is not certain that the speaker is able to correct them immediately (Ellis, 2012). Rather, he/she will feel at a loss because he/she is unqualified for self-correction right now (Ellis, 2012). For example, a learner will say “Does he can sing songs?”, which indicates that the speaker’s capacity is only limited to the concept that auxiliary verbs can be put at the beginning of question sentences. Perhaps, he/she knows the usage of the auxiliary “does” of the third person in the simple present tense, but has no idea of constituting question sentences by transferring forwards a modal verb to the beginning of the sentence. Such faults are known as errors in L2 acquisition. In accordance with Corder (1967), errors are systematic deviations of language in the course of learner L2 acquisition. The faults discussed in this paper refer to the latter, that is, errors.

III. ERROR TYPES

Summarizing errors that learners often make will help us to make a better study of the origins and causes of the diverse errors in order to achieve the goal of correcting them to enhance learning effectiveness. Pursuant to Burt and Kiparsky (1972), foreign language learners’ errors can fall into two broad categories: (1) global errors which appear in the important structure of the sentence and affect the learner’s understanding of the sentence and common communication, and (2) localized errors which occur in the secondary structure of a sentence and do not affect the understanding or impede communication though the sentence is not properly structured.

Alternatively, error types can be summarized pursuant to the overtness and covertness of errors (Corder, 1971). Literally, overt errors imply that the learner breaks the grammatical rules of the target language, whereas covert errors suggest that the learner’s statements consistent with the target language grammar rules make no sense from context analysis (Celce-Murcia & Hawkins, 1985). The source and target languages in cultural differences will bring about different solutions to the same problem (Hu, 2002). For instance, Chinese people are accustomed to using “self-deprecation” to reply to appreciation, while the Westerners prefer “thank you” instead.

IV. THE STATUS AND ROLE OF ERROR ANALYSIS

Error analysis is of great importance to the learners of L2 acquisition (Corder, 1967). In short, error analysis is the research into errors committed by the students in the learning of foreign languages, which can reflect learners’ L2 learning results (Selinker, 1974). Through the analysis of the error, learners will be able to determine whether their own L2 acquisition is successful or not, and judge the appropriateness of their own learning methods and paces, so that they can better allocate their own time identifying which part they should spend more time on (Corder, 1967). Error analysis is also an indispensable aid for the majority of foreign language teachers in foreign language teaching (Widdowson, 2013). The analysis of language errors committed by students would help teachers improve foreign language teaching methods to enable foreign language instruction to be enhanced (Wedell & Liu, 2012). Error analysis pertains to a learner-centered foreign language teaching theory and can shift learners’ attention from external objective factors to the learners themselves and deepen the understanding of themselves since errors are often caused due to learners’ subjectivity (Jiang, 1999). When people identify, describe, explain, and assess learners’ errors, error analysis will show a dynamic and systematic portrayal of the learners so that people clearly identify how and why they have committed errors and how to avoid the same errors (Kleinmann, 1977). Error analysis counts as a major breakthrough in research approaches and methods of teaching an L2, and learners’ errors and error analysis are thus playing a vitally important role in L2 acquisition (Corder, 1967).

V. THE BASIS OF ERROR ANALYSIS -- INTERLANGUAGE

A. *Defining Interlanguage*

Pursuant to Selinker (1972), interlanguage refers to the type of language generated by nonnative speakers in the process of learning an L2 or foreign language. Selinker (1972) asserts that in a given situation the utterances produced by learners are different from those native speakers would produce should they attempt to convey the same meaning. Typically, interlanguage is a dynamic linguistic system that is developed by the learners of an L2 or foreign language who preserve some features of their first language or overgeneralize target language rules in speaking or writing the target language and create innovations since they have not become fully proficient yet but are approximating the target language ((Tarone, 2011). Interlanguage rules are claimed to be shaped by several components, such as first language transfer, transfer of training, strategies of L2 learning, strategies of L2 communication, and overgeneralization of the target language patterns (Carroll & Swain, 1993).

The concept of interlanguage actually involves two layers of meaning, the first of which is the static situation of learners at any stage of language learning, followed by the second layer referring to the learner from the zero starting point gradually to the target language, namely, learners’ language development process (Selinker, 1972). Free between the mother tongue and target language, interlanguage naturally contains numerous errors, which contributes to the recognition of reasonable existence of interlanguage during the course of learners’ L2 acquisition (Tarone, 2011). As such, learners are allowed to make errors in the process of learning. It can thus be said that errors will accompany the development of interlanguage from start to finish (Selinker, 1974). The number of errors and “quality” vary with

different stages, which requires teachers to help students analyze and correct errors, for the sake of eventually achieving the instructional goal step by step (Hu, 2002).

B. Evolving Interlanguage

The language system that L2 learners establish by means of incorrect induction and deduction as regards the regularity of the target language is one of constant change and development continuum, which, along with the intake of new language rules, gradually moves closer to the correct form of the target language (Selinker, 1972). The process of change and development of this typical language system is presented with phases (Selinker, 1972). In particular, when learners could not really understand a rule of the target language, this instability will bring about learners' incoherent, inconsistent errors (Tarone, 1979). In addition, learners of an L2 before learning have already been aware that the language is bound to have its latent rules, so they are always thinking of exploiting the rule system through some kind of assumption, and attempt to apply these not available in the process of language learning (Ellis, 2013). Accordingly, errors made are not systematic.

As far as the stages of learners' interlanguage development are concerned, researchers have once given a description in many different respects. For example, Brown (1986), from the perspective of L2 acquisition language error categories, divides interlanguage into four phases as follows: (a) the random error stage, at which learners are only dimly aware that the target language has a special system of knowledge which needs to be learnt, but they are lacking of this sort of knowledge; (b) the emergent stage, at which the language output of learners gradually becomes consistent throughout, who have already begun to identify the system and internalized certain rules; (c) the systematic stage, at which the learner is able to correct the error once it is slightly pointed out since learners' language use embodies more consistency; (d) the stabilization stage, at which the number of the errors that do not need to be pointed out by others is comparatively small as the learners have already mastered the target language system, made fluent use of the language, and had no problems with the expression of meaning.

VI. THE CAUSES OF ERRORS THROUGH THE NATURE OF INTERLANGUAGE

Interlanguage-based error analysis theory is still relatively young, which, however, has positive implications for foreign language teaching (Dai & Cai, 2001). The object of the theoretical research is to study the learners, and contemporary applied linguistics research and new-type teaching activities under its guidance tend to be learner-centered, with which research of interlanguage is synchronous (Tarone, 2011). Furthermore, allowing students to make errors during the learning process and positively guiding students to analyze and reduce errors can take protective care of EFL learners' psychological characteristics and thus avoid shortcomings arising out of traditional "errors corrected whenever discovered" (Selinker, 1974, p. 23).

A. The Nature of Interlanguage

The characteristics of interlanguage in nature can be understood through the five actual operation procedures that Selinker (1972) asserts as follows: (a) the interlingual transfer, which implies that while learning a foreign language, learners may process the information of the target language by utilizing the rules of the native language consciously or unconsciously in that they are unfamiliar with the syntax of the target language; (b) the overgeneralization of target language rules, for learners often view some of the target language rules as general ones, oversimplify the target language structure system, and thereby create some structural variations and deviations that do not exist in the target language; (c) the transfer due to the effects of teaching, in which teachers' excessive emphasis on the structure of, for example, "an adjective +ly forming an adverb" will cause students to inappropriately expand such forms of interlanguage as "He treated me friendly"; (d) learning strategies, by means of one of which—simplification by omission, for example, learners often omit the verb morpheme "-s" of the singular third person or the plural affix "-s", giving rise to "She sing very well" or "I can sing three song"; (e) communication strategies, in which, for example, beginners in learning EFL wanted to express "I lost my way" but often said "I lost my road" instead in that they could not think of or know the word "way" for the moment and had to avoid the term and replace it with the misnomer "road".

B. The Causes of Interlanguage-based Errors

Below is the discussion on the specific causes of linguistic errors on the basis of an understanding of the nature of interlanguage.

a. Sentences Transforming into Mechanically-applied Patterns

In this regard, the author's survey subjects are higher vocational and technological college students, most of whom are rather weak in English proficiency and have not been exposed to sufficient input of materials in English (Hu, 1998; Leng, 1997). They often mechanically apply sentences that are more familiar to them in inappropriate situations, viewing these familiar sentences as formulaic sentence patterns (Campbell & Zhao, 1993). This way surely renders them to say correct sentences and also throw linguistic errors simultaneously (Dai & Cai, 2001). For example, they are acquainted with the sentence "She goes to school every day" (Correct). Undoubtedly, if this sentence pattern is applied mechanically, another correct sentence may arise like "He goes to school every day". Nonetheless, if applied in this

sentence “He goes to here every day” (Wrong), an error triggered by this formulaic pattern application appears.

b. Misusing Such Logic Means of Expression as Induction and Deduction

In language learning, learners tend to attach great importance to the universal rules of grammar or general description of grammar (Jiang, 1999). When they are unable to think out an appropriate statement for an idea for a short while, they would tend to be accustomed to the application of induction and deduction by uttering sentences like “He has been there yesterday” or “I saw him to enter the office” and so forth.

c. Overalertness

In the process of EFL instruction, teachers often keep on pointing out errors that students have made and require them to correct errors whenever discovered (Ellis, 1990, 2012, 2013). Over time, learners will naturally form excessive awareness of grammatical rules and always seek the most “safe” language to avoid the “error”, and “free formulaic pattern” is just the status quo under this mental pressure (Lightbown & Spada, 1990, p. 431).

d. Affection Overwhelming Rationality

Learners’ emotions and feelings are apparently dominant when they undertake purposeful communication activities (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). When learners’ affection gains the upper hand, language rules or sentence patterns learnt will be overlooked and even forgotten (Krashen, 1982). As a result, such simple errors as verb tenses and third person singulars often come into being in usual communication activities (Kleinmann, 1977).

e. Mixed Application of the Rules of the Target and Native Languages

During the process of foreign language use, learners are often characterized with the involvement of the mixture of the native and target language rules (Ellis, 1990). Incorrect utterances are not uncommon in the learners such as “He hopes me to help him” and “We suggest them to have another try”. It can be thus noted that learners are attempting to utilize indiscriminately Mandarin word order rules on top of the blind application of infinitive rules in English as well (Ting, 1987).

f. Fossilization

After a learner has mastered numbers of sentence patterns of native and target languages, the development of interlanguage comes to halt, and the available sentence patterns would be fossil-like engraved in the learner’s mind (Celce-Murcia & Hawkins, 1985; Dai & Cai, 2001; Hu, 1998). For example, in the learning of English as an L2, Germans are always putting the adverbials of time and place after verbs (i.e., German order); Hindus desire to use *that*-clause after all English verbs (Corder, 1971). No matter how comprehensive these L2 learners’ English knowledge is, similar errors always repeat in the target language learning when learners focus on a new and difficult task or in case of nervousness or excitement (Celce-Murcia & Hawkins, 1985). Even in the situation of extreme relaxation or not speaking the target language for a short time, errors like this arise as well (Selinker, 1974).

VII. STEPS FOR ANALYZING ERRORS

A. Collecting Samples of Learner Language Errors

The collection of learner language error samples should be needed at the time of the research of error analysis (Corder, 1967); what error samples to collect and how to collect the samples of these errors will affect the quality and validity of research findings to a large extent (Corder, 1967). Collecting what kind of error samples ought to be a standard issue, which requires that the collected samples of error analysis should be learner’s language materials arising under natural conditions (Tarone, 2012). This kind of language materials has to reduce the interference and impact of researchers and other human factors as much as possible so as to guarantee the objectivity of the collected language materials (Corder, 1971). How to collect sample errors is a method issue, and whether we have adopted the cross-sectional method to collect sample materials or longitudinal capture will inevitably affect the conclusion of the study (Celce-Murcia & Hawkins, 1985).

The error samples of most error analysis studies are conventionally collected by means of horizontal studies (Selinker, 1974). Since language materials collected this way represent the section of learner language development process at some stage, they cannot fully and accurately reflect the learners’ errors occurring in various stages of language development due to their flaws and one-sidedness (Lightbown, 1983). Collecting error samples via longitudinal studies is able to reflect the historical process of learners’ errors occurring in the course of learning and comparatively objectively reflect the actual situation of learners’ second language acquisition as well (Tarone & Liu, 1995). As such, to collect learner error samples through longitudinal research is preferable (Jiang, 1999).

B. Identifying Errors

The standards of identifying errors will be established for the sake of the confirmation of errors. If errors are viewed as the variants of the received target language, the received target language should be criteria to identify errors (Selinker, 1974). Whether the received written or spoken target language ought to be criteria is a problem (Corder, 1967). Typically, the received written target language is regarded as the kind of criteria (Corder, 1971). In case the received spoken target language is considered as the benchmark, it is actually challenging and nearly impossible (Ellis, 2013).

In addition, there is another tough problem. That is, the angles of judging errors are manifold: judging from the language form (e.g., *He telled me a lot.*), from the semantic perspective (*lover*; a person who is loved), also from the pragmatic perspective (e.g., *I want you to shut the door.* It is applicable to those you are familiar with) (Ellis, 2012).

Establishing a uniform benchmark is certainly somewhat difficult to some degree (Ellis, 1990). Corder (1967) has established a set of criteria for identifying errors, which distinguishes three different types of errors from the perspective of explanations of language forms, subjectivity, and appropriateness. Undoubtedly, mastering the basic features of errors and understanding the difference between mistakes and errors can contribute to identifying errors (Corder, 1967).

C. Describing Errors

Errors can be described and classified after being confirmed (Corder, 1967). Describing errors is to bring out the surface characteristics of learners' language errors with reference to the received target language (Celce-Murcia & Hawkins, 1985). A set of systems concerning the description of errors has to be established for the sake of describing the surface features of learners' language errors, which tends to focus on the visible surface features of language errors and provide the base to interpret errors (Selinker, 1974). Language errors vary from learner to learner, which brings about a variety of reasons for errors concerned (Corder, 1971). Only categorizing error stuff can we know what kind of learner errors would appear at whatever learning stages or in whatever situations so that we can analyze and explain the causes of errors (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). As such, to classify language errors is a key link to error description (Corder, 1967).

Ellis (2013) divides errors into different grammatical categories, such as subordinate clauses, passive voice sentences, and active voice sentences, which are then broken down into a number of sub-categories (Ellis, 2013). For example, verb errors pertain to a general category, subdivided into a large class of verbs as predicates, and then subdivided into classes like tenses, voices, and tones (Ellis, 2013).

Another kind is Krashen's (1982, p. 38) "classification of surface policy", which focuses on learners' strategies of language use and categorizes errors from the perspective of objective analysis of the cognitive process of learners' language learning. As such, errors can be categorized into "omission" (learners omitting some words necessary in their discourse, e.g., She sleeping.), "misinformation" (replacing one form of grammar with another one, e.g., She ated.), mis-ordering (e.g., learner's wrongly-set word sequences, e.g., What she is eating?) and so on.

Starting from the learners' language learning processes, Corder (1971) brings out another kind of error taxonomies, which falls into three broad categories. The first category pertains to the pre-systematic error appearing while learners have no idea of related rules of the target language (Corder, 1971); the second is the systematic error caused due to the fact that learners have formed some rule systems which are not completely correct (Corder, 1971); the third is the post-systematic error generated when learners have understood and formed the related rule systems but been unable to apply them systematically (Corder, 1967). This kind of classification can reflect the process of learner language acquisition more objectively (Ellis, 2012).

D. Explaining Errors

Error analysis is aimed at identifying the causes of errors (Krashen, 1982). Accordingly, the interpretation of "error" causes is actually an extremely important point and the issue of the most concern as well in the course of second language acquisition research (Ellis, 1990). Causes of errors can be interpreted from various angles depending on different linguistic theories, which, of course, are primarily analyzed and interpreted from a psycholinguistic perspective (Jiang, 1999).

Richards and Rodgers' (2013) interpretative approach counts as the most influential in a variety of error cause interpretations, in which error causes are clarified into two broad categories according to the different processes of errors caused: One is associated with interlingual errors caused by mother language transfer. The other is related to intralingual errors happening due to language learners' overgeneralization of the rules of the target language since they excessively apply or do not fully understand the target language rules (Richards & Rodgers, 2013).

E. Evaluating Errors

The last step of error analysis is the evaluation of errors. Errors are not isolated phenomena, but exist in specific contexts (Corder, 1971). The severe and unnatural degrees of errors will vary from context to context (Corder, 1967). Some errors have no great impact on the understanding of the target language; some errors affect understanding; some lead to misunderstanding or even serious loss of comprehension (Corder, 1967). Local errors (usually occurring in the secondary structure of a sentence) have little effect on understanding, while global errors (occurring in the important structure of a sentence) have a great impact on understanding or even cause the misunderstanding of the target language (Corder, 1967, 1971).

In addition, there should exist evaluation criteria for the evaluation of errors. As Jiang (1999) puts it, "generally speaking, the guidelines of error evaluation are threefold: intelligibility, acceptability, and irritation; intelligibility means that the meaning of the sentence containing errors can be understood; acceptability refers to the judgment of the severity of errors of listeners or readers; irritation tends to signify listeners' or readers' emotional stimuli caused by errors" (pp. 32-33). It should be noted that these three criteria themselves are acceptable (Jiang, 1999). Nevertheless, since error evaluation often involves multiple factors, such as the relationship between speaker and hearer, the status of education of interlocutors, the time and location of communication, and the specific context, depending entirely on the above three rules in assessing errors tends to be less likely (Selinker & Douglas, 1985). Therefore, these three rules can be only a reference system for error evaluation (Jiang, 1999).

VIII. HIGHER VOCATIONAL AND TECHNOLOGICAL COLLEGE EFL INSTRUCTIONAL STATUS QUO

Current higher vocational and technological college students' EFL learning and teaching situations are not optimistic in China (Ministry of Education of China [MOE], 2013). Quite a number of higher vocational and technological college students come from secondary technical schools, vocational high schools, and technical schools where students' EFL proficiency is generally weak due to their knowledge gap in EFL (MOE, 2013). The latest statistical results of simulation tests in the past three years (2011-2013) have showed that the average pass rate of the College English Test-4 (CET-4) throughout the country for non-English majors is 5.8% and that the rate of low scores less than 40 account for nearly 50% with the average score 37.6 (100-point system) (MOE, 2011, 2013).

Furthermore, the author selected at random 132 freshman participants from higher vocational and technological colleges throughout the country who sat for Practical English Test for Colleges (PRETCO) in 2013. PRETCO is a specified testing form for the sake of testifying higher vocational and technological college students regarding their school achievements in English a year after entering higher vocational schools (MOE, 2011). The participants were cultivated under the identical English learning environment by means of the same syllabus and teaching books. PRETCO falls into grades A and B, where grade A is the norm with grade B as a transition. The participating subjects could choose grade A or B pursuant to their individual actual situation, in which there were 64 participants in the arts sitting for grade A with the passing rate 71.88% ($n = 46$). There were 14 for grade B with the passing rate 14.29% ($n = 2$). As such, the total passing rate of grades A and B of the 78 arts students was 61.54%. Among the 132 participating subjects, there were 35 engineering students sitting for grade A with the passing rate 80% ($n = 28$), and 19 sat for grade B with the passing rate 84.21% ($n = 16$). The total passing rate of grades A and B of the 54 participating engineering students was 81.48%.

Additionally, there exist many problems in students' psychological state as well (MOE, 2013). Higher vocational and technological college EFL teaching materials aim to foster students' abilities of using indiscriminately appropriate sentences to communicate in different contexts and situations (MOE, 2013; Nunan, 2003). Such a cultivation objective fits in with higher vocational and technological college students who, however, claim that they should have acquired more in-depth EFL knowledge rather than practical English only (Black & William, 1998). As such, students often feel repulsion towards the language learning without enthusiasm (Hu, 2005).

IX. IMPLICATIONS

A. *Teachers Changing the Traditional Concept of Treating Errors*

The EFL teachers of higher vocational and technological colleges should transform the traditional notion of coping with errors (MOE, 2013; White, 1987). Language errors can be viewed as a symbol for the learner to master an L2 in that interlanguage runs through the whole process of L2 learning (Hu, 2002, 2005). Students should be allowed to make mistakes in EFL language learning, and teachers should know how to grasp the evolution procedures of students' errors, prompting interlanguage to gradually move closer to the target language (Jiang, 1999). Studies on errors have found that the language learner is constantly making mistakes in the process of learning and mastery of the target language. These errors are logical and self-contained in the limited language system of L2 learners (Ellis, 2012). L2 learners gradually learn to use words that conform to the syntax specification by handling outside feedback on these errors (Jiang, 1999). As such, in the teaching of foreign languages, teachers should hold a scientific attitude towards errors which are neither corrected immediately nor overlooked without any interference since immediate error corrections will dampen learners' enthusiasm (Hu, 2005). Only by carefully analyzing errors regarding different characteristics and categories and making distinctions can we find the best ways to correct errors to enhance teaching quality (Tarone, 2012).

B. *Teachers Grasping Correct Error-correcting Methods and Techniques*

Equally importantly, teachers should possess right and scientific approaches and techniques (Krashen, 1982). Inappropriate remedies would dissuade students' confidence and enthusiasm, especially for those students who are poorer in English and relatively introverted in character (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; MOE, 2013). Under different circumstances, the teacher can adopt two ways -- direct and indirect remedies (Tarone & Liu, 1995). In the first place, the direct remedy is frequently applied in the mechanical drilling phase (Wedell & Liu, 2012). The teacher can point out global and systemic errors that students make in terms of pronunciation, syntax, and pragmatics and further analyze the causes of the errors while providing the correct form of comparison and relevant material to consolidate knowledge concerned (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). In the second place, the teacher may indirectly correct students' errors in language application in a variety of flexible ways (Tarone, 1979). The vast majority of the students in higher vocational and technological colleges frequently make simple errors respecting articles, spelling, capitalization, punctuation, for example (MOE, 2011). At this point, teachers can draw mainly on students' self-correction or student-student correction strategies (Ting, 1987). Universal errors concerning verb tenses and agreements between the subject and predicate can be corrected via discussion and comments in order to protect students' learning enthusiasm and thereby guide students to constantly undertake self-correction to interlanguage (Wedell & Liu, 2012). Furthermore, teachers can likewise hint out the correct forms of their errors by extending the sentences for the sake of deliberate correction of students' errors (Widdowson, 2013). Sometimes, the errors concerned may be stressed on purpose if possible to draw the students'

attention (Harvey, 1985). For example,

Teacher (Correct): What did you do in the main library this morning?

Student (Wrong): I borrowed book.

Teacher (Correct): Oh, I see. You borrowed **a** (*stressed*) book this morning.

In short, regardless of whatever method, its fundamental purpose is to correct students' errors and to protect students' self-esteem and confidence in that there are no rules that never vary (Leng, 1997; Ting, 1987). As a result, a proper method should change at all times with occasions, situations, teaching and learning materials, course types, and purposes (Richards & Rodgers, 2013).

C. Making Distinctions between Errors

Firstly, the language performance mistake and competence error should be distinguished. As mentioned previously in the current paper, the former refers to the occasional mistake from students due to carelessness who can recognize and correct it by themselves, while the latter refers to learners being guilty of systematic errors which are generally difficult for the learners to find and thus have to be properly guided by teachers (Tarone et al., 2013). Secondly, localized errors such as the plural form of a noun and misuse of a certain article which can be realized and rectified by students and global errors affecting the overall organizational structure even causing interference to communication which should be addressed, emphasized, analyzed, and corrected are to be differentiated (Burt & Kiparsky, 1972). Finally, oral errors and written errors ought to be distinguished. Due to the immediacy and unpredictability of oral communication, it is more likely for oral errors to arise more frequently, and much of this type of error is caused by the unskilled application of principles or inadequacy of time spent using the knowledge acquired to monitor linguistic output as a result (Widdowson, 2013). For such errors, teachers should adopt a tolerant attitude towards errors that students, in particular, higher vocational and technological students, make since too much correction would dampen their confidence and motivation, thus causing fear or avoiding using language for communication due to the poverty of their oral ability (Wedell & Liu, 2012). As far as written errors are concerned, teachers should start with the basic training of the students, emphasizing the accurate use of language (Ellis, 2012).

X. CONCLUDING REMARKS

In conclusion, interlanguage theory is the base of error analysis, which is likewise the direct product of error analysis in research breakthrough. Lots of error analysis practices provide a solid material foundation and establishment of the theory of interlanguage and provide scientific theoretical guidance for error analysis in turn. The direct object of theoretical research of interlanguage is learners' interlanguage during the course of their interlingual communication process. Interlanguage is a self-contained, independent learners' linguistic system between the mother tongue and target language and has their own rules which are also created by the learners themselves. Learners apply this rule system consciously rather than arbitrarily. Interlanguage takes shape in the process of communication and is an ever-changing dynamic language system. The rule system of interlanguage is open and constantly introduces new rules by means of adjustment, and improvement, and replacement, and expansion of ready-made transitional rule system, and this system reflects learner language acquisition proficiency and capacity. With the development of learner language acquisition proficiency and capacity, their interlanguage would gradually approach the target language from simplicity to complexity. As the causes of errors and interlanguage are complex and inextricably linked, research on error analysis and interlanguage is bound to be closely interdependent. Interlanguage theory tends to analyze learner language from the macro-perspective of language learners' acquisition of language, while error analysis prefers learner language analysis through micro and specific language focuses.

With the expansion of higher vocational and technological education in China in recent years, the number of higher vocational and technological college students has therefore increased swiftly, and more and more emphasis has been placed on EFL teaching in higher vocational and technological education. Research into error analysis has been a cutting-edge science in contemporary linguistics studies and played a vitally important role in foreign language instruction. The teachers can be more aware of students' mastery of language knowledge with the help of the analysis of students' errors based on interlanguage and identify weaknesses in instruction. Through the analysis of causes and types of errors, the teachers take timely and effective remedial measures, identify the inadequacy of their own teaching methods and plans, and make adjustments and modifications in a prompt manner so as to improve the quality of EFL teaching.

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Xiongyong Cheng was born in Xinyang, China in 1966. He is an associate professor in teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at the School of Foreign Languages, Henan University of Technology, China. His primary research interests are EFL testing and assessment in relation to classroom instruction. He holds an MA in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) from Henan Normal University, China, and a PhD in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) from the University of Malaya, Malaysia.

His current research interests encompass EFL teaching, inter-cultural communication, teacher education, professional development, and the evaluation of curriculum implementation. Assoc. Prof. Dr. Cheng was awarded the honor title "National Excellent Education Gardener" by the Ministry of Education of China in 1993.

British and American Phonetic Varieties

Naghmeh Mirzaie Hosseinzadeh

English Department, Faculty of Engineering, Tafresh (Amirkabir) University, Tafresh, Iran

Aliyeh Kord Zafaranlu Kambuziya

English Department, Faculty of Humanities, Tarbiat Modares University, Tehran, Iran

Mansour Shariati

English Department, Faculty of Engineering, Tafresh (Amirkabir) University, Tafresh, Iran

Abstract—The aim of this research is to analyze the two varieties of British and American English in respect of their phonetic differences. Although the language of Britain and America is English, there are some pronunciation, vocabulary, spelling, grammatical, idiomatic and other differences between them. In this research, the phonetic differences between these two English varieties have been analyzed in terms of their vowels (including monophthongs and diphthongs) and consonants. The method used in this research is comparative whose data have been collected through library and internet sources. Comparative method is a linguistic method used to compare and contrast two or more languages. The obtained results, based on the comparison between British and American pronunciation, will get English language learners to the recognition, conscious knowledge and correct usage of British and American English.

Index Terms— British & American English, vowel, diphthong, consonant, accent, phonetics

I. INTRODUCTION

In the 17th century, with the British arrival and the establishment of its colonization in America, American people started speaking English. The colonization was followed by trade and by the establishment of colonies of settlers. It was in 18th that the relations between the British and Americans broke up because of trade and conflict which led to war. The war caused the differences and interactions between them which fell into three phases: First, American English was colonial in status and British English was dominant. During this phase, the influence and the flow of development was from British to American English. In the second phase, from independence until the First World War, American English established for itself a character of its own, including a reputation for creating new expressions, being racy and original, while still being regarded itself as a junior partner beside British English. Thirdly, which continues at the present time, American English emerges as of equal status and values as that of British English and in some respects reversing the earlier flow of influence, so that it is frequently British English which draws on American English.(as cited in Qiu, 2010-12, pp.6-21) Concerning the divergence between these two English varieties George Bernard Shaw said: “the united states and united kingdom are two countries divided by a common language”.(as cited in Patta, 2007, p.81). The divergence between these two English varieties has brought differences in their pronunciation, spelling, vocabulary, grammar, idioms and so on. But, the differences in terms of vocabulary, grammar, or spelling are small compared with phonetic differences. In this article, some of the vocalic and consonantal differences between these two English varieties will be evaluated.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Snezhina Dimitrova explains about the accents of General American English and Received Pronunciation of Britain as well as the differences of some British and American English vowels, consonants and stress and gives some examples. (2010, pp. 3-8).

Thomas Pyles and John Alegeo explored the principle differences between two major national dialects: British and American. Two of the main differences between them are pronunciation and spelling. In their work, they investigate some of such differences. (1993, pp. 212-236).

Laurie Bauer analyzes the vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation differences between British and American English. Moreover, his book is about the characteristics of English language as it is used in various countries including Britain and America. As to pronunciation, he discusses about these two accents: RP (received pronunciation) and GA (general American). (2002, p. 69).

Wells provides a classification of pronunciation differences between English varieties which holds just as well for colonial varieties as it does for local accents. Varieties, he says, have different pronunciations because of four factors: (as cited in Wells, 1982, p. 76).

- phonetic realization
- Phonotactic distribution

Phonemic systems

Lexical distribution

Paco Gomez uses IPA symbols to describe sounds. He chooses IPA symbols because they are a standard in sound description and ensure accuracy. Concerning the main differences between British and American English, he summarizes them as follows: (2009, pp. 3- 8).

The presence of rhotic accent

Differences in vowel pronunciation

Differences in consonant pronunciation

Differences in articulation

Change of stress

III. DEFINITION OF TERMS

Accent refers to pronunciation only and identifies where a person is from regionally or socially. Regional accents can refer to any locale, including both rural and urban communities within a country as well as national groups speaking the same language and our impression of other languages. Social accents relate to the cultural and educational background of the speaker. In Britain, the best example is RP (Received Pronunciation) which is the standard accent of standard English in England. Or, GA (known as General American English) is the standard accent of American English. (Crystal, 2003, p. 3).

Phonetics is a branch of linguistics that comprises the study of the sounds of human speech. It is concerned with the physical properties of speech sounds or signs, their physiological production, acoustic properties, auditory perception, and neurophysiological status. Phonology, on the other hand, is concerned with the abstract, grammatical characterization of systems of sounds or signs. The field of phonetics is a multilayered subject of linguistics that focuses on speech. In the case of oral languages, there are three basic areas of study: (as cited in O'Grady, 2005, p.15)

- Articulatory phonetics: the study of the production of speech sounds by the articulatory and vocal tract by the speaker.

- Acoustic phonetics: the study of the physical transmission of speech sounds from the speaker to the listener.

- Auditory phonetics: the study of the reception and perception of speech sounds by the listener. (as cited in O'Grady, 2005, p.15).

Henry Sweet, a great linguist, described phonetics as: "the indispensable foundation of all study of language-whether that study be purely theoretical or practical as well". (as cited in Sweet, 1877, p. 5).

IV. RESEARCH METHOD

The approach used in this research is the comparison between British and American English phonetic differences along with their phonological representations. In this article, IPA symbols are used to compare and describe British and American English varieties including: vowels, (comprising monophthongs and diphthongs) and consonants. Within each table, base words, with their British and American transcriptions, are illustrated and analyzed.

V. METHODOLOGY

This article aims at analyzing the phonetic system of British and American English and comparing them with each other. In view of the applied method, the researcher has made use of a wide range of library and internet sources. Concerning the approach used, British and American vocalic and consonantal varieties have been compared and analyzed through some examples.

VI. DATA ANALYSIS

After collecting information and necessary data about phonetic varieties of vowels and consonants concerning British and American English, the researcher has applied the comparative, descriptive method between them. In each table, a set of two words has been used whose phonetic rules have been transcribed and analyzed based on IPA symbols. IPA (1999/2005) is the major as well as the oldest representative organization for phoneticians which was established in 1886 in Paris. The aim of IPA is to promote the scientific study of phonetics and the various practical applications of that science. IPA symbols are a standard in sound description and ensure accuracy. In furtherance of this aim, IPA provides the academic community world-wide with a notational standard for the phonetic representation of all languages. The phonetic rule of each set has been elaborated. (As cited in International Phonetic Association, 1999/2005).

VII. VOWELS

Vowels are distinguished from consonants primarily by a less radical degree of constriction imposed by the lips and tongue on the flow of air through the mouth. Distinctions within the class of vowels are created by the specific shape of

the lips and the precise positioning of the tongue body. It is traditional to describe these tongue positions by reference to a neutral point such as that corresponding roughly to the location the tongue body occupies in producing the vowel in the English word *bed*. (as cited in Kenstowicz, 1994, p.17). Vowels, or more precisely, the mouth shapes for vowels are specified in terms of three variables: vertical tongue-position (high-low), horizontal tongue-position (front-back), and lip-position (unrounded-rounded). (Cateford, 2003, p.120). This was the recommendation of the great English phonetician Henry Sweet, over a century ago: “The first and indispensable qualification of the phonetician is a thorough practical knowledge of the formation of the vowels. Those who try to learn new sounds by ear alone, without any systematic training in the use of their vocal organs, generally succeed only partially” (as cited in Sweet, 1877, p.21).

A. IPA Vowels

British English	American English
/ɒ/	/ɑ:/
/ɑ:/	/æ/
/ɔ:/	/ɑ:/
/ju:/	/u:/
/ɑ:/	/æ/
/ə/	/ɑ:/

B. British and American Phonetic Varieties of Vowels

There are some phonetic varieties between “standard” British and American vowels. Some of them having been investigated in this article include: British /ɒ/ vs. American /ɑ:/, British /ɑ:/ vs. American /æ/, British /ɔ:/ vs. American /ɑ:/, British /ju:/ vs. American /u:/. British /ɑ:/ vs. American nasalized vowel /æ̃/, British /ə/ vs. American /ɑ:/.

TABLEAU 1

Base word	British English	American English
Box	/bɒks/	[bɑ:ks]
Honest	/ˈɒnɪst/	[ˈɑ:nəst]

American vowels differ in length, but these differences depend primarily on the environment in which the respective vowels occur. The back rounded vowel /ɒ/ is heard in British English, or received pronunciation (RP) in words such as: *not*, *hot*, *block*, etc. In American or General American English (GA), this vowel sound is replaced with /ɑ:/, the back unrounded vowel. (as cited in Dimitrova, 2010, p.3). In pronunciation of /ɒ/, the back of the tongue is just below the half-open position, no contact being made between the tongue and the upper molars; the jaws are wide open and there is slight, open lip-rounding; and the tongue tip is behind the lower teeth. /ɒ/ does not occur word-finally or in stressed open syllables. Concerning the pronunciation of /ɑ:/, a part of the tongue between the center and the back is in the fully open position, no contact being made between the rims of the tongue and the upper molars; the jaws are considerably separated and the lips are neutrally open; the tongue tip is behind the lower teeth. /ɑ:/ does not normally occur before /ŋ/. (as cited in Gimson, 1980, p.2).

TABLEAU 2

Base word	British English	American English
class	/kla:s/	[klæs]
ask	/ɑ:sk/	[æsk]

In British English /ɑ/ is pronounced as /ɑ:/ whereas it is pronounced as /æ/ in American English. Vowel /æ/ becomes /ɑ:/ in British English when:

- Vowel /æ/ is before sounds /s/, /f/, and /t/, as in *pass*, *calf*, and *path*.
- Vowel /æ/ is followed by another consonant, especially in the cases such as /ns/, /nt/, /f/, in *dance*, *can't*, *ransh*.
- Words pronounced with [æs] in GA but with [ɑ:s] in RP: *brass*, *class*, *glass*.
- Words pronounced with [æf] in GA but with [ɑ:t] in RP: *graph*, *giraffe*, *half*.
- Words pronounced with [ænt] in GA but with [ɑ:nt] in RP: *aunt*, *plant*, *can't*.

Exceptions: *ant*, *banter*, *scant*, *mantle*.

- Words pronounced with [æmp] in GA but with [ɑ:mp] in RP: *sample*, *example*, *ample*.
- Words pronounced with [æθ] in GA but with [ɑ:θ] in RP: *bath*, *lath*, *path*. (as cited in Gomez, 2009, p.8)

Phonetically, /æ/ represents a fully low front unrounded vowel about half way between half-open /ɛ/ and open /ɑ/.

TABLEAU 3

Base word	British English	American English
thought	/θɔ:t/	[θɑ:t]
author	/ɔ:θə/	[ɑ:θər]

Mid back rounded vowel /ɔ:/ which in British English occurs in words such as *thought*, *walk*, *law* is usually opener and less rounded in American English. In fact, the General American vowels in the open back area are characterized by a considerable amount of variation. Some Americans pronounce the above words with a vowel quality which is lower than the British English vowel, but is still characterized by a certain amount of lip-rounding. Some dictionaries use the symbol /ɒ:/ to transcribe this American English vowel. But most words belonging to this large group have an alternative pronunciation in General American, one in which the vowel has lost its roundedness, thus becoming /ɑ:/. (as cited in Dimitrova, 2010, p. 5).

TABLEAU 4

Base word	British English	American English
produce	/prə'dju:s/	[prə'du:s]
student	/stju:dənt/	[stu:dənt]

Another phonetic variation between British and American English is related to the pronunciation of [ju:] in British English and [u:] in American English. American /j/ dropping occurs:

- After /s/ and /z/, as in *assume* [ə'su:m].
- After /l/, as in *pollute* [pə'lu:t].
- After /t/, /d/, and /n/, as in *tune* [tu:n]. (Gomez, 2009, p.8).

/j/ is an articulation in which one articulator is close to another, but without the vocal tract being narrowed to such an extent that a turbulent airstream is produced. The pronunciation of this central approximant slightly depends on the articulation of the following vowel. In British English, before /u/ and /ew/, /j/ is produced, whereas in American English /u:/ is produced. (as cited in Ladefoged, 2006, p.15).

TABLEAU 5

Base word	British English	American English
Can't	/kɑ:nt/	[kæ̃(n)t]
Dance	/dɑ:ns/	[dæ̃(n)s]

Vowels are often nasalized in American English; that is to say, air comes out through the nose and mouth at the same time. Vowels are not nasalized in most British pronunciations, so this makes the two accents sound very different. In some American dialects the /n/ is deleted so that the nasalization in the vowel is the only feature distinguishing *can't* from *cat*. If the soft palate is lowered while a vowel is being produced, nasalized vowels, being the second articulation, are generated. Nasalized vowels are transcribed with [̃], above the symbol. English has no distinct nasal vowels, but nasalization is often heard on English vowels. The term nasal vowel, on the other hand, suggests that the nasality is an essential identifying feature of the sound (as cited in Crystal, 2003, p. 308).

TABLEAU 6

Base word	British English	American English
pentagon	/ˈpentəɡən/	[ˈpentəɡɑ:n]
phenomenon	/fəˈnɒmɪnən/	[fəˈnɑmənɑ:n]

Concerning tableau 6, /ə/ being a mid-central vowel, occurs in grammatical function words and also at the end of some English words. The symbol shown designates a reduced quality (as cited in Ladefoged, 2006, p.94). In non-final word positions, the center of the tongue is raised between the half-open and half close positions; in the vicinity of the velar consonants /k, g/ and /n/ the tongue may be slightly more raised and retracted; in word-final positions, the tongue is in the half-open central position or in the most open region of the central area. The tongue tip is behind the lower teeth. The lips have a neutral position (i.e. are unrounded). This sound has very high frequency of occurrence in unaccented vowels. It is considered the neutral English vowel (as cited in Gimson, 1980, p.2). In the above examples, in British English /ə/ and in American pronunciation /ɑ:/ is used which is a low back unrounded vowel; often written /a/. In pronunciation of /a/, a part of the tongue between the center and the back is in the fully open position, no contact being made between the rims of the tongue and the upper molars; the jaws are considerably separated and the lips are neutrally open; the tongue tip is behind the lower teeth. (as cited in Gimson, 1980, p.2).

VIII. DIPHTHONG

Diphthongs are described as sequences of two vowels pronounced together, the two vocalic elements being members of the same syllable. According to the position of the more prominent element in the diphthong, diphthongs are divided into falling diphthongs, if the prominent element comes first, and rising diphthongs, if the less prominent element comes first. All English diphthongs belong to the first category. Diphthongs can also be opening diphthongs if the

degree of aperture increases with the glide or closing diphthongs if the less prominent vowel is closer than the first. There are wide diphthongs, those in which the glide implies a more radical movement of the speech organs (e.g. /aɪ/) and narrow diphthongs, if the two vocalic elements occupy neighboring positions (e.g. /eɪ/) on the vowel chart. There are also centering diphthongs, if the glide is from a marginal vowel in the vowel chart, either back or front, to a central vowel. In terms of length, diphthongs are similar to the long vowels. The most important thing about all the diphthongs is that the first part is much longer and stronger than the second part. As the glide to the second part happens, the loudness of the sound decreases. (as cited in Roach, 2009, p.17).

A. IPA Diphthongs

British English	American English
/ɪə/	/ɪr/
/əʊ/	/oʊ/
/ɑ:/	/eɪ/
/eɪ/	/æ/
/ɪ/	/aɪ/

B. British and American Phonetic Varieties of Diphthongs

In this part, five sets of diphthongal varieties between British and American English has been investigated including: British /ɪə/ vs. American /ɪr/, British /əʊ/ vs. American /oʊ/, British /ɑ:/ vs. American /eɪ/, British /eɪ/ vs. American /æ/, British /ɪ/ vs. American /aɪ/.

TABLEAU 7

Base word	British English	American English
near	/nɪə/	[nɪr]
weird	/wɪəd/	[wɪrd]

British English has 3 diphthongs ending in /ɪə/, /eə/ and /ʊə/. American English, on the other hand, has no separate phonemic diphthongs ending in /ə/. In British examples, the centering diphthong glides towards the /ə/ (Roach, 2009, p.18). /ɪə/ is a centring, falling, narrow, opening diphthong that starts at about the position of the short, lax /ɪ/ and glides towards schwa. This diphthong is distributed in all three basic positions: ear, deer, and tier. (as cited in Jones, 1987)

TABLEAU 8

Base word	British English	American English
go	/gəʊ/	[goʊ]
home	/həʊm/	[hoʊm]

As to tableau 8, in British English, the schwa /ə/ glides towards /ʊ/, so that the tongue moves closer to the roof of the mouth. This movement is not large because the second part of the diphthong is weak. The lips may be slightly rounded in anticipation of the glide towards /ʊ/, for which there is a noticeable lip-rounding. (Roach, 2009, p.18). In American pronunciation, this diphthong starts as a somewhat rounded vowel, between /ɔ/ and /o/, but centralized and gliding towards /ʊ/. In British English, this diphthong starts with the unrounded and central type /əʊ/. In some varieties of American English, and in the English of Scotland and northern England, it may be realized as a monophthong /o:/. (Cateford, 2003, p. 201).

TABLEAU 9

Base word	British English	American English
tomato	/tə'mɑ:təʊ/	[tə'mertou]
vase	/vɑ:z/	[veɪz]

In such words as the above, /ɑ/ is pronounced as /ɑ:/, a low back unrounded vowel, often written /a/, whereas in American pronunciation as the diphthong /eɪ/. /eɪ/ is a falling, narrow, closing diphthong. It starts with a front, mid vowel, between cardinal vowels /e/ and /ɛ/ and glides to a higher vowel value, closing. Often the second element is very short, sometimes even dropped, the diphthong being reduced to a long vowel monophthong /ɛ:/. (as cited in Jones, 1987)

TABLEAU 10

Base word	British English	American English
apricot	/eɪprɪ,kɒt/	[ˈæprɪ,kɑ:t]
comrade	/ˈkɒmreɪd/	[ˈkɑ:mræd]

/æ/ is the lowest front vowel of English. It is a short, lax, unrounded vowel, a little higher than the cardinal vowel /a/. It is a very common vowel in English and, contrary to the perception of many foreign learners of English, it is a short, not a long vowel. In some words as the above, /a/ is pronounced /eɪ/ by the British and /æ/ by the Americans.

TABLEAU 11

Base word	British English	American English
idyll	/ˈɪdl/	[ˈaɪdl]
advertisement	/ədˈvɜ:tɪsmənt/	[.ædvərˈtaɪzmənt]

In tableau 11, the difference between British and American English is concerned with the pronunciation of /i/ or /y/. In British English, it is pronounced with /ɪ/, but in American English with the diphthong /aɪ/. In pronunciation of short /ɪ/, a part of the tongue nearer to center than to front is raised just above the half-close position; the lips are loosely spread; the tongue is lax, with the side rims making a light contact with the upper molars; the tongue tip is behind the lower teeth. Its quality is that of a centralized cardinal vowel /e/. /ɪ/ may occur in all positions in the word. (as cited in Gimson, 1980, p. 2). /aɪ/ is a falling, wide, closing diphthong. It is the diphthong that actually implies the amplest articulatory movement of the speech organs that shift from the position of an open vowel, which is fairly central, to a front, close, lax vowel. This diphthong is distributed in all three basic positions: isle [aɪl], bite [baɪt], cry, [kraɪ]. (as cited in Jones, 1987).

IX. CONSONANTS

In articulatory phonetics, consonant is a speech sound that is articulated with complete or partial closure of the vocal tract. Examples include: /p/ pronounced with the lips, and /t/ pronounced with the front of the tongue. Each consonant can be distinguished by several features: (as cited in Maddieson, 1984, p. 2).

The place of the articulation, where in the vocal tract the obstruction of a consonant occurs.

The manner of the articulation, is how the air escapes from the vocal tract. It includes: stop, fricative, affricate.

The phonation of a consonant, is how the vocal cords vibrate during the articulation.

The voice onset time, which indicates the timing of the phonation.

The air stream mechanism, is how the air moving through the vocal tract is powered.

The length, is how long the obstruction of a consonant lasts.

A. IPA Consonants

British English	American English
/r/	/r/
/t/	/r/
/ʃ/	/ʒ/
/z/	/s/
/s/	/ʃ/
/ð/	/θ/

B. British and American Phonetic Varieties of Consonants

Concerning British and American consonants, there are some varieties between them including: British non-rhotic /r/ vs. American rhotic /r/, British /t/ vs. American flap /ɾ/ between two vowels, British /ʃ/ vs. American /ʒ/, British /z/ vs. American /s/, British /s/ vs. American /ʃ/, British /ð/ vs. American /θ/.

TABLEAU 12

Base word	British English	American English
Force	/fɔ:s/	[fɔ:rs]
Car	/kɑ:/	[kɑ:r]

The presence of the rhotic accent is one of the most noticeable differences between British and American English. Except for New York City and the area of Boston, American English is rhotic, British English is largely non-rhotic, save for Scotland and Ireland. In English, rhotic accent is produced as a retroflex approximant and refers to the manner letter /r/ is pronounced after a vowel within a syllable as in words such as hard, borne, or here. Sometimes, it is also called post-vocalic r or r-coloring. (as cited in Gomez, 2009, p. 3).

For the production of retroflex, first, the tongue approaches the gum and the tip is then curled back towards the roof of the mouth. This movement causes the tongue to be pulled back in the mouth. This accounts for the retroflexion part of the consonant. Furthermore, the tip of the tongue does not touch the gum at all, and thus no friction is caused. The vocal tract remains open throughout. This justifies the term approximant. Letter /r/ can also be pronounced in other two ways: (as cited in Gomez, 2009, p. 3)

•As the alveolar approximant [ɹ]. Sound [ɹ] appears at prevocalic positions in a syllable or syllable clusters, as in red [ɹed].

•As the alveolar flap [ɾ]. In American English, very often in colloquial registers, sound [ɹ] at intervocalic position with the stress on the first vowel is substituted by [ɾ], as in parish [pæɹɪʃ]. The alveolar flap [ɾ] only occurs in American English, while the alveolar approximant [ɹ] is found in both accents. (as cited in Gomez, 2009, p. 3).

TABLEAU 13

Base word	British English	American English
Atom	/ætəm/	[ˈæɹəm]
Writer	/ˈraɪtə/	[ˈraɪɹər]

One of the most typical features of American English concerns the realization of /t/ as [ɾ] between vowels, as shown in the above table. In this position, both in individual words and across word boundaries, /t/ is pronounced as a quick tap and is accompanied by voicing, so that it sounds almost like a /d/ called flap pronunciation. The symbol most frequently used in pronunciation dictionaries to show a voiced /t/ is [ɾ]. However, there is no t-voicing in *attend*, *return*, *attack*, etc., because the process of tapping and voicing the /t/ takes place in general American English (GA) only when the first of the two vowels is stressed. Neither is the /t/ voiced in *lightness* [ˈlaɪtnəs], *lighthouse* [ˈlaɪthaus]. In these words, /t/ is not immediately followed by a vowel. T-voicing also takes place when the stressed vowel is followed by /t/ or by /n/, e.g. party [pɑːrɪtɪ]. /t/ is also voiced when it is followed not by a vowel but by the syllabic lateral /l/, e.g., battle [bætl̩]. (as cited in Dimitrova, 2010, p. 8).

TABLEAU 14

Base word	British English	American English
Version	/ˈvɜːʃn/	[ˈvɜːrɜːʃn]
Asia	/ˈeɪʃə/	[ˈeɪɜːə]

/ʃ/ is a voiceless post-alveolar fricative, and /ʒ/ is a voiced palate-alveolar fricative. For /ʃ/ and [ʒ], the tip of the tongue is close to the back part of the alveolar ridge forming a flat narrowing. The front part of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate forming the front secondary focus. The friction for /ʃ/ is strong, stronger than for /f/ and /θ/. For /ʃ/ the vocal cords do not vibrate; they vibrate for /ʒ/ when it occurs before vowels. (as cited in Yule, 2006, p. 11). Based on the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, like the above examples, in some words, /s/ is pronounced /ʃ/ in British English and /ʒ/ in American English.

TABLEAU 15

Base word	British English	American English
Blouse	/blaʊz/	[blaʊs]
Erase	/ɪˈreɪz/	[ɪˈreɪs]

/z/ is a voiced alveolar fricative and /s/ is a voiceless alveolar fricative. These sounds are produced with the tongue tip or blade and the alveolar ridge. In British English, in such words as the above, /s/ is pronounced /z/ and in American English /s/. Moreover, concerning the manners of their articulation, vowels before voiceless fricatives including /s/ are shorter than before voiced ones. Second, final voiceless fricatives are longer than final voiced ones. Third, the final fricatives classified as voiced are not actually voiced throughout the articulation unless the adjacent sounds are also voiced. Both of these types of articulation involve an obstruction of the airstream (Ladefoged, 2006, p. 65).

TABLEAU 16

Base word	British English	American English
cassia	/ˈkasiə/	[ˈkæʃə]
Cassius	/ˈkasiəs/	[ˈkæʃuhs]

Based on Longman and Oxford dictionaries, /s/, in the above words, has different pronunciations in British and American English. British English uses /s/ and American English /ʃ/. For /ʃ/, the tip of the tongue is close to the back part of the alveolar ridge forming a flat narrowing. The front part of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate forming the front secondary focus. Fricatives /s/ and /ʃ/ are called sibilant sounds which are made by producing a narrow, groove-like structure between the blade of the tongue and the back part of the alveolar ridge. These sounds have a high frequency hiss characteristics. (as cited in Crystal, 2003, p. 417)

TABLEAU 17

Base word	British English	American English
booth	/bu:ð/	[bu:θ]
toolbooth	/tu:θ bu:ð/	[tu:θ bu:θ]

In tableau 17, the two examples above represent different pronunciations of /th/ between British and American English. Symbols /ð/ and /θ/ for /th/ are called dental or apico-dental. /ð/ is a voiced and /θ/ is a voiceless dental fricative. In pronunciation of these two sounds, the tongue is placed between the front teeth or normally behind the teeth, with the tip touching the inner side of the lower front teeth and the blade touching the inner side of the upper teeth. The air escapes through the gaps between the tongue and the teeth. (as cited in Roach, 2009, p. 41). In American English, the pronunciation of these sounds is somewhat interdental, i.e. with tongue tip slightly protruding though between the upper and the lower teeth. In British English more commonly slightly post-dental, i.e. with tongue tip and rim behind or barely touching the inner edges of the upper teeth. (as cited in Cateford, 2003, p. 193).

X. CONCLUSION

Every language possesses its rudimentary component sounds. English becomes an important language which is learned/acquired around the world. For learning English, sounds, which are the very beginning elements, should be learned. It must be said that, there is a lot of accentual variation both within Britain and the United States. Also, some Eastern accents in the USA sound closer to BBC pronunciation than to General American, while some British accents resemble General American rather than BBC English. Nevertheless, RP (received pronunciation) and GA (General American) still are, and will most probably continue to be the two accents which learners of English who wish to acquire (near) native-like pronunciation take as their model. (as cited in Dimitrova, Snezhina, 2010). As a conclusion, the information and data presented in this article will make foreign or English language learners have a better realization of the varieties between British and American English. Moreover, this article will help them use either of the two English varieties consciously and have a better understanding and knowledge of what they use. This paper will also pave the way for further research concerning other aspects of the varieties between British and American English as well for those interested in these fields. Besides phonetic varieties, there are other differences including vocabulary, spellings, grammars, idioms between these two languages provide a wide range of considerable knowledge for researchers.

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Naghme Mirzaie Hosseinzadeh was born in 1971 in Tehran. She is a faculty member (a lecturer) of Tafresh, University and the translator of the university research office. Her Specialty is MA in English Literature. She is interested in such fields of research as: Literature, linguistics, translation and teaching. She has written 4 books: *British and American English Varieties*, *Rules and Principles of Translation*, *A collection of Isms (e.g. naturalism, symbolism, and Planning English Programs for MA Students*. Her translated works are: *A Collection of Molanas's Poems* (a well-known Iranian poet), *Modern English Grammar*, *Let's Write*

Grammar. Her online published article includes: English Loanwords in Persian: Vowel Adaptation. She has also attended the Second International Seminar of the Islamic Countries' Editors as a translator. She's got some skills in computer softwares, French and Arabic languages.

Aliyeh Kord Zafaranlu Kambuziya was born in 1960 in Zahedan. She is an associate professor in English Department of Tarbiat Modares University. Her specialty is PhD in general linguistics: phonology. Her research interests include: 1-Phonology, Phonetics, Historical Linguistics, Persian Construction, Literature, Dialectology and Iranian languages Evolution. She's written a book under the title of: *Phonology: Rule-Based Approaches & their Applications in Persian* and has also published 10 articles in national, 4 in international Journals and 7 in seminars. She's been given some awards: 1- at the seventh Selection of Students' Thesis of the Year, Tehran University, 2002. 2- as the first-class student in MA degree, Tarbiat Modares University, 1994. 3- selected as one of the outstanding researchers of Tarbiat Modares University in 2008.

Mansour Shariati was born in 1986 in Tehran. He is an invited professor at Tafresh University and his specialty is MA in linguistics. He also has been an employee in Pardisan Travel Agency since September 2011, having obtained Visa from different Embassies. He's been a Translator of formal documents from Persian into English as well. His Research interests include: Teaching English and linguistics. He took Training courses on Tourism in AvayeJalb-e Sayyahan Institute, Location: Ghods St., Keshavarz Blvd., Tehran during from 2011 to 2012 a Training course on Computer in Techno-Vocational Training Center in Tafresh during: 2004-2005.

He has got some skills in computer softwares.

On Different Types of Love Stories Written by O. Henry

Yue Zhang

College of Foreign Languages, North China Institute of Science and Technology, Langfang, China

Lijun Wang

College of Foreign Languages, North China Institute of Science and Technology, Langfang, China

Abstract—O. Henry's Love stories constitute the most important part of O. Henry's short stories, and are of great significance for study. This essay categorizes his love stories into five types and analyzes the characteristics of each type. Through study, not only people's view of love of all kinds and sorts are reflected, also the unique characteristics of American society are mirrored lively.

Index Terms—O. Henry, short stories, love stories

I. INTRODUCTION

As one of the three most famous short story writers, O. Henry enjoys equal status with Chekhov and Maupassant. His works are popular in America and some masterpieces are acquainted by people throughout the world, such as *The Gift of Magi*, *The Cop and the Anthem*, etc. Therefore, his short stories always remain the focus of critics' comments. Among those critics, no one attaches their attention to the different types of love stories and the unique characteristics of each type of love stories. The former critics always focuses their attentions on the literary work itself, such as the writing skill, structure, plot and character etc., neglecting the characteristics reflected through these short stories. The time of O. Henry is just the transitional period of America from capitalism to imperialism, during which American economy enjoys a rapid growth. O. Henry, who witnessed this turning period, is extolled as "mirror of American society" and his works reflect American culture of this special period faithfully (Current-Garcia, 1993).

O. Henry's short stories can be categorized into several types, namely, love stories, fraud stories, robber stories, etc. If these types of short stories are compared to the beautiful diamonds in a crown, love stories are definitely the brightest one. Love stories constitute the most important part of O. Henry's short stories, and are of great significance for study. Through these love stories, not only people's view of love of all kinds and sorts are reflected, also the unique characteristics of American society are mirrored lively. Therefore, this essay chooses O. Henry's love stories as the target, categorizing O. Henry's love stories into five types and summarizing the unique characteristics of each type.

II. DIFFERENT TYPES OF LOVE STORIES

Among O. Henry's three hundreds short stories, love stories occupy a large amount. Many of them are world-famous, such as *The Gift of Magi*, *The Service of Love*, *The Romance of a Busy Broker*, and *The Furnished Room*, etc. Notwithstanding all belonging to love stories, they can be categorized into several types, some of which are pure love, some are fake love, some are love of money, and some are love of status. During the special period of American history, namely from the last phases of 19th century to the initial part of 20th century, American society undergoes profound and thorough changes. People's social status alters quickly and greatly. Many people become millionaires overnight, whereas many millionaires are reduced to street-beggars. Great changes occur in all walks of life. The flying development of American economy brings both spring and winter, the spring of rich capitalist and the winter of poor people. By the end of the 19th century, the United States finished its first industrial revolution and many big factories replaced the old handicraft workshops. America gradually became the leading economic and political force of the world.

In terms of the economic regulations, economic base decides upper buildings. The development of economy brings about the changes in the old social status and consequently, the social status changes people's mind. Therefore, with the fast economic development, love affairs also occur in different types. And based on the New Historicism and Cultural Materialism (Brannigan, 1998), history and culture are supposed to be reflected in contemporary literary works. As a great realistic writer, O. Henry experienced this special period and recorded these changes through his works. Some of these changes are mirrored in his short stories and people's different view of love is presented through different types of love stories.

A. Pure Love Stories

Among all of O. Henry's love stories, pure love stories are the best and most well-known. People throughout the world read *The Gift of Magi*, the masterpiece of O. Henry's pure love stories and arguably his most famous. In some ways this story serves as a way of irony, but also indicates the sacrifices that people are willing to make for those whom they are in love with. It is a classic pure love story which reflects the pure and faithful love among young couples. Della and Jim are a poor young couple who merely own two precious possessions—Della's long, beautiful hair and Jim's fancy gold watch that used to belong to his father. It is Christmas time and Della does not have enough money to buy Jim a present, so she cuts and sells her hair, and then uses the money to buy Jim a nice watch chain. Jim comes home and is stunned to see Della's short hair, for his gift for her is a set of fancy combs she can use in her hair. She tries to reassure him that her hair will grow, and then gives him her gift. Once again, Jim acts a little surprised, because he sold the watch to buy her the combs. Then they should just forget about the presents altogether, because both of the gifts become useless now. O. Henry ends the story with the description that the Magi who gave baby Jesus wise in inventing the art of gift-giving, but says that Jim and Della are wiser because of the great sacrifices that they made, and because of their love for each other.

This is a typical pure love story of O. Henry. Despite the young couple's poor economic situation, they are rich in the spiritual world since both of them are willing to sacrifice their treasures for the happiness of their lover. People who read this short story are touched by their pure and selfless love. While the entire world is becoming realistic and materialistic, still there is simple and true love remaining in the young poor couple.

In O. Henry's pure love stories, people see the selfless and great spirit—selfless sacrifice, which is the top realm of love, the most moving spirit among lovers. The young couples, Jim and Della, are truly in love with each other. It is for this love, they sacrifice their most valuable possessions and their life dream. Although their sacrifice proves to be worthless, they harvest love which is more valuable than anything else. Both of these couples are really poor and both of them are truly in love. So, through O. Henry's pure love stories, people recognize that although it is a fast changing period in a fast changing society, there is still true love among poor people. Their true love has defeated poverty and they still enjoy their happiness in spite of poverty. These indicate that from the last phase of 19th century to the initial stage of 20th century, many people lived a penniless life, they were happier, however, than those wealthy people for they possessed the most precious fortune in the world—the true love, as a saying goes “There is no pure love in the world of money while there is no money in the world of love.”

On the other hand, O. Henry's love stories are greatly influenced by his own love experience that could be the most romantic and appealing. His wife Athol Estes is regarded as the original model of Della in *The Gift of Magi*. Athol Estes is the symbol of pure love and service for love. She dedicates her entire life to O. Henry's writing career.

When O. Henry first met Athol Estes, he was a young guy who was full of energy and enthusiasm. He was attracted by Athol's good looking and quiet temperament. He fell in love with her at the first sight. Athol responded his love and married him regardless of the opposition of her family. Athol was by all means a qualified wife who showed a full support on her husband's career. She even borrowed money from her step father to help her husband run a magazine. Although this magazine was not quite successful, she encouraged her husband not to give up his dream. So their life was not rich but very happy. And those were the happiest days in the writer's life.

God, however, always plays tricks with happy couples. When O. Henry worked for a bank as an accountant, he was accused of being involved in a bank crime. O. Henry had to leave his home to exile in order to escape from being captured. He left his beloved wife and a lovely daughter and fled to New Orleans then to Honduras. During this period, O. Henry experienced many things. He had been a robber, a swindler, vagrant, etc. And these experiences became his priceless treasure for his short story writing. His wife stuck to do some embroidery to earn money to raise her daughter. Unfortunately, she got lung disease and was about to die. O. Henry heard of this and he went back to see his wife under the risk of being captured. However, fate is always merciless. He did not get the chance to see his beloved wife for the last time. Athol died just before O. Henry reached home. After Athol's death, O. Henry was captured and was sentenced into prison for two years (Langford, 1957).

People may sense how sorrowful the writer was when he missed the last sight of his wife. And people may sense how painful the writer was when he yearned for his beautiful and kind wife. For this reason, O. Henry writes many pure love stories. Youngsters sacrifice themselves for happiness of their lover without a complaint. It is the writer's own beautiful and moving love experience that renders his firm belief: although it is a time of money talking loud, there is still pure love among ordinary people (Stuart, 1990).

B. Fake Love Stories—Lust for Money and Status

In this type of love stories, the heroes and heroines are also poor people, like the poor that we just mentioned. The difference, however, is the love among these people is by no means of purity, which combines love for money, love for status, love for oneself and love for vanity. In the world of money talks, people are easily to fall in this trap. The typical example of this kind is *Transients in Arcadia*.

In the short story *Transients in Arcadia*, there are two main characters, Madame Beaumont and Mr. Harold Farrington. Madame Beaumont lives in the luxury hotel “The Lotus” to spend her vacation. She lives a luxury life there and everybody in the hotel regards her as a rich and elegant lady. All people like to talk to her and do anything for her, and she is welcome even by the slaves because of her sweet smile. One day, she encounters Mr. Harold Farrington in the hotel, and the later one is also a new resident of “The Lotus”. Mr. Harold Farrington is a good-looking gentleman

and always helpful for woman. They get along very well with each other and fall in love immediately. However, in the last day of Madame Beaumont staying in "The Lotus", she tells Mr. Harold Farrington the truth. She is a store worker, instead of a rich lady. She saves all her money and just wants to spend her vacation in the luxury hotel "The Lotus" to pretend to be an upper class lady which is her dream for many years. Now her dream comes true and her vacation is over. She has to go back to the store and back to her real life. After her confession, Mr. Harold Farrington gives reader a more surprising story. He is by no means a gentleman either. He is a collector of a clothes store and he lives in the hotel for the same reason with Madame Beaumont. So they depart from then on and never see each other again.

In this story, both of the characters lust greatly for vanity. They are poor but they want to be rich and live the way rich people do. They enjoy the feeling of being rich people and being admired by others. So they save money to live as the rich for a few days to satisfy their vanity and when their money is spent out, they have to come back to the common life. They fall in love with the premise they believe their partner is rich. And money and status are the premise of their love. When all of these are blown like a colorful and charming bubble, they are embarrassed to wake up from their dream and face the reality, with the final ending of breaking up with each other. This kind of love is not true love according to the common sense and should be called the fake love. Instead of loving for their partner, they show more love on money and status.

During the period from the last phases of 19th century to the initial part of 20th century, people's fortune structure and social status undergoes great changes. Many penniless nobody becomes wealthy by grasping a lucky opportunity. They get not only money in a moment but also remarkable social status. Therefore, these people's success arouses others' complicated feelings. Some admire them; some envy them; some hate them. Social psychologist considers, when a society experiences a thorough change, it would be accompanied with a revolution of people's social notion. There is the certain relation between economic revolution and spiritual revolution. Therefore, many poor people are willing to follow the rich and imitate them. That is the so-called mammonism (money worship). Money talks everywhere. Money is the criterion of assessing everything. To have money means to have social status, people's admiration, happiness and everything. This is a vivid characteristic of American society at that time.

C. *Love Stories that Violates Humanity*

Humanity is an important concept in western society. In many literary works, humanity is the regular and unique topic. Some of them sing high praise for humanity, and others show satire for anti-humanity. O. Henry, as a representative of realism, also criticizes the phenomenon of violating humanity in his love stories. The representative works of this type are *Witches' Loaves*, *Vanity and Some Sables*, *Hearts and Crosses*, *A Fog in Santone*, etc. The Best known of them is *Witches' Loaves*.

In *Witches' Loaves*, the author depicts and criticizes the selfish love which violates humanity. The heroine of this short story is Miss Martha Meacham, who has a bakery and enjoys a comparatively well-to-do life. She remains single when she is 40 years old until she begins an unrequited affection with one of her customers, a middle-aged man who comes to buy two loaves of stale bread two or three times a week. He is elegant and obviously a gentleman. The bakery owner believes that he must be a poor artist since he never buys new breads and this provokes her sympathetic heart. One day she puts some butter in the stale bread secretly. However, after she sells the two stale breads with butter to her secret lover without letting him notice this, the middle-aged man rushes into the bakery and shouts at Miss Martha Meacham with great anger, which makes her so surprised and sad. In the end, one of the friends of the man tells her that this man is an architecture designer who uses the stale breads to clean his designing paper but not to eat, since he believes the stale breads are much good at erasing pencil works than common eraser. Unfortunately Miss Martha puts some butter into the bread to show her love which he does not know about. While he uses the bread to clean his designing paper and the result, as you can imagine, is terrible. That is why he is so mad at her.

In this story, the innocent woman falls in love with a man without his knowing. She tries to love him in her own way with her kind and sympathetic heart and she tries her best to help him since she grants him as a poor gentleman. Nevertheless, her love does not get the same return. On the contrary, her behavior enrages her lover and her secret love is not only exposed and embarrassed but also ended. Seemingly, the architect is innocent for he breaks the woman's heart unconsciously. However, as a gentleman with common sense of love, he should have sensed the love involved in butter although it ruins his work. His anger and censure about his admirer is a kind of violating humanity. Normally, people's love should get the same response and at least respect. In this story, however, love does not arouse love but hatred. It is not only a humor that the author entertains us, also a criticism of violating humanity. In the capitalistic society, secret love is hard to succeed. Some people, whose humanity has been "corroded" by the general mood of the money worship society, merely attach their attention to their own affairs all the time, like how to make more money and how to get promoted. And they seldom value the purest emotion of others even when they realize the existence of it, which results in the happening of this love tragedy.

The story that we mentioned just now is the example of O. Henry's stories that violates humanity. Humanity, as an important concept, is discussed by many western writers, but O. Henry talks about it in his special way. Humanity is not described and criticized directly as in other literary works, but is showed and commented in common love stories which seem to be the stories happen around us in daily life. Although these are common stories, they condense the author's profound meaning and purpose. O. Henry is definitely not merely telling us a love story. He buries his satire and anger about violating humanity behavior between lines. As the new historicist and cultural materialist consider, history and

culture shapes and is shaped by literature. From O. Henry's love stories, people of today may picture the humanity situation of the author's time.

D. Humanitarian Love Stories

Contrary to the violating humanity love stories, humanitarian love stories shine the brilliance of humanity. Everyone's heart lusts for humanity and so does O. Henry. He writes many Humanitarian love stories to tell his readers the importance of humanity. The masterpieces of humanitarian love stories are *The Purple Dress*, *The Third Ingredient*, *The Ransom of Mack*, etc.

The Purple Dress talks about two girls falling in love with a man at the same time. Maida and Grace work in the same store. They are good friends and interestingly both of them fall in love with Mr. Ramsay, the head clerk of the store. Once they overhear that Mr. Ramsay likes red and purple. It is just before Thanksgiving, their store keeps the tradition of having a Thanksgiving dinner in Thanksgiving eve. Therefore, both of the girls decide to make a new dress to attend this dinner in order to please Mr. Ramsay and attract his attention. Maida wants to make a purple dress and Grace wants to make a red one. If it can make him fall in love with one of them, it would be most wonderful. It is, however, by no means an easy task to make a new dress, for they only get a very shabby salary. So, they have to save money from the day they made the decision on. Quickly comes the Thanksgiving eve. Before they go to the celebrating dinner, Grace finds she lost the key of her apartment and the landlady would not open the door for her if she can not pay this month's rent for this apartment. She comes to ask for help of Maida, and Maida is so kind that she give the last four dollars to Grace, which is the money she has to pay for the tailor to get the purple dress. Then Grace gets into her apartment and put on her beautiful red dress. When she asks Maida to go to the dinner, Maida refuses her since she cannot get the purple dress which makes her very sad. Maida stays at home when Grace goes to the dinner to attract the guy both of them love. After a while, Maida wants to have a walk to release her sadness. When she passes through the tailor's house, the tailor asks why she does not come to get the dress. After hearing her explanation, the kind tailor gives her the purple dress and tells her she can pay him later. Tailor's kindness brings vitality and hope back to young Maida. She puts on the most beautiful purple dress and runs to the dinner. It is raining and Maida neglects it. She runs in the rain with the happiest and loveliest smile on her face. At the corner of the street, she punches into a man who is the very Mr. Ramsay. He tells her:

Why Miss Maida, you look simply magnificent in your new dress. I was greatly disappointed not to see you at our dinner. And of all the girls I ever knew, you show the greatest sense and intelligence. There is nothing more healthful and invigorating than braving the weather as you are doing. May I walk with you? (O. Henry, 2004, p. 219)

The glory of humanity glitters in the young girl's kind heart. Though the opportunity of Thanksgiving dinner is really important, when her friend is in trouble, Maida gives up her rare opportunity and helps Grace. The result of helping Grace not only would result in her missing the opportunity, also gives Grace the only chance of getting Mr. Ramsay's heart. For most girls, love is the only thing they really care. For Maida, however, friendship is more important than love. This is where humanity lies. Maida is the representative of O. Henry's humanitarian figures. O. Henry sings high praise to people like Maida. He describes these humanitarian figures to show readers his aspiration of humanity. Here, the writer is by no means merely writing a kind girl. His purpose is to advocate and extol humanitarian deeds among people. In his age, when everybody is yearning for money, humanity is forgotten by most people. O. Henry uses his own way to wake up people's humanitarian consciousness. Therefore, the writer gives the kind-hearted girl a happy ending. She finally wins the heart of the man she loves, which informs readers, kind heart will harvest good pay back.

In these humanitarian short stories, O. Henry depicts several humanitarian figures and shows his respect for humanity through praising these figures. For O. Henry, humanity should not be abandoned at any time, no matter what society it is and how rich people become. Humanity, as a fine tradition of ancestors, is about to be inhabited and carried on. However, his good wish faces a fierce challenge in the process of capitalism development. O. Henry senses these changes and worries about the loss of this tradition. Therefore, he portrays these humanitarian figures to wake people up and summon them to catch up this fine tradition. These humanitarian love stories combine the author's good wish of arousing everyone's humanity consciousness in a decaying society. This proves the correctness of New Historicism and Cultural Materialism. According to the New Historicism and Cultural Materialism, literature can also shape the culture. Here, O. Henry's humanitarian love stories depict and also arouse people's humanity consciousness. Literature shapes the society and culture in this way.

E. Love Stories of Twisted Marriages

Some love leads to happy marriages, but some do not. The reasons are many, but all the unhappy marriages are called twisted marriages. O. Henry does not only talk about young people's love stories. Another type of love stories he writes can be classified as twisted marriage love stories. In this type of short stories, all kinds of twisted marriages are presented which provide readers another angle to know American society. The masterpieces of the twisted marriage love stories are *An Omen of Spring*, *A Comedy in Rubber*, etc.

In *A Comedy in Rubber*, the word "Rubber" means the habit of watching the scene of bustle especially when an accident happens. A Rubberer refers to people who crave at Rubber. In this short story, there is an excellent description of the Rubbers in New York City which is vivid and exact. It goes as following:

These devotees of curiosity swarm, like flies, in a moment in a struggling, breathless circle about the scene of an unusual occurrence. If a workman opens a manhole, if a street car runs over a man from North Tarrytown, if a little boy drops an egg on his way home from the grocery, if a casual house or two drops into the subway, if a lady loses a nickel through a hole in the lisle thread, if the police drag a telephone and a racing chart forth from an Ibsen Society reading-room, if Senator Depew or Mr. Chuck Connors walks out to take the air-if any of these incidents or accidents takes place, you will see the mad, irresistible rush of the "rubber" tribe to the spot. (O. Henry, 2004, p. 239)

The hero and heroine, William Pry and Violet Seymour, are members of the "rubber" tribe. They first meet each other in a street accident when a man was run over by a brewery wagon. Both of them come to watch. And identically, they are the two who leave last. It is at this occasion that they notice each other and fall in love at the first sight. However, both of them are too shy to express love, so they part finally. A few days later, they meet again in another incident and this time they catch the opportunity to know each other and William gently brings Violet to another accident spot which makes Violet very happy. From then on, they act as rubbers together. The same interest brings the young people together and they decide to get married. In their wedding, however, people can not find the bride and bridegroom, because "William Pry and Violet Seymour, creatures of habit, had joined in the seething game of the spectators, unable to resist the overwhelming desire to gaze upon themselves entering, as bride and bridegroom, the rose-decked church." (O. Henry, 2004, p. 240)

This is a funny story which seems quite uncommon in common sense. William and Violet's union and marriage are interesting and unusual. They get married just for they both are "rubber" tribe member. The same interest in bustle brings them together and leads them to fall in love. That is why this marriage is called twisted marriage. They love each other but their love is caused by strange habits which makes this comedy more interesting. It is also a strong satire of the "rubber" tribe of New York City. As the upper quotation describes, where there is an accident or incident, there will be a group of people standing around the spot gazing, talking and mocking. This is a special phenomenon of New York City at that time which means that people are getting sophisticated. Why it is people of New York City but not people of other place are most willing to watch bustle? As people know, New York is one of the most developed, most representative and biggest cities of America. The fast developing economy does not bring about the spiritual civilization. On the contrary, people of developed areas are becoming more and more sophisticated. They pay much attention to other's affairs not to help them but to be the be-standers. They know how to extract full enjoyment from every accident. This is another characteristic of American society during the last phases of 19th century and the initial part of 20th century. The fast developing economic situation and the lower spiritual civilization level form a sharp contrast in O. Henry's twisted marriage love stories.

In *An Omen of Spring* happens another interesting and twisted marriage love story. Peters is a vagrant who does not find a job for five years. He lives with his wife Clara. Clara works as a floor-washer or a laundry woman to earn a little money to support the family. However, Peters is not willing to become a responsible husband. He plays with his other two vagrant friends all the time. One day, he gets to know that Clara has a dollar with which they, he and his two vagrant friends, can use to buy some drink, so they talk about how to get this dollar in the garden. Finally, Peters decides to use violence to get it. So he comes home, but when he sees his two hundreds pounds wife, he has to change his plan. Then he tells lies, willing to get the one dollar in this way. He fails. So he recalls another method. He becomes very kind and gentle and tells Clara he still loves her very much. Clara is cheated this time, and she hugs Peters delighted. But her hug makes Peters faint. Then she goes and buys some medicine for Peters with this one dollar.

Of course, at the end of this story, the vagrant does not achieve his goal. The only one dollar becomes medicine and he can not use it to buy a drink any more. Here, a strong satire is presented in this short story. First, in Peters and Clara's family, wife works and husband does not. Second, Peters, in order to get one dollar to buy a drink, spares nothing to get it even by violence, lies and tricks. Third, when Peters' conspiracy is going to be gained, the author makes another surprise ending which destroys Peters plan finally. *An Omen of Spring* is one of the classic twisted marriage stories written by O. Henry. It shows readers the unusual relationship of a married couple and bad marriage situations in some couples of American society. When people become poorer and poorer, some of them choose another way of living which causes all kinds of twisted marriages. Different with Della and Jim's marriage and Delia and Joe's marriage, the twisted marriages are the mirror of the dark side of American society. The twisted marriages present the view of love of some people who get twisted mental condition. When a society is experiencing great changes, it is easy to lead to some mental problems of some people, which is a regular rule in history. When American economy flies with an amazing speed, the development is accompanied with various problems and the mental problems occupy a large part. O. Henry records these mental problems in marriages in his love shorts and criticizes these twisted and unhappy marriages. At the same time, he criticizes the twisted society which is the deep reason for the unhappiness and twisted condition of these marriages.

III. CONCLUSION

Love, as a unique subject, sheds light everywhere and nobody, no matter before or future, can escape from the influence of its magic power, including O. Henry. Love stories occupy one of the main portions of O. Henry's works. In these famous stories, love of all forms and people of every description are presented. Limited by the capacity of this paper, it is not possible to cover all of short stories of O. Henry and as an ideal platform to display the characteristics of

this special period vividly, the love stories are chosen to be the target for analysis. No critics before have focused their attention mainly on O. Henry's love stories, this essay takes the lead and discusses the characteristics "refracted" through them, which contributes to readers' better understanding of both the stories and the culture.

The time that O. Henry experiences covers from the last phases of 19th century to the initial stage of 20th century which is a special period in American history. During this period, the first industrial revolution took place and American society experienced a profound and thorough reformation. A large number of wealthy people appeared overnight and became richer and richer. On the contrary to the bustling and flourishing surface, poor people who lived in the low stratum of society became much poorer. A sharp gap between the rich and the poor became more and more evident and ruthless. And the whole society experienced great changes with all kinds of fierce contradictions occurring everyday. This period is also a period of rapid development of economy in American history. The U.S. became one of the leading forces of the world during this period. According to historians, this is a crucial turning point of American history. Therefore, to analyze the characteristics of this special period is of great importance, which would be beneficial for people to have a better understanding of the American culture of that period and even nowadays.

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Yue Zhang, Assistant Professor in North China Institute of Science and Technology, has received a M. A. Degree from North China Electric Power University, China, 2007. Currently she works at the College of Foreign Languages in NCIST and has been teaching college English for more than 7 years. Her research interests include college English teaching, British and American Literature, the philosophy of translation, and Sino-English translation practice. She has published more than 10 research papers on college English teaching, British and American Literature studies.

Lijun Wang, lecturer in North China Institute of Science and Technology, has received a M. A. Degree from Shandong University, China, 2008. Currently she works at College of Foreign Languages in NCIST and has been teaching college English for more than 6 years. Her research interests include college English teaching, linguistics, British and American Literature, and Sino-English translation practice. She has published 8 research papers on college English teaching, British and American Literature studies.

Genre-based Discourse Analysis of Wedding Invitation Cards in Iran

Sajad Faramarzi

Islamic Azad University, Khorasgan (Isfahan) Branch, Isfahan, Iran

Atefeh Elekaei

Islamic Azad University, Khorasgan (Isfahan) Branch, Isfahan, Iran

Hossein Heidari Tabrizi

Islamic Azad University, Khorasgan (Isfahan) Branch, Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—Wedding Invitation is one of the important text genres. Having drawn on Swales' (1990) genre analysis approach and Kress and Van Leeuwen's (1996) multimodality point of view on textual analysis, one case study has been conducted. The present study analyzed various expressions of wedding invitation genres in Iran in order to find generic and schematic structures as well as linguistic features in them and also communicative functions which were expressed by their generic components. Therefore, a corpus of 200 wedding invitations was randomly selected. Similarities and differences were found. The results revealed eight moves out of which one was optional. Moreover, the wedding invitation card pockets were analyzed and five moves have been found out of which three were optional. Furthermore, the lexico-grammatical features and schematic structure illustrated a series of socio-cultural values as well as Iranian and Islamic norms regarding men and women.

Index Terms—wedding invitation, genre analysis, schematic structures, linguistic features, lexico-grammatical features

I. INTRODUCTION

Invitation is “a commemorative social action having the function of informing and requesting the presence or participation of a person(s) kindly and courteously to some place, gathering, entertainment, etc., or to do something” (Al-Ali, 2006). Wedding is one of the most memorable days in each person's life. Moreover, wedding in each society and each culture requires many preparations including wedding invitation. Wedding invitation builds the happiness of the couples and shares it by all. According to Al-Ali (2006), there are two types of invitations: written and spoken. Printed types of invitation include certain generic features compared to spoken types. Written wedding invitations include information such as the name of the bride and groom, place and time of the wedding. There are different kinds and styles of invitation cards. Also, various modes of invitation are presented. Iranians use a distinct manner in providing invitation cards for their wedding ceremonies. The analysis of such invitations will result in underlying facts regarding the explanations which are rooted in Iranian and Islamic culture as well as priorities of the couples and their families. A thorough analysis of invitation cards has not been analyzed before. Therefore, the present study aims at determining the component moves regarding the Iranian wedding invitation cards as well as Iranian wedding invitation card pockets.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Genre is a concept which is used in detailed formal and functional analysis. As Bhatia (2002) believes, genre is “multi-disciplinary” which is not only used in linguistic anthropology and discourse analysis, but also in cognitive science, sociology and even advertisement. Different definitions have been presented by various scholars. According to Dudley-Evans (1994), genre is a means of attaining a communicative goal in response to special rhetorical needs that will change based on the shifts in those needs. Swales (1990) describes genre as “a class of communicative events” which shares a set of communicative purposes as well as related structures, stylistic characteristics and content. Kress (1987) defines genre as “the term which describes that aspect of the form of the texts which is due to the effect of their production in particular social occasions” (p. 36).

Genre analysis, according to Allison and Ruiying (2004), “explores discourse features in the broad context of the communicative event, and attempts to provide the rationale of the discourse features in terms of authors’ publicly retrievable intentions and institutional conventions”. Moreover, genre analysis explains why and how differently language is used in various cultures and defines the language in smaller constituents called moves.

Recently, the significance of language in social life has been increased and there has been a great interest in the identification of genres in "homely" discourses (Miller, 1984) including birth, wedding and death announcements which are constructed text genres in societies on a daily basis.

A few studies have been conducted on wedding invitation genre. A study was conducted by Clynes and Henry (2004) to determine the extent to which Brunei university students were able to classify and clarify the linguistic features of the Brunei Malay wedding invitations. To this end, two groups of analyses were carried out. One analysis was done by the authors and the other was done by nine sophomore undergraduate students taking the English Genre Analysis course as part of their B.A. studies at University of Brunei Darussalam (UBD). The two groups analyzed at least three Bruneian wedding invitations in order to find elements such as moves (obligatory and optional), move order and also to state the communicative purpose of the genre as well as main key linguistic features in the genre. Based on the results, although the students were less successful at clarifying the linguistic features in terms of the overall communicative purposes of the genre, they managed to accurately classify and discuss the related moves and move order.

Later, Al-Ali (2006) conducted a study including two frameworks of discourse analysis, genre analysis and critical discourse analysis (CDA). He analyzed 200 Arabic written wedding invitations which were collected by 45 undergraduate Arab students at Jordan University of Science and Technology as part of an elective course in discourse analysis. The results indicated eight obligatory and nonobligatory generic components that generally appear in Jordanian wedding invitation cards. Moreover, CDA results indicated "how religious affiliation and masculine kinship authority not only construct and shape text component selection but also color the lexical choices and naming practices" (Al-Ali, 2006).

Moreover, Momani and Al-Refaei (2010) investigated 55 invitation cards in order to find the generic structures of wedding invitations in Jordanian society and considered cultural representations of this genre. The results revealed six obligatory and two optional moves.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND SOCIAL CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

The present paper considers various representations as well as expressions regarding written wedding invitation in Iran in order to reflect on generic structures including organizational, linguistic and rhetorical structures as well as socio-cultural communicative functions which are presented in these social communicative samples of genre research. To this end, the present study focuses on Swalesian genre move analysis approach. Swales (1990) suggested a genre move analysis including three moves in order to scrutinize as well as describe the constituents of introductions in research articles including "establishing a territory, establishing a niche, and occupying the niche" (p.141). He proposed a systematic approach in order to examine genre using different "moves" within a text. According to Swales (1981), moves are segments of a text including a variety of linguistic elements such as syntax, lexicon, as well as illocutionary propositions which give consistency to the segments and indicate the discourse content. Therefore, the functional components of genres are likely to illustrate textual as well as lexico-grammatical aspects in order to simplify the recognition of genres. However, according to Mauranen (1993), "these features do not constitute obligatory or definitory criteria for genres" (p. 18). Genre move analysis is used to illustrate how the logical sequence of ideas is bound up by a set of writing conventions" (Kong, 1998). Kress and Van Leeuwen (1996) present a multimodality approach on textual analysis. Based on what they stated, this approach rejects linguistic items as the only meaning-construction tool and refers to space, position, color, size, and picture as valuable semiotic tools.

According to Martin and Christie (1984) and Ventola (1989), genres consist of a series of moves in order to characterize the purpose of a socio-cultural practice in general. Therefore, wedding invitations can be analyzed as represented move structure of a text including recognizing generic component moves as well as examining the ways the functional components are utilized. Various moves have different sizes. A move generally "contains at least one proposition" (Connor and Mauranen, 1999). However, moves may contain one sentence, two sentences or more and even a clause or a phrase (Dobios, 1997; Swales, 1990). In Iran, wedding invitations as well as other announcements illustrate various kinds of genre texts including the generic aspects and also communicative functions.

IV. METHODOLOGY AND CORPUS CONSTRUCTION

A sample of 200 wedding invitation cards was randomly selected. After collecting the data, similarities and differences in generic components within various Iranian wedding invitation cards were considered. As mentioned earlier, the present study focuses on Swales' (1990) genre move analysis method within which the schematic structures of wedding invitation genre including communicative goals, sub-rhetorical components (moves), lexico-grammatical features and content were investigated. Moreover, Kress and Van Leeuwen' (1996) perspective on textual analysis was considered.

A. *Generic Component Moves and Linguistic Features*

Iranian wedding invitation cards were analyzed and eight component moves were found. The eight component moves include opening, stating the first name of the bride and groom, stating the marriage, invitation messages, stating the last

name of the bride and groom, stating the time of the ceremony, stating the location of the wedding ceremony and stating the request of the inviters (Figure 1).

B. First Move: Opening

The first move found in Iranian wedding invitation cards is opening. This move is obligatory and has found in all 200 samples. There are two types of opening. One type refers to stating the opening in Arabic, for example, *Yaa Latiif, Hoval Mahboob, Hoval Mojiib*, or the direct quotation of Quran verse, *In the Name of God*. And the second type refers to stating the opening in Persian including words, phrases, clauses or sentences. The translations of some examples are: *In the Name of God Who Created Love, In the Name of God Who Created the Universe*. The size and fonts of the openings vary from one card type to another. Moreover, as what is pointed out in Clynes and Henry (2004) and Al-Ali (2006), stating the name of God in the opening not only is a part of Islamic tradition but also conveys the wishes of God's blessing in order to protect the bride and groom.

C. Second Move: Stating the First Name of the Bride and Groom

The second move refers to stating the first name of the bride and groom which is obligatory and was presented in all 200 samples. One significant difference was found in stating the name of the bride before the groom or the name of the groom before the bride. In the past, the first names of the grooms and in turn the names of the grooms' fathers were stated first since in fact, they are the host of the wedding ceremony. However, the first name of the bride was stated before the name of the groom in 134 wedding invitation cards of the analyzed data. It illustrates that this order becomes common more and more. The reason refers to the religion of Muslims, Islam, in which the equality of men and women has been mentioned. The name of the bride was not almost written in traditional wedding invitation cards and the word "lady" was stated instead. The reason refers to the religion and family preferences. It was believed that just the family members should know the name of the bride.

Furthermore, another option is available. Wedding invitation cards including the name of the bride before the name of the groom can be printed for the families of the bride. On the other hand, wedding invitation cards including the name of the groom before the name of the bride can be printed for the families of the groom.

D. Third Move: Stating the Marriage

The third move regarding the wedding invitation cards of Iranians is stating the marriage. This move announces that the bride and groom will soon be announced as husband and wife. Selecting the phrases and sentences conveying the marriage of the bride and groom, the size and font of the writing are also different from one card style to another. However, all of them have a same content of wedding invitation announcement genre which is a report of wedding and it was presented in all 200 samples.

E. Forth Move: Invitation Messages

The fourth move which is found in all 200 samples of wedding invitation cards is invitation messages. This part is essential, clearly illustrates the communicative purpose of wedding invitation and requests the guest participation in the celebrations.

F. Fifth Move: Stating the Last Name of the Bride and Groom

The fifth move refers to stating the last name of the bride and groom. Moreover, the first names of the bride's and groom's fathers maybe stated. Moreover, the title *Haaq* which means the person who has performed pilgrimage was stated before the fathers' names in 32 samples. However, other titles indicating the academic qualification or social position such as doctor, engineer, lawyer or pharmacist were not available in contrast to Jordanian culture which was mentioned in the study of Momani and Al-Refaei (2010). Moreover, this move can be stated immediately after the first names of the couples in a separate line as what has been found in 57 analysis samples.

G. Sixth Move: Stating the Time of the Ceremony

The sixth move found in Iranian wedding invitation cards is stating the time of the ceremony. This move includes information such as the day, the month, the year, the time (hour) and the duration of the ceremony. Therefore, this move is obligatory and was found in all 200 samples.

H. Seventh Move: Stating the Location of the Ceremony

The seventh obligatory move which is found in all 200 wedding invitation cards is stating the location of the ceremony. Wedding ceremonies can be held in the house of groom's parents, hotels, wedding halls or gardens. The address must be presented in detailed information and without any confusion.

I. Stating the Request of the Inviters

This move is optional and asks the invitees for not bringing the cameras or video recorders. As long as almost all Iranian families would like to have their own privacy while performing different activities, the invitees are kindly requested to consider that. The fact also refers to the inviters' religion, Islam, since they do not want that their photographs and films be seen by others. Therefore a simple sentence can be mentioned or even a small picture

illustrating the situation may be printed. This optional move was found in 31 samples out of 200 samples of wedding invitation cards.

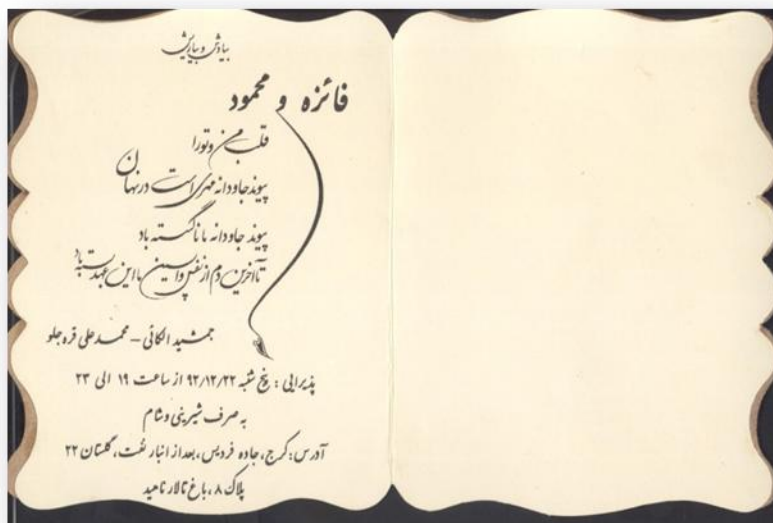


Figure 1. Component Moves of the Wedding Invitation Cards

V. NON-LINGUISTIC FEATURES AND THE ANALYSIS OF CARD POCKETS

Iranian wedding invitations vary in printed forms, layouts, graphics as well as cardboards and their colors. Ribbons, borders, flowers, images including rings, roses, and hearts or such images are features available on cardboards. Varieties of writing styles, different sizes as well as fonts for different moves, centered alignment of some or all moves are also among non-linguistic features. These varieties clearly differentiate the wedding invitation genre from other invitation genres. Having analyzed the card pockets, four moves have been found out of which four were optional and one was obligatory. Four optional moves include messages, stating the first name of the bride and groom, specifying the inviter and stating the date of the wedding ceremony. One obligatory move is stating the names of the invitees.

A. Messages

The first optional move which was found in wedding invitation card pockets is messages. This move announces good news and is stated as *Message of Happiness*, *Happy wedding or wedding Day* (Figure 2). The font and size of the move vary significantly according to families' interests. This optional move was found in 82 samples.



Figure 2. Messages on the Wedding Invitation Cards

B. *Stating the First Name of the Bride and Groom*

The second move which is also optional and is found in 89 samples is stating the first name of the bride and groom in order to announce to whom the wedding invitation card belongs. Moreover, this move may be stated on the cover of the wedding invitation cards (Figure 3).

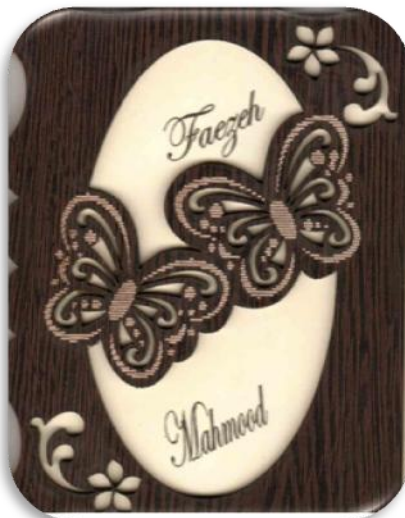


Figure 3. Stating the First Name of the Bride and Groom on the Cover of the Wedding Invitation Cards

C. *Stating the Date of the Wedding Ceremony*

The third optional move which was found on the card pockets is stating the date of the wedding ceremony. It can be simply stated as 22/12/92 (13/03/2014). This optional move was found in 58 samples of wedding invitation card pockets.

D. *Specifying the Inviter*

The fourth optional move which is found in 75 samples of wedding invitation card pockets is specifying the inviter. This move includes the first name as well as the last name of the bride's or groom's father. Moreover, this move can be stated on the back of the wedding invitation cards instead the wedding invitation card pockets. The first name as well as the last name of the bride's father is written on the cards which would be sent to the relatives of the bride's and the first name as well as the last name of the groom's father is written on the cards which would be sent to the relatives of the groom to specify the inviter (Figure 4).



Figure 4. Specifying the Inviter on Wedding Invitation Cards

E. *Stating the Names of the Invitees*

The fifth move on wedding invitation card pockets which is obligatory is stating the names of the invitees. In all the 200 analyzed cards, the family names of the men were presented and phrases such as *along with the family* was followed. The reason refers to the fact that men are the head of the families (Figure 5).



Figure 5. Stating the Names of the Invitees on Wedding Invitation Card Pockets

VI. CONCLUSION

Wedding is one of the most important days in each person's life and it requires many preparation including wedding invitation cards. The present study focused on Swales' (1990) genre analysis approach and Kress and Van Leeuwen's (1996) multimodality point of view on textual analysis. Therefore, one case study has been conducted. Various expressions of wedding invitation genre in Iran were analyzed in order to find its generic and schematic structures and linguistic features. Also, communicative functions which were expressed by their generic components were found. A sample of 200 wedding invitations was randomly selected. Similarities and differences were found. Eight component moves were found that one of them was optional. The seven obligatory moves were opening, stating the first name of the bride and groom, stating the marriage, invitation messages, stating the last name of the bride and groom, stating the time of the ceremony, and stating the location of the wedding ceremony. And the optional move was stating the request of the inviters.

Moreover, the wedding invitation card pockets were analyzed and five moves have been found. Four component moves were optional and one component move was obligatory. Messages, stating the first name of the bride and groom, stating the date of the wedding ceremony, specifying the inviter, and stating the names of the invitees were among the distinguished moves on the wedding invitation cards.

Furthermore, the lexico-grammatical features and schematic structure illustrated a series of socio-cultural values as well as norms in Iran and Islam regarding men and women. Each religion and each society has some factors that should be believed and followed by the people of that religion and society. As Goodenough (1984) states, "a society's culture consists of whatever it is one has to know or believe in order to operate in a manner acceptable to its members" (p. 36). Wedding invitations like other homely genres are social events in different cultures with a rhetorical intention managing generic structures. Moreover, communicative and rhetorical choices as well as purposes of genres convey not only the social factors of the participants, but also their religious beliefs since in Sapir's (1949) perspective, culture represents both socially inherited factors and religious aspects. Therefore, social as well as religious constituents which have been appeared in the structure of wedding invitation genres are presented.

Considering all the moves presented above, first significant similarity between Iranian wedding invitation cards and the results of Clynes and Henry's (2004) and Al-Ali's (2006) studies, is stating the name of God in the opening not only a part of Islam but also conveys the wishes of God's blessing in order to protect the bride and groom.

Two significant differences also exist between the present study and Momani and Al-Refaei (2010). First, in contrast to Jordanian society (Momani and Al-Refaei, 2010), the first names of the couples were stated before the names of their fathers. Second, the title *Haaj* which means the person who has performed pilgrimage can be stated before the names. However, other titles indicating the academic qualification or social position such as doctor, engineer, lawyer or pharmacist were not available in contrast to Jordanian culture which was mentioned in the study of Momani and Al-Refaei (2010).

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Sajad Faramarzi is a Ph.D. 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.



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, Language Testing and Computer Assisted Language Learning.



Hossein Heidari Tabrizi is an assistant professor of TEFL at the English Department of Islamic Azad University, Isfahan (Khorasgan) Branch (IAUKB), Isfahan, Iran. He has published several articles both nationally and internationally. His research interests include Testing, Translation Studies, Discourse Analysis, and Sociolinguistics.

Explicitation of Personal Pronoun Subject in Chinese EFL Majors' Translation: A Case Study of Translation Universals Based on PACCEL-W Corpus

Yurong Hao

Bailie International College, Lanzhou City University, Gansu, China

Abstract—Corpus-based translation study involves quantitative and qualitative analyses of corpus data, provides not a new yet effective approach to the investigation of the explication strategy of a translator but also evidences supporting subjectivity and style of a translator. However, those studies of explication can just act as a general guidance to translation practice and there is not enough exploration of explication based on contrastive studies between English and Chinese. The present research represents an initial attempt to apply the corpus-based approach to explore the Chinese English Major students' explication strategy on personal subject pronoun in E-C and C-E translation in hope of helping the translators of different levels adjust their explication strategies, cultivation of translator's awareness and promotion the construction of translation teaching in which the different explication strategies will be focused corresponding to translators of different levels.

Index Terms—explication strategy, descriptive translation studies, corpus-based, translation studies, personal pronoun subject

I. INTRODUCTION

Explicitation is known as one of the translation universals, considered a common feature of translated texts (Baker, 1996; Laviosa, 1998) or regarded as a frequent strategy used by both professional and non-professional translators (Blum-Kulka, 1986; Gile, 1995). Therefore, explication is considered a natural translation-inherent and language independent procedure, a by-product of the translation process, or a conscious strategy, a professional device, deliberately employed by translators who want to circumvent linguistic and/or socio-cultural differences between SL and TL.

Before the paradigm of corpus-based translation study, the typical studies related to explication are mainly Vinay & Darbelnet (1958, 1995), Nida (1964, 1969), Vanderauwera (1985), House (1977, 1997), Blum-Kulka (1986), Klaudy (1993, 1996, 1998), etc. These studies, which focus on the lexical, syntax, and style, explore the linguistic features of target texts compared to source texts.

Explicitation, whose study of corpus-based period has a relatively short history, is mainly aimed at inspecting the explication hypothesis based on large-scale translational corpora. is currently one of the most thoroughly studied phenomena in translation studies, along with simplification? However, approaches to the subject are heterogeneous. The typical studies related to explication are mainly Øverås (1998), Olohan & Baker (2000), Puurtinen (1998, 2003, 2004), Wang Kefei (2003), Ke Fei (2005), Kenny (2005) etc.

Although the application of CTS enlarges the scope of the explication studies, there are also some shortcomings existing in study objects and methodologies of the current achievements. Firstly, the definition of explication is partial, which is only restricted on the comparable explication based on the inner-language comparison, lacks in the explication of Inter-language comparison; Second, ignoring the role of Source Texts in translation conversion, they mainly adopted the monolingual comparable corpus, then care a little about the variable factors such as direction of translation, style genre and so on; finally, there is no consistent standard of different languages in the relatively empirical conclusions. What's more, there is no study of students' translators, especially the Chinese EFL majors' at all. Students' translators have no idea of how to use the explication in their translation, which may leads to the over translation or inadequate translation.

So, on the perspectives of Inter-language comparison and Inner-language comparison, dependent on the corpus data from PACCEL, the thesis studies the English majors' explication strategy and mainly lays down the comparison of discourse in the different target texts from the same source texts to confirm if the different translators use the explication strategy and achieve the explication effect in process of translation. It will be useful to further investigate the phenomena of translation of Chinese EFL majors and can cultivate the students' translation awareness.

II. PERSONAL PRONOUN SUBJECT

Lü Shuxiang (1999) said that personal pronoun subject can be omitted in Chinese as can as possible even if it may lead to deficiency of sentence structure. So the implicating of personal pronoun subject is a typical character of Chinese. In addition to the conjunctive explicitation and implicitation, another prominent phenomenon is the explicitation and implicitation of personal pronoun subject during the process of translation. Anaphoric and cataphoric that personal pronoun subject has are an important way of textual cohesion. Because there is differently dependent on personal pronoun subject in both Chinese and English, its shift also presents different features. This chapter will investigate explicitation and implicitation of personal pronoun subject based on PACCEL-W in C-E and E-C translation respectively, and also here is a comparative study on personal pronoun subject explicitation adopted by student translators and professional translators.

A. Personal Pronoun Subject in Chinese and English

On modern Chinese “gender”, “number”, “case” of personal pronoun, the Wang Li (2002) states: (i) there is no “gender” difference in 1st and 2nd person personal pronoun except the written form of 3rd person personal pronoun (he, she and it); (ii) “number” difference exists in all person personal pronoun (e.g. I/we); (iii) there is no “case” existence in every person personal pronoun. So without consideration of dialect, person personal pronoun in modern Chinese includes the basic variations (Table 1)

TABLE 1:
THE FORM OF PERSONAL PRONOUN SUBJECT IN CHINESE(LÜ SHUXIANG, ZHU DEXI,1982):

person		1st person		2nd person		3rd person	
sing./plural		sing.	plural	sing.	plural	sing.	plural
Personal pronoun	subject	我、咱、	我们、	你、	你们	她、他、	他们、她们、
	object	人家	咱们	您		它、人家	它们、别人、人家
	possess	我的、	我们的、	你的、您	你们的	她的、他的、	他们的、她们的、
		咱的	咱们的	的		它的、人家的	它们的、别人的、人家的

For the different syntactic structure of language system, the beginning of sentences for example is a very sensitive spot. A very important addition in translations from Chinese into English is the addition of a subject at the beginning of the English sentence. The paratactic language system makes it possible for Chinese to construct sentences without a subject, which is not always acceptable in English for it is hypotactic. For example, “...有一年，来了一个石匠，为我洗一台石磨...” is translated as “... Another time, we had a stonemason come to grind a millstone for us...” In the target sentence, the subject “we” is explicitly added (Wang Kefei, 2003). In this case, the addition of subject may be involved in the obligatory explicitation in most process of Chinese-English translation.

Quirk et al (1972) states the major differences between noun and pronoun lie in; (i) Noun is a open system, whereas pronoun is a close system; (ii) Many pronouns have specific form features: (a) difference between subject and object; (b) “person” difference; (c) obvious “gender” difference; (d) “number” form without regard of form’s variation. Such features are also applied to personal pronoun. Firstly, the number of personal pronoun keeps steady; secondly, personal pronoun in English can be divided into subject and object. 3rd person personal pronoun has “gender” difference. So the form of personal pronoun in modern English is like as following (Table 2):

TABLE 2:
THE FORM OF PERSONAL PRONOUN SUBJECT IN ENGLISH (QUIRK ET AL., 1985):

THE FORM OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS IN ENGLISH (QUESTIONS 1-5)									
person		1 st person		2 nd person		3 rd person			
sing./plural		sing.	plural	sing.	plural	sing.			plural
subject		I	we	you		he	she	it	they
object		me	us	you		him	her	it	them
possessive	determiner	my	our	your		his	her	its	their
	pronoun	mine	ours	yours			hers		theirs

As it is mentioned above, difference between Chinese and English lies in language system. English, as the morpheme-based language, the morphological changes of the words indicate such grammatical aspects as “gender”, “number”, “case”, “tense”, “aspect”, “mood” and “person” whereas in Chinese the words remain the same except for the addition or deletion of some other words. One of the causes results from so-called “missing categories”. As there is no possessive pronoun in Chinese, which exists in English, all translation from English into Chinese will contain a lot of pluses for this very simple reason. For example, “his” is rendered by the Chinese as “他的” with an additional maker“的”.

B. A Review of Personal Pronoun Subject

Liu Lijin (1997) presents a comparative analysis of the anaphoric and cataphoric functions of personal pronouns in English and Chinese sentence structure and discourse. The research shown that there is considerable human cognition and thinking based linguistic similarities between English and Chinese in terms of anaphora and cataphora. Liu Lijin (2003) questions the validity of the claim that ‘intra-sentential cataphoric reference is unidirectional’, made in Zhao Hong

& Shao Zhihong (2002). The objective is to compare its account with some Western theoretic accounts of cataphora constraints on the 3rd person pronouns, based on facts, to ascertain some truths relevant to these cataphoric pronouns, which is mainly concerned with the 3rd person pronominal cataphora constraints, 'the basic structure 'and' its variant' of the complex sentence, and extra-sentential cataphoric reference. Drawing from the Writing Database of Experiential English, Si Jianguo (2008) offers a contrastive analysis of the third person pronoun reference pattern in essays by students in U.S. Colleges and at Qinghua University in China. The findings indicate that there is no significant difference between the two types of essays in terms of the frequency of their employment of third person and determinant pronouns, but there are significant differences as far as cataphora and zero anaphora are concerned. Some illustrations from the Chinese and the English thinking styles and from language transfer are provided. Yuan Jing (2004) attempts to explore the differences in personal references between English and Chinese, and also to uncover the underlying cultural reasons for these differences, thus increasing the translator's awareness of the differences and improving the quality of translation based on the theory of coherence and cohesion put forward by Halliday and Hasan, as well as data-analysis. The research shows that the third personal references and the possessive pronouns are used differently in English and Chinese, while there is no significant difference in the use of other personal references. So the recognition of the differences in personal references between English and Chinese is helpful for translators to improve the quality of translations. Huang Libo (2008) investigates the rendering of personal pronoun subjects in literary and non-literary E-C translation in terms of absolute number, frequency and transferring types, with the help of parallel corpora. The study shows: 1) Both the absolute number and the frequency of personal pronoun subjects in literary and non-literary E-C translation are reduced; 2) In terms of transferring types, there are more correspondences between English and Chinese; 3) Compared with non-translated Chinese texts, translated Chinese texts tend to contain more personal pronoun subjects. Although there are some explorations into personal pronoun subject as we show, the pursue to explicitation strategy in Chinese student's translations is vacant. So, It is time for us to go into it.

C. *The Definition of Personal Subject Explicitation and Implication*

"Personal subject explicitation" refers to add and explicate the subject (implicated in the source texts) in the target texts, which has always been regarded a stereotype (Wang Li, 2002). Versus, it is called "personal subject implication". Taking Chinese for example, Wang Li states subject doesn't necessarily occur in Chinese grammar, so when subject is seemingly obvious, it will not exist. However, "implicating" is not equal to "omitting" because "implicating" is a commonplace and "omitting" is an exception according to need of grammar rule. That is to say, explicitation of personal pronoun subject in Chinese is optional. The "implicating" subjects discussed here always transfer to "explicating" subject in C-H translation.

III. METHODOLOGY

Corpora of translated texts fit very nicely into this contemporary Snap of research infrastructure. They clearly do not preclude the need to develop other resources, both published and electronic. This part will focus on the methodology of the research.

A. *Research Questions*

It is unforgettable that the subject of the matter what the role the translator plays in translation definitely an important factor to study explicitation of teaching experiences, there exists some tentative reflections related to the target text explicitation in terms of translators' professional levels. This spontaneously might lead to the following questions:

- 1) Do student translators use the explicitation strategy in the process of translation? If yes, what is it like?
- 2) What is the difference in explicitation tendency between the target texts by student translators and the one by professional translator?

B. *Corpus*

The research was based on Parallel Corpus of Chinese EFL Learners (PACCEL), compiled by Wen Qiufang and Wang Jinquan, is the first learners' corpus in China. The resulting corpus contains approximately 1,500,000 words. The whole PAEECL became available on magnetic tape for mainframe computers, and subsequently on CD-Rom with versions for MS-Windows 2000 or high platforms. The text file includes the raw text and tagged text processed in alignment. As Figure 5 shows, It can be divided into two sub-corpus: Parallel Corpus of Chinese EFL Learners---Spoken (PACCEL-S) and Parallel Corpus of Chinese EFL Learners---Written (PACCEL-W). The present research is based on the PACCEL-W.



Figure 1: The framework of PACCEL

1. Text Collection

PACCEL-W contains approximately 1,000,000 words with adequate coverage of genre, geographical region, gender,

age and level of education of the student translators. The corpora are the Chinese English senior majors' translational tests. It follows the design principles:

Style: fiction and non-fiction (scientific, political, economic, and social life);

The length of TT: about 300 characters/words;

Direction of translation: E-C and C-E;

Time of translation: 120 minutes' limit (E-C 60'; C-E 60');

Type of students: English major;

Age of students: 18-22;

Grade of students: grade 3 or 4;

2. Corpus Tagging

Once texts are held in machine-readable format, we can easily find some linguistic features with the help of tools. For instance, by utilizing Wordsmith tools some lexical information of a corpus like statistics of types, tokens, and word length can be revealed automatically in a few seconds. Yet plain corpus can not always satisfy your special purpose of a research. Retrieval of a corpus cannot tell you information of adjectives, prepositions or Wh-adverbs in it. So some processing on corpus is necessary to carry out before using corpus software to analyze them. Corpora are needed to be tagged. Grammatical tagging is the commonest form of corpus annotation, and was the first form of annotation to be developed by UCREL at Lancaster. The tagger to be used for PACCEL-W is CLAWS (the Constituent Likelihood Automatic Word-tagging System), a continuously developed since the early 1980s and consistently achieved 96-97% accuracy (the precise degree of accuracy varying according to the type of text). The latest version of the tagger, CLAWS-4, was used to POS tag 100 million words of the British National Corpus (BNC). The following excerpt is an example from PACCEL-W.

C. Tools

Once corpus has been identified appropriate to a specific research question, the researchers have to decide what kinds of data are required from the corpus and in what form. In order to get the relevant parameters for analysis, respective extractions are needed by using effective tools.

Wordsmith tools as the most common software for data extraction is advocated in this research. It is an integrated suite of programs for looking at how words behave in texts, you will be able to use tools to find out how words are used in your own texts, or those of others.

The Wordlist tool lets you see a list of all the words or word-clusters in a text, set out in alphabetical or frequency order. The Concordance, ParaConc for Windows, described in Barlow (1998), provides sentence concordances in pairs of languages. The user can define the languages, the size of context in search language, the maximum number of citations to find, and the delimiters, then selects the texts and enters a search word. It gives you a chance to see any word or phrase in context---so that you can see what sort of company it keeps. With Key Words you can find the key words in a text. The tools, developed by Michael Barlow, a professor from the department of applied linguistics, Oakland University, New Zealand, are specialized in the parallel corpus.

D. Procedure

Firstly, the ParaConc should be installed. we can click the "file" menu to load relevant corpus files. The first line is the number of parallel file, that is to say, two languages' correspondence. And then we can click "Add" to upload the corpora we need in research and click "OK" to finish the practice.

After we installed the ParaConc, you will find the two menu "file" and "info" and when you click "file" you will see the Snap loaded the corpora. There are the fundamental steps of the whole process including running the software, choosing and loading the corpora. Choosing and loading the corpora is vitally important to your research. So, remember to load the very ones you need in your present research. When you click the button "file" and activate the "load corpus files", you may click "Add" to your corpora. Here "parallel texts" in the first line of the Snap means the choice of text numbers and the "2" refers to parallel corpora.

The ParaConc can load 4 parallel corpora and make a comparative research on multiply translated-texts. The second line offers different languages, but PACCEL only include Chinese and English. As you see in the Snap 4, the "CH" in file title means Chinese corpora, whereas the "EN" English corpora, and the "CHTAG" means the tagged Chinese corpora, which is corresponding to the "ENTAG". Click "OK", you will find "2 parallel files loaded" on the left and "13,950/25,570" on the right, which means the type/token ratio of your loaded files. Now, you only need use "search" function and input the relevant word.

IV. DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

With the help of tool ParaConc, we can identify sentences including personal pronoun subject and decide whether they should be calculated in the context of ST. And through the "distribution" and "frequency order", we can easily obtain the data we need in our research.

A. Transfer of Personal Subject in C-E Translation

PACCEL-W offers us 6 group corpora and each group include one C-E and one E-C passage which is an excerpt of 8-level translational test paper for English major senior student and each is tagged the text head. We randomly select our corpora based on text type (fiction and non-fiction) and translation direction (C-E and E-C) in my research, which is good to investigate and answer my first question.

1. Corpora' Analysis

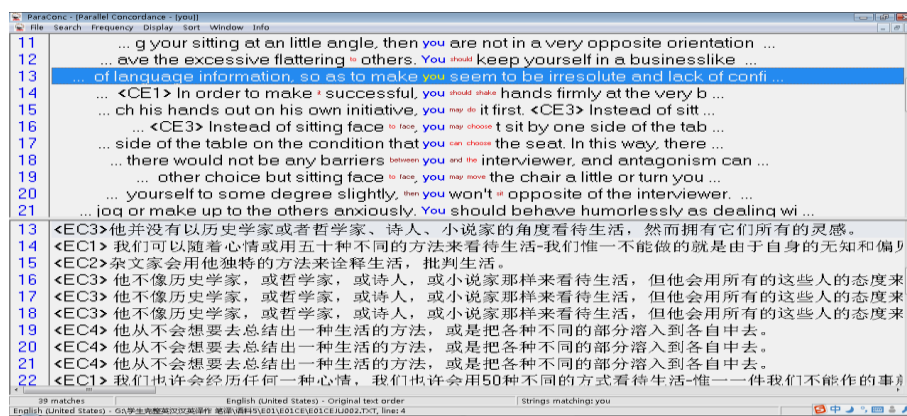
TABLE 3:
CORPORA' ANALYSIS OF PERSONAL PRONOUN SUBJECT IN C-E TRANSLATION

Text type	Text information	ST's characters	TT's words
C-E Fiction	From Internet starting	10,030	44,815
C-E Non-Fiction	Theory and Application in E-C Translation>unit 5	7,895	37,288

Finishing the very loading, we can use the Concordances and Frequency Count in ParaConc to make information extraction. Here we inversely locate the key words (I/we/you/she/he/ it/they) in translated texts to identify the fitted items.

Here taking “you” for example, in Snap 1, as node word “you” in line 13 is used as an object but not a subject, so this cannot be calculated. In line 18, “you” is also used as an object of “between”, so this cannot also be calculated. The sentences including “you” are listed in ParaConc and “you” is marked in blue and the number is given on the left side, “you” in sentences in shadow are not subject so they cannot be calculated.

Snap 1



2. Data Collection and Analysis

With the help of tool ParaConc, we can identify sentences including personal pronoun subject and decide whether they should be calculated in the context of ST. And through the “distribution (Snap 7)” and “frequency order (Snap 8)”, we can easily obtain the data we need in our research.

TABLE 4:
FREQUENCY STATISTIC OF PERSONAL PRONOUN SUBJECT IN CHINESE ST AND ENGLISH TT

Text type	Fiction texts		Non-Fiction texts	
	Chinese ST	English TT	Chinese ST	English TT
texts				
Characters/words	10,030	44,815	7,895	37,288
Personal pronoun	1065	6848	387	2629
Frequency(%)	10.62	15.28	0.49	0.71

As Table 4 shows, in fiction texts, among 10,030 characters' Chinese ST occur 1065 personal pronoun, about 11 per 1000 character in frequency and in 44,185 words occur 6848 personal pronoun, amounting to 16 per 1000 character in frequency. In non-fiction texts, among 7,895 words' Chinese ST occur 387 personal pronoun, about 0.49% in frequency and in 37,288 words occur 2629 personal pronoun, about 0.71% in frequency. Seemingly, the frequency of personal pronoun subjects in Chinese ST is lower than that in English TT, whenever they are in the fiction texts or non-fiction texts (see in Figure 2).

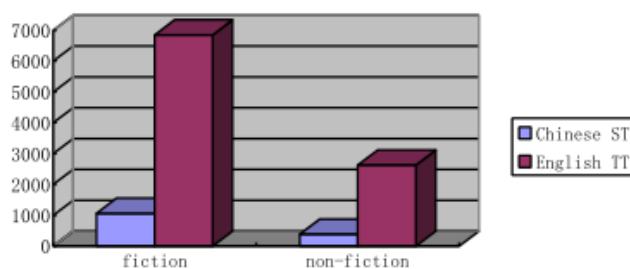


Figure 2: A frequency statistic of personal pronoun subject in Chinese ST and English TT

The 1st, 2nd and 3rd personal pronouns in the process of C-E translation increase, which dramatically amount to 4.66‰ in fiction texts and moderately 0.22‰ in non-fiction texts, and the reason is that personal pronoun subjects are rarely used in Chinese non-fiction texts.

TABLE 5:
A STATISTIC ON TRANSFERRING TYPES OF PERSONAL PRONOUN SUBJECT IN C-E TRANSLATION

Text Information/type	Type/token ratio	Sen. in total	correspondence		Interlingua explicitation			
			Sen.	ratio (%)	explicitating		adding	
					Sen.	ratio (%)	Sen.	ratio (%)
<i>From Internet/Fiction</i>	1,904/8,971	681	294	43.1	286	41.9	101	15.0
<i>Theory & Application of E-C Translation > unit 5/Non-fiction</i>	2,471/12,215	128	50	3.91	25	1.95	53	4.14

According to the analysis, we can draw the conclusion: both quantity and frequency of personal pronoun subject in C-E translation are increased. But whether there exist explicitation and implicitation of personal pronoun subject, we need make further research on the transferring types and frequency of personal pronoun subject.

With the restrict of ParaConc, we excerpt the parallel corpora---A01CECH and A01CEEN (A01 refers to “the first group of the first C-E corpus file”), E01CECH and E01CEEN (E01 refers to “the first group of the fifth C-E corpus file”)---to investigate the specific transferring types of personal pronoun subject, as shown in Table 8, in the fiction texts, interlingua explicitation of personal pronoun subject covers 56.9%, higher than correspondence, whereas in the non-fiction texts, interlingua explicitation of personal pronoun subject covers 6.09%, also higher than correspondence, which shows the trend to the interlingua explicitation of personal pronoun subject is obvious in C-E translation.

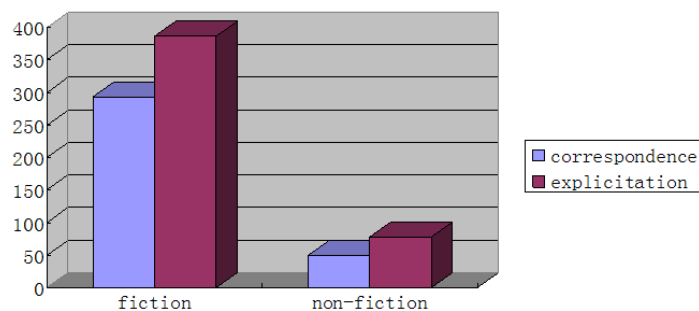


Figure 3: A transferring types' statistic of personal pronoun subject in C-E translation

In C-E translation, the transferring types of personal pronoun subject are shown in Figure 3. In fiction texts, interlingua explicitation is over-dominant over the correspondence, up to 13.8%. In non-fiction texts, interlingua explicitation is over-dominant over the correspondence, up to 2.18%.

3. Summary

According to the above statistic and analysis, we find personal pronoun subjects in C-E translation are increased both in quantity and frequency, what's more, as transferring types are concerned, the explicating and adding are in total much more than correspondence. The trend to interlingua explicitation is obvious. But whether the universal is prevalent is also to need investigating in E-C translation.

B. Transfer of Personal Subject in E-C Translation

As the corpora are mentioned in 4.1, here we randomly selected 2 groups E-C translational test paper as our corpora (see in Table 5) based on text type (fiction and non-fiction) and translation direction (E-C) in my research, which is suitable for my research.

1. Corpora' Analysis

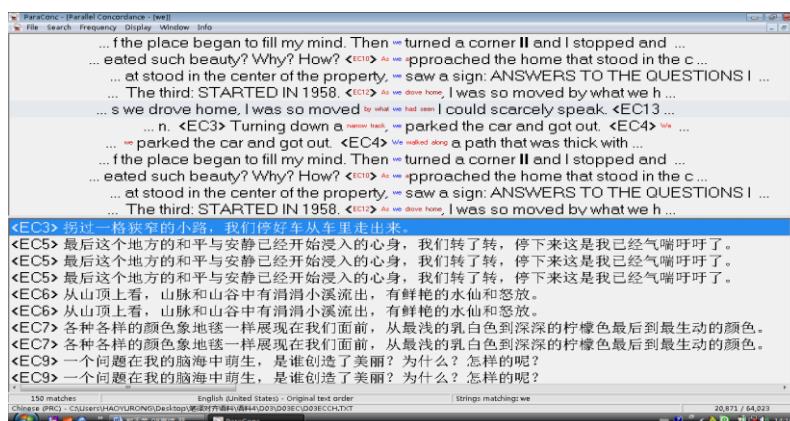
Finishing the very loading, we can use the Concordances and Frequency Count in ParaConc to make information extraction. Here we inversely locate the key words (I/we/you/she/he/ it/they) in translated texts to identify the fitted

items.

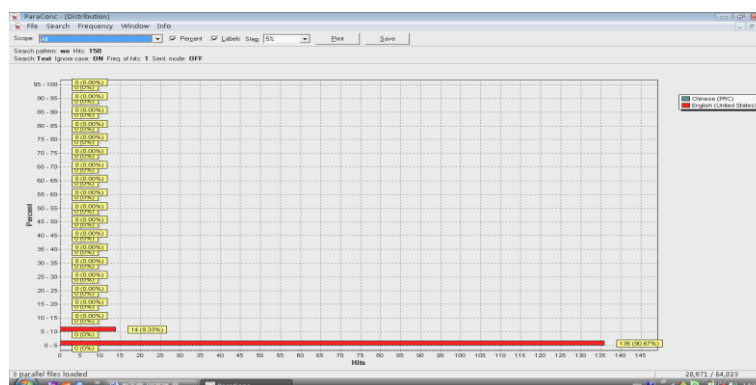
TABLE 6:
CORPORA'S STATISTICS OF PERSONAL PRONOUN SUBJECT IN E-C TRANSLATION

Text type	Text title	ST's words	TT's characters
E-C Fiction	<i>Theory & Application of E-C translation>Unit 10</i>	20,871	64,023
E-C Non-Fiction	<i>Theory & Application of E-C translation>Unit 14</i>	16,137	37,294

Snap 2



Snap 3



2. Data Collection and Analysis

With the help of tool ParaConc, we can identify sentences including personal pronoun subject and decide whether they should be calculated in the context of ST. And through the “distribution” and “frequency order”, we can easily obtain the data we need in our research.

TABLE 7:
FREQUENCY STATISTIC OF PERSONAL PRONOUN SUBJECT IN ENGLISH ST AND CHINESE TT

Text type	Fiction texts		Non-Fiction texts	
texts	English ST	Chinese TT	English ST	Chinese TT
words /Characters	20,871	64,023	16,137	37,294
Personal pronoun	1323	869	132	97
Frequency(%)	63.39	13.57	8.17	2.60

As Table 7 shows, in fiction texts, among 20,871 words' English ST occur 1323 personal pronoun, about 63 per 1000 character in frequency and in 64,023 words occur 869 personal pronoun, amounting to 14 per 1000 character in frequency. In non-fiction texts, among 16,137 words' Chinese ST occur 132 personal pronoun, about 8.17% in frequency and in 37,294 words occur 97 personal pronoun, about 2.60% in frequency.

Seemingly, the frequency of personal pronoun subjects in English ST is higher than that in Chinese TT, whenever they are in the fiction texts or non-fiction texts (see in Figure 4), which depends on how the personal pronoun subject need in Chinese and English.

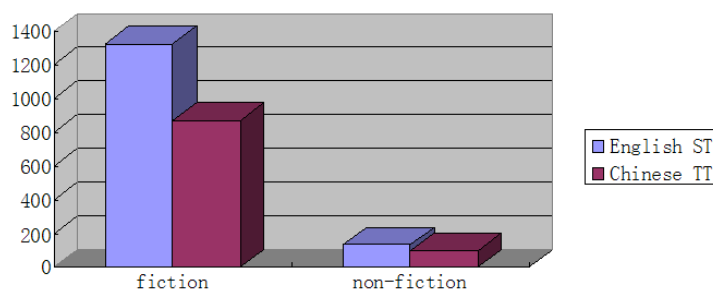


Figure 4: A statistic of personal pronoun subject in English ST and Chinese TT

But in E-C translation, whether there are explicitation and implicitation of personal pronoun subject, we also need make further research on the transferring types and frequency of personal pronoun subject.

TABLE 8:
A STATISTIC ON TRANSFERRING TYPES OF PERSONAL PRONOUN SUBJECT IN E-C TRANSLATION

Text Information/type	Type/token ratio	Sen. in total	Correspondence		Interlingua explicitation			
			Sen.	Ratio (%)	explicating		adding	
					Sen.	Ratio (%)	Sen.	Ratio (%)
<i>Theory & Application of E-C translation</i> >Unit 10/Fiction	20,131/7,571	698	586	84.3	78	10.6	34	5.1
<i>Theory & Application of E-C translation</i> >Unit 14/Non-fiction	1,210/5,142	432	286	66.7	123	28.0	23	5.3

We excerpt the parallel corpora---D01ECEN and D01ECCH (D01 refers to “the first group of the fourth E-C corpus file”), F01ECEN and F01ECCH (F01 refers to “the first group of the sixth E-C corpus file”) ---to investigate the specific transferring types of personal pronoun subject. As shown in *Table 8*, in the fiction texts, interlingua explicitation of personal pronoun subject covers 16.7%, far lower than correspondence 84.3%, whereas in the non-fiction texts, interlingua explicitation of personal pronoun subject covers 33.3%, also far lower than correspondence 66.7%.

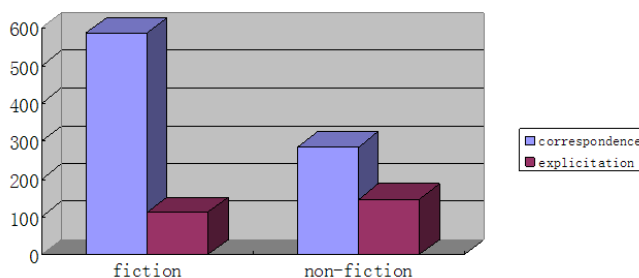


Figure 5: A transferring type's statistic of personal pronoun subject in E-C translation

In E-C translation, the transferring types of personal pronoun subject are shown in *Figure 5*. Both in fiction texts and in non-fiction texts, correspondence is over-dominant over the interlingua explicitation, interlingua explicitation not obvious. Furthermore, the personal pronoun subjects in English fiction texts are much more than those in Chinese translated texts.

3. Summary

According to the above statistic and analysis, we find personal pronoun subjects in E-C translation are decreased both in quantity and frequency, what's more, as transferring types are concerned, the explicating and adding are in total much less than correspondence. The trend to inter-lingua explicitation is not obvious.

V. CONCLUSION

Through Concordances and Frequency Count in ParaConc, the paper makes an empirical investigation into the transferring of personal pronoun subject based on its number, frequency and types of conversion from the direction of translation and text types. The result shows:

a. At the number level: In C-E translation, both in fiction texts and non-fiction texts, the number and frequency of personal pronoun subject increased, whereas in E-C translation, both in fiction texts and non-fiction texts, the number and frequency of personal pronoun subject decreased. It shows personal pronoun subject in English is more prevalent than that in Chinese.

b. At the types of conversion level: In C-E translation, both in fiction texts and non-fiction texts, the trend to interlingua explicitation of personal pronoun subject is obvious, whereas in E-C translation, both in fiction texts and non-fiction texts, correspondence is over-dominant over the interlingua explicitation and interlingua explicitation is not obvious.

c. At the target texts' comparison between professional translators and student translators: In C-E translation, In our counting, it is discovered both in fiction and non-fiction texts that the number of the words has decreased in the English translation compared with the words of original Chinese text, and in fiction texts, all the target texts given by student translators in three scores levels are irredundant than the reference target text given by translators in professional level with some comparison criteria, but in non-fiction texts, all the target texts given by student translators in three scores levels are redundant than the reference target text given by translators in professional level with some comparison criteria. In E-C translation, the number in target texts is more than that in original English texts, and all the target texts given by student translators in three scores levels are redundant than the reference target text given by translators in professional level with some comparison criteria. So, we can safely say: the explicitation rises in translation as the scores level of translators rises regardless of text types and both in fiction texts and non-fiction texts, the trend to comparable explicitation of personal pronoun subject is not obvious, whereas in E-C translation, the explicitation declines in translation as the scores level of translators rises regardless of text types; and both in fiction texts and non-fiction texts, the trend to comparable explicitation of personal pronoun subject is obvious.

Different language system and style preferences should be considered as the key factor influencing the differences of word number among each group's target texts or indicating the unique explicitation preference of any translators. As mentioned early, Chinese is of paratactic feature, in which the relation between sentence parts is loose and unclear. Thus covert coherence is preferred in Chinese. English is characterized by hypo taxis which show much attention to formal cohesion. Therefore, overt cohesion is preferred in English. Then the shifts from the covert cohesion to overt cohesion inevitably involve the more explicitation (Ke Fei, 2003).

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NOTES

1. The scores scope of the TEM4 and TEM8 in the research is based on "Syllabus for English Majors", which is in the "Basic College English Syllabus" and "Senior English Syllabus for College English" on the basis of amendments made by Foreign Language Teaching Higher Education English group approval of the Steering Committee and approved by the Ministry of Education through the country.

2. The model of the present study will also be confined to the study of formalization explicitation such as Libo Huang, focused on personal subject pronoun because of the restrict of Internet automobile tagged corpus. But the difference of the present study from Huang's is fully covering the student translator's factor. The present study will separately select one of five passages in E-C and C-E translation to investigate the different translation version confined to the same source text in the hope of explicitation strategy by different student translators.

3. As far as words number and the same procedure factors are considered, the research doesn't to make a target texts' comparison between the translated texts by student translators and reference texts by professional translators. But in order to answer my second question, the result of this comparison research is shown in conclusion.

4. Limitation of the Concordance: As mentioned, software in this research named ParaConc is applied in this study to process the sample texts. However, due to the limitation of the tools, data located are only 150 and can not be reserved. So some useful data such as average lexical length, sentence distribution are missed from the data presentation. This makes the whole analysis look weak to some extent.

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Yurong Hao, born in Gansu, China in 1978, gained a M.A. degree in Translation Theory and Practice in School of Foreign Languages in 2010 and now is a PhD student, specializing in Curriculum and Teaching Methodology in School of Education, Northwest Normal University, China. She is currently an associate professor in Bailie International College, Lanzhou City University, Gansu, China. Her research interests include translation theory & practice, and English Pedagogy. Professor Hao was a visiting scholar in Manchester University, UK in 2014.

Trends in ESP and EGP

Mohammad Zohrabi
University of Tabriz, Iran

Abstract—The sheer fact is that English for General Purposes (EGP) is a foundation course in any curriculum, which is intended to pave the way for English for Specific Purposes (ESP). As a language teacher, it is observed that after so many years of studying English language, numerous number of the undergraduate and graduate students have problems in reading and understanding their specialist texts. It is evident that there are some deficiencies in the General English Course and English for Specific Purposes. Obviously, if the students try to develop effective strategies to tackle the reading skill deeply, they might be better able to deal with their ESP courses. Ironically, the students memorize a lot of grammatical rules as a requirement to pass the university entrance exam before they enter the university. Nonetheless, it is seen that they can hardly use their structural knowledge communicatively and practically in the university. It goes without saying that learning English language is a must for each and every student at university level. All the students take and study General English at university and after that they take and study English for Specific Purposes to fulfill the graduation requirements. The English for General Purposes is very important because it is supposed to equip the students for their later courses. This paper attempts to clarify the diverse dimensions of the EGP and ESP and then provide some suggestions for the betterment of them.

Index Terms—English for Specific Purposes, English for General Purposes

I. INTRODUCTION

In this paper two main divisions within the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) will be discussed. The first one refers to English as a General Purpose (EGP) and the second one refers to English for Specific Purposes (ESP). A definition for each one will be given and the important ups and downs of each trend will be explained. Also the boundary between EGP and ESP will be touched on. After that there will be a section entitled Needs Analysis. In this part there will appear some investigation towards the needs of the learners. It is indeed difficult to pin down and approach EGP and ESP in several pages. Many scholars around the globe attempt to design some general and specific courses for their learners. They will be successful if they have a thorough investigation of all factors concerned. Now, first of all, it will be better to talk a little about English for general purposes in the next section.

II. ENGLISH FOR GENERAL PURPOSES (EGP)

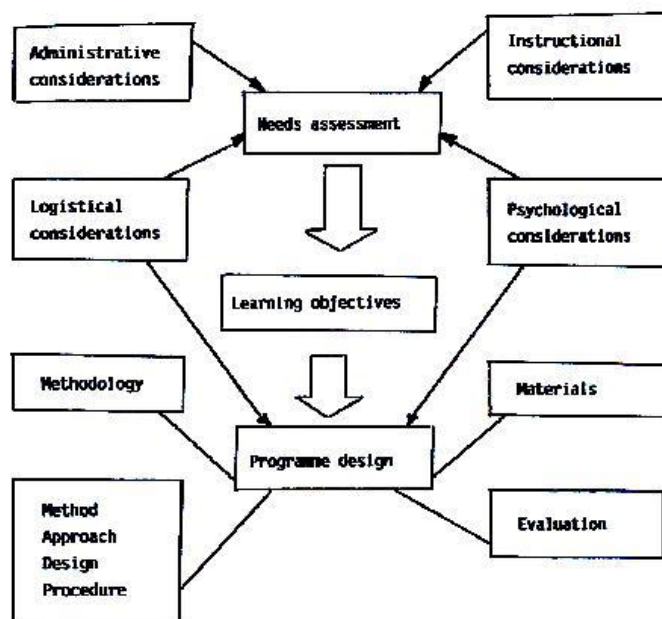
English for general purposes is, in fact, the foundation for later attainments in specialist field (Trimble, 1985, p. 6). So we cannot ignore its role for future performance. Mainly, some mastery of general English is needed for a learner who wants to study in special field: "Although 'General English' is set off as quite separate from the other 'kinds' of English, it is, of course, the mainstay of all fields, whatever the purpose for which the language is used" (ibid.).

The boundaries of general English are indeed vast. The learners who study it do want to attain some knowledge about English language. The learners pursue a variety of objectives in studying it. It is obvious that general purpose English is not limited, it covers a vast domain indeed. When the teachers want to teach general English they are indeed at pain what to teach because they should impart the knowledge of English to a heterogeneous number of learners. So providing materials for such courses is a hard task (Widdowson, 1984). It is obvious that the teaching material should proceed from easy to difficult ones. But the judgement for easiness and difficulty is not so simple. Sometimes we do not possess a criterion for passing judgement. For example, some grammatical handbooks begin with definite/indefinite article distinction. However, most students have difficulty in understanding the difference and the correct usage for 'a/the' difference. There are some words that accept "the" but there are other words that do not accompany "the". Also, there are places that "the" cannot appear. These details at first confuse most students. These rules exceptions to the rules in fact make the students develop negative attitude towards grammar (Chastain, 1988).

Nevertheless, the language teacher ultimately decides what to teach and how to teach for different age groups with different objectives and motivations. It is the language teacher who decides where to begin and of course from what level.

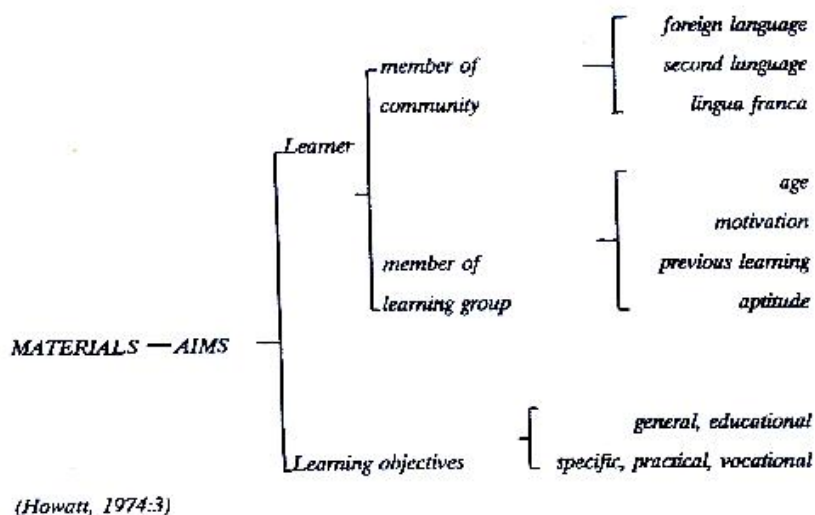
Broadly speaking, a lot of factors need to be accounted for when it comes to design and develop a general English course. For example, we should take into account the age, purpose, aptitude, attitude, motivation, previous English knowledge, and inclination of the learners (McDonough, 1984). We should also consider the duration of the course, the administrative purposes, teaching materials, the sponsors' intentions, the teachers' methodology and the situation, whether it is English as a foreign language (EFL) or English as a second language (ESL), to name just a few. Richards

and Rodgers (1990, p. 159) depict in a comprehensive diagram the many-sided components of a language curriculum as follows:



(Richards and Rodgers, 1990, p.159)
Language curriculum development processes

It is evident that a lot of factors are concerned in designing an English language course. It goes without saying that psychological and social considerations play a crucial role in every teaching course. To sum up, the general English course acts as a practical tool or means to the learners. It is, of course, up to the learners who may want to continue the course toward their specialist field or decide to stop it when the course ends up. However, if the learners stop studying further the general English, it is clear that they want to know just generally about English language. But if students want to know more in their special field they need English for specific purposes. Howatt (1974, p. 3) shows this division between English for general purposes and English for specific purposes in the following diagram:



(Howatt, 1974:3)

Howatt (1974, p. 3)
Division between ESP and EGP

In the above figure the learning objectives are divided into two parts: the general and the specific ones. In the next section the boundary between ESP and EGP will be determined.

III. EGP AND ESP

Widdowson (1984, p. 1) contends that we are moving on a scale from EGP towards ESP:



As was pointed out in the above section the general course covers a large area and it is indeed difficult to arrange and grade the materials. Most of the grammatical points should be taught in the classroom because the learners have no predetermined objective in studying it. As Howatt (1974, p. 8) states, “The real difficulty lies not so much in choosing what to teach as in arranging and grading the materials. Since a general course has no particular practical objectives, it must set out to teach more or less everything...” The general English prepares the students to encounter their specialist areas professionally.

However, in some cases the students do not need to gain mastery of general English to tackle their specific problems because they have the knowledge of their profession through their native language (Robinson, 1991, p. 4). They have studied in their own language about their job. They just need a little amount of English to get access to the latest happenings in the world. So they can somehow manage to understand the related texts on their job area because they have the necessary background knowledge in it. They just need a little exposure to English language to understand their specialist texts.

Nonetheless, some linguists believe that it is inappropriate and counterproductive to separate EGP and ESP. McDonough (1984, p. 7) writes: “Such fragmentation [the many branches of ESP such as EST, EOP, EAP...] is no more true than the opposite, monolithic view, which is often represented as ESP versus EGP...”. Here it is felt that if the students possess some knowledge of English language they will understand the kind of language that is related to their specialist field. So it is unnecessary to divide English to EGP and ESP. Widdowson (1984, p. 1) points out, “...GPE [General Purpose English] is less specific and purposeful than ESP. What distinguishes them is the way in which purpose is defined, and the manner of its implementation”. It is obvious that what distinguishes ESP and EGP is the purpose and objective of the course and the way it is implemented.

IV. NEEDS ANALYSIS

Generally, “needs analysis” is one of the processes of curriculum development in which the reasons behind the syllabus are determined in detail and in advance (cf. Nunan, 1991). Needs analysis is carried out to clarify many dimensions of a syllabus which are of paramount importance in any educational system. It brings to light both the students’ needs and the educational institute’s and/or system’s basic requirements. The type of communication which needs to be done whether written or spoken is determined in advance. The formality of language whether it is formal or informal is taken into consideration. Meanwhile, the methodology, the period of course, materials, etc. are specified as far as possible.

One important factor that should be taken care of before the course begins is the aim and purpose of the students. As Tarone and Yule (1989, p. 33) state:

Establishing what the learners need to know involves determining what the learners’ aims are in learning the language (for example, getting a job as a sales clerk, or earning a BA in engineering), and then looking at the sorts of communicative behavior which native speakers of the target language... engage in to achieve such aims....

So before the commencement of the course, the teacher or the institute may carry out a needs analysis. Needs analysis can be defined as the analysis and investigation of the learners’ needs (cf. Munby, 1980). Howatt (1974, p. 5) states: “In order to do so [what to teach] we must examine the purposes of the teaching course in more detail”. Therefore, needs analysis attempts to determine the students’ needs and purposes. Robinson (1991, p. 5) writes that we are teaching English not for specific purposes but for specified people. By specified people it is meant that our students are particular kind of people who need particular training.

Widdowson (1984, p. 178) believes that the expression ‘learner needs’ is open to at least two interpretations. On the one hand, it refers to the terminal behavior of the learners. That is, what the learners will do with the language when the course comes to an end. This is called a goal-oriented definition of learners’ needs. On the other hand, it refers to the process of language learning. This is a transitional one and refers to the actual procedures of learning. This is called a process-oriented definition of learning. We come to the conclusion that learning a language should be treated as a process rather than as an end. On the whole, we cannot teach every aspect of the linguistic system because the domains of structures are limitless. We can just teach a sample of language system. So it is better to involve learners in doing some tasks in the classroom. In this way they try to deal with the problems individually and attempt to learn by their own ability. They rely less and less on the teacher’s assistance. It can be said that the teachers are better to supply the learners with the means and tools of learning so the learners try to learn for themselves. One of the ways which could better promote language acquisition is the problem-solving activities in which the learners self-confidence and self-reliance are increased.

It is the language teacher who decides what to teach to a heterogeneous group of students. Most of the time the teacher can reliably analyze the learners' needs with his/her intuition and provide the material. As Tarone and Yule (1989, p. 21) write: "practicing language teachers frequently organize their teaching on the basis of some intuitive, informal analysis of the needs of their students". So the language teacher is the most eligible person to study the learners' behavior in the classroom.

Sometimes, before the course begins, the teacher carries out a needs analysis. To obtain more information of the students' needs, the questionnaire technique might be used. The details asked from the students help the teacher a lot in designing the course and his/her later decision-making.

In a succinct form Nunan (1991, p. 17) asks some questions from the language learners. This form is brief and to the point. In the following form the interviewer asks some questions orally and the learners answer them:

Interviewer: Date:
 Name:
 Current proficiency level:
 Age:
 Years of formal education:
 Number and type of previous courses:
 Nationality:
 Marital status:
 Length of time in target country:
 Present occupation:
 Intended occupation:
 Home language:
 Other languages spoken:
 Preferences relating to methodology:
 course length:
 intensity:
 Learning style:
 Purpose in coming to class:
 Language goals:
 Life goals:

The classroom teacher can use the information elicited from the learners and provide the necessary materials for the classroom.

Sometimes the students who want to learn English, whether general or specific, do not know what reading materials are constructive and useful for them. The students are eager to learn language but they do not know where to begin. So it can be concluded that the information provided by them in the forms may be misleading. Here it is the experienced language teacher who decides what to teach, where to begin from and how to teach.

Generally speaking, before the course begins the teacher gives a placement test. By doing so he measures the learners' level of English knowledge and diagnoses their strength and weaknesses. In this way he can place the learners in a classroom which suit their level better.

V. SPECIFICATION OF CONTENT

Generally, it is a dilemma for language teachers to specify what to teach. As was noted in the above sections, the teaching of general English brings about some difficulties for language teachers because most of the grammatical points are unfamiliar for the students and there are a lot of points that should be taught in the classroom.

However, in ESP it is rather easy what to teach because the aims of learners' are more specific (Widdowson, 1984). The teacher chooses materials according to the students' specialist field. But it is believed that if we confine the learners to prespecified materials, it restricts the learners' competence. Widdowson (1984, p. 8) points out: "...that increased specificity of language use means an increased restriction of competence". The teacher or course designer should prepare the kind of materials that are appropriate and feasible for the specified kind of learners. Robinson (1991, p. 4) states that it is the activities that are central rather than the kind of content including special terminology:

It may often be thought that a characteristic, or even a criterial feature, of ESP is that the course should involve specialist language (esp. terminology) and content. I suggest, however, that an ESP course need not include specialist language and content. What is more important is the activities that students engage in. These may be specialist and appropriate even when non-specialist language and content are involved.

Generally speaking, we learn a language for fulfilling different purposes. Sometimes we learn a language to visit a foreign country, to use language in the world of business, to use it in higher education, to help our children to use it in school, to use it in our job, to teach it to others and so on. When we learn a language we play different roles. Howatt (1974, p. 7) talks about the roles and activities that the learners play:

- (i) The role itself: doctor, businessman, teacher, parent, tourist, etc.
- (ii) The language activities that the role involves: talking, reading, corresponding, writing reports, etc.

- (iii) The topics that arise: health symptoms, insurance arrangements, money, etc.
- (iv) The intentions behind the use of language: polite social chit-chat, persuading, arguing, giving opinions, describing, explaining, etc.
- (v) The need for different kinds of people: talking to fellow specialists, public officials, friends, customer, etc.

When a teacher is due to teach in a language classroom he/she should take into account the kind of skills which are emphasized, i.e., the skills which are most needed by the learners (reading, writing, speaking and/or listening). Also the kind of style which is used is important, whether it is formal or informal one. Furthermore, the kind of people that the students would encounter after the end of the course is also important.

Therefore, the materials should be in a way that encourage the learners' progress rather than inhibit them. They should be encouraging and interesting. They should not cause boredom in the learners. Chamberlain and Flanagan (1978, p. 37) believe that:

... materials have to accord with student notions of progress in their vocational studies. Related to this are the indications that materials must also take specific account of available information relating to the learner's exact language attainments, his background at home and in society, his assumptions about university life, his vocational and social aspirations. The pattern of such factors in any given institution is likely to be unique even if in particular respects analogies can be drawn with ESP programs elsewhere.

The teaching content should emphasize the means rather than the ends. The materials should not be presented in isolation but in a way that are familiar to the learners (Widdowson, 1985, p. 28). They should emphasize the communication process. The students should be involved in language learning as an on-going process rather than as a neat product in itself. When language is studied for its own sake it is, in fact, treated as a product. But when language is used as a means and used for communication, i.e., for the negotiation of meaning between the interlocutors it is referred to as process. So the language teachers had better facilitate language learning and using rather than dwelling on grammatical rules and structures.

Some linguists (cf. Robinson, 1991) believe that it is wrong to isolate language into items and present them according to the coverage, range and frequency. It is believed that this is a mechanical way of introducing language. It is better to present language as a whole in chunks, however (cf. Widdowson, 1990). Language is for communication not for exercising linguistic items.

The purpose of ESP courses should be to create a capacity in the learners for their future performance (cf. Widdowson, 1984). If the students possess enough ability, they can encounter every unseen problem. The students should be allowed to maneuver on the basis of their competence in the classroom. They should not be restricted to a limited range of language according to mechanical findings of range, coverage and frequency. Widdowson (1985, p. 16) prefers teaching speech acts and functions during a course of instruction rather than grammatical structures:

There seems no reason at all why we should not, for example, say for this course we will select undertakings, promises, warnings, definitions, classifications', and so on rather than for this course we will teach the simple present tense, present continuous, count and mass nouns', and so on.

It is evident that practicing language functions are more useful and constructive than presenting linguistic items. The learners should feel that they are doing meaningful communicative activity rather than doing grammatical exercises (Widdowson, 1985, p. 47). With the development of communicative language the use of authentic language developed. In this way the learners can be involved in meaningful and natural type of language.

VI. CONCLUSION

Generally speaking, the amount of material contained in a course of instruction depends on the duration of time, the administrative requirements, the learners' learning rate, the ease and difficulty of materials, the volume of materials, the attractiveness of teaching courses and so on. Most of the time the courses have the problem of time limitation. The learners are to cover a huge amount of material in a limited period of time. As McDonough (1984, p. 1) puts it, "ESP programs are typically imbued with a sense of urgency, stemming from the time constraints frequently imposed by learners and their sponsors". It is most of the time difficult and burdensome to learn many things in a short period of time. It can be claimed that learning does not take place overnight, especially learning of a language, rather it is an incremental process which takes time and patience.

Generally, the course should be organized and graded in a way which most desirably makes learning easy. The new materials should not discourage the learners rather they should be incorporated to the previous materials. There should also be enough revision without causing boredom in the learners. One of the most important factors in language acquisition is the revision (Brown, 1987). On the whole, the newly learned materials can easily be forgotten without revision. So revision causes the materials to become permanent part of the learners' long-term memory. Therefore, in order for the materials to move from short term memory to long-term memory there should be enough revision. It should be meaningful as far as possible. It can be concluded that 'cyclical' learning (cf. Howatt, 1974) is preferable to linear' learning. In linear learning the materials are presented one by one without enough repetition but in cyclical learning there is a revision of introduced material from time to time.

To sum up so far, the writer of this paper has elaborately discussed the main trends in language teaching and language learning. We succinctly touched upon the traditional methods of approaching language teaching and some

new models alike. It was said that the focus of attention is on the learning process and basically on the learner rather than on the teaching or teacher. Nowadays, it is tried to present the syllabus in a way which is simple and easy to acquire. The meaningful learning is emphasized and the revision of the materials is an important factor for preventing the students to forget them (Brown, 1987). That is, by the revision of the previous material, the students retrieve what they have learned and this retrieval halts the forgetfulness process.

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Mohammad Zohrabi is an assistant professor and has taught various courses both at undergraduate and graduate level at the University of Tabriz, Iran. He has published various articles in international journals and produced 4 books: *A Dictionary of Research Terms in Applied Linguistics*, *A Dictionary of Language and Linguistics*, *Reading English in Action*, and *Active Reading Comprehension*. His research interests include: program evaluation, material writing and evaluation, first and second language acquisition, teaching reading and writing skills, English for academic purposes, English for general purposes, and English for specific purposes.

A Critical Analysis of the Use of Pinyin as a Substitute of Chinese Characters

Herbert Mushangwe
Hebei University, Baoding 072001, China

Godfrey Chisoni
Jilin University, Changchun 130012, China

Abstract—The present research paper critically examines use of pinyin as a substitute of characters by Zimbabwean students during acquisition of Chinese language. A questionnaire survey and character recognition survey was done and it was discovered that the use of pinyin as a substitute for Chinese characters negatively affects the acquisition of more complex characters. It was concluded that since each Chinese character is an individual morpheme that carries meaning, therefore dependence on Chinese pinyin negatively affects vocabulary acquisition. The paper recommends that use of pinyin in teaching Chinese language should be limited to the first few weeks, because pinyin was developed to help students acquire the phonetic system of Chinese language rather than the acquisition of vocabulary and grammar. The paper suggests that there is need to explore more ways of balancing the teaching of pinyin and characters in a way that will motivate learners to like Chinese language.

Index Terms—Chinese characters, Pinyin, language acquisition, teaching of Chinese, Zimbabwe

I. INTRODUCTION

According to Wai (1993) pinyin is a Romanized phonetic spelling system for Mandarin or Standard Chinese language. Pinyin uses 25 letters in the English alphabet except /v/ to represent different Chinese sounds. For many Chinese second language learners, pinyin has become an alternative writing system for Chinese language. However, pinyin is just an aid to pronunciation (McBride-Chang et. al., 2005). It was noted that in teaching Chinese as a foreign language the majority of learners seem to embrace pinyin as a substitute of Chinese characters. Chinese characters are symbols that represent meaning, thus every symbol either represents a word or a minimal unit of meaning and each character represents a single syllable with a specific tone (Ning and Montanaro, 2012). Phonetic representation of sounds using Romanized phonetic spelling system (pinyin) does not represent meaning, on the other hand though it is possible to use tone marks on pinyin, it is difficult to differentiate meaning for those words that use similar pinyin and similar tone marks, thus this makes Chinese characters unique and irreplaceable. As Li (2005) noted that Chinese language uses 411 syllables only for its whole vocabulary system, this means characters are the main component of Chinese vocabulary.

Pinyin is used as the base for teaching the sound system for both native speakers of Chinese language and foreigners. According to McBride et al., (2005) from kindergarten, Chinese children are taught the pronunciation of characters using the pinyin phonemic system. However, for foreign students, pinyin ends up being a substitute for characters while for Chinese children they still manage to grasp and use characters more than they use pinyin. Ding (2010) says that in the process of teaching and learning Chinese language, characters are the most important part and they play a role which cannot be replaced, and if students do not have strong foundation of Chinese characters their progress in learning Chinese language will be limited to some extent. Wu (2010) also agrees that though Chinese characters seem to be the most challenging part in Chinese language acquisition, however pinyin cannot replace Chinese characters in any way.

From 2007 when Chinese language was introduced in Zimbabwe up to the present, a large number of students gave up studying Chinese especially towards third year when Chinese characters are introduced mainly because they feel that Chinese characters are very difficult. This paper however seeks to discuss the challenges of using pinyin as an alternative writing system for Chinese language. An attempt will be made to assess the impact of overdependence on pinyin to the acquisition of Chinese characters. It is our hope that, a compatible strategy will be suggested to help second language learners of Chinese language to master both the phonetic system of Chinese using pinyin as well as the proper writing system (characters) without any overdependence on pinyin.

Background

In Zimbabwe Chinese language was introduced in 2007 at the University of Zimbabwe. Due to the good relationship between China and Zimbabwe as well as the rapid growth enjoyed by the Chinese economy, a lot of support has been given to the teaching of Chinese in Zimbabwe by the government of China. Initially only 30 students registered to study Chinese language, but at the present the enrollment in courses for Chinese as a foreign language has been growing at a rapid pace. Up to the present more than 700 students majoring in Chinese language are said to have graduated from the University of Zimbabwe.

In our pre-research survey it was observed that though a number of students are registering to learn Chinese language, the majority of Zimbabwean students still lack studying materials as well as time for self-practice since they study Chinese as a third subject for their Bachelor of Arts degree. It was also observed that students use photocopies of textbooks such as "Learn Chinese with me", of which some under-privileged students cannot even afford to photocopy these textbooks. This is a disadvantage to the acquisition of Chinese language.

Zimbabwean languages like European, American and other African languages use Latin letters for orthography; the majority of students who learn Chinese language in Zimbabwe are adults who have already acquired the writing system for both their native languages and English. On the other hand Chinese language is a logographic language in which one "character" corresponds roughly to one "word" or meaning (Nick et al., 2004). This suggests that students whose native languages are non-character based languages are naturally inclined towards adopting pinyin as the writing system for Chinese language.

From 2007 up to 2012 first and second year Chinese language students at the University of Zimbabwe were allowed to use pinyin as the writing system for both examinations and for their daily exercises. This followed the belief that learning Chinese characters is difficult, even under the best of circumstances (Hannas, 1994). A Socio-Educational Model for learning the writing system for Chinese orthography by Wong (2011) shows that; interest in learning Chinese as a second language may be positively affected after learning Chinese orthography and discourse patterns, which will eventually influence their goal-setting process as well as their motivational strategies to learn Chinese orthography. It was observed that the majority of students learning Chinese language in Zimbabwe were motivated to study Chinese language because the use of pinyin seems to make Chinese language simple.

Although Chinese Pinyin system is similar in some ways to the English alphabet, however apart from helping students to master the phonetic aspect of Chinese language, nevertheless it cannot replace Chinese characters. Chinese characters are a carrier of Chinese history and culture, also for students to pass Chinese proficiency test known as HSK (Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi) level 3 to level 6 they need to know certain amount of Chinese characters. According to the director of the Confucius Institute at the University of Zimbabwe first year students are expected to pass HSK level 1, second year students are expected to pass HSK level 2 and final year students are expected to pass HSK level 3¹. This is different from the situation in China where foreign students are expected to pass HSK level 4 or above after studying Chinese language for 1 year. This shows that the teaching approaches in Zimbabwe and China are different. Therefore, since the majority of students whose native languages are non-character based languages prefer using pinyin instead of characters it is necessary to critically examine the use of pinyin as a substitute of Chinese characters. In this paper it is emphasized that for students to fully understand Chinese language or improve their Chinese proficiency to HSK level 4 and above they have to learn and know Chinese characters.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Previous researches overemphasized on the challenges of learning Chinese characters rather than on the challenges caused by overdependence on learning Chinese pinyin. For instance the majority of linguists in and outside China seem to agree that one major factor that makes Chinese language difficulty is the complex writing system (Everson, 1998; Shi and Wan, 1998; Walker, 1989). This notion seems to affect both students and teachers of Chinese language, thus use of pinyin in teaching and learning Chinese language is tolerated when teaching foreign students yet for Chinese kids a strict approach is used that encourages students to learn Chinese characters as simple as one would learn the English alphabet.

There have been also considerable researches exploring errors made by foreign students when writing Chinese characters, for example Chen, Wang and Cai (2010). The majority of these researches normally argue that the reason why such errors are made is because students are used to non-character based languages. On the other hand, Lin and Collins (2012) noted that Japanese learners of Chinese acquire Chinese characters faster than English learners because of the greater phonological and orthographic similarities between Japanese and Chinese. Chung (2007) noted that native speakers of Chinese learn Chinese characters after they already know most of the phonological expressions and their meanings while learners of Chinese as a second language do not have this language foundation so that they learn the language along with the writing system. In other words students' native languages are regarded as the main cause of errors encountered by Chinese second language learners.

Pertaining to Chinese characters Koda (2004) noted that learning to read and write in Chinese as a second language requires different types of metalinguistic awareness than English. This implies that it is a matter of approach and attitude that helps in the process of acquisition of Chinese characters rather than knowledge of other languages. A detailed research about teaching Chinese orthography to Chinese language beginners done by Wong and Meng (2011) illustrated that the pedagogy adopted by different teachers directly impacted on the students' orthography learning motivation and eventually its learning outcome. It is almost apparent that the attitude that students might have towards Chinese orthography is in a way linked to the teachers' teaching approach.

Since Chinese language was introduced in Zimbabwe very little research has been done on the ways and methods that are being used to study Chinese language by Zimbabwean students and no research has been done to examine some

¹ Interview with Professor Liu Xiuyan, the Director of Confucius Institute at the University of Zimbabwe, 9th of March 2013.

of the difficulties faced by Zimbabwean students in acquiring Chinese characters. Considering the fact that the Zimbabwean students who learn Chinese language are adults and the fact that their first languages use writing symbols which are different from Chinese characters, the majority of students find it difficult to master Chinese characters thus they use pinyin as an alternative writing system for Chinese language.

This paper does not completely agree to the notion that Chinese characters are difficult, though characters are challenging (not difficult), the teaching approach and attitude created by both the teachers and students seem to play a critical role in the acquisition of Chinese characters. We argue that overdependence on pinyin makes acquisition of Chinese characters challenging. The argument is that Chinese pinyin is not an alternative writing system for Chinese language, thus this paper will examine the limitations of using pinyin as an alternative writing system for Chinese language.

Research Questions

During early stages of learning Chinese as a second language, simple phrases as the following ones are normally taught; *"Ni jiao shenme mingzi?"* (What is your name?), or such phrases as *"ni duo da le?"* (How old are you?), these phrases can be understood even without Chinese characters. However if someone writes; *"Ni baba shi mai shenme de?"* (What does your father sell? or what does your father buy?) This phrase is not clear unless we know the character for the word *"mai"* which can mean buy or sell depending on the character used. In the following phrase; *"Ni zhu zai nali?"* (You live there? Or where do you live?), though the question seem to be obvious but the meaning cannot be readily understood unless we know the character for the word *"na"* which can mean "there" (那) or "where" (哪) depending on the character. Therefore, this research is based on the premise that; use of pinyin both in teaching and learning Chinese should be defined in terms of its actual use range and its impact to the acquisition of the Chinese writing system. The main argument is that Chinese pinyin is not an alternative writing system for Chinese language, therefore since many students studying Chinese language in Zimbabwe and probably across Africa and beyond seem to embrace pinyin as a substitute for characters the question is;

- i. Does pinyin really help to acquire Chinese language?
- ii. If it does help, then to what extent does it help?
- iii. What could be the impact of pinyin on the acquisition of Chinese characters?

This research attempts to answer the above questions, in order to design a proper teaching approach that will help students to acquire the proper Chinese writing system.

III. METHODOLOGY

Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used in this research. Initially a questionnaire method targeted at 40 Zimbabwean students was used to extract primary data about Zimbabwean students' use of pinyin and their attitude towards characters. Questions requiring students to provide information related to problems they encounter, strategies they use to master Chinese characters and to provide suggestions for the development of teaching and learning method that will help students to master Chinese characters.

Students' notebooks, internet social networks such as facebook, whatsapp and skype were used to collect raw data on how Zimbabwean students use pinyin. The use of pinyin was evaluated through examining the preciseness of information in various pinyin phrases in dialogues, chat conversations and compositions.

A short survey was also conducted to find out students' character recognition abilities. 20 HSK level 3 students participated in this survey. Only ten Chinese words with similar pinyin and different pronunciation as well as those characters which look almost alike were used for this survey. Since participants for this survey were too busy with preparations for their 2013 end of term examinations, a limited number of characters were used, so that they will not feel like they are being disturbed.

IV. RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The research findings were grouped into 3 sections;- the first section is an examination of use of pinyin during internet chatting, the second is use of pinyin in composition writing, and the last part is the results of character recognition survey.

Use of pinyin as a substitute of Chinese characters in Internet chatting

Internet chatting has become a distinct form of discourse with characteristics unique to the medium (Campbell and Scott, 2000). It should be noted that Internet chat dialogue is characterized by short and precise dialogues, spelling errors, and short forms. Chinese language learners at the University of Zimbabwe sometimes use Chinese pinyin during chatting either with their friends or teachers. The researchers kept some internet chat records with some University of Zimbabwe intermediate Chinese language learners. Analysis of the use of pinyin during internet chatting revealed some major limitations associated with use of pinyin as a substitute of Chinese characters. For all the chats which were collected, it was apparent that use of pinyin in chat is limited to simple conversations. Below we will give various misunderstandings that may arise from use of pinyin as a substitute of Chinese characters;

Misunderstand due to use of pinyin instead of characters

Below is a chat record where the use of pinyin on certain critical words instead of characters causes

misunderstanding and as a result the flow of dialogue seems to be discontinuous.

[2013/2/16 9:06:46] Marry: haojiubujianpengyou
 [2013/2/16 10:46:00] Charles: haojiu bujian ,zuijin mang ma ?
 [2013/2/16 10:46:23] Marry: bijiaomang
 [2013/2/16 10:46:31] Marry: meitian jian pengyou
 [2013/2/16 10:46:37] Marry: meitian qu dagong
 [2013/2/16 10:46:44] Marry: jintian ye you dagong
 [2013/2/16 10:47:44] Charles: haha jiayou pengyou ,wo meitian kan
 nimen de zhaopian xiang nimen le haha

Figure 1: Use of confusing words

In the above dialogue there are 3 words which cannot be understood unless characters are used. The first word /jian/ can be interpreted in various ways, for instance the same pinyin /jian/ can refer to “监” which is to supervise, “减” to reduce, “捡” to pick up, “拣” to select, “见” to see, etcetera. The above 5 words which use the same pinyin /jian/ are all verbs and when we use them in the phrase “meitian qu jian pengyou” they seem to make sense. “Meitian qu” means “everyday go” while “pengyou” means “friend or friends” so in this case we have about five possibilities as shown below;

1. Everyday go to supervise friend(s),
2. Everyday go to reduce friend(s)
3. Everyday go to select friend(s)
4. Everyday go to pick up friend(s)
5. Everyday go to see friend(s)

As can be seen from the above examples, we are left wondering what this person is doing; is this person supervising friends, reducing friends, selecting friends, picking up friends or going up to see friends? If characters were used the meaning would be clear and straight-forward. The second confusing word is “dagong” in the phrase “meitian qu....” (Everyday go to....). This phrase can only be understood when the context is known. This word “dagong” can be a noun as in the following words “大宫” Grand palace, “大工” Dakon, “大公” grand dyke, “大弓” long bow, and it can be a verb and a noun combine as in the word “打工” to do part time work. In the above phrase one is also left wondering whether this person is going to the grand palace or any of the nouns mentioned above or this person going to do part-time work.

The last confusing word is the one represented by the pinyin /xiang/ in the phrase “wo meitian kan nimen de zhaopian xiang nimen le”. The first part of the phrase is clear; we understand this person looks at some photos, but due to the fact that “xiang” can mean to miss “想”, resembling “像”, to enjoy “享” or look at and appraise “相”, it is therefore confusing.

In all the above examples Chinese language beginners may find it easy to understand if both parties are beginners with limited vocabulary, because this will normally imply that they do not know a lot of vocabulary with similar pinyin. As one begins to acquire more Chinese vocabulary more and more words with similar pinyin will also increase. As Li (2005) already noted that Chinese language has a total of 411 syllables, therefore it can be concluded that if somebody take pinyin as the substitute of Chinese characters the learners’ vocabulary is likely to be limited to 411 monosyllabic Chinese words. This is probably the reason why Chinese language students at the University of Zimbabwe seem to be limited between HSK level 1 and 3 even after studying Chinese for 3 years, while those students studying Chinese in China can pass HSK 4 within 1 year.

Misunderstanding due to use of a new word in pinyin

In Chinese language once one is an intermediate Chinese language speaker, it is rare to find new words very confusing, because it is possible to guess the meaning of the words using the characters used in a given phrase. However, in one of the internet chats it was clear that it is not easy to guess the meaning of new Chinese words especially if the words are written in pinyin. This is mainly because Chinese pinyin might be same but being pronounced differently, thus the characters will be same. From the following dialogue it is difficult to guess the meaning of the word /晚安 wanan/(goodnight) mainly because it was written in pinyin.

4 月 29 日 下午 10:23 - Tanua Ngwenya: Xianzi wo xie hanzi.....hen nan
 4 月 29 日 下午 10:26 - 李开明: jiayou
 4 月 29 日 下午 11:47 - 李开明: wanan
 4 月 30 日 上午 12:08 - Tanua Ngwenya: Bu dong
 4 月 30 日 上午 12:49 - 李开明: nali budong?
 4 月 30 日 上午 1:33 - Tanua Ngwenya: Wanan?
 4 月 30 日 上午 1:36 - 李开明: it means good night

Figure 2: Showing the use of a new word in pinyin

In this dialogue the word /晚安 wanan/ was new to this learner and it was difficult to grasp the meaning, and that is why the participant asked “wanan?”, even if he/she had searched in the dictionary it was difficult to guess the meaning. This is because there are three words with the same pinyin “wanan” and their meanings are different, these words are “万安” (Macron) which is a name of a place in China, “湾岸” which means a curving bay shore and “晚安”, which means good night. One might argue that even if characters were used, the student might not have understood this word, however it should be noted that once one has started to learn characters it is simple to connect between simple characters and complex characters, the character for wan “晚” which means night and “安” which means peace, are simple characters such that if one combines the meaning, then it is quite easy to guess the meaning of these two characters.

Misunderstanding due to missing letters on pinyin

Unlike in English, when using pinyin for chat any simple spelling errors will lead to total confusing. According to the Cambridge research team the order of words does not matter as long the first and the last letters are at the right place², however this is not true for Chinese language because any simple spelling error of pinyin will distort the meaning as can be seen in the following examples which were collected during internet chats:

3 月 14 日 上午 1:24 - 李开明: oh naxhong shouji bu zhichi zhongen
 3 月 14 日 上午 1:24 - 李开明: oh naxhong shouji bu zhichi zhongen
 3 月 14 日 上午 1:25 - 李开明: zhong ...n bushi xhong
 3 月 14 日 上午 1:27 - Gladys: Bushi xhong shi original nokia
 3 月 14 日 上午 1:29 - 李开明: tht was my typing error. was saying..
 nazhong meaning tht type..
 3 月 14 日 上午 1:30 - Gladys: I am lost

Figure 3: Missing letter

In the above chat record, a slight error on some pinyin words led to total confusion, in this case /nazhong那种/ which means “that type” was typed as /naxhong/, and /zhongwen中文/(Chinese) was typed as /zhongen/ thus making the word /nazhong/ (that type) sound like a name phone, at last the conversation switched back to English in order to explain the typing error. We can compare effects of spelling errors with some English examples shown in the following dialogue;

[2013/2/7 0:08:34] FAITH: i cant acesss my email ♪
 [2013/3/7 0:08:35] Rebecca: so wath are you goin to do? ♪
 [2013/3/7 0:08:36] FAITH: juest gve up. ♪
 [2013/3/7 0:08:46] Rebecca: good idea!, how is Renda? ♪
 [2013/3/7 0:11:00] FAITH: its good ,but a bit boring haha ,now i have a very long
 time without going to church ,snce new year ,i feel vey bad. ♪
 [2013/3/7 0:28:48] Rebecca: good nigt ,i am sleepinf! ♪
 [2013/3/7 0:29:46] FAITH: good night ♪

Figure 4: Spelling errors in English chats

As can be seen from the above dialogue a short conversation in English with about 8 spelling errors seem to flow well without any misunderstanding. The word “access” was written as “acesss”, “sleeping” was written as “sleepinf”, “what” was written as “wath”, while “just” was written as “juest”, etcetera. All these errors seem not to affect the meaning of words as it could have been in Chinese pinyin.

Misunderstanding due to missing word in pinyin conversation

Below is a chat record for Whatsapp dialogue in pinyin where a simple word that was omitted and the meaning of the whole phrase became confusing;

² Research team at Cambridge University, Discussion of the meme by Matt Davis of Cambridge University

6 月 3 日 下午 2:35 - Tanua : Xiexie, Pengyou ni hao ma?
 6 月 3 日 下午 2:38 - 李开明: wo feichang hao, nine?
 6 月 3 日 下午 2:38 - Tanua : Wo hen hao
 6 月 3 日 下午 2:39 - 李开明: ni zai gan shenme?
 6 月 3 日 下午 2:40 - Tanua : Wo xiuxi jia
 6 月 3 日 下午 2:45 - 李开明: what does that mean?
 6 月 3 日 下午 2:46 - Tanua : Resting
 6 月 3 日 下午 2:49 - 李开明: where?
 6 月 3 日 下午 2:50 - Tanua Ngwenya: Hme, now on vacation

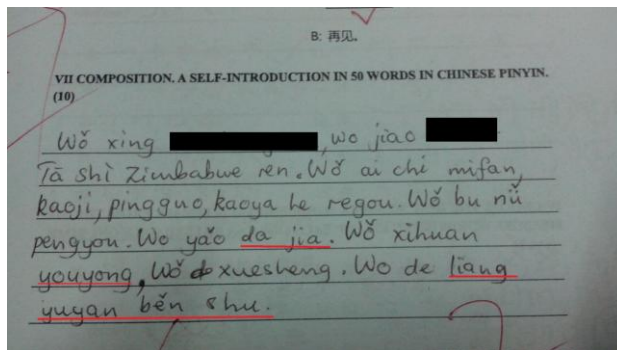
Figure 5: Missing word in pinyin conversation

In the above chat record it can be seen how confusing it is when a single word is missing in pinyin. In English, it is possible to omit certain words or use wrong spellings without affecting the meaning of the phrase. In the above chat with one of the University of Zimbabwe intermediate student the researcher got confused when the student said “wo xiuxi jia”. Obviously this student made a grammatical error but it was not possible to guess the meaning as it could be in English. The phrase “wo xiuxi jia” could be “我休息在家 或 我休假了”. It was difficult to figure out whether the student added one word or there was a missing word. If characters were used the word /jia/ could not have been confusing. If it was 家 one could figure out that there is a missing word and if it was 假 then it could be possible to figure out that there is an extra word which was added by mistake.

In the above pinyin dialogue the two people chatting misunderstood each other until English was used to explain what the other person was trying to say. Apart from internet chatting University of Zimbabwe students also use pinyin during their examinations and home works. Below, is an extract from students’ composition which shows the limitations of pinyin as a substitute of Chinese characters.

Use of pinyin in composition writing

Use of pinyin when writing compositions seem to pose similar challenges as those observed above as can be seen in the following paragraph adapted from one of compositions by University of Zimbabwe intermediate student;



Adapted from Students' composition homework
 Figure 6: An extract of pinyin composition

From the above composition it is difficult to understand the underlined words such as “dajia”, “youyong”, “liang” etcetera. This is mainly because use of pinyin does not give enough hint of the meaning of a word even if tone marks are used. The phrase “Wo yao dajia” we can understand that this person wants something from the common phrase “wo yao..” (I want..). However we are not sure of what he or she wants due to the fact that “dajia” could mean any of the following words, “打假” to crack down on counterfeit goods, “打价” to bargain, “大家” everyone and it can be “打架” to fight. So does this person want to crack down on counterfeit goods, or want to bargain? Does he want to fight or he wants everyone? The same questions can be raised again on the word “youyong”. We know that the person likes something from the common phrase “wo xihuan..” (I like..), but we can never be sure of what this person likes unless characters are used. “Youyong” could mean being useful if written as “有用”, it could mean a name of a person if it is written as “尤勇”, also it could mean stragglers and disbanded soldiers if it is written as “游勇” and it could mean to swim if it is written as “游泳”.

The above analysis of the challenges of using pinyin as a substitute of characters shows that the pinyin system cannot replace Chinese characters. Use of pinyin in composition writing and chatting is limited to simple greetings and some other daily conversations only. The University of Zimbabwe students are used to pinyin which use Latin letters similar to those used in Zimbabwean official languages such as Shona and English. During this research, all 40 students who responded to the questionnaire think that Chinese characters are very difficult thus they use Chinese Pinyin to replace

Chinese characters. Students are used to associate what they pronounce with Latin letters, thus the majority of students end up writing pinyin as a substitute for characters which are represented phonetically with similar pinyin, for example for the following words; “新, 信 and 心” students would prefer to write the pinyin /xin/ but these words are different in meaning depending on the tone and character radicals.

In this paper we do not attempt to undermine the role of pinyin in teaching Chinese as a second language, rather our main aim is to show that pinyin should be basically used as a tool for the acquisition of the sound system instead of being a substitute of characters. The following section is a presentation of the results of the character recognition survey for the University of Zimbabwe students.

Results for Character recognition survey

The results of the character recognition survey below shows that participants had challenges in recognizing certain simple Chinese characters and these errors could be tracked back to the knowledge of pinyin. 20 participants from the second year and third year class were asked to read Chinese characters and their errors were divided into; failure to recognize the character and misrecognition due to similarities with other characters. The results were calculated and given in percentages using the following formula: number of participants who had similar error divided by 20 multiply by 100. The table below shows error percentages for 20 HSK level 3 students.

TABLE 1:
CHARACTER RECOGNITION EXERCISE
(ALL PERCENTAGES ROUNDED OFF TO THE WHOLE NUMBER)

	Correct reading %	Wrong reading%	Type of error
差不多	100%		None
行业	56%	44%	行 read as /xing/ instead of /hang/
出差	33%	67%	差 read as /cha/ instead of /chai/
行为	80%	20%	行 read as /hang/ instead of /xing/
未	40%	60%	44% Could not recognize the character
			16% Read the character as /未 wei/ instead of /mo/
末	28%	72%	44% Could not recognize the character
			28% Read the character as /末 mo/ instead of /wei/
士	46%	54%	20% Failed to recognize the character
			34% Read the character as /士 tu/ instead of /shi/
士	57%	43%	18% Failed to recognize the character
			25% Read the character as /shi/ instead of /tu/
男	100%		none
南	60%	40%	Failed to read the character

The first 4 words had similar characters which are read differently, the aim was to find out if students could recognize the differences in pronunciation depending on the combination of characters. The characters “未, 末, 士 and 士” were meant to find out if participants could differentiate between simple characters which look alike. The last 2 characters were meant to test if students could read simple characters with similar pinyin but different character and different meaning. Below is a brief description of the above results.

For a “pinyin addicted student”³ it is difficult to grasp the complexity of Chinese characters. For instance there are certain characters with different pronunciations depending on the environment they are used, for example the character “行” which can be produced as /háng/ when used in such words as /银行 yínháng/ or /行业 hángyè/ and it can be produced as /xíng/ in such words as /行为 xíngwéi/ or /行李 xínglǐ/. In our survey which targeted HSK level 3 students it was found that 44% of the participants read the word “行业” as /xíngyè/. A high percentage of about 67% was also recorded for those students who read the character “差” in “出差” as they would read it in the word “差不多”. These participants read the word /出差 chūchāi/ as /chūchà/ mainly because they know the word “差” in /chà bú duō/.

It is apparent that when the knowledge of pinyin is used as the base for learning Chinese characters, it is extremely difficult to adjust the mind of the students to get used to the complexity of Chinese characters. In the above case students seem to find it difficult to master 2 different pronunciations for the same character mainly because pinyin system seem to imply that a given syllable has a fixed pronunciation. However, according to Ma (2006) Chinese characters are independent of their pronunciation.

There are some Chinese characters which look almost similar as those 4 simple characters used above, however the meaning for such characters might not be related in any way. Above 60% of the participants failed to read the characters 未 and 末, while about 16 percent confused the two characters. Considering the fact that, these characters are simple characters, it can be argued that University of Zimbabwe students are not yet used to the nature of Chinese characters. For simple characters 士 and 士 above 40% of the students also failed to recognize the characters with some of the participants confusing these 2 characters.

From these results it can be concluded that the teaching methods for Chinese characters at the University of Zimbabwe might be taking a random approach where students would base their character acquisition on pinyin instead

³ We use the term “pinyin addicted students” to refer to those students who over depends on pinyin when learning Chinese language.

on the hierarchy of characters. In this paper it is argued that, teaching of Chinese characters should not be confusing if simple characters are taught first before the complex characters are taught, just like how English vocabulary is taught. Failure to recognize such simple characters by HSK level 3 students seem to suggest that, students learn those characters they find useful for examination purposes only.

The last two words 男 and 南 also give evidence that the majority of students seem to learn one syllable for one character. For instance, in this case all the students recognized the character 男 (boy) but 40% of them could not recognize the character 南 despite the fact that both characters are simple characters and they use the same pinyin /nan/.

This paper shows that though some foreign students believe that Chinese characters are more complex than pinyin but in actual sense they are mistaken because contrary to this notion pinyin is rather more ambiguous than Chinese characters. Use of pinyin in written compositions, chats and so forth is only limited to few short and common phrases however when we try to write long and complex phrases in pinyin the information conveyed is quite confusing.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

In this paper we strongly believe that the notion that Chinese characters are difficult is just a matter of attitude and addiction to pinyin. Since pinyin was designed to help students acquire the phonetic system of Chinese language rather than the acquisition of vocabulary and grammar, we therefore recommend that in teaching Chinese language, pinyin should be limited to the first few weeks. Yaming Ma (ibid) suggests that Chinese characters should be taught according to the character formation system and once learners have a good grasp of radicals and simple characters, they will be able to analyze most of the compound characters they encounter, and to memorize new characters in a logical way. This method follows a simple principle where simple characters are taught first. Contrary to this teaching approach, University of Zimbabwe students learn characters based on the pinyin they encounter in short dialogues thus pinyin remains the main source of inspiration rather than the character's form and iconic nature. This explains why the participants of the character recognition survey would fail to differentiate between simple characters.

In this paper we recommend that students should be reminded that pinyin is not a writing system for Chinese language but a phonetic system, thus students will be always conscious of what they are supposed to learn. Chinese language teachers should know that to motivate students by allowing them to use pinyin as a substitute for characters gives false hopes to learners. We therefore, suggest that it is better to motivate students by teaching them simple characters which are easy to remember than teaching a lot of vocabulary in pinyin.

For the University of Zimbabwe students there are many other factors that should be taken into account along with the character-oriented teaching method. For instance, although Chinese language was introduced in Zimbabwe 6 or more years ago, the majority of students who are learning Chinese language do not major in Chinese language only as is the case in the American, Asian and European countries. Students studying Chinese language are either part time students who just want to learn Chinese for a short period or those who are studying for bachelor's degrees and opted for Chinese as their third course. For these students the time to study Chinese both in class and after class is not enough, this probably makes it difficult for students to practice writing Chinese characters. In this paper we recommend that apart from changing the teaching methods, there is also need to change the whole system in terms of students' recruitment. Offering an honors degree in Chinese where students will be studying Chinese language only will help improve both the teaching and learning of Chinese in Zimbabwe

Limitations and Future researches

Even though this study explored the various problems associated with over-dependence on use of pinyin during the teaching and learning of Chinese language, it still has some limitations. Firstly, the researchers could not experiment with character oriented teaching method in order to establish the effectiveness of this suggested method. There is a possibility that if characters are over-emphasized some students will give up learning Chinese. This research could not establish how best Chinese language teachers should balance between teaching pinyin and teaching Chinese characters.

It is our hope that future researches will focus on experiments related to teaching methods so as to establish the best way of teaching Chinese characters. Attempts can be made to explore the methods of teaching characters which are used when teaching native speakers of Chinese.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper we concluded that though the use of pinyin seem to be motivational to Chinese language beginners because of its resemblance to the orthography of students' native languages, however, it has negative impact towards students' future acquisition of Chinese language. Firstly Chinese pinyin affects the students' ability to acquire more Chinese vocabulary. A student who knows pinyin only will find it difficult to grasp those Chinese words which can be differentiated by characters only such as “心 and 新”, “人 and 仁” etcetera.

Secondly overdependence on pinyin seem to make students feel like each syllable should have a unique meaning thus when they learn simple characters they end up taking each syllable as a single character. The character recognition survey showed that the majority of students would find it difficult to read those characters with similar syllables (as depicted by the pinyin) which are used to refer to different things. A number of students also failed to recognize some characters which are read differently in different contexts mainly due to the fact that students are used to pinyin system

where pronunciation of a given word is fixed. Apart from this it was also apparent that some students could not recognize certain characters which look almost alike such as “土 (tu) and 士 (shi)”, “未(wei) and 末 (mo)”. This is a sign that students are used to pinyin system where only a few letters look alike such as the small letter /L (l)/ and capital letter/ i(I)/, and probably letters /b/ and /d/. Unlike in English, a lot of Chinese characters look alike such that learners should have the ability to visualize the pictorial representation of meaning in the character rather than the form of the letter.

It is strongly argued that over dependence on pinyin does not help students to develop a strong base for the acquisition of Chinese language; however this paper does not provide the best method for teaching or learning Chinese characters. It is our hope that future researches will explore ways of balancing between teaching of pinyin and characters in order to promote the teaching and learning of Chinese in Zimbabwe and other countries where pinyin is dominantly used.

APPENDIX

LIST OF WORDS USED FOR THE CHARACTER RECOGNITION SURVEY

差不多	行业
出差	行为
未	末
士	土
男	南

PARTICIPANTS OF THE SURVEY

Males	10	HSK 3	19-24 years
Females	10	HSK 3	19-24 years

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Herbert Mushangwe: Male, born in Zimbabwe, 1981 studied Chinese language at Tianjin Normal University and obtained his Masters in Teaching Chinese as a Second Language at the same Institution in 2011. He is a Chinese language LECTURER in the

Confucius Institute at the University of Zimbabwe. Currently, he is at Hebei University studying towards PHD in Chinese Linguistics mainly focusing on Teaching Chinese as a Second language.

Godfrey Chisoni: Male, born on the 27th of April 1988 in Zimbabwe, studied Bachelor of Arts at the University of Zimbabwe, graduated with a Masters in Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages (MTSCOL) in 2013. He is a LECTURER at the University of Zimbabwe, Confucius Institute. Currently, he is at Jilin University pursuing doctoral studies in Linguistics and Applied Linguistics, mainly focusing on the teaching of Chinese language and culture to speakers of other languages.

Brain Dominance and Test Format: A Case of Vocabulary

Zahra Kordjazi

Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, International Branch, Iran

Behzad Ghonsooly

Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, International Branch, Iran

Abstract—This research was conducted to investigate the relationship between brain dominance and test format. This relationship was taken into consideration to see whether examinees' hemispheric preferences affect their performance on different vocabulary test formats or not. The research data were collected from a sample of 53 Iranian language learners using the Style of Learning and Thinking (SOLAT) questionnaire, which is a tool that measures the inclination toward the right-, integrated-, and left thinking. The researchers also collected data on students' performance on eighty vocabulary test items with different formats including multiple-choice synonyms, multiple-choice antonyms, word-for-word translation, and picture identification. Statistical analyses revealed that brain dominance is a factor which affects students' performance when taking different vocabulary test items. Right-thinking test-takers outperformed integrated and left-thinking test-takers on the picture identification test. Left-thinking test-takers, on the other hand, outperformed the other respondents on multiple-choice synonyms, multiple-choice antonyms, and word-for-word translation.

Index Terms—brain dominance, test format, multiple-choice test, translation test, picture identification test

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning and thinking styles have been related to individual's hemispheric preference (Springer & Deutsch, 1997). Hemisphericity as a learning style is specified as the tendency of an individual to count on "the processes associated with one rather than the other cerebral hemisphere in information processing" (Albaili, 1996, p. 427). The left hemisphere is mainly involved in processing the data in logical and sequential ways. The right hemisphere, on the other hand, deals with processing the information holistically and nonlinearly (Torrance, 1982).

Much of the theory of left and right hemisphericity has been made through treating some patients. The brains of these patients were damaged as a result of some accidents. Those who were damaged on the left part of their brain gave the indication that language is located in the left hemisphere. The left hemisphere of the brain is concerned with language by way of analysis and abstraction, while the right hemisphere apprehends language as more general patterns, either auditory or visual (Willing, 1988).

Hartnett (1980, cited in Alptekin & Atakan, 1990, p. 135) categorizes students into two major groups regarding the various features of cognitive style that have been discovered. "The first group is said to be field-independent, verbal, analytic, serialist, and sequential-successive. In contrast, the second group is described as field-dependent, imaginal, relational, holist, and simultaneous-synthetic". Hartnett (1980) calls cognitive modes of the former group as analytical and to those of the latter as holistic. Second language learners are no exception to the mentioned categorization. "Some prefer to use a more analytic approach to second language learning problems, while others prefer to tackle them in a predominantly holistic manner" (Alptekin & Atakan, 1990, p. 135).

Noticeably, assessment which stands in a dynamic interaction with learning (Danili & Reid, 2006) can be expected to be influenced by test-takers' learning style. Language learners' performance on different tests is shown to be affected by learning and cognitive styles (Bachman, 1990; Kunnan, 1998). While the effect of certain learning styles such as field-independence/dependence on the performance of test-takers has been shown in the literature, the extent to which test-takers performance on different tests is affected by brain dominance has not to the best knowledge of the present researchers been studied. It should be born in mind that assessing learners with proper test formats and enabling them to have their best possible performance can increase their motivation (Gipps, 1994).

As Johnstone (2003) reminds, assessment must be humane. Humanity takes into consideration factors that influence students' performance, such as cognitive and psychological traits of individual personality (Danili & Reid, 2006). Besides, language testing as a growing profession should embrace postmodernism for this standpoint can alert and sensitize stakeholders on the differences regarding beliefs sets, styles, and strategies in a given society. Hamp-Lyons (2000, p. 581) cogently expands upon this:

Under the influence of postmodernism, we cannot avoid acknowledging the contingent nature of knowledge nor the fact that different stakeholder groups will have competing goals and values. The combination of expanded views of stakeholders and accountability with growing acceptance that the truth is not 'out there' but in us has made many

language testing professionals question what they do and how they do it: this is what I mean when I refer to 'ethical language testing'.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Individual learners are classified according to their own preferred ways of interacting with, taking in, and processing new stimuli or information. These preferred ways which are called learning styles (Hopper, 2010) have been shown to affect language learning. Leaver (1986) suggests that left-brain thinkers act on grammatical structure and contrastive analysis with ease, while right-brain thinkers are good at learning language intonation and rhythms. Left-brain thinkers look to strategies that involve dividing words and sentences into parts; right-brain thinkers favor holistic strategies such as guessing at words and hunting for key notions.

A large body of research has been conducted to relate left-right hemisphericity to personality traits, and academic achievement (Torrance, McCarthy, & Kolesinski, 1988; Torrance, Reynolds, Ball, & Riegel, 1978; Torrance, Reynolds, Riegel, & Ball, 1977). However, studies into the relationship of hemisphericity and learning styles in learning a second/foreign language are sporadic. For instance the role of hemisphericity in pronunciation ability was examined by Guiora, Buchtel, Herold, Homburg, and Woken (1983) who studied the extent to which the right hemisphere might be activated during the task of listening to and pronouncing tone language sounds. Analysis of the results indicated a correlation between the measure of hemisphere efficiency and approximation of native-like pronunciation. The researchers concluded that right hemispheric activity can predict the quality of pronunciation in a foreign language. The findings of a study conducted by Dreyer, Wissing, and Wissing (1996) disclosed an intricate pattern of relationships between cognitive styles and aspects of pronunciation accuracy: "in the case of perception of final consonants, field independence, and right hemispheric dominance was related to better performance, while in the case of production (aspiration of initial consonants), field dependence, and left hemispheric dominance was related to better performance" (Dreyer et al, 1996, p. 37).

Glezerman and Balkoski (1999) proposed their model of the organization and representation of word meaning in the cerebral cortex (Figure 1). The authors distinguished the left hemispheric word meaning and its right hemispheric equivalent. Accordingly, they believe that the meaning of a word has two components: empirical and categorical. The first component corresponds to the psychological term 'object reference' and the second component corresponds to 'concept'. The right hemispheric equivalent of the empirical component of word meaning is the object image. "In normal individuals, word sound (phonological code) is directly connected with the empirical and categorical components (left hemisphere) and through them with the right hemispheric equivalents", based on Glezerman and Balkoski (1999, p. 57).

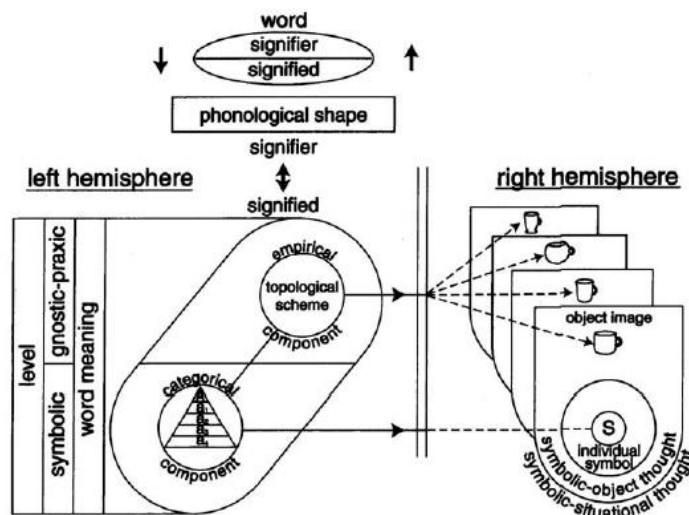


Figure 1. Model of cerebral organization of word meaning. From Glezerman, T. B., & Balkoski, V. (1999). *Language, thought, and the brain*. New York: Kluwer Academic/Plenum.

Studies with regard to the relationship between hemisphericity and L2 achievement have not been supportive. Alptekin and Atakan (1990) explored the relationship between L2 achievement and two learner characteristics, field dependence-independence and hemisphericity. They determined subjects' trait-level hemisphericity (a stable tendency to activate a given hemisphere) by means of their conjugate lateral eye movements (CLEM). Field-independent subjects did better on the discrete-point and cloze tests. Hemisphericity, was not related to second language success. A decade later similar results were obtained by Tendero (2000) who investigated the relationship between the hemispheric dominance (HD) and English proficiency in the four macro skills of the college students vis-a-vis their age, gender and area of specialization. Seemingly, the subjects' hemispheric dominance had no effect on L2 achievement in the four skills. But, it influences their success when they were grouped based on age and area of specialization.

Research also has shown the relationship between hemisphericity and translation ability. Research by Fabbro, Gran, Basso, and Bava (1990) showed that both hemispheres are activated during simultaneous interpretation. That is, linguistic functions were more equally balanced between left and right hemispheres in translators than in non-translators. In a similar vein, Lambert (1993) scrutinized mastery in interpretation as a function of whether the data was given bilaterally or unilaterally, to the left or to the right ear. In this study with subjects performing a simultaneous interpretation task, the researcher found fewer errors when the input from the second language to the first language was presented to one ear rather than to both ears. There was, too, a tendency for the left ear condition to be better than the right ear condition. Hamers, Lemieux, and Lambert (2002) investigated the role played by experience, age and age of bilinguality, and found that all possible factors affect the hemispheric control of interpretation. Findings revealed that the more experienced interpreters interpreted better, regardless of ear of input. But the obtained findings revealed the possibility that hemispheric preferences for linguistic analysis might be much more under an interpreter's voluntary control than first expected.

Research into the relation between test format and test takers' performance are not few (Shohamy, 1984, 1997; Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Brantmeier, 2005; Bowles and Salthouse, 2008). The form of a test is related to its physical aspect that relies on the form of the items making up the test (Cohen, 1994; Fulcher & Davidson, 2007). Test format is one of the central factors which accounts for differences in test takers' performance (Shohamy, 1984, 1997; Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Brantmeier, 2005). A number of researchers have directed their attention to test format in the fields of language learning and educational measurement.

Bowles and Salthouse (2008) examined four vocabulary test formats (including, picture identification, produce-the-definition, multiple-choice synonym) and their relations to age and cognitive abilities, including reasoning, spatial visualization, memory, and speed. In earlier adulthood, picture identification had the strongest growth, and produce-the-definition the weakest. In later adulthood, picture identification had the strongest decline, and multiple-choice synonyms the least (Bowles & Salthouse, 2008, p. 366). The four formats differed in their relation to other cognitive variables.

Apparently, relationships between the left-right style of thinking and the test format have not been investigated before. The aim of the current research is to take into consideration these kinds of relationships. For this reason, it would be a worthwhile research endeavor in bringing into light the importance of brain dominance as a factor in vocabulary test success.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Is there a significant relationship between hemispheric preferences and performance of upper-intermediate and advanced language learners on different vocabulary test formats?
2. Is there a significant difference between the means of whole brain (bilateral), left brain, and right brain groups, with respect to performance of upper-intermediate and advanced language learners on different vocabulary test formats?

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. *Participants*

The participants of the present study were 53 Iranian English learners chosen out of 79 randomly selected English learners from two language institutes in Sari (Iran) based on their PET language proficiency test scores. The Preliminary English Test (PET) is an international exam sanctioning a certain level of mastery of the English language. All of the participants enjoyed upper-intermediate and advanced English proficiency and were familiar with the four test formats which were the concern of this research. Out of the 53 participants, 29 were female and 24 were male. Their age ranged from 16 to 36. Incidentally, all participants were rewarded for their cooperation. It must be noted that the dominant method of assessment in those two language institutes was multiple choice format. Assuredly, the subjects of the study were already familiar with this format. To ensure the subjects' capability to cope with translation and picture identification test formats, the researchers elaborated on the new formats prior to the exam session.

B. *Instrumentation*

In the current research, two instruments were used to collect data: the Style of Learning and Thinking (SOLAT) questionnaire (Torrance, McCarthy & Kolesinski, 1988) and a set of vocabulary test items. SOLAT is a research tool that is mainly used for determining a subject's brain hemisphere preference and learning style (Torrance, McCarthy & Kolesinski, 1988).

SOLAT was employed to determine participants' dominance in either the left cerebral hemisphere, right cerebral hemisphere or the integration of both. SOLAT is composed of 28 items. There are two parts for every item. Further, there are four different ways to answer. Examinees can either mark the first part if it defines them, mark the second part if it defines them, mark both parts if they feel that both describe them, or mark neither statement. In the questionnaire, one part describes an approach which is the characteristic for the left mode of thinking and the other part for the right mode of thinking. Marking both or any parts is have to do with the integrated thinking.

The second instrument was a vocabulary test with eighty items with four different formats including synonyms, antonyms, translation, and picture identification tests. The synonyms vocabulary test consisted of 20 multiple-choice items (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.707$). Examinees were instructed to circle the word that was most nearly the same in meaning to the target word. The antonyms vocabulary test (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.741$) was the same as the synonyms vocabulary test, except that the examinees were asked to circle the word most nearly opposite in meaning to the target word. For both tests, the score was the total number of items answered correctly.

The third test consisted of 20 word-for-word-translation items (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.695$). The examinees were given a target word, and asked to translate that word into Persian. Answers were scored either correct (score = 1) or incorrect (score = 0). Total score was the sum of the item scores.

The picture identification test consisted of 20 items (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.667$) and the examinees were asked to circle the word that identified and described the image. Responses were scored either correct (score = 1) or incorrect (score = 0). Total score was the sum of the item scores.

C. Procedure

In order to have a homogeneous group of 53 subjects, The Preliminary English Test (PET) was administered to 79 English language learners. Only those learners whose scores were one standard deviation above and below the mean of the normal distribution curve were selected for this research.

The SOLAT questionnaire was translated into Persian and reviewed by two experts in order to check the clarity of the sentences. The questionnaire, then, was back-translated into English. The comparison of both translated texts indicated a close resemblance in word choice and structure.

The examinees were required to fill in the questionnaire first. Then, they were asked to answer the vocabulary test which took 90 minutes.

V. RESULTS

For the analysis of the numerical data, the SPSS software was used. Four one-way ANOVAs were carried out on the scores of each test, with the three levels of Style of Learning and Thinking questionnaire (right-, integrated-, and left thinking) as independent factors. Games-Howell was applied as the post hoc test to determine the source of differences when significant ($P < 0.05$) main effects occurred since the test of homogeneity of variances indicated unequal variances.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR STYLE OF LEARNING AND THINKING MODES

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	left	17	32.1	32.1	32.1
	mixed	10	18.9	18.9	50.9
	right	26	49.1	49.1	100.0
	Total	53	100.0	100.0	

Table 1 shows that right-thinkers outnumbered integrated and left-thinkers.

TABLE 2
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR THE SYNONYM TEST

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	202.700	2	101.350	39.284	.000
Within Groups	128.998	50	2.580		
Total	331.698	52			

The ANOVA shows that there was a significant difference among the three groups in terms of their overall performance on the synonym test: $F(2, 27) = 39.284$, $P < 0.001$

TABLE 3
MULTIPLE COMPARISONS: THE RESULTS OF GAMES-HOWELL POST HOC TEST FOR THE SYNONYM TEST

(I) left_mixed _right	(J) left_mixed _right	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
left	mixed	2.14706	.91737	.092	-.3328	4.6269
	right	4.41629*	.37398	.000	3.5020	5.3306
mixed	left	-2.14706	.91737	.092	-4.6269	.3328
	right	2.26923	.90583	.072	-.1969	4.7354
right	left	-4.41629*	.37398	.000	-5.3306	-3.5020
	mixed	-2.26923	.90583	.072	-4.7354	.1969

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Games-Howell test was used to determine the source of differences. As Table 3 presents, there is a significant difference between right and left group in regard to the synonym test as the P value is small and less than 0.05. There is no significant difference between right and mixed group, as there is no difference between left and mixed group.

TABLE 4
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR THE ANTONYM TEST

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	161.900	2	80.950	29.624	.000
Within Groups	136.629	50	2.733		
Total	298.528	52			

The results from One-way ANOVA revealed that learners' performance differed significantly across the three groups: $F(2, 27) = 29.624$, $P < 0.001$

TABLE 5
MULTIPLE COMPARISONS: THE RESULTS OF GAMES-HOWELL POST HOC TEST FOR THE ANTONYM TEST

(I) left_mixed _right	(J) left_mixed _right	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
left	mixed	1.75294	.93668	.192	-.7693	4.2752
	right	3.92986*	.39652	.000	2.9586	4.9011
mixed	left	-1.75294	.93668	.192	-4.2752	.7693
	right	2.17692	.91885	.089	-.3238	4.6776
right	left	-3.92986*	.39652	.000	-4.9011	-2.9586
	mixed	-2.17692	.91885	.089	-4.6776	.3238

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The post hoc test, as Table 5 shows, indicated that there is a significant difference between right and left group regarding the antonym test as the P value is small and less than 0.05. Further, there is no significant difference between right and mixed group. There is no significant difference between left and mixed group as well.

TABLE 6
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR THE TRANSLATION TEST

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	175.583	2	87.792	31.490	.000
Within Groups	139.398	50	2.788		
Total	314.981	52			

The results from One-way ANOVA disclosed that learners' performance differed significantly across the left, right, and mixed groups: $F(2, 27) = 31.490$, $P < 0.001$

TABLE 7
MULTIPLE COMPARISONS: THE RESULTS OF GAMES-HOWELL POST HOC TEST FOR THE TRANSLATION TEST

(I) left_mixed _right	(J) left_mixed _right	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
left	mixed	1.75294	.94459	.197	-.7983	4.3042
	right	4.08371*	.39260	.000	3.1242	5.0432
mixed	left	-1.75294	.94459	.197	-4.3042	.7983
	right	2.33077	.93315	.072	-.2067	4.8682
right	left	-4.08371*	.39260	.000	-5.0432	-3.1242
	mixed	-2.33077	.93315	.072	-4.8682	.2067

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

As indicated in Table 7, Games-Howell test showed that there is a significant difference between right and left group in regard to the translation test. The difference between right and mixed groups is not statistically significant. The same is true for left and mixed group, statistically speaking.

TABLE 8
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR THE IMAGE TEST

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	212.345	2	106.172	41.269	.000
Within Groups	128.636	50	2.573		
Total	340.981	52			

The results from One-way ANOVA (Table 8) disclosed that performance differed significantly across the three sub-groups of brain dominance: $F(2, 27) = 41.269$, $P < 0.001$

TABLE 9
MULTIPLE COMPARISONS: THE RESULTS OF GAMES-HOWELL POST HOC TEST FOR THE IMAGE TEST

(I) left_mixed _right	(J) left_mixed _right	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
left	mixed	-2.34706	.95453	.075	-4.9268	.2327
	right	-4.53167*	.36737	.000	-5.4346	-3.6288
mixed	left	2.34706	.95453	.075	-.2327	4.9268
	right	-2.18462	.93300	.095	-4.7402	.3710
right	left	4.53167*	.36737	.000	3.6288	5.4346
	mixed	2.18462	.93300	.095	-.3710	4.7402

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

According to Table 9, there is a significant difference between the group consisted of right-thinkers and the one consisted of left-thinkers. However, there is no significant difference between right and mixed group, as there is no difference between left and mixed group.

VI. DISCUSSION

The specific aim of this study was to investigate the possible relationship between brain left-right thinking style and test format. Based on the above outcomes, brain dominance is an important factor in the performance of test-takers when taking different vocabulary test formats. Right-thinking test-takers outperformed integrated and left-thinking test-takers on the picture identification test. Left-thinking test-takers, on the other hand, outperformed the other respondents on multiple-choice synonyms, multiple-choice antonyms, and word-for-word translation. It is perfectly obvious that the format of tests in relation to the cognitive style of a person influences her/his performance. In other words, success on a vocabulary test is not solely a function of second language proficiency. Brain dominance as a non-linguistic factor influences the ability to answer vocabulary tests of different formats. The concept of brain dominance as a cognitive style allows researchers to give a concise description of individuals and describe their differences in learning and thinking style.

Given the already mentioned references, it must be further argued that the success of right-thinkers on picture identification test can be due to the fact the right hemisphere processes a whole cluster of stimuli at the same time. In fact, the nonverbal-holistic mode of this hemisphere guided the interpretation of the picture and, then, the selection of the correct word through grasping the visual/spatial relationships and, as a result, putting together the grasped stimuli to

understand the whole text. The features of right hemisphere lend themselves to simultaneous and global aspects of macrostructure processing, asserts Bloom (1994). On the contrary, the left hemisphere breaks down information into components in a linear and sequential manner. Left-brainers as detail-oriented thinkers approach the world by looking at the parts in the big picture. They prefer multiple choice items since these items require them to think of one thing at a time and select only one choice. For these reasons, left-brained subjects answered synonym and antonym multiple-choice questions successfully. Ylvisaker, Hibbard, and Feeney (2006) mention that word retrieval and word finding are particularly associated with the 'language zones' of the left hemisphere and with other parts of the frontal lobes that are associated with retrieval generally. The left-brainers performed better with the word-for-word translation test than the right-brainers. Here again the subjects had to work out a couple of first language words as choices, not on paper but in their minds, while translating the target word. And this stands similar to the mental processes put to work in synonym and antonym multiple choice tests. Word-for-word translation, furthermore, requires morpho-syntactic processing of the source lexicon and, thus, test-takers need to focus on the microstructures (i.e. morpho-syntactic and lexical elements) to perform sequential information processing, thereby counting upon the left hemisphere. Based on Bloom (1994), left hemisphere strategies are likely better suited to the successive and analytic aspects of microstructure processing of text. Normally, the left part of the brain is involved when it comes to word-for-word translation and that is why the left-brainers were more successful in taking the translation test than the right-brainers.

As this research brings to the fore, each testing tool may need different cognitive processes and, thus, it is very important to have several assessment formats of the same construct in order to delve into the nature of the construct besides the necessary cognitive processes involved. Identification of these processes can provide hints on fully grasping the construct, highlight Bowles and Salthouse (2008). Since test format can be in favor of either right or left brainers, the test makers should take into consideration multiple formats of vocabulary tests and develop tests that contain a balanced number of items for the left-brained and right-brained students. In order to do this, the tester must lessen the number of the multiple choice items because they cater only to the left-brained students and include enough items for the right-brained students such as open-ended questions, questions which call for interpretation of images and body language, object manipulation, intuitive problem- solving, expression of feelings and the like.

Indubitably, test format affects test performance (Shohamy, 1984; Wolf, 1993; Kobayashi, 2002; Bowles & Salthouse, 2008; In'nami & Koizumi, 2009). Bachman and Palmer (1996, p. 46) are of the opinion that "the characteristics of the tasks used are always likely to affect test scores to some degree, so that there is virtually no test that yields only information about the ability we want to measure". Hence, task characteristics should be taken seriously and controlled for their effects cannot be cancelled. The test should not disadvantage any examinee and, in consequence, be free from any sort of bias in order to be fair.

Theories from the field of educational psychology can be resourceful in developing language tests. It is a well-grounded discovery that learning from a text combined with images is more beneficial than learning just from a simple text. For instance, the dual coding theory elaborated by Paivio (1986) suggests that the human minds' own two independent channels for sorting out verbal and visual information. Understanding and preserving of the information are more likely to be enhanced when the two channels interact and, thus, ease the integration of both sorts of information into a coherent mental representation. In this study, right-thinkers outnumbered integrated and left-thinkers. However, in education left thinking is mostly considered as a norm. It is time to include more images in teaching and testing methods in order to serve the pedagogical needs of visual-spatial thinkers. Pictures can be added to the test items to represent real life situations and reduce the cognitive load of the test task and, as a result, improve item processing. Based on a study by Saß, Wittwer, Senkbeil and Köller (2012), pictures in the stem of test items support the retrieval and application of relevant knowledge and pictures in the answer options increase the correctness in responding. Crisp and Sweiry (2006) highlight that particular features of a query such as diagrams or pictures are especially distinct and can come to regulate the mental representation that is shaped. In consequence, small changes to these salient features of a question may influence how the question is understood. It is believed that using images as a response format has implications for the validity of test items. Indeed, assessment with images can influence item difficulty and, to a lesser extent, item discrimination (Vorstenbosch, Klaassen, Kooloos, Bolhuis, & laan, 2013). Kordjazi (2012) opines that colorful and lively images enrich the learning processes of learners and make the task appear authentic. Moreover, images are totally believed to have a motivational role in the context of instructional texts (Peeck, 1993) and this, surely, can apply equally to exam questions. It is crucial for scholars to consider the influence on motivation, confidence, and self-esteem if they apply inappropriate instruments to test students' knowledge. It is necessary to look for appropriate test formats and to get the best reply from students (Gipps, 1994; Danili & Reid, 2006).

Messick (1984) reminds that a learner's competence may not be disclosed in either classroom or test performance due to personal or incidental elements that impact behavior. Thus, following the leading research on learning theories in addition to understanding the psychological processes that are responsible for learning can provide constructing information to develop tests that cater for language students with different learning styles. Bahar (1999) reports that divergent students perform better in all cases compared to convergent students. The reason is not unrelated to the test format. To Bahar (1999), when a person is thinking over at the relationship between students' performance in any given subject and their thinking styles, the type of testing technique used should be mentioned owing to the fact that a particular type of assessment may favor a particular type of cognitive style. Cognitive styles, indubitably, impact the

personality of the students, and influence the psychological behaviors that show how students apprehend, interpret and react to the pedagogic situation (Fatt, 2000).

For the language teacher, the findings of the current research may direct them to consider deeply and critically those parts of the syllabi that are in need of enrichment or revision. Moreover, the findings can also guide them to improve their teaching styles to suit to the learners' learning and thinking styles and branch out vocabulary-related activities as well as methods of teaching new words to guarantee the learning success. Hemisphericity-balanced people, says Leaver (1986), perform well as learners of foreign languages. So, developing both hemispheres of the brain through diversified teaching activities and experiences should not be given a miss in the class for "it is now believed that the dominance of one hemisphere over another is essentially the result of learning and mental exercise, not an inherent quality" (Munzert, 1980, p. 42).

In brief, assessment is not a simple process. So, it is well-recommended to use as wide as possible a combinations of test types and assessment methods in order to do justice to language learners (Brown & Hudson, 1998). Critical language testing, Shohamy (2001) says, is in favor of the use of multiple testing methods for assessing a person's knowledge because it is humane. Testing practices should support human needs rather than frustrate them (Danili & Reid, 2006). Awareness-raising is a necessity. As Shohamy (2000) aptly puts it, research in the field of language teaching must warn teachers as testers of the problematic areas for examinees so that tests are revised for the sake of test fairness.

Overall, there are many ethical issues in regard to test formats that need to be taken seriously and critically to ensure an advantageous impact on teaching and testing practices. It must also be borne in mind that assessment may unthinkingly comply with a distinct set of personal traits in the individual. Therefore, test results can mirror possession of such traits in addition to capabilities in the individual, assert Danili and Reid (2006).

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Zahra Kordjazi is a Ph.D. candidate in Applied Linguistics in Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Mashhad, Iran. Her major research interests include: social semiotics, gender studies, image-based research, multimodality, and sociolinguistics.

Behzad Ghonsooly is a professor in the Department of English, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Mashhad, Iran. His main research interests are language testing, ESP, and translation studies.

Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

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Journal of Language Teaching and Research (JLTR) is a scholarly peer-reviewed international scientific journal published bimonthly, focusing on theories, methods, and materials in language teaching, study and research. It provides a high profile, leading edge forum for academics, professionals, consultants, educators, practitioners and students in the field to contribute and disseminate innovative new work on language teaching and research.

JLTR invites original, previously unpublished, research and survey articles, plus research-in-progress reports and short research notes, on both practical and theoretical aspects of language teaching, learning, and research. These areas include, but are not limited to, the following topics:

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- Classroom-centered research
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